

International Handbook of
**Research and Development of
Giftedness and Talent**

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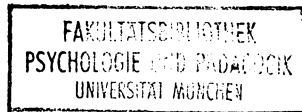
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Contents

	Foreword — HOWARD GARDNER	xi
	Preface	xv
PART I	HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVES AND PERENNIAL ISSUES RELATED TO GIFTEDNESS AND TALENT	
	History of Giftedness and “Gifted Education” in World Perspective ABRAHAM J. TANNENBAUM	3
	National/State Policies Regarding Education of the Gifted A. HARRY PASSOW	29
PART II	CONCEPTIONS AND DEVELOPMENT OF GIFTEDNESS AND TALENT	
	Structural Tendencies and Issues of Research on Giftedness and Talent KURT A. HELLER	49
	Constructs and Models Pertaining to Exceptional Human Abilities FRANÇOYS GAGNÉ	69
	Developmental Theories and Giftedness FRANZ J. MÖNKS and EMANUEL J. MASON	89
	Genetic Influence on Cognitive Ability LEE A. THOMPSON and ROBERT PLOMIN	103
	Brain Research Related to Giftedness HANS-JÜRGEN EYSENCK and PAUL T. BARRETT	115
	Thinking Processes: Being and Becoming Gifted BRUCE M. SHORE and LANNIE S. KANEVSKY	133
	Longitudinal Studies of Giftedness: Investigating the Fulfillment of Promise RENA F. SUBOTNIK and KAREN D. ARNOLD	149
	Prodigies and Savants: What They Have to Tell Us about Giftedness and Human Cognition MARTHA J. MORELOCK and DAVID HENRY FELDMAN	161

PART III	IDENTIFICATION OF GIFTEDNESS AND TALENT	
	Procedures for Identifying Intellectual Potential in the Gifted: A Perspective on Alternative “Metaphors of Mind”	185
	ROBERT J. STERNBERG	
	Methodological Problems and Issues Concerning Identification	209
	ERNST A. HANY	
	Identification of Gifted and Talented Youth for Educational Programs	233
	JOHN F. FELDHUSEN and FATHI A. JARWAN	
	Giftedness in the Visual Arts and Music	253
	ELLEN WINNER and GAIL MARTINO	
	Indicators of High Ability in Young Children	283
	CHRISTOPH PERLETH, GERHARD LEHWALD and COLLEEN S. BROWDER	
	Acquiring Expertise: Determinants of Exceptional Performance	311
	WOLFGANG SCHNEIDER	
	Prediction of Excellence in School, University, and Work	325
	GÜNTER TROST	
PART IV	PROGRAMS AND PRACTICES OF NURTURING THE GIFTED AND TALENTED	
	Theories and Practices for Differentiated Education for the Gifted and Talented	339
	LEONORA M. COHEN and DONALD C. AMBROSE	
	Theory and Research on Curriculum Development for the Gifted	365
	JOYCE VANTASSEL-BASKA	
	Acceleration and Enrichment: The Context and Development of Program Options	387
	W. THOMAS SOUTHERN, ERIC D. JONES and JULIAN C. STANLEY	
	Instructional Strategies and Models for Gifted Education	411
	DAVID R. GEORGE	
	Strategies for Nurturing Verbal Talents in Youth: The Word as Discipline and Mystery	427
	ARNE E. TANGHERLINI and WILLIAM G. DURDEN	
	Programs and Strategies for Nurturing Talents/Gifts in Mathematics	443
	WILHELM WIECZERKOWSKI and TANIA M. PRADO	

Programs and Strategies for Nurturing Talents/Gifts in Science and Technology MICHAEL C. PYRYT, YURI P. MASHAROV and CHENGDE FENG	453
Nurturing the Talents of Exceptionally Gifted Individuals MIRACA U. M. GROSS	473
Leadership Education for the Gifted DOROTHY A. SISK	491
Identifying and Nurturing Gifted, Very Young Children NANCY M. ROBINSON	507
Nurturing Social–Emotional Development of Gifted Children JAMES T. WEBB	525
Nurturing the Moral Development of the Gifted ORNELLA DENTICI ANDREANI and ADRIANO PAGNIN	539
Programs and Strategies for Nurturing Creativity DONALD J. TREFFINGER, MARION R. SORTORE and JAMES A. CROSS, Jr	555
Administrative Issues in Organizing Programs for the Gifted BAN ENG GOH	569
Ability Grouping With Gifted and Talented Students: Research and Guidelines KAREN B. ROGERS and PIETER SPAN	585
After School Programs, Competitions, School Olympics, and Summer Programs DAVID GOLDSTEIN and HARALD WAGNER	593
Evaluation Programs and Procedures for Gifted Education: International Problems and Solutions CAROLYN M. CALLAHAN	605

PART V OTHER COMPONENTS OF NURTURING GIFTEDNESS AND TALENT

Teachers of the Gifted ALEXINIA YOUNG BALDWIN	621
Counseling Needs and Programs for the Gifted LINDA KREGER SILVERMAN	631
Underachieving Gifted Students NAVA BUTLER-POR	649

Parents and Families in Nurturing Giftedness and Talent JOAN FREEMAN	669
Issues, Problems and Programs in Nurturing the Disadvantaged and Culturally Different Talented MARY M. FRASIER	685
Reconceptualizing Gender Differences in Achievement Among the Gifted DAVID LUBINSKI, CAMILLA P. BENBOW and CHERYL E. SANDERS	693
Gifted Handicapped: A Desultory Duality CAROLYN YEWCHUK and JUDY L. LUPART	709
Mentoring and Role Modeling Programs for the Gifted RACHEL ZORMAN	727
Nurturing Giftedness in Non-school Educative Settings — Using the Personnel and Material Resources of the Community NETTA MAOZ	743

**PART VI EXAMPLES OF COUNTRY EFFORTS, POLICIES,
PROGRAMS AND ISSUES**

Current Status of Gifted Education in the United States JAMES J. GALLAGHER	755
Right to Education for the Gifted in Canada LÉONARD J. GOGUEN	771
Programs and Practices for Identifying and Nurturing Giftedness and Talent in Europe KLAUS K. URBAN and ANDRZEJ SEKOWSKI	779
Programs and Practices for Identifying and Nurturing Giftedness and Talent in Asia (Outside the Mainland of China) WU-TIEN WU and SEOKEE CHO	797
Programs and Practices for Identifying and Nurturing Giftedness and Talent in the People’s Republic of China ZHA ZIXIU	809
Programs and Practices for Identifying and Nurturing Giftedness and Talent in Australia and New Zealand EDDIE J. BRAGGETT	815
Programs and Practices for Identifying and Nurturing Giftedness and Talent in Africa CEDRIC A. TAYLOR	833

Programs and Practices for Identifying and Nurturing Giftedness and Talent in Central and South America	849
EUNICE M. L. SORIANO DE ALENCAR and SHEYLA BLUMEN	

Advocacy as a Force in the Education of the Gifted and Talented	865
NORAH MAIER	

PART VII PRESENT AND FUTURE OF EDUCATION OF THE GIFTED AND TALENTED

Research and Education of the Gifted in the Year 2000 and Beyond	883
A. HARRY PASSOW, FRANZ J. MÖNKS and KURT A. HELLER	

Notes on Contributors	905
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Author Index	921
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Subject Index	953
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Structural Tendencies and Issues of Research on Giftedness and Talent

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Introduction

During the last few decades a change has been taking place in the concepts of giftedness and talent as they are featured in research literature. Whereas until ten or fifteen years ago the field was dominated by one-dimensional giftedness concepts and corresponding IQ measurements, a large majority of more recent models are based on multidimensional or multifactorial psychometric concepts of intelligence—e.g., Gardner's (1985) theory of multiple intelligences—or on approaches from information theory and cognitive psychology—e.g., Sternberg's (1985) triarchic intelligence model. Other models still include elements from socialization theories, e.g., Mönks' (Mönks et al., 1986) extended Renzulli model. Furthermore, I agree with Sternberg's demand that (1990, p. 96): "We need to think in terms not only of multiple components of giftedness, but (also) of multiple kinds of giftedness".

"Giftedness" is thus defined as the individual cognitive and motivational potential for—as well as social and cultural conditions of—achieving excellent performances in one or more area such as in mathematics, languages, or artistic areas with regard to difficult theoretical vs practical tasks (Heller, 1989, 1992). "Talent" can be defined as a domain-specific gift or ability, e.g., "scientific ability" as the competence for scientific expertise in the fields of psychology, medical sciences, or physics. However, the differentiation suggested by Gagné (1985) between "giftedness" and "talent" is infrequently maintained in the literature. In many languages—as in German—both concepts are used more or less synonymously. For this reason, no semantic differentiation was insisted upon in this handbook between "giftedness" and "talent". When this makes sense in individual cases, the differentiation is explicated in that context. This also holds true for related terms, such as intelligence, creativity, or (high) ability, that are not independent of the theoretical basis in which they are found.

In addition, the definition of giftedness etc. is dependent on the intended use, for example, on the type and tasks of school programs, the aims of enrichment vs

acceleration programs, on empirical investigation goals and theory-based hypotheses, etc. Moreover, the term "giftedness" or "talent" is influenced by social norms and considerations (Tannenbaum, 1983, 1991; see also Sternberg in this handbook, Chapter 11). Last but not least, the definition of giftedness will be determined by the choice of measurement instruments, i.e., by the operationalization of the experimental variables examined (cf. Feldhusen & Jarwan in this handbook, chapter 13).

A differentiation between descriptive and explanatory terms is also relevant when looking at research strategies. Whereas the *descriptive* term is linked to the psychometric paradigm, the *explanatory* term needs an experimental design in the cognitive science paradigm. For example, on the one hand the psychometric intelligence structure theories enrich the ability phenomenology substantially, on the other hand the cognitive psychological (experimental) studies make it possible to explain the mechanism of cognitive processes and their individual sources. This also corresponds to the various identification strategies: status vs process diagnosis (see Part III of this handbook). Both descriptive and explanatory terms are necessary for theoretically and practically efficient conceptualizations and measures.

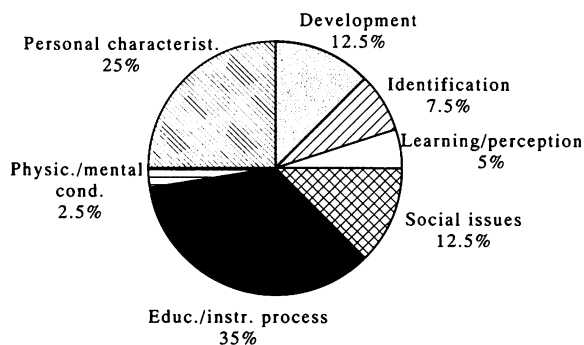


FIGURE 1. Content analysis of the WCGT conference proceedings: Percentages of the main topics 1975–1991.

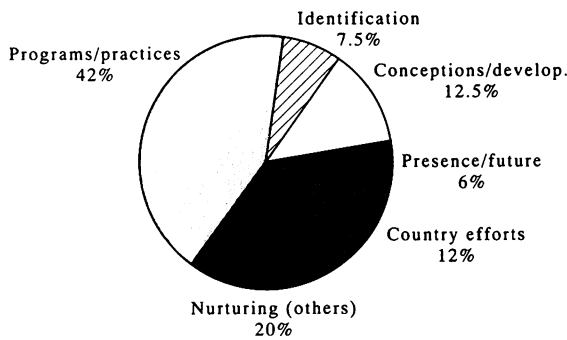


FIGURE 2. Percentages of the main topics of the WCGT conference proceedings (1975-1991) according to the structure of this international handbook.

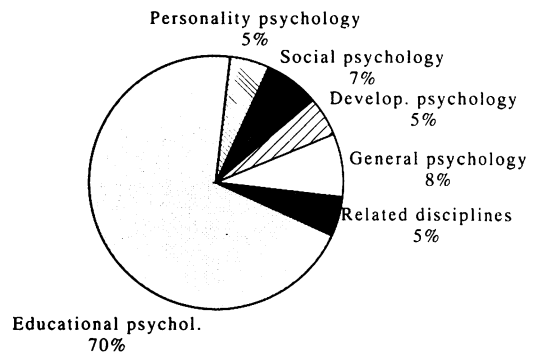


FIGURE 3. Classification of the papers published in the WCGT conference proceedings (1975-1991) according to psychological subdisciplines.

International Trends and Topics of Recent Research on Giftedness and Talent

The state of the art of research on giftedness and talent to be presented here is based on content analyses of (a) the previously published nine volumes of proceedings from the World Council for Gifted and Talented Children (WCGT) and (b) four or six relevant field journals. For more details see Heller and Menacher (1992) and Heller (1993a). Supplementary to this, additional journal analyses and literature searches by Pyryt (1988), Rogers (1989) and Carter and Swanson (1990) are reported.

The conference articles from the WCGT since 1975 are shown in Fig. 1. The first of the biennial WCGT conferences was in 1975. The articles are classified according to seven main topics. It becomes apparent that the categories "Educational/Instructional Processes and Programming" with a median of 35% and "Personal Characteristics of G/T" with a median of 25% have the most entries, relatively speaking. These are followed by the categories "Development" and "Social Issues" with 12.5% each. An additional 7.5% of the published articles are concerned with "Identification" problems, 5% with "Learning and Perception" and only 2.5% with "Physical and Mental Conditions" (median of each calculated from the nine previously published conference proceedings). This picture does not change much if we redefine the categories somewhat. If one prefers to use the structural concept from this handbook, then we find the division as shown in Fig. 2. Once again, we find a clear dominance in the area "Education and Nurturing Problems" (see Fig. 2).

The following analysis results are very informative about the psychological subdisciplines which contributed to the WCGT conference proceedings: Approximately 70% of the contributions stem from Educational Psychology (including Education); 7% of the topics are Social Psychological Problems of giftedness. Develop-

mental Psychological contributions and Individual Differences are each represented in 5% of the contributions and an additional 5% are from related disciplines (e.g., Sociology or Psychiatry); cf. Fig. 3. Thus, there is an emphasis on applied topics in conference proceedings.

This impression is confirmed in the analysis results presented in Fig. 4. The 20% theoretical and only 5% basic research (mainly experimental) contributions can be contrasted with 20% databased (empirical) studies in the sense of applied research as well as 55% more or less related to gifted education in practice (cf. Fig. 4). The WCGT conferences mainly meet practical needs in gifted education. Real research contributions, i.e., those based on hypotheses, make up approximately one quarter of all conference papers. An even smaller percentage of theoretical papers can be added to this. But hardly a third of the contributions would meet the usual scientific standards. This estimation holds true when the category "Theoretical Papers" includes not only "Review and Survey" articles, but also "Opinion Papers".

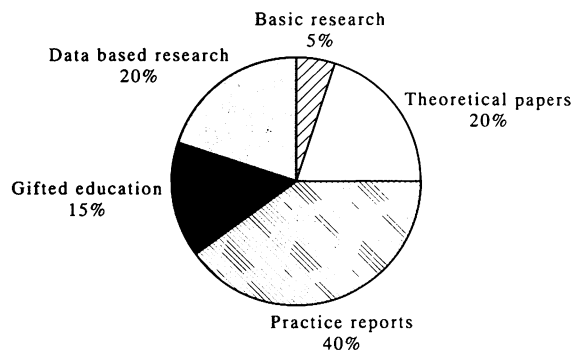


FIGURE 4. Classification of the papers published in the WCGT conference proceedings (1975-1991) according to research vs practice reports.

TABLE 1
Age Groups and Sample Sizes in the Data Based
Contributions to the WCGT Conference Proceedings
(1975–1991)

Age groups	3%	preschool
	13%	primary education
	45%	elementary/secondary education (grades 4–8)
	23%	later secondary education (grades 9–12)
	3%	higher education
	13%	adulthood
Sample sizes	42%	$n =$ under 100
	42%	$n =$ 101–500
	10%	$n =$ 501–1000
	6%	$n =$ 1001 and more

When we analyze the databased studies which make up about 25% of all contributions in the WCGT conference proceedings according to methodological aspects, then we obtain the following information: The most frequently studied group are students from grades 4 to 8 or 12, with mainly small to mid-sized samples (Table 1). With 71%, the interview is clearly the preferred instrument of analysis. Cross-sectional designs were used in 67% of the studies, whereas longitudinal studies are found—as expected—in only 10%. This is probably due to the high demands on such studies (Table 2).

The type of research represented in the proceedings corresponds somewhat with the results from Pyryt (1988), Rogers (1989) and Carter and Swanson (1990), who undertook content analysis of relevant journals. Here, too, the more practically oriented applied research dominated, generally using more simple statistical analysis methods. There is an enormous need to “catch up” in the area of experimental research on giftedness.

This has already been emphasized by the information presented in Figs 3 and 4 above. One rapidly forms the assumption that the research represented by the WCGT conference proceedings is heavily influenced by educational psychologists, educational scientists, and teachers. These individuals are, of course, more interested in solving practical problems of gifted education, programming, and identifying, counseling and guidance problems than in the development of scientific methods for identification and program evaluation or even theoretical questions and developing models.

With regard to a theoretically based identification and nurturance practice as is repeatedly called for by experts (e.g., Gallagher, 1985; Shore, 1986), a greater representation at conferences by researchers from various disciplines is desirable and useful. Before I make a few recommendations about this, the most important journals in the field should be analyzed with regard to their content. According to most recent literature searches by Hany and Hany (1992, p. 237)—source: Psyclit 1986–1991; descriptor “gifted”—the following

journals have the most frequent contributions on giftedness (the total frequencies are in brackets): *Gifted Child Quarterly* (126), *Roeper Review* (119), *Journal for the Education of the Gifted* (88), *Gifted Education International* (22) as well as *Psychology in the Schools* (22) and *Journal of Counseling and Development* (21). In our content analysis, we therefore considered the first four journals supplemented by two others: *Exceptional Children* and the *Journal of Educational Psychology*. These two journals were selected as a “control group”, since they also publish articles about giftedness but do not specialize in this field and also contain articles on other topics. The most recent 10 or 12 volumes were used in the content analysis; we only had the *Roeper Review* volumes from the year 1987 to present available to us. In order to be able to compare the articles published in the journals with those in the conference volumes from the WCGT proceedings, we also used the categories seen in Figs 1 and 2. The most important results are summarized in Figs 5–8. Here the following questions were asked:

(1) Which topics are most frequently dealt with in the giftedness-related journals?

(2) Are there differences between the four journals that are giftedness related and the two journals in the control group?

(3) What types of articles appear in these journals?

(4) Furthermore, these findings are to be compared with the results from the WCGT conference proceedings analysis. The question which interests us the most, is whether the results to be found in the WCGT proceedings on the situation of research in the field of giftedness can be confirmed by this second content analysis of the most important journals in the field.

Independent of the category system used for analyzing the journals, the following picture is found (cf. Figs 5 and 6): The topics “Gifted Education” and “Programs and Nurturing” are most frequently represented in all four giftedness-related journals (between 30% and 60%). The topics “Characteristics of the G/T” are relatively more frequently dealt with in JEG (30%) and GCQ (28%). The corresponding values in RR are (21.5%) and GEI (19%). “Social Issues” is most frequently found in GCQ (13%); “Identification” makes

TABLE 2
Measurement Techniques and Research Designs of the Data
Based Contributions to the WCGT Conference Proceedings
(1975–1991)

Measurement techniques	71%	interview
	5%	observation
	19%	(quasi) experiment with intervention
	5%	(quasi) experiment without intervention
Research designs	23%	single-age group
	67%	cross-sectional
	10%	longitudinal

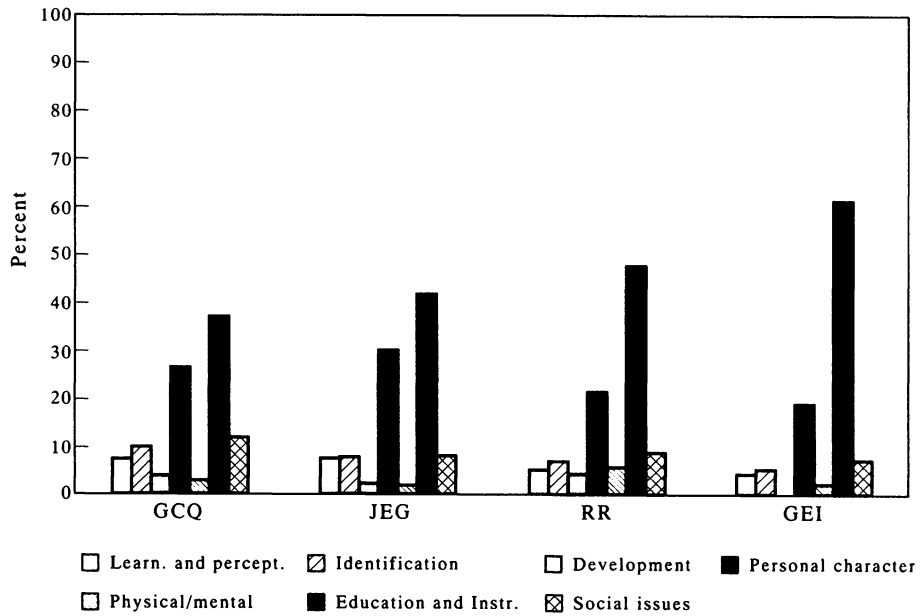


FIGURE 5. Percentages of the main topics in the four analyzed gifted field journals (1980–1991).

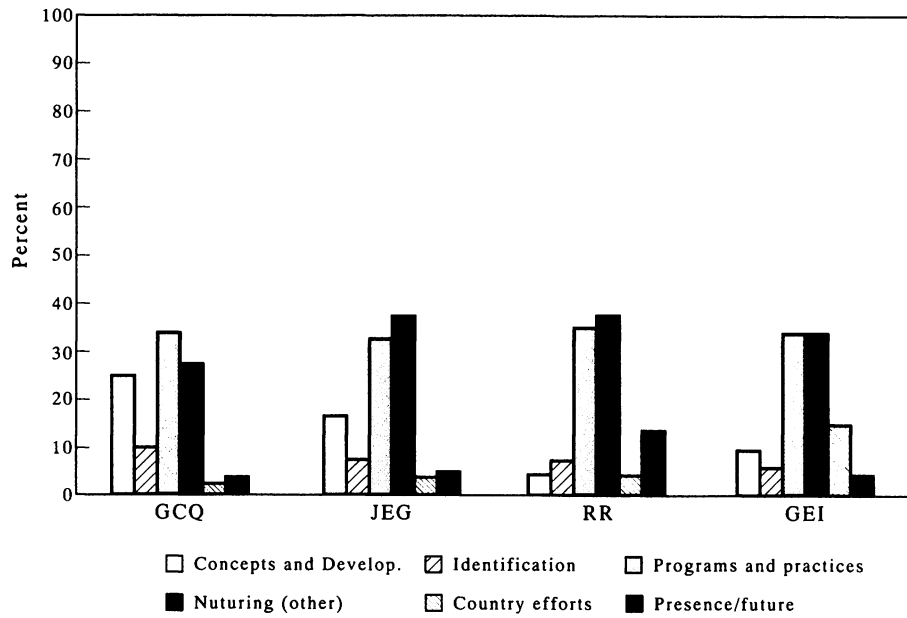


FIGURE 6. Percentages of the main topics in the four analyzed gifted field journals (1980–1991) according to the structure of this international handbook.

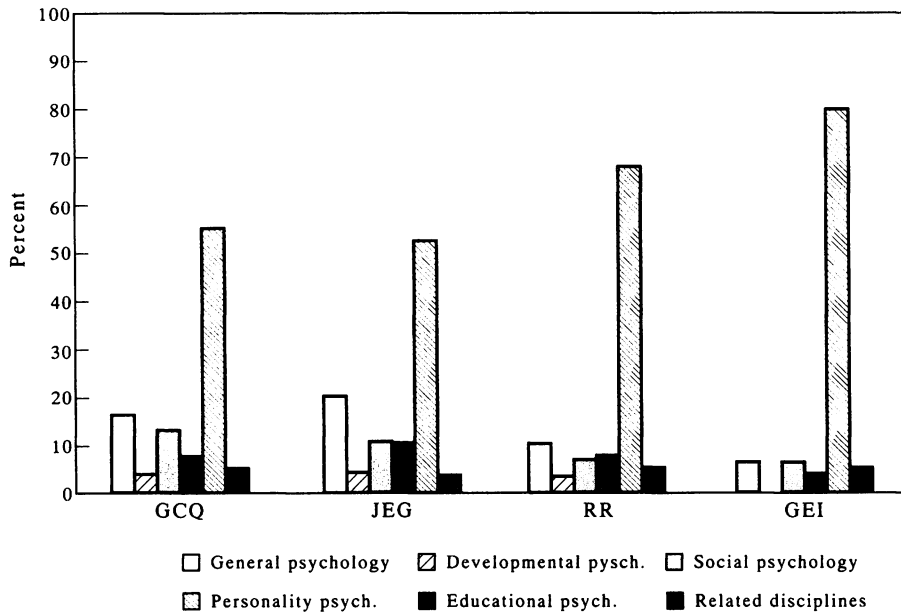


FIGURE 7. Classification of the articles published in the four analyzed gifted field journals (1980–1991) according to psychological subdisciplines.

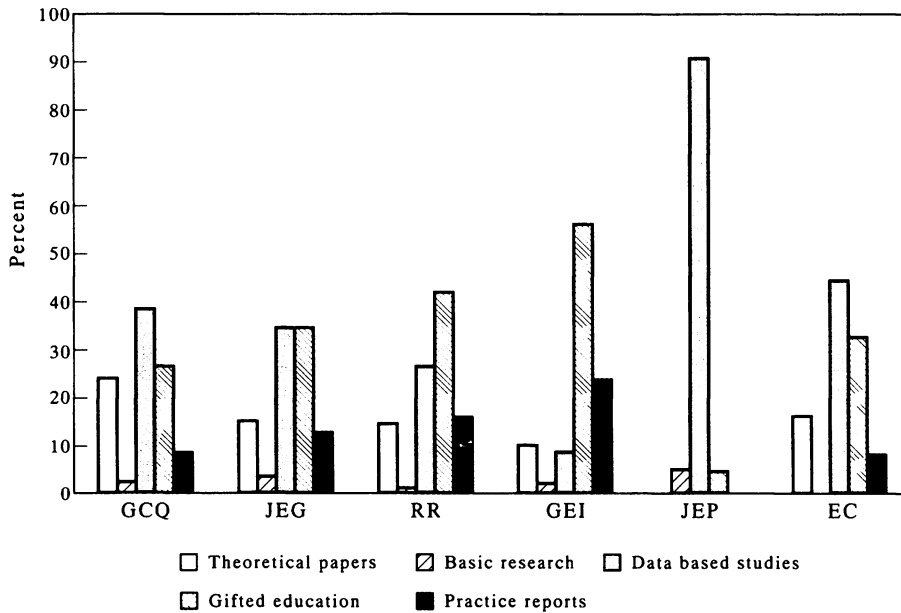


FIGURE 8. Classification of the articles published in all (six) analyzed journals (1980–1991) according to research and practice.

up 7.5% each in GCQ and JEG. The percentages for "Learning and Perception" as well as "Development" are astonishingly low in all journals (Fig. 5). Solely, the broader category "Concepts and Development" obtained higher values in GCQ (27%) and JEG (16%); (Fig. 6). These results generally confirm the findings from Rogers (1989) and Carter and Swanson (1990).

If one compares the individual journal profiles, GCQ and JEG on the one hand, and RR and GEI on the other hand can be joined in more homogeneous subgroups. The obvious emphasis of both RR and GEI is the category "Gifted Education", followed at a clear distance by the topic "Characteristics of the G/T". The profiles of GCQ and JEG show a more balanced content structure. This picture is even clearer when we analyze the contributing psychological subdisciplines (cf. Fig. 7). Indirectly, one can conclude from this that the profile in GCQ and JEG (cf. Pyryt, 1988; Vockell & Conard, 1992) is more strongly research oriented and in GEI and RR more practically oriented.

The journals chosen as control group, EC and JEP in Table 3, have a more balanced content structure as compared with GCQ and JEG even when using the identical categorial system. It should be pointed out, however, that the relationship of giftedness-related articles to the total number of articles is negligibly small in the profiles of the control group journals (percentages in brackets). The number of contributions found by using the descriptor "gifted" in PsycLit 1986–1991 is 14 in JEP, 10 of which are all to be found in the year 1990 (special topics issue). Between 1986 and 1989, and in 1991, absolutely no relevant contributions were published (Hany & Hany, 1992, p. 237).

Thus we again see the need for special journals in the field of giftedness and talent. On the other hand, this specialization of publications makes *interdisciplinary* work more difficult. This is reflected in extremely low quotas of giftedness-related articles in the journal control group (see Table 3, percentages in brackets). In order to recognize the research percentages of the analyzed journals better, the following categorial system was used for evaluation:

- (a) theoretical papers,
- (b) contributions of basic research,
- (c) contributions of applied research,
- (d) papers concerning gifted education,
- (e) practical reports.

The information from Fig. 8 can be summarized as follows:

Reports of databased research are represented by about 40% in GCQ and JEG; the results from RR (27.5%) and GEI (10.5%) show definitely lower median values. This corresponds to a research proportion of approximately one-third of all articles which were published in one of the four journals in the field of giftedness during the last decade. This also corresponds relatively well to the content analysis of the literature on giftedness by Rogers (1989). Rogers considered 2680 citations

during the period from 1975 to 1986 (searches of the ERIC, ECER, PSYC, and Child Development Abstracts; descriptors "gifted" and "creative"). These were evaluated in 15 categories; the results are presented in Table 4.

Our agreement in the analysis of GCQ was even better with the findings of Pyryt (1988), where we found 39.5% of the articles of applied and 3.5% of the articles of basic research whereas Pyryt found 39.7% research articles—abstracted in the ERIC system over an eight-year period—for GCQ. The almost negligible percentage of *basic* research articles in all four analyzed gifted journals also agreed with the values found by Pyryt (1988) with JEG and GCQ (about 3%) achieving the highest values. According to this, multivariate statistical techniques or more complex designs are employed relatively infrequently.

Rogers (1989) as well as Carter and Swanson (1990) came to very similar conclusions; see Tables 5 and 6. We calculated a median of 24% (quasi) experiments in the WCGT conference papers published in the proceedings; see Table 2 above. In contrast, the percentage of the databased research articles in the two journals of the control group are much higher. In the JEP more than 95% of all publications were databased (cf. Fig. 8, above).

Complementary to this, the GEI has the relatively highest percentage of gifted education or practice-related publications, followed by RR. The lowest quota is found in JEP; however, one should not forget the quite low percentage of giftedness related articles in total in this journal.

The content analyses of both the WCGT conference proceedings (1975–1991) and the most important journals in the field of giftedness and talent during the same period showed a number of similar results. The most important can be summarized in three statements.

(1) The main focus of the recent literature in the field of giftedness and talent is on practical problems of *gifted education* and related questions.

Half of the articles published in JEG and GCQ and even two thirds of those published in GEI and RR and those papers published in the WCGT conference proceedings contain information about practical problems of educational and instructional issues, programming, and nurturing the gifted/talented. In contrast, the minimal consideration of basic research questions and those theoretical-innovative considerations related to these is remarkable. There have been repeated warnings in the literature about the disadvantages for both applied research and for improving the practice of gifted education, e.g., from Gallagher (1986), Feldhusen (1989) or Passow (1989). Obviously, not much has changed with regard to this recently. The summary made by Carter and Swanson (1990) at the end of their analysis of the most frequently cited gifted journal articles since the Marland Report holds true without limitation for the results presented above. I quote:

TABLE 3
Percentages of Main Topics in the Journals of the Control Group (JEP, EC)

		<i>Journal of Ed. Psych. (JEP)</i> 1980-1991		<i>Exceptional Children (EC)</i> 1980-1991	
I	Learning and Perception	14.5%	(0.5%)	12.0%	(0.4%)
	Identification of G/T	9.5%	(0.2%)	4.0%	(0.1%)
	Development of G/T	5.0%	(0.1%)	16.0%	(0.5%)
	Personal Characteristics	47.5%	(1.0%)	28.0%	(0.9%)
	Physical/Mental Condition	—	—	8.0%	(0.3%)
	Educ./Instructional Processes and Programming	9.5%	(0.2%)	24.0%	(0.8%)
	Social Context and Influence	14.5%	(0.3%)	8.0%	(0.3%)
II	Conceptions and Development	28.5%	(0.5%)	24.9%	(0.8%)
	Identification of G/T	14.5%	(0.3%)	16.0%	(0.5%)
	Programs/Practices of Nurturing G/T	5.0%	(0.1%)	28.0%	(0.9%)
	Other Components of Nurturing the G/T	47.5%	(1.0%)	20.0%	(0.6%)
	National Efforts, Policies, and Programs, etc.	—	—	4.0%	(0.1%)
	Presence and Future of G/T Education	5.0%	(0.1%)	8.0%	(0.3%)

I = Classification according to the categories in Figure 5.

II = Classification according to the categories in Figure 6.

“One of the most perplexing findings from this study is the infrequent use of psychological theory to study the concept of giftedness or to develop programming for the gifted. Certainly theories on intelligence/cognition (e.g., Davidson & Sternberg, 1984; Flavell, 1977; Shore, 1986, 1987; Sternberg, 1981, 1985) and human development (e.g., Bullinger & Chatillon, 1983; Carter & Ormrod, 1982; Horowitz & O’Brian, 1985; Janos & Robinson, 1985) can contribute much to our understanding and can lead to the improvement of practical concerns that have continued since the Marland Report (e.g., identi-

fication procedures, programming approaches, and curriculum development)” (Carter & Swanson, 1990, p. 122).

New recognitions with regard to the research content are, of course, also dependent on new methodological innovations. We call for not only more multivariate statistical techniques and complex designs, but also longitudinal studies instead of the usual cross-sectional designs. A current overview of longitudinal studies in the field can be found in Subotnik and Arnold (1993); also see chapter 9 in this handbook.

TABLE 4
Category Frequencies and Percentages for Research and Non-Research Based Publications According to Rogers (1989, p. 81)

Category	Research Based Publications		Non-Research Based Publications		Total
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	
Computers/technology	2	—	37	2	39
Teacher perceptions of students	43	5	115	6	158
Student perceptions of teacher curriculum quality	18	2	327	18	345
Acceleration	8	—	23	1	31
Program spending/planning	32	4	180	10	212
Females/career counseling	25	3	88	5	113
Social/emotional development and family relationships	98	10	253	14	351
Cognitive characteristics	225	29	114	6	339
Identification/testing	157	18	150	8	307
Creativity	33	4	136	8	169
Early childhood	4	—	31	2	35
Program treatment	163	19	217	12	380
Special populations	40	4	40	2	80
Educational strategies	11	1	62	3	73
Teacher/training qualifications	11	1	37	2	48

TABLE 5

Statistical Techniques Used in Gifted Child Quarterly (CGQ) Articles (1980–1987) According to Pyryt (1988, p. 10)

Technique	Frequency
Descriptive Statistics Summary	23
Qualitative	2
Chi-Square	16
Bivariate Correlation	22
Kruskal-Wallis	1
T-Test	21
ANOVA	30
ANCOVA	8
MANOVA	7
MANCOVA	3
Discriminant Analysis	4
Canonical Analysis	6
Multiple Regression Analysis	6
Factor Analysis	6

In addition, the cooperation of researchers and practitioners needs to be increased. Once again, I quote Carter and Swanson (1990, p. 122):

“These efforts should focus on (a) identifying key issues and concepts, (b) synthesizing the literature around those issues and concepts, (c) conducting meaningful, theory based research, and (d) extending and elaborating research findings to both theoretical and practical settings”.

The interaction of theory and practice in the area of nurturance of the gifted was reduced by Julian Stanley (cf. George et al., 1979) to the well-known formula of three Ds: Discovery, Description, and Development. In addition see Mönks and Heller (1993).

(2) Basic and applied research in the field of giftedness and talent should be supported by *interdisciplinary approaches*. This should provide information about the developmental conditions surrounding giftedness and talent and also improved solutions to practical problems, such as identification and nurturance of giftedness inside and outside school.

Interdisciplinary cooperation in the area of research on giftedness is primarily necessary between educational specialists and psychologists, but also within these disciplines, e.g., between the various psychological subdisciplines, as they are presented in Fig. 7. Above and beyond this, other related disciplines are called upon to cooperate, such as neuroscience, genetics and brain research, artificial intelligence or expertise research. As experience in other areas has shown, surprising theoretical insights can be obtained due to the change in perspective and sometimes different methodology in interdisciplinary cooperation. In addition creative solutions to practical problems can be expected. Although the existence of specialized journals seems to be quite justified based on the content analyses (and their resulting in greater research vs practical emphases meeting current interests), one should not lose sight of the

danger of isolation from other related disciplines and journals. The interdisciplinary cooperation is more or less blocked rather than increased by such an approach. Perhaps we should consider how the contributions from other disciplines can be more frequently won for gifted journals. A further possibility is to publish interdisciplinary special issues, etc. In addition, the program of the WCGT conferences should include interdisciplinary symposia or workshops so that the research on giftedness does not become too isolated from important related disciplines, especially from the mainstream of psychological and educational research (cf. Jackson, 1993).

Furthermore, a close relationship with regard to information and experiences should be sought between researchers and practitioners. The demands sketched out here can most easily be met in interdisciplinary research groups. These should include especially qualified and research-oriented practitioners. Of course, alimentionation problems could interfere with this idea greatly. A national system like that recommended recently by the American National Research Center on the Gifted and Talented—at the University of Connecticut in Storrs—could be used as a model. Presently we do not know how well organizations, such as those primarily concerned with practical problems of identification and gifted education could deal with this kind of system. I am thinking here of the programs from the *Study of Mathematically Precocious Youth* (SMPY) or the *Center for the Advancement of Academically Talented Youth* (CTY) at the Johns Hopkins University in Baltimore (U.S.A.), the *Talent Identification Program* (TIP) at the Duke University in Durham (U.S.A.), the *Center for Gifted Education* at the University of Calgary (Canada), and the *Center for the Study of Giftedness* at the University of Nijmegen (The Netherlands). They can certainly stimulate the international scene in research on giftedness and talent.

(3) *Cross-cultural studies* emphasize not only the worldwide importance of research on giftedness and talent, but are also important for examining theoretical assumptions of universality or specific cultural influences on the development of giftedness and are thus also necessary.

TABLE 6

Research Design Types for All Citations 1975–1985 According to Rogers (1989, p. 83)

Design	n	%
(Quasi) experimental	46	5
Review of research/meta-analysis studies	81	9
Protocol, content, discourse analysis	29	4
Survey	114	13
Case study	144	17
Correlation/regression/disc. analysis	194	22
Causal-comparative	246	28
Factor analysis studies	16	2
Total	870	100

The degree to which development and socialization theory assumptions for explaining individual differences are actually universally valid, can only be determined by cross-cultural studies. There are already individual psychological approaches examining the relationship of culture or subculture and individual development of abilities (e.g., Haensly, Reynolds, & Nash, 1986; Csikszentmihalyi, 1988). Current studies in giftedness also seem to emphasize cultural influences on the development of creativity (Hany, 1993; Hany & Heller, 1993).

The research on creativity is unsatisfactory both in terms of measurement instruments and in its theoretical basis. This is probably due primarily to incorrect universality assumptions. This refers to the neglecting of domain-specific factors of giftedness and also cultural socialization conditions. In view of current research on creativity (cf. Weisberg, 1986; Simonton, 1988; Sternberg, 1988; Glover et al., 1989; Runco & Albert, 1990; Sternberg & Lubart, 1991), most of the previous training methods for increasing creativity can be considered obsolete. Innovations in creativity research and creativity nurturance as in other areas of gifted education are primarily to be expected (according, for example to Gardner, 1989) from cross-cultural studies and are substantiated by impressive examples (see also Winner & Martino in this handbook, chapter 14).

Psychometric Versus Cognitive Psychological Paradigms: Different Tasks and Functions

The current situation in the research on giftedness and talent is characterized by two contrasting paradigms: the psychometric and the cognitive science paradigm. This is especially apparent with respect to basic research. Both paradigms, however, should be viewed less as competing but rather in terms of how they complement each other. Whereas the psychometric structural theories or correlation studies, for example, greatly enrich the giftedness *phenomenology*, cognitive psychological (experimental) studies are expected to provide information about the mechanisms of cognitive *processes* and their individual causes. In the former case, the *descriptive* function dominates, and in the latter the *explanatory*. Thus, this corresponds to the differentiation in personality research to *nomothetic* (psychometric) versus *idiographic* (cognitive psychological) approaches. For new theoretical recognitions about high ability *and* for practical giftedness models we need both paradigms. This is documented by the various contributions in this handbook. For an overview of the various conceptions and models of giftedness, see the following chapter.

Despite this demand, it should not be overlooked that quantitative differences in the *psychometric* approach have thus far been better confirmed than qualitative differences in the idiographic or cognitive psychological approaches, i.e., qualitative differences in the learning and thinking of the gifted versus non-gifted individuals

(Jackson & Butterfield, 1986; Rogers, 1986; Waldmann & Weinert, 1990). Therefore, a scientifically elaborated ideal conception of giftedness is not yet available, although there are promising attempts (see chapter 10 of this volume). Whether or not the status quo can be positively rated is not clear. Still, the historical discussion of genius becomes superfluous when we consider the contemporary state of knowledge.

An additional misconception should be cleared up at this point. In the psychometric approach, not only one-dimensional definitions of giftedness are possible, i.e., the *g*-factor of intelligence (based on IQ), but also multidimensional conceptions of giftedness. An example of this is Gardner's (1985) Theory of Multiple Intelligences, Gagné's (1985, 1991) Differentiated Model of Giftedness and Talents or the Munich Model of Giftedness (Heller & Hany, 1986; Heller, 1991c; Perleth & Heller, 1993; Perleth, Sierwald, & Heller, 1993). In contrast to the usual practice of a single IQ value being used for identification (see the overview by Rost, 1991, or Tannenbaum, 1992, as well as chapter 1 of this volume), the necessity of a multifactorial or multidimensional or rather typological model of giftedness is recognized here in agreement with the majority of more recent concepts of giftedness. This demand holds not only for the theoretical conceptualization of giftedness but also for practical purposes of identification and education of gifted youth.

On the other hand, the influence of general ability on academic achievement, especially in grade school, should not be underestimated—as shown by Cronbach and Snow (1977), Thorndike (1985) or more recently Rost (1991). In recent studies on school, university or professional success predictions for gifted youth, the usefulness of multidimensional or typological concepts of giftedness could be proven (summarized e.g., in chapter 17 of this volume). At the secondary school age and in adulthood, differential approaches to identification with consideration of measurements of domain-specific demands have been proven to be much superior to single dimensional IQ definitions. The fact that identification of the gifted nevertheless often takes place in adolescence using IQ measures, is probably primarily due to less energy necessary for measurements with traditional IQ tests and not justified by any methodological arguments. The proven superiority of IQ tests over creativity tests cannot be used as an argument against considering creativity characteristics in the identification of the gifted as long as the combination of intelligence *and* creativity predictors leads to a better prognosis of outstanding achievement than an IQ test alone (Hany & Heller, 1991; see also chapter 11 in this volume). Above and beyond this, the usefulness of typological identification approaches must be emphasized with a view toward practical needs in gifted education in current literature (for an overview see chapters 12 and 13 as well as 18 of this volume). There is still no substitute for the psychometric approach for reliable and valid talent searches within the framework of enrichment courses

or for individual academic achievement predictions. This also holds true for developmental psychologically oriented longitudinal studies of giftedness (see chapter 9 of this volume).

However, purely psychometric identification procedures do have a number of obvious limitations. Interindividual differences in giftedness can be measured in this way, but this does not explain *how* they came into being. Such explanatory knowledge can only be obtained by means of cognitive psychological or rather experimental diagnostic strategies. In other words: Status diagnosis (psychometric) needs to be supplemented by process diagnostic (cognitive psychological, experimental) paradigms to provide theoretically and practically satisfactory information about gifted children and adolescents.

According to Facaoaru and Bittner (1987, p. 194), the following analytical units are characteristic for the research subject in the *cognitive psychological* paradigm:

Individual and developmental or age-related test achievement differences are not explained by global structural units or common achievement factors as within differential intelligence theories—i.e. by verbal or quantitative abilities—but rather through elementary process units such as information processing components. It is assumed that the so-called basic parameters of intelligence make up the individual thought processes. In Sternberg's component analysis, the speed of information processing, information selection and storage, the accessibility of available knowledge, etc. are taken into consideration. Corresponding taxonomies of cognitive components have been presented, for example, by Carroll (1976, 1981), Sternberg (1977, 1979, 1982, 1986), Rose (1980).

Whereas traditional intelligence theories within the *psychometric* paradigms study mental structures, the approaches to research of the gifted in the *cognitive psychological* paradigm study the mental components upon which the cognitive activities are based. The focus here is on the internal cognitive conditions and mechanisms as well as changes in the internal structure of knowledge, problem solving processes and thinking strategies, metacognitive competencies, etc.

The task division principle is typical of such component analyses. The well-known—and well-structured—intelligence test items are artificially divided into elementary components before they are again presented serially (Sternberg, 1977, 1986; Klix, 1983; van der Meer, 1985). As an alternative, test items can be employed together with successively presented information which is relevant for solving the problems (cf. Davidson & Sternberg, 1984; Davidson, 1986).

“In contrast to the traditional psychometric approaches where solely the number of test items

solved within a certain time period is counted up, within sequential information processing approaches, the speed (time necessary for each individual step in the solution process) and also the exactness (number of errors) and the course that problem solving takes (value of the independently produced intermediate solutions) are recorded. The individual steps are either recorded in writing or automatically using a computer simulation” (Facaoaru & Bittner, 1987, p. 195; free translation from German).

Waldmann and Weinert (1990), whose literature search provides a good overview of the current stand of research on thought processes of the gifted, expect the differential thought psychology to contribute heavily in the cognitive psychological paradigm to the development of theories in this context. A basic problem, however, is the extreme (inter- and intraindividual) variability of behavior in the gifted. A double risk results from this: unjustified generalizations versus inflationary model development, e.g., for explaining the problem solving behavior of gifted individuals. Waldmann and Weinert consider the development of a “theoretically well-founded, even if always provisional taxonomy of tasks and problem classes” to be an important task for future research from the general as well as differential psychological aspect. This cannot, however, be equated with a taxonomy of cognitive processes in problem solving. The enormous number of empirically identified cognitive processes makes it difficult to isolate task-invariant and non-domain-specific achievement predictors as was the long dominant research tradition. Waldmann and Weinert (1990, p. 179) believe that the flexibility of processes in problem solving is very great and that compensatory effects between various cognitive determinants are the rule rather than the exception.

“A basic problem of the psychometric approach was that similar and invariant ability patterns are postulated as independent of the giftedness quality (if one does not consider the theoretical variation of the differentiation hypothesis for the gifted). It is, however, certainly clear in the research tradition of the cognitive paradigm that higher thought processes play a decisive role in the explanation of exceptional abilities. One has to, therefore, cast doubt on the assumption that the research of giftedness is simply a specific variation of population-oriented differential cognitive psychology or whether it is not a search for specific structure and process characteristics of learning and achievement behavior in the gifted” (loc. cit.; free translation from German).

This again approaches the question of *qualitative* differences in the gifted vs non-gifted.

In an analogous fashion, more recent creativity research (e.g., Facaoaru, 1985) has been able to prove that both divergent and convergent thought processes are necessary for solving complex difficult problems—for example, in natural sciences and tech-

nology—in a creative way. This means that only the simultaneous employment of both divergent and convergent processes connected with adequate domain-specific knowledge increases problem-solving productivity (cf. Weisberg, 1986; Heller, 1991b, 1993b; Facaoaru, 1992). In addition to higher intelligence and the ability to use knowledge flexibly, Waldmann and Weinert (1990) claim that impulsive, fluid styles of thinking together with persistence and high intrinsic achievement motivation favor creative problem solving in demanding, challenging situations. In fact, more recent studies, primarily in the area of natural sciences, technological and mathematical giftedness, have been able to isolate a number of problem solving characteristics in the gifted that can be interpreted as *qualitatively* different from those in average individuals. For example, we can refer here to the experiments from Klix (1983) and van der Meer (1985) or Sternberg (1977, 1985, 1991). Linked to such cognitive psychological studies is the expectation that not only theoretically relevant explanatory knowledge will result from them, but also important information for the practice of raising and educating gifted individuals and nurturing the necessary knowledge of change.

Expert–Novice Paradigm, Cross-Cultural and Other Approaches in the Field of Giftedness Research

From a developmental psychological or instructional psychological perspective, it is especially interesting to see how the relatively general abilities and thinking competencies establish themselves. The learning processes necessary for this stretch over many years and are effected by many various internal (cognitive and motivational) and external (socialization and situational or context) variables. Because of these and possible compensatory effects, long-term predictions of outstanding achievement are difficult in early childhood (see chapters 15 and 27 in this volume).

In addition, the relative importance of *general* intellectual potential for explaining achievement variance decreases with age, and elaborated domain-specific knowledge bases for explaining expertise increase in importance. Long-term *individual* achievement predictions in childhood and adolescence with a certain degree of reliability are thus limited, i.e., to comparable situations. Modern knowledge psychology in the *expert–novice paradigm* is especially interested in those learning and knowledge acquisition processes which make it possible to achieve outstandingly in the sense of expertise. Accordingly, nurturance approaches for gifted students are thus directed less at ability constructs or predictors of giftedness in a narrower sense, and more at *learning* competencies. Some representatives of knowledge psychology (e.g., Gruber & Mandl, 1992) even suggest that one should not speak of the gifted but rather of experts, i.e., exchange expertise for the concept of giftedness. This would not

only take frequently neglected criteria problems from traditional intelligence research into consideration better than previously, but also approach more closely a social psychological definition of giftedness (e.g., Tannenbaum, 1983). On the other hand, a number of educational problems in the nurturance of giftedness, especially for so-called underachievers and gifted handicapped persons (cf. chapters 37 to 41 in this volume) would be mostly neglected in this approach. As useful as expertise research would appear to be in many cases, in other instances of fostering giftedness deficits become apparent.

New recognitions can be expected from expertise research, i.e., the comparison of beginners or novices with more experienced or expert individuals. This will primarily be found in the area of knowledge acquisition in *complex* domains which should compensate for a disadvantage of many ability-oriented (psychometric) studies. It is well-known that external or ecological validity is a major problem in measurements in the trait or factor approach. Expertise research could, thus, contribute to the description and analysis of domain-specific competencies in “natural”, complex demanding situations. At the same time, an attempt could be made to relate more closely various positions of learning and thought process research positions. Through the focus of learning theory questions about the *acquisition* of expertise and cognitive psychological *application* aspects on problem solving, they complement each other with regard to research on giftedness.

Empirical studies on the relationship of expertise and giftedness have been primarily carried out in the areas of music, sports and chess. For example, Gruber, Renkl, Schneider, and Kuhn (1992) examined the development of expertise in children and adolescents in a three-and-half year longitudinal study. In addition to the analysis of developmental courses in adolescent experts and novices in chess, predictors of various degrees of performance development were to be determined. Domain-specific short-term memory was measured. In addition, intelligence test values and results of biographical data were evaluated. The degree of expertise was defined by external criteria.

“The domain-specific memory performance from the first measurement was found to be a good predictor of unfavorable expertise development. It was well-suited to the identification of those who were identified during the first measurement as experts whose development would progress at a slow rate. It is probable that dispositional factors, such as memory capacity or intelligence, are responsible for the unfavorable expertise development. For the ‘entrance’ into an expert career, no person-specific predictors could be determined. In subjects who were novices at the first measurement and became experts, this was probably due to external experiences (e.g., entrance into a chess club based on corresponding peer relationships). . .

The superiority of practice-related variables versus

dispositional variables can be interpreted in two ways: On the one hand, it is possibly the expression of a *compensation* through practice comprehensible, which lets the expertise development appear to be independent of disposition when a certain degree of expertise has been achieved. On the other hand, one can express some doubt about the *validity* of measuring dispositional factors" (Gruber et al., 1992, p. 67; free translation from German).

The latter interpretation probably holds especially true for complex tasks or areas. For the initial explanation, which can utilize corresponding results of validity studies on school success predictions (Heller, Rosemann, & Steffens, 1978; Heller, 1984, 1991a), one should not overlook the confounding of cognitive learning abilities with learning activities. As a whole, representatives from expertise research seem to tend to underestimate the role of intellectual abilities in knowledge acquisition. The attempt is frequently made to support this with inadequately domain-specific intelligence test results. On the other hand, believers in the psychometric concepts of giftedness may be in danger of underestimating non-intellectual and situational prerequisites for learning. In this way, both paradigms can complement each other. An extensive valuation of the expertise approach as well as a detailed presentation of various methodological problems can be found in chapter 16 of this handbook.

With few exceptions (e.g. Amabile, 1983; Tannenbaum, 1983, 1991), *social psychological* aspects have been greatly neglected in the conceptualization of giftedness. This theoretical deficit is related to the psychometric research tradition where status diagnostically determined test scores (e.g., IQ scores) are considered to be—relative to corresponding (age) groups—invariant measures across the life span. Modern cognitive component approaches are also affected by this individualistic misinterpretation according to Waldmann and Weinert (1990). Cross-cultural cognitive psychological research provides, however, enough proof for the interaction hypothesis. According to this, personality characteristics as well as giftedness continually need to be seen as a product of interaction between individual factors and social-cultural determinants.

Attempts to describe such interaction processes need to include not only cognitive and non-cognitive (motivational) competencies, but also individuals' social abilities. These make it possible for a person to activate a potential gift in concrete social situations—particularly in the family, school and peer group (see chapters 4 and 5 in this volume). On the other hand, these activities are influenced by the quality of the learning environment. The development of corresponding systemic models of giftedness should be a rewarding research task. From a practical standpoint, the newly developed pentagonal model from Sternberg (chapter 11 in this volume) is of particular interest.

Cross-cultural studies cannot only provide important

information about social and cultural influences on the development of giftedness as well as nurturing and restraining socialization factors about gifted children and adolescents. Cross-cultural studies are also indispensable for examining the universality assumptions of many theories.

Cross-cultural research approaches to giftedness research can be expected to provide information about various cultural influences on individual developmental and educational processes (cf. Eckensberger & Krewer, 1990). This goal is to be achieved by specific research strategies making it defined not by its object but by its method (Petzold, 1992). Three comparative forms are relevant (a) cross-national, (b) cross-cultural, and (c) cross-societal. In the present context, cross-cultural studies are of interest. The systematic comparison of psychological variables or results obtained in various cultural conditions should help to identify culturally caused behavioral differences in individual development. This is a main problem in empirical cross-cultural research. Based on such research designs, universality assumptions of relevant developmental, educational and/or learning/instructional theories can be examined. This is something that Wilhelm Wundt emphasized at the turn of the century in his ethnological psychology.

This is also the approach taken by modern so-called *etic* (from *phonetic*) approaches in cross-cultural research on the universality of human behavior characteristics (universalism hypothesis). In contrast to this, the so-called *emic* approach (derived from *phonemic*) tries to determine cultural socialization influences within particular cultures (culture-relativism hypothesis). Corresponding culture-specific and valid measurement instruments which are also culture-fair make it difficult to really compare cultures. Thus, in more recent ecological psychological models (e.g., Berry, 1980), an attempt was made to overcome the dichotomy between "emic" and "etic" in an integrative conception (cf. Petzold, 1992, pp. 311–312).

Comparative cultural studies can provide new recognitions about social-cultural conditions in the development and nurturance of gifted children and adolescents because they force us to change our perspective. This could increase the variety and variance of nurturing ideas. This is not only of practical use, but tolerance and understanding of other cultures can be increased by cross-cultural research cooperation (Gardner, 1989).

To avoid or remove undesirable differences in the development of giftedness, both from the competence and performance points of view, a corresponding knowledge of change is necessary. This grows from the explanatory knowledge as it is obtained in experimental or quasi-experimental studies. For understanding sex-related and other giftedness and achievement differences, it is insufficient to carry out quasi-experiments in the social sciences, so that *interdisciplinary* research approaches can mediate furthering knowledge including neuroscientific and

biological research methods (see chapters 6, 7, and 40 in this volume).

Desiderata in the Research on Giftedness and Talent

The research on giftedness includes not only basic scientific research, but also technological and practice-oriented questions, i.e., tasks of applied giftedness research. In this context, possibilities for improvement related to the identification and practical nurturance of gifted children and adolescents increase in importance, reflected in the content structure of this handbook.

The applied research of the gifted is more or less based on reliable recognitions from basic research, e.g., from the area of experimental psychology. These are, however, still inadequate or provide, in part, non-uniform or contradictory results corresponding to the theoretical explanations. With regard to the “pressure to act” that practical research often feels from practitioners, a dilemma often arises: On the one hand, they should attempt to solve practical problems in a scientific and serious manner; on the other hand, this is impossible without adequate basic research and is hard due to the complexity of many practical fields. This often makes it necessary to compromise in applied research—also in the area of giftedness—while scientific methodological standards dare not be substantially impinged upon.

The model shown in Fig. 9 should clarify important relationships in research on the gifted and practical necessities of gifted education. Inasmuch as one considers formal nurturance of the gifted to be a function of individual personality development, a relationship exists, as shown in the model, between giftedness research and practical tasks in the identification and nurturance of the gifted, including evaluation of identification and nurturance measures.

A few exemplary research desiderata from the perspective of basic vs applied research are provided in the following (Heller, 1993a).

Deficiencies in the Field of Basic Research

- Lack of combined approaches of general and differential psychological perspectives for developing specific structure and process models for experimental designs in order to explain achieving excellence, expertise, etc.
- Few analyses of the development of metacognition, general vs specific knowledge bases etc.
- Little study of developmental courses of the highly gifted during the second half of the life span.
- Few system-theoretical analyses of individual and social components in the socialization process.
- Almost no cross-cultural studies in the field of high ability in order to verify or falsify theories, i.e., for testing hypotheses of universality.
- Lack of (quasi-)experimental studies aimed at causal

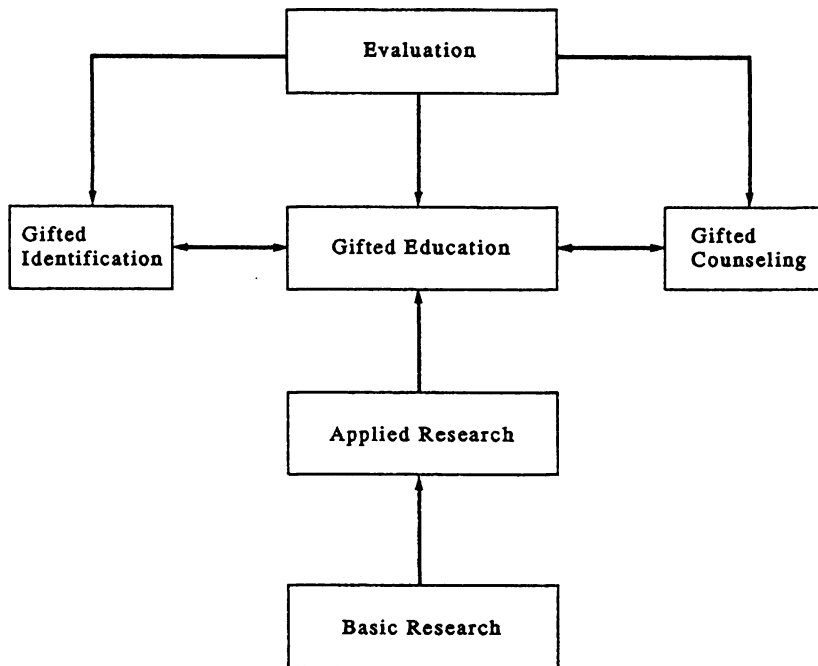


FIGURE 9. Relationship between giftedness research and practical tasks of gifted education.

analyses, e.g., of gender-specific differences, especially in the fields of mathematics, sciences and technology.

Deficiencies in the Field of Applied Research

—Very few multidimensional approaches and sequential strategies in the diagnosis of highly gifted and talented children and adolescents.

—Little process diagnosis (complementary to the so-called “status diagnosis”) in the field of high ability.

—Lack of intervention (and prevention) programs for balancing out gender-specific differences in competence and, above all, in performance, especially in the fields of mathematics, “hard” sciences and technology.

—No metacognitive and general problem-solving development programs as well as domain-specific knowledge-based programs for highly gifted students.

—Lack of evaluation of school programs and extra-curricular (enrichment vs acceleration) courses for the gifted and talented youth.

—Lack of expert systems for school psychologists, school counselors and study advisers in connection with problems related to high ability.

This list is incomplete and could go on forever, as one sees from the topics in this handbook. Among others the following research topics seem important to me with regard to *gifted education*.

Desiderata in the Research on Gifted Education

—Development of instruction concepts of talent didactics; didactic possibilities of differential, i.e., talent-oriented, instruction regarding cognitive instruction/learning contents.

—Curricular development for special academic courses, special classes or even special high schools for certain acceleration groups and for enrichment courses with extracurricular support of the gifted, including their evaluation (cf. Scriven, 1980, 1983; Wottawa & Thierau, 1990; Brandtstädter, 1991; Buchanan & Feldhusen, 1991).

—Longitudinal studies of the gifted including analyses of the life environment over a whole life span.

—Study of leisure-time activities of talented adolescents and their influence on personality development.

—Career problems of talented girls and women; especially in the fields of mathematics, natural sciences and technology.

—Analyses of metacognition, causal attribution (achievement motivation) styles, action control, the self-concept of talented adolescents, including sex-specific differences and problems, e.g., regarding situation orientation vs action orientation (Kuhl, 1981, 1987), self evaluation of heuristic abilities (Dörner et al., 1983).

Problems in *gifted identification* and *gifted counseling* have to be considered together. In consideration of

high risk groups, e.g., disabled talented girls or children of minority groups, the difficulties of differentiation in instruction and education require special attention. Despite a number of useful attempts over the past few years to identify and support talented children and adolescents, there is a lack of convincing evidence of the validity of many techniques, especially those which experts judge as innovative. Here, requirement-oriented diagnosis and support concepts (cf. Heller, 1984) could be useful, especially when they are linked to recent results of applied problem-solving research and knowledge psychology. On the other hand, possibilities of psychometric identification, e.g., in the aptitude testing paradigm, have by no means been exhausted (cf. Trost, 1986). There is often a considerable discrepancy between theoretical (multidimensional) identification and stimulation strategies (see Rost, 1991; Hany & Heller, 1991; Mönks, 1991). Independent of such controversies, the following topics for improving identification and support can be regarded as urgent (Heller, 1992).

Desiderata in the Research on Gifted Identification and Counseling

—Advisory aids for talent-orientated education, especially at preschool and primary school age.

—Advisory concepts for talented students, their parents and teachers.

—Early identification and support of the talented disabled.

—Identification and support of gifted girls (especially in the fields of mathematics, natural sciences and technology).

—Identification and support of gifted underachievers.

—Construction of process diagnostic identification instruments and their validation.

—Construction of domain-specific counseling tests for talented adolescents.

—Academic stimulation of creativity, in general and also in specific areas.

—General vs domain-specific thought training programs.

—Work training programs (e.g., for gifted underachievers).

—Quasi-experimental intervention studies for counseling and supporting gifted children and adolescents.

Evaluation

The *evaluation* of gifted education as well as of gifted identification and counseling takes on two functions, which are expressed in summative and formative evaluations in the sense of Scriven (1967). The *summative* evaluation is directed at measurements of effects (e.g., the effects of various gifted education programs or intervention effects), the feasibility of the corresponding measures is evaluated.

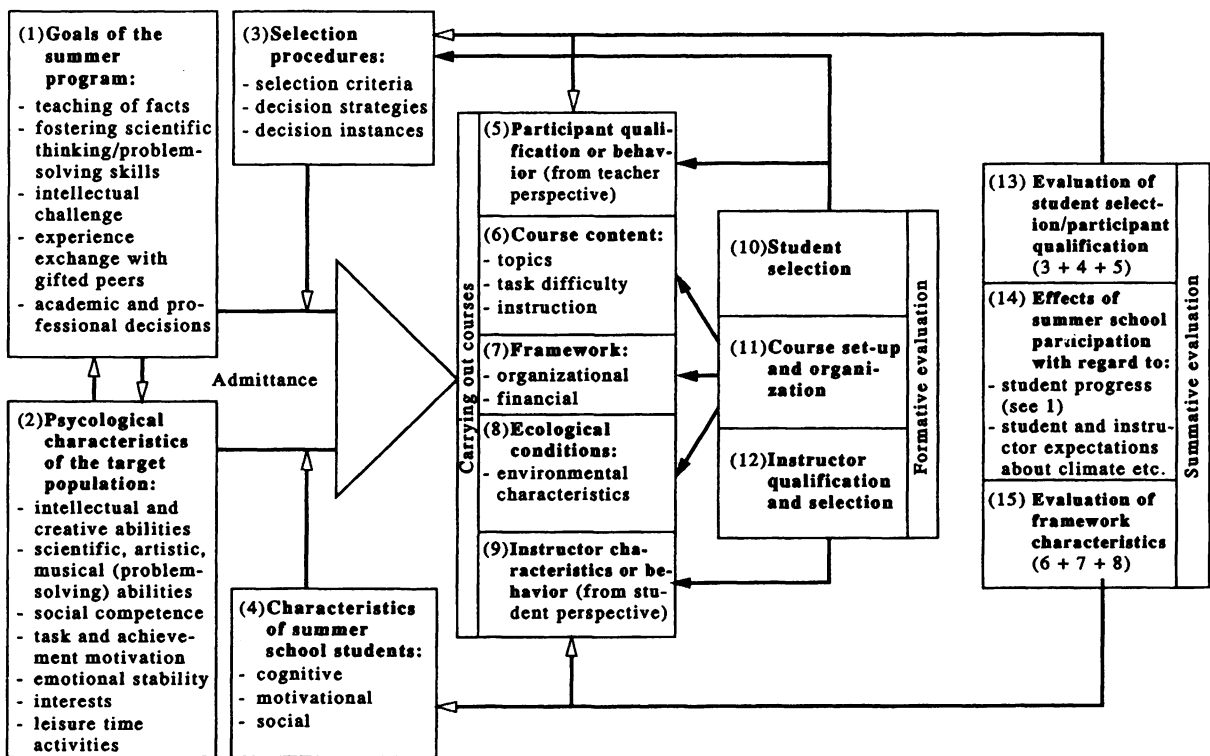


FIGURE 10. Evaluation model for a nationwide summer gifted program.

The *formative* evaluation is more or less directed at the optimization of nurturance and counseling measures, in the sense of action research. Since during the model project, the feedback of relevant evaluation results is given and effects the treatment, dysfunctions that may occur can be recognized, systematic errors eliminated and thus an attempt made to improve the treatment. Corresponding summative evaluation data at the end of the (quasi-) experiments can, however, no longer be interpreted as “independent” judgments. As long as the (formative) evaluation is intended to optimize the treatment, this is no disadvantage. If, however, two or more treatment concepts or models are to be compared with regard to their various advantages or disadvantages, only an independent summative evaluation (without a formative evaluation) can provide objective results. Thus, both forms of evaluation complement each other with regard to their various functions and can frequently be combined. This not only allows a *scientific* evaluation of treatment results but participants can be provided with important support during the trial phase by formative evaluation.

In the area of gifted education and also in the area of gifted identification and counseling, evaluation studies with scientific standards are still relatively rare. Also see Buchanan and Feldhusen (1991) and Callahan in chapter 34 of this handbook. Till now there has been an emphasis on case studies, essay reports or data (collected by those involved in the treatment themselves) which can hardly provide objective judgments. The model shown in Fig. 10 of the evaluation of a nationwide Summer Gifted Program (Summer School in Germany) exemplifies important elements of *scientific* model evaluation.

Research on Giftedness and Responsibility

Finally, the relationship between research on giftedness and the individual vs social responsibility will be discussed from several points of view. The following five aspects are to be especially emphasized here:

(1) Contributions from research on giftedness to improving practical considerations in the identification and nurturing of the development of gifted children and adolescents. Related questions are the prevention of individual behavioral problems, social conflicts, inappropriate upbringing and educational practices, encouraging counseling and intervention for maintaining or developing learning environments appropriate to various types of giftedness. The tasks described here belong to *applied research* on giftedness.

(2) The efficiency of applied research depends on the quality of *basic research* which can be seen in other scientific areas as well. This relationship holds true for research on giftedness and thus also for practical nurturance of giftedness. We can name as examples here innovative approaches from cognitive psychology or research on expertise. These have both provided

important impulses for applied areas such as problem-solving research or practical knowledge acquisition.

(3) The recognition that the development of competence and knowledge acquisition takes place in social-cultural contexts has consequences for the research on giftedness. Theoretically conceived universalities and methodological demands for validity need to be examined in *cross-cultural research*. Above and beyond this, cross-cultural and/or cross-national cooperative research projects serve not only to exchange information and experiences, but also can be expected to provide the flexibility necessary through the change in perspectives. The contribution to peacekeeping efforts is only marginally noted here.

(4) The development of a group of *elites* in the sense of elite achievers is a legitimate democratic desire. This makes for a double responsibility: to the individual and to society. The *society* has a duty to provide every young person with adequate developmental and educational opportunities. This is anchored in most democratic constitutions. This also has a double meaning: Equalizing of chances as a social component and equal opportunity as an individual component. The nation or the society needs to make sure that equal developmental chances are available to every young individual, i.e., also to the gifted. This postulate includes the necessity of equalizing opportunity in single instances and also the co-responsibility of socialization agents (especially parents and teachers). An *individual responsibility* grows out of the social responsibility for individually nurturing educational and upbringing opportunities. This is a responsibility to actually use the academic opportunities or nurturing socialization offers. This individual responsibility is first related to the responsibility of each person with regard to his/her own personality development (developmental psychologists refer to this as “developmental tasks” in the sense of Havighurst, 1952), at the same time, however, the individual’s responsibility to society is also meant here. This is the individual’s responsibility to make an appropriate contribution to the social well-being. There is an expectation that the gifted will generally be able to contribute more than weaker or handicapped individuals. This includes contributions to securing a social net or “human resources” in highly developed social systems.

(5) Finally a *mutual responsibility of society and the research community* exists. This does not question the freedom of researchers to choose their own topics and methods, but their responsibility to a society which—directly or indirectly—subsidizes their research must be emphasized. This basic demand is no less important in the research of giftedness which is in danger of isolation (and not only from scientific community). On the other hand, researchers in the field of giftedness have the same right as other qualified researchers to demand adequate research conditions, in order to scientifically research those areas considered desirable or necessary both from the point of view of basic research and in the practice of nurturing the gifted.

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Author Index

Page numbers not in brackets refer to the reference lists; those in brackets refer to the citations in the text. Only authors named in the reference lists appear in this index.

- Abe, C., 277 (262)
Abel, L., 129 (122)
Abel, M., 523 (512)
Abeles, R.P., 159 (157)
Abelman, R., 98 (96)
Abikoff, H., 144 (141)
Abrami, P.C., 592 (588)
Abramovitch, R., 682 (670)
Abramson, L.Y., 536 (532)
Abrams, K.I., 520 (509, 510), 550 (546)
Academic Preparation for College, 383 (365)
Achey, V.H., 692 (686)
Ackerman, P.L., 322 (322), 706 (696)
Adam, K., 305 (294)
Adams, C., 127 (119), 362
Adams, H.B., 663 (656), 846 (845, 846)
Adams, M.J., 564 (558)
Adams, R.R., 877 (875)
Adamson, K., 565 (558)
Adderholdt-Elliott, M., 227 (223), 536 (530), 722 (719)
Adesokan, E., 846 (838, 839), 877 (871)
Adey, P.S., 158 (155)
Adkins, D.M., 229 (213, 218, 220)
Adler, M., 383 (365, 375)
Adler, T.F., 666 (655, 658), 706 (704)
Advanced Placement Program, 468 (457)
Ahlgren, A., 385 (373, 374, 379)
Ahmed, M., 846 (836)
Aiken, M., 582 (576)
Aikenhead, G.S., 385 (373)
Aitken, A.C., 179 (178)
Akarsu, F., 690 (688), 791 (786)
Alan, S.D., 901 (894)
Albert, E., 440 (436, 438)
Albert, R.S., 66 (57), 158 (154), 333, 336 (332), 359 (347),
468 (454), 489, 520 (508), 536 (532, 533), 566 (561)
Alberta Department of Education, 776 (772, 773)
Alberta School Act, 776 (772)
Aldershof, A.L., 280
Aldhous, P., 111 (109)
Aldrich, H., 581 (575)
Alencar, E.M.L.S., 863 (851, 854, 855, 856, 857), 877 (870)
Alexander, J.E., 130 (121)
Alexander, P.A., 144 (137), 581 (570)
Alexander, R.A., 227, 229 (219, 221)
Alger, W.K., 645 (643)
Algozzine, B., 227 (223), 725 (715)
Algozzine, K., 227 (223)
Alikperov, V.G., 791 (781), 877 (867)
Alkin, M., 616, 617 (605, 607)
Alleman, E., 738 (737)
Allen, V.L., 739 (733)
Allington, D., 250 (235)
Allington, R., 385 (375)
Allport, G.W., 706 (696)
Alport, J.M., 470 (455)
Altman, R., 98 (95), 536 (526), 645 (637)
Altom, M.W., 229 (224)
Alvarez, M., 552
Alves, G.J., 666 (652, 658)
Alvino, J.J., 144 (133), 227 (210), 250 (239, 245), 536
(525), 666 (655), 691, 738 (731, 734), 877 (865)
Amabile, T.M., 26 (7), 65 (60), 359 (347), 564 (559)
Amano, I., 592 (585)
Amato, D.A., 127 (122)
Ambrose, D.C., 359 (348, 351, 352, 355, 358)
Ambrose, S., 505
America 2000, 767 (755, 764)
American Association for the Advancement of Science, 383
(372)
American Association for Gifted Children, 645 (643)
Amerikaner, M., 725 (718)
Ames, C., 144 (140)
Amochaev, A., 130 (124)
Anastasi, A., 85 (83), 901 (884)
Anbar, M., 359 (352)
Ancona-Lopez, M., 45 (44), 863 (852), 877 (870)
Anderson, J.E., 520 (511)
Anderson, J.R., 144 (134, 140), 231 (217), 322 (311, 315,
316)
Anderson, L., 725 (716)
Anderson, R., 383 (366)
Anderson, R.D., 471 (456)
Anderson, R.H., 581 (578)
Andreani, O.D., 550 (546, 547), 791 (785, 786, 791)
Andringa, J.W., 581 (571)
Angoff, W.H., 227 (219)
Anic, C.M., 383 (381)
Anim, N.O., 846 (835, 839, 840, 842, 846), 877 (872, 873)
Ankney, C.D., 127 (122)
Annett, M., 277 (260)
Anolik, S., 722 (718, 719)
Ansley, F., 663
Antell, S.E., 309 (287, 289), 523 (511)
Antipoff, H., 863 (854)
Anzai, Y., 322 (314)
Apicella, A., 130 (122)
Appel, M., 723 (718)
Appelbaum, M.I., 522 (511)
Applebee, A.N., 383 (378)
Archambault, F.X., 617 (609, 612, 613, 614)
Archer, J., 451 (443)
Archer, P., 228 (224)
Arends, R.A., 582 (574)
Ari, R.B., 520 (510, 518)
Ariel, M., 751 (751)

- Aries, P., 738 (727)
 Aristotle, 440 (429, 437, 440)
 Arizona Department of Education, 45 (34)
 Arjmand, O., 99 (95), 333 (328)
 Arkansas Department of Education, 45 (33)
 Armon, C., 550 (546)
 Armstrong, D.C., 127 (119), 581 (574)
 Arnheim, R., 277 (254, 265)
 Arnold, K.D., 67 (55), 158, 159 (153, 156, 157), 309 (286)
 Aronfreed, J., 550 (539, 544)
 Arredondo, D.E., 565 (559)
 Arroyo, I., 863 (858)
 Ary, D., 359 (340, 341 (347)
 Arzi, H., 158 (156)
 Ascher, C., 738, 739 (732, 736, 737)
 Asher, J.W., 228, 232 (217, 218, 225), 248, 249 (234, 245, 246, 247), 582 (580), 770 (767)
 Asher, W.J., 100 (97), 592 (589, 590, 591)
 Ashman, S.S., 227 (224)
 Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 383 (372)
 Assouline, S., 384 (368), 451 (447), 469 (456, 457), 741 (734)
 Atkinson, D.R., 647 (638)
 Atkinson, J., 522 (515), 663 (658, 659)
 Atkinson, L., 831 (828)
 Attanucci, J., 424, 667 (652)
 Atwell, N., 440 (433)
 August, R.L., 406 (404)
 Australian National Territory, 831 (818)
 Ausubel, D.P., 144 (137)
 Austin, J.H., 85 (75)
 Australian School Commission, 45 (40)
 Averina, I.S., 304 (284)
 Avesi, G., 127 (125)
 Ayles, R., 98 (96), 424, 791 (790)
 Aylesworth, M., 617 (606, 609)
 Azmitia, M., 552
- Baca, L., 690 (686)
 Bachem, A., 179 (168)
 Bacher, P., 128 (123)
 Bachtold, L.M., 663 (651)
 Baer, C.J., 406 (389, 395)
 Bahlke, S., 564 (558)
 Bailey, J., 386 (370)
 Bailey, J.J., 229 (219)
 Bailey, S., 831, 832 (827), 877 (866)
 Bakan, P., 127 (119, 120)
 Baker, C., 691 (688)
 Baker, C.T., 523 (514)
 Baker-Ward, L., 207 (192)
 Baldwin, A.L., 902 (885, 886, 889)
 Baldwin, A.Y., 98 (96), 248 (236, 245), 628 (623, 626, 627, 628), 690 (685, 686, 687), 738 (731), 768 (762)
 Baldwin, L.J., 724 (712)
 Baldwin, J.W., 227 (223)
 Ballering, L.D., 536 (527, 533)
 Balogh, L., 248 (235)
 Baltes, P.B., 159 (149, 152), 205 (199), 323 (315)
 Bamberger, J., 179 (179), 277 (267, 268, 270, 271, 276), 520 (509)
 Bandura, A., 98 (96), 359 (343), 550 (542, 544, 545), 663 (657, 658), 682 (675, 676)
 Bandura, L., 791
- Banich, M., 129 (121)
 Baras, G., 663 (653)
 Barbe, W.B., 423, 440 (433), 487 (477, 479, 480, 481), 520 (509)
 Bardige, B., 551
 Barkan, J.H., 690 (687)
 Barker, H.R., 277 (272)
 Barker, J., 505 (491, 495, 496, 504)
 Barker, W.W., 130 (122)
 Barling, J., 306 (297)
 Barlow, F., 179 (161)
 Barnard, K.E., 520 (514)
 Barnett, D.W., 99 (95)
 Barnett, L., 520 (510)
 Barnett, L.B., 440 (431, 439), 450 (447, 449)
 Barnett, R., 552 (547)
 Barnette, J.J., 617, 618 (605, 614)
 Barney, D., 424 (418)
 Barnhardt, E.N., 279 (261)
 Baron, J., 205 (193)
 Barrett, C.H., 277 (272)
 Barrett, D.E., 550 (545)
 Barrett, G.V., 227 (221)
 Barrett, P.T., 127, 128 (124)
 Barrington, B., 581 (574)
 Barriuso-De Ceuster, A., 791 (790)
 Barron, F.X., 85 (72), 144, 333 (332), 468 (454), 564 (557), 768 (760)
 Barron, J., 179 (165)
 Barron, S., 179 (165)
 Barrows, H.S., 383 (371, 374)
 Bart, W.M., 227 (213)
 Bar-Tal, D., 663
 Bartel, N.R., 146 (141)
 Bartenwerfer, H., 304 (298)
 Barth, J., 440 (428)
 Bartkovich, K.G., 468 (457)
 Bartlett, J., 179 (167)
 Barton, B.L., 566 (562)
 Barton, J.M., 722 (716)
 Barton, L.E., 878 (865)
 Bartscher, J., 128 (120)
 Bartnik, E.A., 127 (125)
 Bar-Zohar, Y., 663
 Basar, E., 127 (125)
 Baselli, G., 127 (125)
 Bashi, J., 740 (731)
 Baska, L.K., 227, 228 (209, 210, 211), 248 (238, 239, 242, 243, 245, 246, 247), 690 (687)
 Baskin, B., 383 (375)
 Basoe, S.A., 738 (731)
 Bassin, L.E., 407 (389, 398, 401)
 Bates, M., 147 (137)
 Bateson, G., 359 (350)
 Bâthory, Z., 792 (784)
 Battaglia, C., 232 (219, 223)
 Bauersfeld, H., 450 (445, 446)
 Baum, S., 248 (236), 722 (715, 720)
 Baumgarten, F., 179 (161, 162, 163)
 Baumrind, D., 663 (657)
 Bayley, N., 304 (285, 289)
 Baymur, F.B., 663 (660)
 Beard, B., 738 (736)
 Beauchamp, E.R., 406 (404)
 Beck, E.C., 128, 130 (124)

- Beck, L., 738 (730, 731, 735, 736)
 Becker, D., 663
 Becker, L.A., 250 (239), 310 (298)
 Becker, L.E., 127 (119)
 Beckman, C., 440 (436, 438)
 Bee, H.L., 520 (514, 515)
 Beer, R.D., 98 (95)
 Beerman, L., 304 (301), 792 (790), 901 (895)
 Behan, P., 128 (120)
 Blanger, J., 86 (77, 81)
 Belmont, J.M., 738
 Bem, S.L., 663 (654)
 Benbow, C.P., 98, 99, 100 (95, 96, 97), 127, 130 (120, 121), 158, 159 (152, 154), 231 (217), 250 (238), 277, 280 (260, 267), 304, 306 (300), 333, 335 (326, 328), 359, 362 (345), 383, 384, 385, 386 (368, 370), 406, 409 (387, 388, 390), 424 (417), 441, 450, 451 (445), 468, 469, 470 (456, 458), 487 (486), 604 (601), 645 (632), 682 (670), 706, 707 (694, 697, 699, 700, 701, 702, 703, 704, 705), 738 (731), 769 (758, 762)
 Benitez, R., 863 (855)
 Bennett, W.J., 383 (372)
 Bennett, W.F., 127 (124)
 Bennis, W., 505 (492, 499)
 Bensusan, R., 179 (163)
 Bentham, J., 550 (543)
 Benton, D., 682 (671)
 Benton, N.L., 384 (372)
 Bereano, P.L., 26 (18)
 Bereiter, C., 144, 146 (137)
 Berenbruch, H.-W., 45 (38)
 Berends, M., 592 (589)
 Berent, S., 127 (122)
 Berg, C.A., 304 (297)
 Bergeman, C.S., 112 (104)
 Berger, B., 738 (736)
 Berger, M., 304 (301, 302)
 Berger, S.L., 536 (535), 738 (729, 734)
 Bergman, J., 487 (477), 722 (717)
 Berk, R.A., 227 (219, 220, 223, 225), 722 (715)
 Berkowitz, M.W., 550 (548)
 Berlin, I., 682 (669)
 Berliner, D.C., 144 (134), 383 (366)
 Bernal, E.M., 690 (686, 687, 689), 739 (731)
 Berndt, D.J., 536, 537 (526, 530)
 Bernier, J.E., 552 (548)
 Bernieri, F., 112 (106)
 Berry, J.W., 65 (60), 205, 206 (198, 199), 229 (217)
 Berryman, S.E., 706 (704)
 Berthelot, J., 877 (866)
 Bess, F.H., 722 (717)
 Bestor, A., 26 (13)
 Bettencourt, L.U., 144 (141)
 Betts, G.T., 230 (219, 225), 359 (345), 383 (367), 424 (415), 564 (562), 901 (891)
 Bever, T., 277 (273, 275)
 Bholra, H.S., 847 (846)
 Bibb, J.J., 666
 Bibby, M., 668 (656), 725 (711, 713, 714, 716, 717, 720)
 Biemiller, A.J., 307
 Biesheuvel, S., 847 (838)
 Bigelow, E.B., 406 (389, 395)
 Bigler, E.D., 131 (121, 122)
 Bijlstra, J.P., 145 (140)
 Biklen, D., 179 (165)
 Bilker, S., 309 (287, 289), 523 (511)
 Binet, A., 205 (188, 189, 190), 277 (253), 305 (287), 359 (341, 342), 645 (632)
 Binker, A., 565 (558)
 Binnie, C., 127 (117)
 Biondi, A.M., 565 (558)
 Birbaumer, N., 278 (272)
 Birch, J., 424 (418), 629 (621)
 Birch, J.W., 230 (215, 223), 250 (234, 238), 385 (368), 425, 489 (478)
 Bird, T., 581 (579)
 Bireley, M., 722 (711)
 Birns, B., 520 (516)
 Birx, E., 305 (301), 333 (326)
 Bishop, G., 847 (835, 839)
 Bishop, W., 628 (624)
 Bissel, J., 617 (605)
 Bittner, R., 65 (58), 99 (95), 228 (217)
 Bjorklund, D.F., 308 (295, 297), 322, 324 (318, 320)
 Black, H., 564 (558)
 Black, K.N., 230 (217), 407 (389), 425
 Black, M.D., 666 (658)
 Black, S., 564 (558)
 Blackburn, A.C., 536 (530), 722 (718)
 Blackburn, J.E., 581 (569, 575, 576)
 Blackshear, P., 690, 691 (687)
 Blakeslee, T.R., 423
 Blanchard, K., 505 (492)
 Bland, L., 618 (616)
 Blanke, E.A., 45 (38)
 Blasi, A., 550 (544, 549)
 Blaylock, A.W., 691 (687, 689)
 Blednick, M.L., 307 (290)
 Blinkhorn, S.F., 127 (124), 205 (196)
 Blinowska, K.J., 127 (125)
 Blixt, S., 228 (220)
 Block, J.H., 227 (220)
 Block, L., 522 (512)
 Bloodworth, H., 723 (712)
 Bloom, A.H., 550
 Bloom, B.S., 85 (74, 76), 144 (134, 143), 227 (217), 248 (247), 277 (253, 259, 266), 322 (312, 316, 317), 333, 336 (327, 330), 383 (365, 366, 382), 424 (412, 413), 440 (433, 439), 469 (454), 487 (486), 520, 524 (508, 513, 514, 516), 537 (532), 604 (593), 664 (652), 682 (671, 672), 706 (699), 722 (714), 739 (733, 734), 768 (756, 758, 760, 762), 901 (899)
 Blüm, W., 604 (597)
 Blumberg, A., 581 (573, 574)
 Boag, C., 487 (476)
 Boardman, R.K., 489 (482)
 Bobbitt, B.L., 307 (293)
 Boden, M.A., 205 (192)
 Boerwinkle, E.A., 113 (110)
 Bohannon, W., 441
 Bohm, D., 359 (346, 350)
 Boivin, M.J., 127 (122)
 Bolanos, P., 384 (369)
 Bolton, R., 505 (491, 502)
 Bondy, A.S., 305 (287, 290)
 Bonnard, M.M., 877 (876)
 Boodoo, G.M., 248 (237), 722 (715)
 Borenstein, M., 617 (614)
 Boring, E.G., 205 (190, 204), 645 (631)
 Borkowski, J.G., 85 (77), 144 (134), 227 (217), 305, 308, 309 (285, 286, 293, 295, 296, 297), 359 (339), 768 (756, 766)

- Borland, J.H., 85 (70, 71, 78, 79, 85), 99 (93, 94), 248 (236, 240, 242), 359, 362 (340), 385 (381), 521 (518), 581 (575, 580), 724 (721), 741 (734)
- Bornstein, M.H., 305 (292), 521 (509)
- Borson, W., 537 (532)
- Borrow, S.J., 305 (294)
- Borzym, I., 792 (785)
- Bos, C.S., 440 (433)
- Bös, K., 324 (320, 321)
- Boston, B.O., 86 (74), 450 (448), 537 (531, 532, 534), 604 (603), 628, 722 (713, 716), 739 (729, 730, 732), 751 (748)
- Botkin, P., 682 (677)
- Bouchard, T.J., 85 (74), 111, 112 (105, 106, 109), 682 (670)
- Boulanger, F.D., 471 (455)
- Bowen, B.S., 144 (135)
- Boyd, R., 99 (96), 248 (238)
- Boyde Shapiro, B., 667 (652)
- Boyer, E.L., 384 (366)
- Bracken, B.A., 305 (289)
- Bradley, C.L., 248 (237), 722 (715)
- Bradley, R.H., 100 (96)
- Bradway, K., 307 (287)
- Braggett, E.J., 45 (39, 40, 41), 248 (236), 831, 832 (815, 816, 821, 827)
- Bramble, W.J., 100 (89)
- Branch, A., 739 (732, 736)
- Branch, M., 792 (786)
- Brandao, A., 863 (852)
- Brandenburg Ayres, S., 309 (288)
- Brandtstädter, J., 65 (62)
- Brandwein, P.F., 384, 386 (373, 374), 469 (463, 467), 901 (891, 893)
- Bratton, J.C., 86 (83)
- Bray, D.W., 901 (898)
- Bredenkamp, J., 305 (300, 301)
- Brennan, T.P., 645 (641)
- Brennan, B., 384 (378)
- Bressler, J., 629 (625)
- Bressler, S.L., 128 (120)
- Brewer, N., 305 (293)
- Bricklin, B., 664 (650)
- Bricklin, P.M., 664 (650)
- Brickman, W.W., 26 (23)
- Bridges, S.A., 792 (786)
- Brierley, J.K., 423
- Bright, G.S., 450 (444)
- Brinko, K.T., 617 (614)
- British Columbia Ministry of Education, 776 (776)
- British Columbia School Act, 776 (776)
- Brito da Silva, E., 45 (44)
- Brittain, W., 278 (254, 255)
- Brodie, J., 127 (122)
- Brody, L.E., 384 (368), 407 (389, 396), 424 (417), 441, 469 (456, 457, 458), 487 (486), 707 (699, 700, 701)
- Brodzinsky, D.M., 361 (340)
- Brogden, H.E., 227 (216)
- Broman, S., 127 (121)
- Bronfenbrenner, U., 664, 902 (885, 886, 889)
- Bronowski, J., 384 (374)
- Brookes, M., 277 (263)
- Brooks, A., 112 (107)
- Brooks, P., 309 (295)
- Brooks, R., 127 (122), 550 (546), 722 (718)
- Brooks-Gunn, J., 307 (292)
- Browder, C.S., 305 (294, 295, 296, 298, 301, 302)
- Brower, P., 537 (526)
- Brown, A.L., 85 (77), 205 (192, 201, 202), 227 (217), 305 (284, 285, 291, 292, 293, 295, 296, 301), 384, 385 (366), 521 (512), 740
- Brown, A.S., 146 (141)
- Brown, C., 306 (299)
- Brown, C.L., 618 (612, 613)
- Brown, D., 581 (569, 575, 576)
- Brown, D.J., 666 (658)
- Brown, K.E., 551 (546)
- Brown, L.F., 279 (254, 264), 724 (717)
- Brown, N.T., 739 (735)
- Brown, R., 440
- Brown, S.W., 305 (288)
- Brown, W., 99 (96)
- Browning, H., 129 (122)
- Broyles, J., 645 (637)
- Bruch, C.B., 566 (559), 628 (624), 690 (687)
- Bruner, J.S., 144 (133, 136, 141), 205 (199), 359 (340), 407 (391), 424 (416), 768 (765)
- Brunia, C.H.M., 127 (118)
- Bryant, B., 552 (546)
- Bryden, M.P., 130 (118)
- Buccellato, L., 307, 309 (288, 298)
- Buchanan, N.K., 65 (62, 64), 99 (97)
- Buchsbaum, M.S., 129 (122)
- Buchtel, H.A., 127 (122)
- Buescher, T.M., 617, 618 (609), 769 (756, 762)
- Buhler, K., 179 (172)
- Bühler, W.K., 179 (164)
- Buijs, J., 564 (561)
- Bullinger, A., 65 (55)
- Bundesminister für Bildung und Wissenschaft, 604 (595), 792 (787)
- Burg, B., 45 (41, 42), 450 (449), 617 (606), 739 (735)
- Burjan, V., 792 (781)
- Burke, A., 490, 645 (632)
- Burkheimer, G.J., 158 (151)
- Burks, B.S., 158 (150), 407 (393, 394), 487 (474, 475, 477, 478, 479, 482, 483)
- Burns, D.E., 86 (75)
- Burns, J.M., 305, 308 (299, 300, 303)
- Burnside, L., 664
- Buros, O., 277 (261)
- Burt, C., 423, 487 (475), 792 (786)
- Burton, A., 831 (819)
- Burton, L., 129 (121)
- Busby, K.A., 127, 130 (121), 305 (293, 294)
- Busse, T.V., 227 (224), 359 (339), 470 (454, 455), 565 (559, 560), 768 (760)
- Butcher, H.J., 333 (327, 329)
- Butler, N., 617 (606), 664 (652)
- Butler, R., 617 (606), 664 (654, 659, 661)
- Butler-Por, N., 227 (220), 617 (606), 664 (649, 650, 651, 652, 653, 654, 655, 656, 657, 658, 659, 660, 661, 662), 768 (763), 901 (898)
- Butterfield, E.C., 66 (57), 86 (77, 79), 307 (293)
- Bylsma, B.A., 130 (121)
- Byrne, A., 277 (273)
- Cahill, N., 877 (867)
- Caixeta, G.S., 863 (856)
- Caldwell, M.S., 581 (580), 617, 618 (605, 606, 607, 608, 609, 610), 768 (763)

- California Department of Education, 384 (377, 379)
 California State Board of Education, 45 (32)
 Callahan, C.M., 99 (96), 229 (219), 250 (244), 335 (327), 386 (369), 407 (389, 398, 401), 425, 581 (580), 617, 618 (605, 606, 607, 608, 609, 610, 611, 612, 613, 616), 664 (654), 682 (671), 707 (704), 768, 769 (757, 762, 763), 878 (876)
 Callaway, E., 127, 130 (124)
 Camden, M., 647 (638)
 Cameron, K., 739 (732)
 Camm, D.W., 26 (14)
- Campbell, D.P., 85 (75)
 Campbell, D.T., 99 (90)
 Campbell, K.B., 129 (125)
 Campione, J.C., 85 (77), 205 (192, 202), 305 (284, 285, 291, 292, 293, 295, 301), 384 (366)
 Cane, F., 277 (254)
 Cantlon, F.M., 425 (416)
 Cantor, D.S., 130 (123)
 Cantor, L., 99 (96)
 Cape Education Department, 45 (39)
 Cape of Good Hope Department of Public Education, 847 (837)
 Capra, F., 359 (346)
 Capute, A.J., 309 (287, 289), 523 (511)
 Card, F.A., 863 (849)
 Cardon, L.R., 112 (106, 107), 127 (116)
 Cardon, N., 722 (718)
 Carey, S.M., 147 (135, 138)
 Carigha-Bull, T., 385 (367)
 Carnap, R., 706 (7050)
 Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy, 384 (365)
 Carnevale, A.P., 564 (561)
 Carns, A.W., 144 (140)
 Carns, M.R., 144 (140)
 Carpenter, T.P., 144 (142), 383 (381)
 Carr, K.S., 144 (143)
 Carr, M., 144 (134), 305 (296, 297)
 Carran, D.T., 228 (215, 220)
 Carrie, L., 489 (478)
 Carroll, H.A., 487 (474)
 Carroll, J.B., 65 (58), 469 (456), 706 (696)
 Carroll, M.L., 407 (389, 395)
 Carter, K.R., 65 (50, 51, 54, 55), 86 (70), 99 (95, 96), 617, 618 (606, 607, 608, 611, 612, 613)
 Carter, L.B., 407 (389, 395)
 Carter, T.M., 521 (509, 514)
 Carter-Saltzman, L., 523 (514)
 Cartwright, G.F., 144 (135)
 Caryl, P.G., 127, 131 (124, 125)
 Cascio, W.F., 227 (221), 333 (330)
 Case, R., 205 (197)
 Casey, J.P., 305 (284), 550 (546)
 Casey, M.B., 280 (260)
 Cash, A., 792 (786)
 Casserly, P., 739 (731)
 Cassidy, T., 792 (786)
 Castetta, W.B., 359 (340)
 Cattell, A.K., 205 (191, 199)
 Cattell, J.M., 205 (189)
 Cattell, R.B., 205 (191, 199), 305 (285), 333 (327, 329, 332), 359 (342)
 Cavalcante, M.A.M., 863 (856)
 Cazden, C., 384 (377)
 Ceci, S.J., 305 (295), 323 (311, 318, 320)
- CENESP, 863 (851)
 Cerutti, S., 127 (125)
 Chalke, F., 127 (120)
 Chambers, J.A., 227 (224)
 Chamrad, D.L., 250 (243), 521 (515)
 Chan, L.K.S., 144 (141)
 Chaney, A.L., 384 (378)
 Chang, J.Y., 130 (122)
 Chao, G.T., 335 (331)
 Chapman, K., 305 (294)
 Charlesworth, W.R.A., 205 (199)
 Charlton, S., 127 (120)
 Charness, N., 179 (164), 277, 280 (274), 323 (314)
 Chase, J.M., 489 (476)
 Chase, T.N., 127 (122)
 Chase, W.G., 179 (169), 323 (312, 313, 314, 315, 316, 318, 319)
 Chatillon, J., 65 (55)
 Chauncey, H., 333 (328)
 Chauvin, J.C., 739 (727)
 Chen, C., 807 (799, 800, 803, 804, 805, 806)
 Chen, I.J., 564 (563)
 Chen, M.Y., 469 (465)
 Chen, X., 814 (811, 812)
 Chennells, P., 793 (787)
 Cherny, S.S., 112 (107)
 Chi, M.T.H., 144 (138), 227 (217), 305 (295), 323 (313, 314, 318, 319)
 Chiang, C.-P., 144 (142)
 Chiarello, R., 277 (273, 275)
 Chiba, A., 807 (799, 800)
 Chickedantz, M., 582 (569)
 Chiesi, H.L., 324 (319)
 Child, D.A., 145 (140, 141)
 Childs, R.E., 550 (546)
 Chinese Chemical Society, 469 (462)
 Chinese Mathematical Society, 469 (462)
 Chinese Mathematics Society Olympiad Committee, 469 (464)
 Chinese Physical Society, 469 (462)
 Chinn, P.C., 690 (686)
 Chipman, S.F., 144, 146 (140)
 Chipuer, H.M., 112 (106)
 Chitwood, D.G., 523 (510)
 Cho, S., 807 (800, 801)
 Chopra, S.L., 664
 Christman, D.R., 127 (122)
 Christopher, J.R., 664 (662)
 Chung, C.H., 564 (563)
 Chung, Y., 617 (606, 612)
 Ciha, T.E., 333 (327)
 Ciurczak, F.M., 279 (260)
 Civil Rights Survey, 248 (237)
 Clampit, M.K., 100 (95)
 Clance, P.R., 706 (704)
 Clark, B., 99 (96), 227 (209, 210, 211), 248 (236, 237, 240), 359 (340, 341, 344, 347, 348, 349), 424 (412, 416), 537 (527, 528, 529), 645 (637), 664 (652), 690 (687, 689), 706, 768 (758), 877 (876), 901 (896)
 Clark, D.A., 227 (219)
 Clark, G.A., 277 (257, 261, 262, 266)
 Clark, J.H., 308 (290)
 Clark, P., 581 (575, 576)
 Clark, R., 522 (515)
 Clarke, A., 682 (673)

- Clarke, A.D.B., 682 (673)
 Clarke, A.M., 112 (108), 305 (284)
 Clarke, G., 423
 Clarke, K., 99 (95)
 Clarke-Stewart, K.A., 521 (514)
 Clasen, D., 424, 739 (732)
 Clasen, R.E., 100 (96)
 Cleland, D., 629 (621)
 Cleland, L.N., 307 (299, 300)
 Clement, J., 145 (140)
 Clements, D., 831 (826, 827)
 Clifton, J., 179 (164), 277 (274)
 Clinkenbeard, P., 564 (559, 560)
 Cloninger, C.R., 112 (110)
 Cloward, R.D., 739 (733)
 Clynes, M., 280
 Cobb, M.V., 488 (479, 485)
 Cochran, J., 738 (737)
 Cohen, J., 469 (455), 617 (614)
 Cohen, L.M., 45 (36), 99 (89), 144 (138), 359 (340, 343, 347, 348, 349, 350, 351, 352, 355, 358), 792 (785)
 Cohen, P.A., 592 (588), 739 (733)
 Cohn, S.J., 65 (56), 146 (134), 407 (406), 604 (598), 617 (606, 611), 706 (694), 739 (731)
 Colangelo, N., 99 (96), 248, 249 (237, 238), 424, 521 (518, 519), 537 (526, 531), 583 (578), 645, 646 (632, 634, 641, 642), 722 (709), 739, 740 (731, 738), 901 (894)
 Colangelo, W., 384 (369)
 Colby, A., 550 (542, 546)
 Colby, S., 550 (548)
 Cole, M., 205 (198, 200)
 Cole, P.G., 144 (141)
 Coleman, E.B., 99, 100 (95), 144 (135, 137)
 Coleman, L.J., 248 (239), 424 (418), 581 (580), 901 (899)
 Coleman, M., 768 (762)
 Coleman, M.R., 617 (606), 877 (866)
 Coleman, J.S., 26 (15), 664 (661)
 Colemont, P., 564 (561)
 Coletta, A.J., 581 (578)
 Collins, E., 739 (730)
 Collins, M.D., 305 (299, 300)
 Collins, N., 739 (731)
 Collymore, R.S., 740 (736)
 Colorado Department of Education, 45 (33, 34)
 Colson, S., 739 (729)
 Columbus Group, 645 (634, 635, 638)
 Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, 26 (12)
 Commoner, B., 26 (18), 469 (468)
 Commonwealth of Australia, 487
 Conant, J.B., 26 (14), 407 (395)
 Conard, F.C., 67 (54)
 CONCYTEC, 863 (860)
 Conklin, A.K., 664 (649)
 Connell, J.P., 683 (676)
 Constantino, R., 305 (287, 290)
 Constitution Act, 776 (771)
 Cook, T.D., 99 (90), 592 (588)
 Cooley, M.R., 99 (96)
 Coombs, P.H., 846 (836)
 Cooney, 768 (764)
 Cooney, J.B., 86 (70)
 Cooper, C., 384 (378), 521 (514)
 Cooperative Research Group on Supernormal Children, 521 (514)
 Copenhaver, R.W., 227 (224)
 Coray, K.E., 277 (262)
 Corazza, L., 440, 441 (429, 435, 438), 450 (447, 449)
 Corn, A.L., 249 (244), 722, 723 (709, 714)
 Cornell, D.G., 99 (96), 147 (143), 231 (216), 361 (339, 340, 348), 407 (389, 398, 401), 537, 538 (526, 532, 535), 768 (757)
 Corno, L., 144 (140)
 Corrigan, B., 227 (219)
 Corter, C., 682 (670)
 Cortes, C., 863 (858)
 Cosgrove, T.J., 739 (737)
 Costa, A.L., 359, 564 (559)
 Cothron, J., 384 (373)
 Coulianos, C., 524 (518)
 Council of Europe, 847 (834, 846)
 Court, J.H., 308 (289), 691 (688)
 Courtney, R., 877 (872)
 Courtright, R.D., 901 (887)
 Covert, R., 617 (606)
 Covington, M.V., 305 (297), 564 (558)
 Cowen, R., 604 (594)
 Cox, C.M., 127 (115), 248 (233), 323 (312), 333 (329, 330), 487 (473, 477, 478), 521 (508, 514)
 Cox, J., 86 (74), 450 (448), 505 (492), 537 (531, 532, 534), 604 (603), 722 (713, 716), 739 (732, 735), 751 (748)
 Cox, M., 277, 280 (254, 256)
 Crabbe, A.B., 144 (141), 768 (759)
 Craft, M., 179 (164)
 Crafter, G., 831 (818, 822, 823, 824)
 Crain, W.C., 99 (98)
 Crain-Thoreson, C., 305 (300), 521 (511, 514, 516)
 Cramond, B., 158 (154)
 Crank, J., 451 (449)
 Cravens, H., 99 (95)
 Cremerius, J., 792 (780)
 Cretu, C., 792 (781, 784)
 Crisafi, M.A., 521
 Crist, M.F., 179 (179)
 Critchley, M., 280
 Crockenberg, S.B., 564 (558)
 Crocker, T., 617 (610)
 Crockett, L.J., 100 (96)
 Croft, J., 628 (625, 626)
 Cronbach, L.J., 65 (57), 227 (216, 218), 248 (246), 564 (559), 628 (622)
 Crook, T., 306 (283, 284)
 Cropley, A.J., 45 (36), 249 (242, 245), 691 (686, 687), 792, 795 (788)
 Cross, D.R., 146 (141)
 Cross, J.A., 567 (555, 556, 559, 560)
 Crosswhite, F., 768 (764)
 Crow, A., 664 (650)
 Crow, L.D., 664 (650)
 Crowder, T., 488 (477)
 Crowe, J.A., 127 (125)
 Crump, W., 424, 425 (416)
 Crusey, C.A., 739 (735)
 Crutcher, R.J., 323 (311, 315, 316, 321)
 Crutchfield, R.S., 249 (246), 469 (454), 564 (558)
 Cruz, J.B., 792 (780)
 Csapo, M., 722 (718, 719)

- Csikszentmihalyi, M., 65 (56), 86 (75), 145 (136), 158 (151), 277, 278, 280 (266, 277), 334 (328), 360 (343), 384 (366), 423, 440 (431), 469 (454), 487 (474, 475), 521 (513), 682 (670), 768 (760)
- Cudmore, L., 229 (224), 249 (240), 691 (689)
- Culhane, B., 424
- Cunningham, K., 646 (641)
- Cupertino, C.M.B., 863 (852), 877 (870)
- Cutillo, B.A., 128 (120)
- Cutler, N.R., 128, 129 (122)
- Czeschlik, T., 682 (681)
- Dabrowski, K., 645 (634, 635, 637, 638, 639, 640, 641, 642, 643, 644)
- Dacey, J.S., 537 (532), 564 (555)
- Daehler, M.W., 306 (293)
- Dager, S.R., 127 (119)
- Dahme, G., 227 (224)
- Dailey, J.T., 128 (121), 706 (700)
- Dale, P.S., 305, 308 (290, 298, 300), 521, 523 (509, 511, 514, 516)
- Dambrot, F.H., 229 (219)
- Damon, W., 362, 550 (545)
- Daniel, N., 86 (74), 450 (448), 537 (531, 532, 534), 604 (603), 722 (713, 716), 739 (732), 751 (748)
- Daniels, D., 523 (514)
- Daniels, P.R., 384 (381)
- Daniels, T., 100 (96)
- d'Appollonia, S., 592 (588)
- Dark, V.J., 99 (95), 306 (300)
- Darko-Yeboah, J., 146 (140)
- Darling, M.A., 523 (517)
- Darling-Hammond, L., 384 (366)
- Darlington, D., 522 (519)
- Dart, P.J., 581 (576, 577)
- DaSilva, D., 280 (260)
- Dauber, S., 707 (699, 700, 701)
- Daurio, S.P., 384 (368), 407 (392, 394, 395, 398, 401), 441, 487 (485)
- Davenport, C.B., 487 (476)
- Davey, T.C., 307 (284), 522 (511)
- David, P.J., 450 (445)
- Davidson, J.E., 65 (55, 58), 86, 87 (69, 71, 77), 100 (93), 144, 147 (134, 137, 138), 231 (214, 217), 250, 251 (233, 235, 236), 306 (295, 297), 335 (325), 360, 362 (339, 350), 425, 667 (650), 769 (755), 902 (887)
- Davidson, L., 158, 159 (153), 278 (268)
- Davies, L., 564 (558)
- Davis, D., 740 (731)
- Davis, F.B., 127 (124)
- Davis, G., 505 (491, 499)
- Davis, G.A., 86 (69, 70, 78), 99 (92, 95), 227 (209, 212), 248 (235, 237, 242), 407 (400), 424 (412, 419, 422), 537 (532), 564 (558), 664 (654, 661), 690, 722 (709, 711), 768 (757)
- Davis, H., 407 (394, 400)
- Davis, J.H., 227 (225), 277 (254)
- Davis, N., 628 (622)
- Davis, S., 450 (448)
- Davis, W.A., 26 (20)
- Dawes, R.M., 227 (219)
- Dawis, R.V., 706, 707 (695, 696, 697, 700, 701, 706)
- Day, A., 831 (826)
- Day, J., 310 (297, 304)
- Day, J.D., 305, 306 (286, 291, 295)
- de Alencar, E.M.L.S., 617 (606)
- Deary, I.J., 127, 131 (124, 125), 306 (292)
- Deaux, K., 86 (84), 664
- de Bono, E., 144 (140, 141), 564 (558, 561)
- Deci, E.L., 86 (74, 76), 683 (676)
- Deemer, D., 550, 552 (547)
- De Fries, J.C., 112 (105, 106, 107, 108, 109), 127 (116)
- de Groot, A., 323 (312, 313)
- DeHaan, R.G., 26 (4), 86 (69, 71, 83), 248 (233, 234), 407 (389, 390), 487 (474, 475, 479, 481, 482, 485), 664
- Dehn, D., 792 (780)
- Delcourt, M.A.B., 158 (154, 155), 230 (212)
- de Leon, J., 307 (289), 488 (478)
- De Leon, M.J., 127 (122)
- Delisle, J.R., 308 (298), 537 (526), 581 (578), 645 (637), 664 (658, 661, 663), 722 (718, 719), 768 (757, 763)
- DeLong, G.R., 280
- Dembinski, R.J., 537 (533)
- Demos, G.D., 249 (236), 665 (650)
- Demos, J., 384 (369)
- Denham, S.A., 469 (457), 739 (731)
- Deno, S., 725 (715)
- Denton, C., 423, 792 (786, 791)
- Denton, S.C.J., 333 (327)
- Department of Education and Science (DES), 423, 792 (786)
- DePue, W., 722 (717)
- Derevensky, J., 99 (95)
- Dessen, M.A., 863 (853)
- De Stefano, L., 144 (141)
- Detterman, D.K., 113 (107, 109), 130 (116)
- Dettman, D.F., 99 (96), 537 (526)
- Dettmer, P., 617 (608, 609), 629 (624), 877, 878 (867, 874, 876)
- Detzner, M., 722 (718, 719), 901 (895)
- Deutsch, D., 280
- Deutsch, G., 181 (178)
- Deutsch, M., 26 (20)
- Devin-Sheenan, L., 739 (733)
- De Vries, B., 553
- De Vries, R., 521 (512)
- Dewey, J., 277 (262), 407 (394), 550
- Diamond, L., 847 (833, 834)
- Di Blasio, P., 550
- Di Chiro, G., 127 (122)
- Dick, T.P., 706 (693)
- Dickinson, R.M., 537 (533)
- Di Genio, J.C., 45 (43), 863 (852)
- Di Guanhuai, 813 (811)
- DiLalla, L.F., 112 (107)
- Dillon, R.F., 145 (138)
- Dinham, S.M., 617, 618 (605, 607, 608, 610)
- DiPasquale, G.W., 407 (389, 398)
- Dirkes, M.A., 537 (526)
- Dirks, J., 227 (220)
- Dishart, M., 901 (891)
- Dittmann-Kohli, F., 205 (199)
- Dixon, B., 901 (891)
- Dixon, R.A., 205 (199)
- Dockal, V., 45 (43), 792 (780, 781, 784), 877 (867)
- Doddrill, K.L., 130 (122)
- Doerr, S.L., 127 (119)
- Doise, W., 550
- Dolan, J., 740 (728, 730)
- Dolbear, K.E., 489

- Doll, J., 323 (315)
Doman, G., 521 (515)
Donald, J.G., 145 (136)
Donaldson, G.W., 307 (299, 300)
Donchin, E., 128 (120), 206 (195)
Dörner, D., 65 (62)
Dorval, K.B., 565 (560)
Dossey, J., 768 (764)
Dover, A.C., 145, 147 (135, 137), 306, 309 (285, 296), 361 (340, 347, 348)
Doverspike, J., 738 (737)
Dow, E., 159 (153)
Dow Chemical Company, 564 (561)
Dowd, R.J., 664
Dowling, W., 179 (167)
Down, J.L., 179 (164)
Doyle, J.C., 128 (120)
Doyle, L.W., 682 (671)
Drabkova, H., 682 (670)
Drachman, D.A., 130 (125)
Draper, D., 522 (512)
Draper, T.W., 521 (519)
Drewelow, H., 792 (787)
Drews, E.M., 664
Drucker, P., 505 (491, 495)
Duara, R., 128, 129, 130 (122)
DuBois, P.H., 645 (631)
DuCette, J.P., 101 (97), 629 (624, 625)
Dudai, Y., 281
Duffy, G.G., 145 (141)
Duminy, P.A., 847 (838)
Dummer, L., 450 (444)
Duncan, R., 583 (569)
Dunn, B.R., 128 (120)
Dunn, K., 564 (559, 563)
Dunn, L., 629 (621)
Dunn, L.M., 248 (244), 306 (285, 289)
Dunn, R., 564 (559, 561, 563)
Dunn, T.G., 553 (548)
Dunstan, J., 45 (43, 44)
Du Plessis, L.M., 847 (834)
Durden, W.G., 441 (429, 430, 433, 435, 436, 438)
Durka, P.J., 127 (125)
Durr, W.H., 664 (650)
DuSel, J.C., 440 (431, 439)
Dustman, R.E., 128, 130 (124)
Dutton, B.E., 666
Düzen, E., 231 (224)
Dweck, C.S., 145 (140), 521 (515)
Dykstra, L., 664 (656)
- Eagleston, J., 724 (718)
Eaves, L., 128 (116)
Ebel, R.L., 228 (219)
Eccles, J., 450 (449), 706 (693, 704), 739 (731)
Eckensberger, L.H., 65 (60), 553 (548)
Edelstein, W., 159 (149, 151, 153, 154, 155, 157), 550 (548)
Edfeldt, A.W., 45 (36, 37), 792 (785)
Edgar, E., 231 (224)
Edlind, E., 739 (729)
Edmonds, R., 581 (575)
Edmunds, A.L., 232 (217)
Edwards, B., 277 (265)
Edwards, R.P., 308 (289, 290)
- Efron, R., 128 (120)
Egan, O., 228 (224)
Ehrlich, V.Z., 521 (519)
Eichholz, B., 450 (448)
Eilber, C.R., 469 (463)
Einhorn, H.J., 227, 228 (225)
Einstein, A., 487 (484)
Eisenberg, D., 722 (714)
Eisenhower, D., 505
Eisner, E., 384 (367, 371)
El-Aasar, S., 564 (561)
Eliot, J., 306 (283, 284)
Elkind, D., 521 (518)
Ellingson, M.K., 739 (729, 730)
Elliott, E.S., 145 (140), 521 (515)
Ellis, H., 792 (780)
Ellis, H.C., 99 (95)
Ellison, R.L., 277 (262), 335 (331), 582 (571, 575)
Ellsworth, B., 647 (641, 642)
Elman, L., 228 (220)
Elo, A.E., 323 (312)
Elrod, M.M., 100 (96), 308 (298)
Elshout, J., 682 (671)
Emberley, E., 277 (263)
Embretson, S.E., 306 (291)
Emerick, L.J., 722 (715, 720)
Emler, N.P., 551 (545)
Emmerich, M., 127 (122)
Emran, A., 130 (122)
Emrick, J.A., 228 (215)
Endean, L., 424 (415, 422)
Endsleg, R.C., 741 (730)
Eng, H., 277 (254, 258)
Engel, R., 128 (124)
Englehart, M., 768 (758, 760)
Engelmann, B., 26 (10)
Engelsgjerd, J.L., 581 (575, 580)
Epstein, E., 722 (714)
Epstein, J., 722 (711)
Erdwins, C.J., 522 (510)
Erickson, B., 550 (548)
Erickson, D.C., 536 (530), 722 (718)
Ericsson, K.A., 145 (133, 134), 323 (311, 312, 313, 314, 315, 316, 317, 318, 321)
Erikson, E., 550 (545)
Erikson, E.H., 99 (90, 96), 664 (657), 739
Eriksson, G.I., 847 (843, 844)
Ertl, J., 127, 128 (120, 123, 124)
Ervin-Tripp, S., 440 (428)
Estes, W.K., 26 (22)
Ethington, C.A., 706 (704)
ETS (Educational Testing Service), 158 (151)
Evans, F.R., 230 (217)
Evans, J.R., 309 (299)
Evans, T.G., 205 (192)
Eylon, B.-S., 617 (606), 751 (749, 750)
Eyre, D., 424
Eysenck, H.J., 127, 128 (115, 116, 121, 124, 125, 126), 360 (343, 347), 550 (544), 682 (670)
Eysenck, M.W., 128 (126)
Eysenck, S.B.G., 128 (126)
- Facaoaru, C., 65 (58), 99 (95), 228 (217), 792 (790)
Fagan, J.F., 306 (292), 521 (509)

- Fagan, S.F., 306 (292)
 Falbo, T., 521 (514)
 Falender, C., 521 (514)
 Falk, R.F., 645, 646 (641)
 Faraj, A.H., 407 (392)
 Falgout, J.C., 129 (122)
 Farah, M.J., 128 (120)
 Farber, B.A., 581, 582 (576)
 Farber, E.A., 281
 Farnisch, A.M., 147 (141)
 Farquhar, W.W., 666
 Farrell, D., 722 (718, 719)
 Fatouros, C., 306 (302, 303)
 Favazza, A., 334 (326)
 Federacion Iberoamericana Del Consejo Mundial Del Nino
 Dotado Y Talentoso Ficomundyt, 877
 Fedio, P., 127 (122)
 Fedoruk, G., 722 (715)
 Feehrer, C.E., 564 (558)
 Feger, B., 792 (780, 787), 901 (894)
 Feil, A., 278 (272)
 Fein, D., 279, 281 (274)
 Fein, S., 277 (258)
 Feingold, A., 706 (699, 700)
 Feinstein, M.H., 207 (192)
 Feldhusen, J.F., 65 (54, 62, 64), 86 (70, 71, 78, 85), 99,
 100 (97), 158, 159 (154), 227, 228, 230, 232 (209, 210
 (210, 217, 218, 225), 248, 249, 251 (234, 235, 236, 239,
 240, 242, 243, 244, 245, 246, 247), 334 (325, 332), 360
 (345), 384, 386 (365, 367, 369, 370, 371, 378, 382), 407,
 409 (389, 400), 423, 424, 425 (415), 487, 488, 489, 490
 (475, 476, 486), 521 (517), 537 (531, 535), 564, 565 (555,
 556, 558, 559, 560, 563), 581 (574, 575, 577, 579), 592
 (589, 590, 591), 604 (593), 665 (661), 690 (687), 739
 (729, 730), 751 (744, 750), 768, 770 (759, 760, 767), 793
 (788), 901 (892)
 Feldman, D.H., 86 (83), 99 (94), 112 (103), 145 (134, 143),
 179, 180, 181 (161, 162, 163, 164, 171, 175, 176, 179), 278,
 281 (253, 256, 257, 258, 267, 271, 272), 306 (283), 334
 (328, 331), 360, 362 (340, 347, 348, 349, 350, 351), 384
 (365), 424, 441, 487, 488, 490 (474, 480), 521 (508, 509),
 550, 664 (652), 682 (671), 739 (728), 901 (885)
 Feldman, K., 145 (140)
 Feldman, R.S., 739 (733)
 Feltovich, P.J., 323 (314)
 Feng, C.D., 409 (405), 469, 470 (464)
 Fennema, E., 144 (142), 665 (654), 706 (699)
 Fenton, J.C., 489 (474, 477, 481, 483)
 Feny, J., 707 (701)
 Ferdinand, W., 334 (327)
 Ferguson, G.A., 205 (198)
 Ferguson, T., 646 (643)
 Ferrara, R.A., 205 (202), 305 (284, 285, 291, 292, 293,
 301)
 Ferrell, B., 628 (625, 626)
 Ferrentino, A., 230 (219)
 Ferris, S.H., 127 (122)
 Fetterman, D.M., 26 (23), 360 (340)
 Feters, W.B., 158 (151)
 Feuerstein, R., 26 (22), 145 (138, 141), 205 (201, 202), 228
 (217), 306 (285, 291), 360 (343, 347, 348), 521 (512, 518),
 564 (559), 664 (656), 682 (669, 674), 690 (688)
 Fiedler, M.F., 310 (287, 289, 301), 524 (511)
 Field, T.M., 521 (514)
 Figueiredo, L.C.M., 863 (852)
 Fincham, F., 306 (297)
 Fine, B., 664 (651)
 Fine, M.J., 99 (96), 537 (532), 665, 901 (899)
 Fineman, C.A., 228 (215, 220)
 Fink, M.B., 664 (658)
 Firestien, R.L., 565, 566 (561)
 Fiscella, J., 520 (510)
 Fisch, B., 128 (117)
 Fischer, D.G., 128 (120, 123)
 Fischer, K.W., 205 (197)
 Fischhoff, B., 231 (225)
 Fiscus, E.D., 408, 409 (390, 398, 399), 523 (519), 629
 (621), 769 (758)
 Fish, G., 831 (818)
 Fisher, J., 664 (655)
 Fitts, P., 323 (316, 322)
 Fitz-Gibbon, C.T., 690 (686, 687)
 Flacks, R., 26 (17)
 Flanagan, J.C., 128 (121), 581 (574), 706 (700)
 Flaughner, R.L., 228 (218)
 Flavell, J.H., 65 (55), 145 (134, 137), 180 (163), 306 (285,
 295), 682 (677)
 Flaxman, E., 739 (732, 736, 737)
 Fleming, C.M., 407 (402, 403)
 Fleming, E., 158 (155)
 Flett, G.L., 522 (516)
 Fleuridas, C., 521 (518, 519)
 Flewelling, R.W., 407 (389, 398)
 Flexman, J.E., 724 (717)
 Flinn, E.A., 128 (124)
 Flinn, J.M., 128 (124)
 Florida Department of Education, 45 (35)
 Flynn, J.R., 26 (25), 306 (290), 521 (511)
 Fodor, J.A., 205 (194)
 Foley, W.J., 583 (580)
 Fonseca, F.G., 863 (856)
 Ford, B.G., 722 (709)
 Ford, G.W., 682 (671)
 Ford, M.A., 664 (657)
 Ford, R.D., 722 (709)
 Forester, J.J., 407 (389, 395)
 Forrest, D.W., 487 (473, 474)
 Forsyth, R., 663
 Fortner, M.J., 877
 Foster, N.L., 127 (122)
 Foster, W., 386 (365, 378, 382), 409 (400), 487 (477, 484,
 486), 537 (529, 532), 768
 Fowler, J.S., 127 (122)
 Fowler, W., 521 (515, 519), 682 (672)
 Fox, A., 664 (652)
 Fox, D.G., 277 (262)
 Fox, D.K., 901 (894)
 Fox, H.L., 682 (678)
 Fox, L.H., 87 (78), 361, 385 (369), 425, 441 (429, 433), 471
 (468), 537 (526), 706, 707 (694, 701, 702), 722 (714, 715,
 716), 739 (731, 732), 901 (890)
 Frankel, E.A., 664 (660)
 Frankenstein, C., 664 (655)
 Fraser, B., 725 (717)
 Fraser, B.J., 334 (327)
 Frasier, M.M., 248 (238), 360 (345, 350), 581 (578), 664
 (655), 690 (687, 689), 739 (731), 768 (762)
 Frazer, C.T., 307 (296)
 Frederickson, R.H., 739 (734)
 Freeburg, N.E., 521 (515)

- Freed, J.N., 645 (641)
 Freehill, M., 628
 Freeman, F.N., 407 (390, 394)
 Freeman, G.G., 441 (432)
 Freeman, J., 45 (37), 158 (153), 228 (217), 278, 280 (258, 272), 306 (287, 293, 294, 297, 298, 299, 300, 301, 304), 407 (403), 423, 424, 550, 551 (547, 549), 592 (586), 617 (606), 664 (660), 682 (669, 671, 672, 675, 677, 681, 682), 690 (687), 722 (719), 792, 793 (786, 787, 791), 813 (809), 877 (866)
 Freeman, N., 278 (254)
 Freeman, R.H., 441 (432)
 Freeman, S., 145
 Freire, P., 441 (430)
 French, A.L., 205 (201)
 French, J., 722 (718)
 French, J.L., 26 (15)
 French, L.A., 227 (217)
 French, W., 408 (387)
 Freud, A., 682 (680)
 Freud, S., 551 (544)
 Frey, B.R., 564, 565 (563)
 Fridjhon, P., 231 (217), 691 (688), 847 (841)
 Friedman, I.A., 581 (574, 576)
 Friedman, R.C., 130 (125), 145 (134), 230 (214)
 Friedrichs, T.P., 722 (711, 712, 720)
 Frieze, H., 664 (655)
 Frith, U., 278 (260)
 Frontera, R.L., 248 (237), 722 (715)
 Frost, N., 206 (192)
 Frothingham, P., 450 (448)
 Fruchter, B., 249 (245, 246)
 Fry, C., 682 (677)
 Frye, D., 523 (512)
 Fu, V.R., 523 (516)
 Fuchs, J., 683 (670)
 Fulker, D.W., 112 (106, 107, 108, 109), 127 (116)
 Fullan, M., 877 (875, 876, 877)
Function, 450 (449)
 Fund for the Advancement of Education, 901 (897)
 Fung, H.C., 490
 Furneaux, W.D.C., 407 (402)
 Furst, E., 768 (758, 760)
 Furtwengler, W.J., 581 (576)
 Fustin, M., 581 (571)
 Futterman, R., 706 (704)

 Gabriel, C.L., 280 (267, 269, 273), 336 (330)
 Gagné, F., 65 (49, 57), 86 (70, 72, 75, 76, 77, 78, 79, 81, 82, 83, 85), 249, 251 (234, 235, 247), 280, 306 (303), 334 (332), 362, 407 (399), 487 (474, 475, 485, 486), 617 (606), 877 (866, 876)
 Gainer, L.J., 564 (561)
 Galaburda, A.M., 128 (120), 180 (177), 278 (260, 265, 272, 273, 275)
 Galasso, V.G., 469 (463)
 Galbraith, J., 537 (535), 724 (718), 768 (757, 763)
 Gale, A., 128 (125)
 Galin, D., 205 (194, 195)
 Gallagher, J.J., 65 (51, 54), 99 (96), 228 (209), 249 (235, 238, 242), 360 (359), 384, 386 (365, 368 (369, 371, 383), 407 (391, 403), 424 (412), 441 (428), 450 (450), 488 (475, 477 479), 505 (492), 521 (507), 551 (546), 581 (578), 617, 618 (605, 607, 614), 628 (628), 664 (649, 650, 651, 652, 653, 658, 660, 662, 663), 690 (685, 686, 689), 722 (709), 739 (732), 768 (755, 757, 758, 759, 760), 776 (776), 807 (806), 877 (866, 867), 901 (885, 887)
 Gallagher, S., 386 (370)
 Gallagher, S.A., 645 (641, 642)
 Galton, F., 112 (103, 105, 108), 205 (188, 189, 190), 249 (233), 278 (253), 334 (329), 360 (341), 407 (393, 396), 488 (473, 474, 486), 521 (514), 645 (632, 633), 793
 Galvez-Hjornevik, C., 739 (730, 733)
 Gamble, H.W., 722 (711, 716, 717)
 Gamba, M.J., 863 (857)
 Gamoran, A., 385 (368), 441 (433), 592 (588, 589)
 Ganopole, S.J., 617 (609)
 Ganschow, L., 722 (716)
 Garbers, J.C., 249 (233)
 Garcia, J.H., 360
 Gardner, H., 26, 27 (5, 22), 65 (49, 57), 86, 87 (70, 71, 74, 75, 78), 99 (92), 158 (157), 180 (161, 163), 205, 207 (186, 187, 202, 203, 204), 228 (224), 249 (234, 239, 240), 278, 280, 281 (254, 255, 258, 259, 262, 263, 266, 267, 268, 269, 272, 276, 277), 306 (285), 360, 362 (340, 341, 342, 347, 348), 384 (365, 366, 369), 441 (428, 435), 450 (444), 522 (518), 537 (526, 527), 564 (559), 665 (650, 656), 683 (676, 677), 768 (756), 877 (865, 872)
 Gardner, J.W., 424
 Gardner, M.K., 207 (193)
 Garfield, J.L., 207 (192)
 Garrison, G.G., 490, 645 (632)
 Garvey, W.D., 469 (454)
 Gasser, T., 128 (123)
 Gath, D., 551 (546), 724 (718)
 Gau, R., 604 (597)
 Gauda, G., 307 (298)
 Gay, J., 205 (200), 690 (686)
 Gaydon, V., 231 (217), 691 (688), 847 (841)
 Gazzaniga, M.S., 128 (119), 180 (178), 205 (194)
 Gear, G.H., 228 (223), 424, 690 (685)
 Gearhart, M., 741
 Gee, B., 127 (122)
 Geisler, H.J., 307 (286), 901 (894)
 Genshaft, J., 645 (637)
 Gentes, C., 127 (122)
 Gephart, W.J., 583 (580)
 Geppert, U., 521 (515)
 George, A., 582 (577)
 George, A.E., 127 (122)
 George, D.R., 424 (415 (416, 418, 419, 422), 581 (570), 617 (606, 610), 878 (866)
 George, P.S., 592 (588), 768 (760)
 George, W.C., 65 (56), 228 (210), 407 (406), 423, 468, 469, 470 (457), 739 (731)
 Georgia Department of Education, 45 (32, 34)
 Gerber, M.M., 145 (141)
 Gerken, K.C., 723 (713)
 Gervais, M.D., 309 (288)
 Gerwirth, J.L., 552 (543)
 Geschka, H., 564 (561)
 Geschwind, N.A., 128 (120), 180 (177), 278 (260, 265, 272, 273, 275)
 Gesell, A., 278 (267)
 Getzels, J.W., 26 (14), 145 (136), 158 (151), 249 (234), 278 (266, 277), 334 (327), 423, 469 (454), 564 (557), 665 (653, 655, 661), 768 (760)
 Geuss, H., 306 (293), 450 (445)
 Gevins, A.S., 128 (120)

- Ghannam, J.H., 128 (120)
 Ghiselin, B., 469 (454)
 Ghiselli, E.E., 334 (331)
 Giannitrapani, D., 128 (123)
 Gibb, L., 769 (762)
 Gibbs, J.C., 551
 Gibson, J., 793 (787)
 Gibson, N.M., 127 (125)
 Giese, R., 384 (373)
 Giesen, H., 159 (152)
 Gifted Child Program, 847 (844)
 Gifted Children Task Force (GCTF), 831 (818)
 Gifted Education Council, 807 (797, 798, 799)
 Gilcrease, V.A., 128 (120)
 Gilday, D.L., 127 (119)
 Giles, W.F., 741 (730)
 Gilligan, C., 551 (544)
 Gilmore, J., 409 (398)
 Ginsberg, G., 537 (533)
 Giordani, B., 127 (122)
 Giri, J., 847 (835, 837)
 Glaser, E.J., 690 (686)
 Glaser, R., 100 (93), 144, 145, 146 (137, 138, 140), 227 (217), 308 (285), 323 (313, 314), 361 (339), 385 (367)
 Glass, G.V., 469 (455), 592 (588, 589), 628
 Glasser, H.K., 738 (731)
 Glasser, W., 665 (662)
 Glatthorn, A., 384 (375)
 Gleser, G., 227 (216, 218)
 Glick, J., 205 (200)
 Glover, J.A., 65 (57), 128 (115), 565 (561)
 Glynn, S.M., 129 (119)
 Goddard, H.H., 407 (395)
 Goertzel, M.G., 334 (330), 490, 521 (508, 514), 537 (532), 723 (709)
 Goertzel, T.G., 334 (330), 521 (508, 514), 537 (532)
 Goertzel, V., 334 (330), 490, 521 (508, 514), 537 (532), 723 (709)
 Goetz, K., 129 (125)
 Goetz, K.O., 129 (125)
 Goff, K., 692 (688)
 Goff, S.B., 706 (704)
 Goguen, L., 777 (771, 772)
 Gold, A., 159 (152), 324 (318, 319)
 Gold, M., 424 (417)
 Gold, M.J., 249 (236), 665
 Gold, S., 691
 Gold, S.R., 99 (95)
 Goldberg, I., 128 (121), 706 (700), 902 (897, 898)
 Goldberg, M.L., 26, 27 (14), 45 (40), 408 (387), 666 (649, 650, 651, 652, 653, 657, 658, 659, 660, 661, 662, 663), 901 (885)
 Goldberg, S., 488 (477, 478, 481)
 Golden, C.J., 205 (195)
 Golden, M., 520 (516)
 Goldenberg, D.S., 308 (291)
 Goldring, E.B., 751 (743, 748)
 Goldschmidt, E., 683 (670)
 Goldsmith, H.H., 112 (103, 104)
 Goldsmith, L.T., 180 (164, 171, 175, 176, 179), 278 (253, 254, 256, 257, 258, 267, 271, 272), 682 (671)
 Goldstein, D., 228 (217), 604 (594, 595, 599)
 Goldstein, K., 180 (165), 279 (275)
 Goldstein, P., 618 (605)
 Golin, A.K., 691 (688)
 Gollin, J., 520 (510), 550 (546)
 Golinkoff, R.M., 361 (340)
 Golomb, C., 278 (253, 254, 255, 257, 258)
 Gombert, J.E., 683 (672)
 Gombrich, E.H., 278 (257, 265)
 Gong, B., 814 (811)
 Gong, Z., 813 (811)
 Gonzalez, A., 863 (860)
 Gonzalez, M.A., 864 (858)
 Goodall, M., 424
 Goodenough, F.L., 278 (254, 259)
 Goodlad, J.I., 384 (365, 367), 768 (755, 765), 878 (875)
 Goodman, K.S., 441 (432)
 Goodnow, J., 278 (254)
 Goodwin, B., 425
 Gordon, A., 278 (254, 255, 256, 258, 266, 276)
 Gordon, E.W., 144 (141)
 Gordon, H.W., 278 (273)
 Gordon, W.J.J., 565 (558)
 Gorham, W.A., 128 (121), 706 (700)
 Gorman, R., 724 (717)
 Goswami, A., 145 (138), 360 (346, 348, 350)
 Gourley, T.J., 228 (210)
 Gowan, J.C., 249 (236), 360 (339, 340, 345, 347), 384 (369), 424 (423), 566 (558), 628 (624), 645 (634, 637, 638), 665 (650), 739
 Gözülü, L., 306 (289)
 Graber, J., 100 (96)
 Grady, C.L., 128, 129 (122)
 Graham, S., 145
 Gram, P., 128 (120)
 Grandin, T., 180 (165)
 Grane, M.E., 324 (312)
 Grant, B., 645 (641)
 Grant, J., 306 (299)
 Grau, P.N., 739 (731)
 Gräupl, E., 793 (788)
 Gray, M.M., 740 (733)
 Gray, W.A., 739, 740 (730, 733, 734)
 Gray, W.D., 228 (217)
 Greco, C., 306 (293)
 Gredler, G.R., 407 (392)
 Green, K., 99 (96), 665
 Greenfield, P.M., 205 (199)
 Greenfield, W.D., 581, 582 (573, 574)
 Greeno, J.G., 145 (137), 768 (760)
 Greenwood, S., 360 (339, 340)
 Gregory, D.A., 691 (687, 689)
 Gregory, R., 281
 Grenier, M.E., 537 (532)
 Greuter, M.A.M., 230 (217)
 Grief, E.C., 552 (544, 546)
 Griffin, J.B., 691 (688)
 Grillmayr, B., 793 (788)
 Grinder, R.E., 99 (95), 407 (394), 488 (473), 706 (694)
 Groen, G.J., 324 (313, 314)
 Groholt, P., 564 (561)
 Gross, A.L., 228 (216)
 Gross, D.M., 129 (121)
 Gross, M.U.M., 86 (70), 407, 488 (474, 475, 478, 480, 481, 482, 483, 484, 485, 486), 521 (509, 517, 518), 617 (606)
 Grossberg, I.W., 99 (96)
 Grossi, J.A., 581 (577, 578), 723, 724 (712, 714, 716)
 Grossman, A., 129 (125)
 Grousset, R., 26 (7)

- Grubar, J.C., 306 (294)
 Grubb, J., 666 (653)
 Gruber, H.E., 65 (59), 145 (143), 232 (217), 281, 323, 324
 (311, 313, 318, 319), 360 (340, 347, 348, 349), 551 (549),
 683 (671, 672)
 Gruneberg, M.M., 323 (314)
 Gryskiewicz, S.S., 565 (562)
 Guba, E.G., 360 (358), 583 (580)
 Gubbins, E.J., 27 (23)
 Guberman, S.R., 741
 Gucker, D.K., 129 (124)
 Guenther, Z.C., 863 (853)
 Guest, C.W., 582 (571, 575)
 Guilford, A.M., 306 (298)
 Guilford, J.P., 26 (14), 86 (78), 145 (136), 205, 206 (191),
 249 (234, 245, 246), 360 (342), 424 (412, 414), 469 (455),
 565 (557, 558), 665 (650), 768 (759, 760), 901 (897)
 Gunderson, C.W., 723 (715)
 Gur, R.E., 129 (119)
 Guskey, T.R., 592 (588)
 Guskin, S.L., 228 (224)
 Gustafsson, J.E., 206 (191)
 Gustin, M.S., 582 (570)
 Gustin, W.C., 334 (330), 440, 441 (429, 431, 439)
 Guthke, J., 228 (217), 306 (286, 291, 303, 304)
 Gutteridge, D., 552 (546)
 Guttman, L., 206 (191), 706 (696)
 Gwany, D.M., 847 (838)
 Gygi, J., 386 (381)
- Haan, N., 551
 Haber, L.R., 278, 281 (265)
 Haber, R.N., 278, 281 (265)
 Hackney, P.W., 723 (721)
 Hadaway, N., 228 (209)
 Haden, T., 537 (529, 530)
 Haeger, W., 565 (563), 581 (579), 739 (729, 730)
 Haensly, P.A., 65 (56), 145 (136), 739 (729)
 Hage, G., 26 (14)
 Hage, J., 582 (576)
 Hagen, E.P., 227, 228 (209, 210), 250 (243), 306, 310 (285,
 286, 287, 290, 303), 488 (478), 691 (689), 741
 Haier, R.J., 129 (122, 125)
 Haight, D.A., 666
 Halberstam, D., 26 (17)
 Haldane, D., 228 (217)
 Hale-Benson, J.E., 384 (381)
 Halgren, E., 279 (273, 275)
 Hall, G.E., 582 (571, 574, 577)
 Hall, L.K., 306 (291, 304), 566 (560)
 Hall, R.V., 407 (389, 395)
 Hall, T., 384 (369)
 Hallahan, D.P., 249 (234)
 Hallak, J., 863 (849)
 Haller, E.P., 145 (140, 141)
 Halpern, D.F., 450 (443)
 Halsey, J.H., 129 (122)
 Halstead, W.C., 206 (194)
 Halsted, J., 384 (375), 488 (482), 537 (531, 535)
 Hamblen, K., 278 (261)
 Hambleton, R.K., 228 (213, 216, 221)
 Hamblin, D.J., 180 (178)
 Hamilton, W., 617 (608)
 Hamlin, M., 385 (375)
- Hammond, M.A., 520 (514)
 Hammond, R.L., 583 (580)
 Hampson, E., 129 (122)
 Haney, K., 227 (223)
 Hanford, S., 665 (657)
 Hannah, C.L., 145 (136)
 Hannay, H.J., 129 (122)
 Hanninen, G.E., 521 (519)
 Hansford, B.C., 334 (327)
 Hansford, S.J., 384 (381)
 Hanson, H.P., 469 (457)
 Hanson, I., 522 (510)
 Hanson, J., 629 (625)
 Hanson, M., 424, 739 (732)
 Hanusa, B., 664 (655)
 Hany, E.A., 65, 66 (51, 54, 57, 62), 99 (92), 159 (152),
 228, 229 (215, 217, 219, 223, 224, 225), 334 (326, 327),
 551, 793 (787, 790), 878 (867)
 Hany, G.W., 65 (51, 54, 57), 159 (152), 878 (867)
 Hare, R., 551 (543)
 Hardy, A., 901 (891)
 Hargreaves, D., 180 (167)
 Hargreaves Report, 665 (649)
 Harlow, H.F., 683 (672, 674)
 Harlow, M.K., 683 (674)
 Harmon, F., 505 (492, 493, 502)
 Harnad, S.R., 129 (119)
 Harnadek, A., 565 (558)
 Harold, R.D., 706 (693, 704)
 Harper, L.V., 522 (514)
 Harrel, G., 740 (729, 731, 733)
 Harrington, C., 739 (732, 736, 737)
 Harrington, D.M., 565 (557, 560), 768 (760)
 Harris, C.R., 645 (633)
 Harris, D., 278 (259)
 Harris, J., 521 (519)
 Harris, K., 383 (375)
 Harris, K.R., 145
 Harris, M.J., 112 (106)
 Harris, R., 333 (327)
 Harris, R.C., 807
 Harrison, C.H., 537 (533)
 Harrison, P.L., 249 (238, 243), 691 (688)
 Hartman, R.K., 250 (244), 308 (283), 335 (327), 425
 Harty, H., 229 (213, 218, 220)
 Harvey, S., 424
 Hase, K., 336 (329)
 Haseltine, F.P., 741 (731)
 Hassler, M., 278 (272, 273)
 Hatch, T., 158 (157)
 Hattie, J.A., 334 (327)
 Hausman, C.R., 361 (349, 352), 566 (561)
 Hausman, J.J., 278 (261)
 Havelock, R.G., 582 (571)
 Havighurst, R.J., 26 (4, 20), 65 (64), 86 (69, 71, 83), 248
 (234), 407 (389, 390), 487 (474, 475, 479, 481, 482, 485),
 664
 Havill, J., 831 (827, 828, 829)
 Hawking, S., 768
 Hawthorne, L.W., 307, 309 (288, 298)
 Haxby, J.V., 128, 129 (122)
 Hayden, T., 537 (534)
 Hayes, F.B., 307 (289)
 Hayes, M.L., 537 (526, 529, 530), 723 (718, 719)
 Hayes, R., 280 (260)

- Hayes-Jacobs, H., 384 (371)
 Hazlett, E., 129 (122)
 He, S., 814 (812)
 Healy, J.M., 522 (511)
 Hebb, S.B., 206 (194)
 Hebeler, J., 384 (368)
 Heck, R.H., 230 (218)
 Heid, M.K., 450 (444)
 Heinbokel, A., 307 (293), 793 (787)
 Heiser, S., 628 (623)
 Heisler, R.S., 359 (340)
 Helbig, H., 129 (115)
 Heller, J.I., 145 (138)
 Heller, K.A., 66 (49, 50, 56, 57, 58, 60, 61, 62), 99, 159
 (152, 154), 227, 228, 229, 230 (217, 219, 220, 223, 224),
 249 (234), 304, 307, 308 (284, 286, 289, 297, 301, 303),
 334, 335 (326, 327, 332), 423, 424, 488 (476), 551 (547),
 592 (586), 628 (623), 683 (672), 792, 793 (787, 788, 790),
 878 (868, 869, 870, 873), 901, 902 (884, 886, 895, 896)
 Heller, R., 505 (495)
 Heller, W., 129 (121)
 Hellert, U., 450 (448)
 Helmke, A., 334 (327), 592 (586)
 Helson, R., 469 (454)
 Henderson, B.B., 99 (95)
 Henderson, N.B., 128 (124)
 Hendricks, J., 740 (733)
 Hendrickson, A.E., 129 (124, 125), 206 (195, 196)
 Hendrickson, D.E., 127, 129 (124, 125), 205, 206 (195,
 196)
 Hendrickson, L., 334 (328)
 Hengen, T.J., 777 (771)
 Hennessey, B.A., 26 (7)
 Henson, R.A., 278, 280 (268)
 Herbert, E., 383 (366)
 Herman, G.N., 722 (715, 720)
 Hermelin, B., 100 (95), 180 (165, 168, 172, 173, 176, 179),
 278, 279, 280, 281 (259, 260, 274, 275)
 Hernandez, S., 384 (368)
 Herrman, N., 423
 Hersey, J., 902 (883)
 Hersey, P., 505 (492)
 Hersh, R., 450 (445)
 Herskovits, M., 793 (784), 878 (867)
 Hertel, E., 604 (597)
 Herzog, C., 159 (152)
 Hess, D.J., 683 (678)
 Hess, R.D., 522 (515)
 Heston, L.L., 113 (110)
 Hetherington, E.M., 683 (670)
 Hewer, A., 552
 Hewitt, P.L., 522 (516)
 Hichwa, R., 127 (122)
 Hickman, C., 506 (491, 495)
 Hiebert, E.H., 592 (588)
 Higgins, S., 723 (709)
High School and Beyond, 159 (151)
 Hildenbrand, S., 407 (394, 395)
 Hildreth, G.H., 645 (631, 632)
 Hilgendorf, E., 450 (448)
 Hill, A.L., 180 (164, 165), 279 (274), 723 (717)
 Hill, W., 768 (758, 760)
 Hilliard, A.G., 691 (686, 687, 688, 689)
 Hills, J.R., 249 (246)
 Hilton, T.L., 333 (328), 384 (372)
 Hines, D., 129 (119)
 Hinnersmann, H., 100 (93)
 Hirano, T., 807 (799, 806)
 Hirsch, E.D., 384 (365, 368, 375)
 Hirsch, N.D.M., 645 (631, 643)
 Hishinuma, E.S., 723 (721)
 Hiskey, M.S., 723 (714)
 Hitchfield, E.M., 423, 665 (655), 793 (786)
 Hlavsa, J., 792 (780)
 HMSO, 423
 Ho, K.C., 129 (122)
 Ho, W.-C., 180 (174, 175, 176, 177), 522 (509)
 Hobbs, S., 279 (265)
 Hobson, J.R., 407 (395, 398, 399)
 Hodge, R., 360 (350)
 Hoepfner, R., 206 (191)
 Hoffenberg, S., 231 (217), 691 (688), 847 (841)
 Hoffman, C.M., 408 (392)
 Hoffman, H.J., 127 (119)
 Hoffman, M.B., 360
 Hoffman, M.L., 551 (545)
 Hoffman, R., 362
 Hoffman, S., 333 (327)
 Hofstaetter, P.R., 129 (115)
 Hofstein, A., 617 (606), 751 (749, 750)
 Hogan, A., 691
 Hogan, R., 442, 551 (545)
 Hogarth, R.M., 227, 228 (225)
 Hogarty, P.S., 522 (511)
 Hoge, R.D., 229 (224), 249, 251 (234, 235, 240, 246, 247),
 629 (623), 691 (689, 690)
 Holahan, W., 751 (744)
 Holbeck, J., 583 (569)
 Holding, D.H., 323 (315)
 Holeman, R., 740 (732)
 Holevas, A., 281
 Holland, J.C., 706 (696, 697)
 Holland, J.L., 335 (329)
 Holliday, B.G., 384 (381)
 Hollinger, C.L., 158 (155), 229 (220)
 Hollingworth, L., 665 (649)
 Hollingworth, L.S., 249 (234), 278 (253, 259), 334 (328),
 384 (369), 407 (390, 391, 392, 394, 396), 488, 490 (474,
 475, 477, 479, 480, 481, 482, 483, 484, 485, 486), 537
 (529), 645 (631, 632, 633, 634, 636, 637, 642, 643), 768
 (764)
 Hollingsworth, P.L., 360 (345, 348)
 Hollmann, H., 229 (215)
 Holm, G., 523 (517)
 Holm, J.D., 847 (834)
 Holmes Group, 878 (875)
 Holstiege, H., 99 (98)
 Hong, E., 159 (153, 154)
 Hoover, S.M., 228 (218, 225), 248, 251 (234, 235, 236, 244,
 246, 247), 487 (475, 486)
 Hope, J., 831 (828)
 Hope, J.A., 307 (300)
 Hord, S.M., 582 (571, 574, 577)
 Horgan, D.D., 323 (320, 321)
 Horn, J.L., 86 (78), 130 (124), 206 (196)
 Horn, J.M., 112 (107)
 Horner, M.S., 665 (654, 659)
 Horowitz, F.D., 66 (55), 99 (96, 97), 145 (134), 249 (234),
 360 (347), 522 (507), 551, 768 (766)
 Horst, R.L., 130 (123)

- Hou, Z.X., 469 (462)
 House, P.A., 451 (449)
 Houston, W.R., 629
 Howe, J.A., 423
 Howe, L.W., 552 (549)
 Howe, M., 180 (166, 168), 683
 Howe, M.J.A., 112 (103), 229 (217), 249, 251 (235), 307, 310 (291, 292, 297, 299, 301, 302), 323 (312), 683
 Howell, H., 629 (625)
 Howieson, N., 334 (327)
 Howley, A., 249 (239), 424 (423)
 Howley, C.B., 249 (239), 424 (423)
 Howze, J., 724 (716, 721)
 Hoyt, D.P., 334 (331)
 Hoyt, K., 384 (368)
 Hrabinski, M., 793 (781)
 Hsai, J., 384 (372)
 Huang, J.F., 409 (405), 470 (458)
 Huberman, A.M., 582 (580)
 Hübl, W., 793 (788)
 Hudson, L., 565 (557), 665 (661)
 Huffman, L.E., 581 (579)
 Huie, K.S., 522 (514)
 Hull, D., 618 (605)
 Human Sciences Research Council, 45 (39), 847 (838)
 Hummer, A., 159 (152)
 Humphreys, L.G., 129 (121), 307 (284), 522 (511), 706, 707 (696, 700, 702, 705)
 Hundeide, K., 683 (672)
 Hunsaker, S.L., 617 (607, 608, 609 (611)
 Hunt, D., 128 (120, 123), 522 (509, 514)
 Hunt, D.M., 740 (730)
 Hunt, E.B., 206 (192, 193)
 Hunt, J., 334 (325)
 Hunt, J.McV., 665 (652)
 Hunt, R.R., 99 (95)
 Hunter, J.E., 231 (223), 334 (331), 707 (704)
 Hunter, R.F., 334 (331)
 Hurwitz, A., 278 (254, 255, 257, 258, 259, 276)
 Huynh, H., 229 (220)
 Hwang, P.A., 127 (119)
 Hyde, J.S., 665 (654), 706 (699)
 Hymovitch, J., 147 (135)
- Iacocca, L., 506 (494)
 Iacono, W.G., 112 (106)
 Ianni, F.A.G., 740
 Ibuka, M., 807 (800)
 Ide, J., 336 (330)
 Idzekowski, C.J., 305 (294)
 Ilg, F., 278 (267)
 Illes, J., 128 (120)
 Ingalls, J.D., 582 (571, 575, 577, 578, 579)
 Ingvar, D., 128 (122)
 Inhelder, B., 180 (163), 206 (196), 279 (262), 551 (549)
 Irvine, D., 723 (718), 878 (874)
 Irvine, S.H., 205, 206 (198), 229 (217)
 Isabella, L.A., 740 (731)
 Isaksen, S.G., 565, 566 (555, 556, 557, 559, 560, 561)
 Itty Chan, B., 667 (652)
- Jacklin, C.N., 451 (443)
 Jackson, D.M., 45 (30)
 Jackson, N.E., 66 (57), 86, 87 (74, 77, 79), 307, 308, 310 (290, 293, 298, 299, 300, 301, 302, 303), 451 (448), 522, 523, 524 (509, 510, 512, 515), 552, 740 (734), 814 (809), 902 (900)
 Jackson, P., 386, 423, 564 (557)
 Jackson, P.W., 26 (14), 249 (234), 665 (653, 661)
 Jacobs, J.C., 229 (223), 334 (327)
 Jacobs, J.E., 146 (141), 450 (449)
 Jacobs, L., 359 (340, 341, 347)
 Jacobson, L., 666 (656)
 Jaffee, J., 158 (151)
 James, J.E., 878 (875)
 Janis, I.L., 229 (225)
 Janos, P.M., 66 (55), 86 (72, 74), 99 (96), 249 (234), 385 (368), 488, 490 (474, 480, 481, 482, 484), 522 (509, 510, 516), 537 (526, 533), 551 (546, 547), 645 (643), 740
 Jansen, J., 451 (450)
 Jansen, M., 793 (785)
 Jarrell, R.H., 86 (70), 99 (93, 94)
 Jarvis, P., 682 (677)
 Jay, G., 423
 Jayaratne, C., 707 (704)
 Jellen, H.G., 86 (70), 360, 362 (340, 344, 347, 348), 795 (790)
 Jelsma, O., 145 (140)
 Jenkins, J.J., 206 (199)
 Jenkins, M.D., 692 (686)
 Jenkins-Friedman, R., 249 (236), 360 (343), 665 (658)
 Jennen-Steinmetz, C., 128 (123)
 Jensen, A.L., 582 (574, 576)
 Jensen, A.R., 112 (107), 129 (124), 206 (190, 193), 249 (246), 307 (285, 300, 301), 407
 Jensen, D.W., 158 (150), 407 (393, 394), 487 (474, 475, 477, 478, 479, 482, 483)
 Jensen, R., 793 (785)
 Jerison, H.J., 129 (121)
 Jersild, A.T., 488 (481)
 Jobagy, S., 683 (682), 725 (719)
 Johnsen, S.K., 249 (244), 723 (709)
 Johnson, D., 506 (491, 493, 500, 503)
 Johnson, D.W., 592 (588, 590), 768 (759)
 Johnson, H.A., 878 (865)
 Johnson, J.A., 551 (545)
 Johnson, L., 307 (302, 303), 665 (652, 657), 723 (709, 710, 711, 713, 714, 719, 720)
 Johnson, M., 360 (350)
 Johnson, R.A., 147 (133), 251 (236)
 Johnson, R.T., 592 (588, 590), 768 (759)
 Johnson, S.T., 100 (96)
 Johnson-Laird, P.N., 551 (544)
 Johnston, L., 665 (655)
 Johnston, P.S., 665
 Jollen, H.G., 423
 Jonas, H., 551 (544)
 Jones, A.K., 407 (404)
 Jones, C.A., 423
 Jones, E.D., 407, 408, 409 (388, 389, 390, 398, 399, 401, 404), 488, 490 (485), 523 (519), 769 (758)
 Jones, L., 565 (561), 768 (764)
 Jones, M.H., 604 (594)
 Joppich, K.-H., 604 (597)
 Jöreskog, K.G., 334 (333)
 Jorgensen, C., 146 (134, 138), 425
 Judd, T., 278 (268, 272, 275)
 Judson, J., 384 (373, 379)

- Judy, J.E., 144 (137)
 Juntune, J., 86 (78)
 Justman, J., 26 (14)
- Kaban, B.T., 424
 Kaczala, C.M., 706 (704)
 Kagan, J., 522 (507)
 Kagan, S., 768 (759)
 Kahane, R., 740 (729)
 Kahneman, D., 231 (225), 551, 553 (544)
 Kaiser, C., 147
 Kaiser, C.F., 536, 537 (526, 530)
 Kalinowski, A.G., 334 (330)
 Kamii, C., 145 (136, 141)
 Kanevsky, L.S., 145, 147 (134, 135, 137 (140, 144), 522 (510, 512, 513)
 Kang, Z., 814 (812)
 Kangas, J., 307 (287)
 Kaniel, S., 250 (237), 692 (688), 847 (841)
 Kansas State Board of Education, 45 (34)
 Kant, I., 551 (544)
 Kanter, R., 506 (491, 493, 495, 499)
 Kaplan, E., 281 (867)
 Kaplan, L., 537 (526)
 Kaplan, R.M., 249 (243)
 Kaplan, S., 384 (369), 877 (867)
 Kaplan, S.N., 363, 408 (391, 392), 723 (720)
 Karma, K., 278 (272)
 Karnes, F.A., 307, 308 (287, 289, 290, 297), 537 (534, 535), 551 (546), 629 (626, 627)
 Karnes, M.B., 307, 310 (295, 302, 303), 522, 524 (507, 510, 515, 517, 518, 519), 665 (652, 655, 657), 723 (709, 710, 711, 713, 714, 719, 720), 768
 Kast, F.E., 582 (576)
 Katholi, C.R., 129 (122)
 Kato, 807 (799, 800, 803, 804, 805, 806)
 Katzko, M.W., 794 (788, 790, 791)
 Kauffman, J.M., 249 (234)
 Kaufman, A.S., 206 (195), 249 (238, 243), 307 (288), 522 (512), 646 (637), 691 (688), 724 (711, 714, 715, 716)
 Kaufman, B., 451 (449)
 Kaufman, F., 582 (578)
 Kaufman, F.A., 159 (153), 360 (349), 604 (594)
 Kaufman, N.L., 206 (195), 307 (288), 646 (637), 691 (688), 724 (711, 714, 715, 716)
 Kaufmann, F.A., 617 (606, 611), 740 (729, 731, 733)
 Kaufmann, G., 565 (561)
 Kawczak, A., 645
 Kay, S., 145 (141)
 Kearney, H., 740 (727)
 Kearney, K., 489 (478, 480), 538 (533), 647 (638)
 Keating, D.P., 87 (78), 145 (134), 206 (199), 229 (211), 307 (293), 334 (326), 361, 384, 385 (369, 370), 425, 441 (429), 707 (694), 740
 Keen, C.H., 551
 Keeves, J.P., 469 (455)
 Keller, F.S., 469 (456)
 Keller, G., 99 (95), 902 (894)
 Keller, H., 307 (298)
 Keller, M., 551 (548)
 Kellmer-Pringle, M.L., 665 (649, 650, 651, 653, 657, 660, 661), 793 (786)
 Kellogg, R., 278 (255)
 Kelly, E.A., 682 (671)
- Kelly, E.W., 582 (578)
 Kelly, G.A., 683 (676)
 Kelly, J., 739 (735)
 Kelly, P.A., 309 (289)
 Kemp, P., 522 (515)
 Keniston, K., 26 (17)
 Kennedy, W., 127 (121)
 Kent, J., 112 (107)
 Kentucky Department of Education, 45 (32, 33)
 Kepner, C.H., 565 (558)
 Kerch, D., 249 (246)
 Keren, G., 229 (226)
 Kerr, B.A., 229 (217), 248, 249 (237, 238), 537 (525, 529, 530, 531, 533, 535), 645 (632, 637, 642), 706, 707 (704), 740, 902 (895)
 Kerschensteiner, G., 278 (255, 257, 258, 259)
 Kerwin, K., 309 (297)
 Kett, J., 408 (393)
 Khan, S.B., 334 (329)
 Khatena, J., 229 (209), 278 (262), 384 (369), 408 (392), 665 (649, 650, 653, 655, 656, 657, 661), 814 (809)
 Khire, U., 565 (561)
 Khoury, T., 723 (718)
 Kiesswetter, K., 451 (444, 447, 449)
 Kilshaw, D., 277 (260)
 Kim, B., 617 (606, 612)
 Kimball, M.M., 707 (705)
 Kimura, D., 129 (122)
 King, I.B., 408 (395)
 King, L., 360 (339, 340)
 Kingsley, M.E., 308 (296)
 Kinkaid, D., 488 (481, 483)
 Kinney, L., 690 (686, 689)
 Kiosseoglou, G., 130 (120)
 Kirby, D.F., 408 (387, 400), 423, 691
 Kirk, S., 249 (235)
 Kirner, J.J., 831 (818)
 Kirp, D.L., 683 (678)
 Kirsch, A.D., 128 (124)
 Kirschenbaum, H., 552 (549)
 Kirschenbaum, R., 423, 722 (715, 720)
 Kirst, M., 768 (759)
 Kirsten, S., 521 (517)
 Kirton, M.J., 565 (561)
 Kistner, J.A., 310 (293)
 Kitano, M.K., 307 (289), 408 (387, 400), 423, 488 (478), 522 (510), 691 (689), 768 (762)
 Kjems, J.K., 441 (435)
 Klauer, K.J., 229 (213, 215, 217, 220, 221), 522 (517)
 Klausmeier, K., 249 (243)
 Klein, H., 793 (789)
 Klein, K.M., 305 (300, 301)
 Klein, P.S., 99 (96), 522, 524 (510, 517, 518)
 Klein, S.P., 230 (218)
 Kleine, P.A., 537, 538 (526, 527, 529, 531, 534, 536)
 Klemm, W.R., 384 (374)
 Klemp, G.O., 334 (330)
 Klene, R., 522 (509)
 Kliegl, R., 323 (315)
 Kline, B.E., 488 (474 (475), 645 (637)
 Kline, R., 280 (260)
 Klitgaard, R., 334 (331)
 Klix, F., 66 (58, 59)
 Klopfer, D., 323 (314)
 Klopfer, L.E., 386 (373)

- Knauss, G., 45 (38)
 Knoche, W., 129 (115)
 Knoff, H.M., 307 (290)
 Koch, A., 536 (527, 533)
 Kodym, M., 792 (780)
 Koe, F.T., 384 (381)
 Koeppe, R.A., 127 (122)
 Kogan, N., 567 (557, 558)
 Kohlberg, L., 550, 551, 552 (539, 540, 541, 542, 545, 546 (547, 548, 549))
 Kohn, M., 522 (514)
 Koloff, P.B., 360 (345)
 Kolloff, M.B., 158 (154), 384 (367, 369, 370)
 Kolloff, P.P., 424
 Kolmogorov, A.N., 451 (448)
 Kolstad, A.J., 158 (151)
 Kontos, S., 86 (70), 307 (295, 296)
 Koopmans-Dayton, J.D., 521 (517)
 Kopelke, K., 441 (436, 438)
 Koppelman, M., 469 (463)
 Kon, X.N., 469 (467)
 Kong, H., 807
 Körkel, J., 323, 324 (319, 320)
 Kornrich, M., 665
 Kosek, S., 229 (220)
 Kotovsky, K., 309 (298), 324 (312), 361 (349)
 Kough, J., 248 (233), 902 (892)
 Kovak, T., 45 (43), 792 (781, 784), 877 (867)
 Kowitz, G.T., 665 (660)
 Kozarz, B., 129 (122)
 Kozma, R.B., 145 (136, 140)
 Krahe McGrath, S., 306 (292)
 Kram, K.E., 740 (730 (731, 737))
 Krampe, R.Th., 323 (315, 316, 317, 318)
 Kranzler, J.H., 129 (124)
 Krapp, A., 229 (217), 335 (327)
 Krasney, N., 100 (95), 646 (643), 683 (681), 740
 Krathwohl, D., 768 (758, 760)
 Krauth, J., 229 (219)
 Kraynak, A.R., 384 (381), 665 (657)
 Krechevsky, M., 280 (267, 268, 269), 522 (518)
 Krepelka, E.J., 565 (559, 560), 768 (760)
 Kress, G., 360 (350)
 Kress, M., 628 (625, 626)
 Kretschmer, E., 793 (780)
 Kreuzig, H.W., 65 (62)
 Krewer, B., 65 (60)
 Kricheff, I.I., 127 (122)
 Krogius, N., 323 (3160)
 Kröhnert, O., 793 (790)
 Krugman, M., 665
 Krupp, J.A., 740 (730)
 Krutetskii, V.A., 145 (137, 138), 451 (444, 450)
 Kubinger, K., 307 (285, 291)
 Kuechenmeister, M.A., 617 (611)
 Kuhl, D.E., 127 (122)
 Kuhl, J., 66 (62)
 Kuhn, B., 65 (59)
 Kuhn, T.S., 360, 363 (347), 384 (374), 469, 470 (455)
 Kulieke, M.J., 100 (95), 386 (370), 646 (643), 683 (681), 740, 769 (756, 762)
 Kulik, C.C., 229 (217), 360 (339), 385 (368), 408 (398), 441 (433), 469 (456), 592 (588, 589, 590, 591), 739 (733), 768 (757, 763)
 Kulik, J.A., 229 (217), 360 (339), 385 (368), 408 (398), 441 (433), 469 (456), 592 (588, 589, 590, 591), 739 (733), 768 (757, 763)
 Kumar, K., 232 (225)
 Kuo, W.F., 807 (805)
 Kupfersmid, J.H., 552
 Kurth, W., 793 (780)
 Kurtines, W., 552 (544, 546)
 Kurtines, W.M., 552 (543)
 Kurtz, B.E., 305, 307, 309 (296, 297), 768 (756, 766)
 Kuster, U., 521 (515)
 Kutas, M., 128 (120)
 Kutz, W., 582 (574)
 Kuusinen, J., 334 (327)
 Kwalick, B., 740 (736)
 Kwok, C., 807
 Kyle, W.C., 470 (455)
 Kyllonen, P.C., 206 (191), 707 (696)
 Kyung-Won, J., 665 (661)
 Laagland, E., 159 (154)
 Laboratory of Comparative Human Cognition, 206 (198)
 LaBuda, M.C., 112 (108)
 Lafontaine, L., 278 (274)
 Lafoon, K., 665 (658)
 LaFrenz, N., 537 (531), 739 (731)
 Lajoie, S.P., 145, 147 (135, 137), 723 (718, 719)
 Lakoff, G., 360 (350)
 Lamon, S.J., 706 (699)
 Lamonte, J.L., 26 (10)
 Lancer, I., 664
 Landau, M., 618 (606, 611)
 Landesman, S., 308 (290, 298), 523 (509, 511, 514)
 Landrum, M.S., 617 (613)
 Landvogt, J., 488 (476)
 Lange-Eichbaum, W., 129 (115), 793 (780)
 Langenbeck, M., 488 (477, 478, 481)
 Langer, J., 99 (90, 91), 385 (375)
 Lansky, L.M., 279 (260)
 Lark-Horovitz, B., 278, 279 (254, 255, 257, 260, 261, 264, 276)
 Larkin, J.H., 145 (137), 323 (314)
 La Rossa, C., 181 (163)
 Larsen, J.M., 521 (519)
 Larson, A., 878
 Larson, K.A., 145 (141)
 Larson, R., 682 (670)
 LaSalle, D., 470 (466)
 Laski, H.J., 27 (8)
 Lauer, J.M., 249 (245, 247), 582 (580)
 Lavin, D.E., 334 (329)
 Law, A., 617 (607)
 Lawless, R.F., 582 (580)
 Lazar, I., 522 (519)
 Lazarus, E., 278 (261, 262)
 Laznibatova, J., 45 (43), 792 (781, 784), 877 (867)
 Leão, T.S.C., 863 (853)
 Leckie, M.S., 520 (515)
 Lecky, P., 537 (536)
 Lécuyer, R., 307 (292)
 LeDoux, J.E., 180 (178)
 Lee, C.C., 99 (96)
 Lee, S., 278 (274, 275), 807 (799, 800, 803, 804, 805, 806)
 Lehman, E.B., 522 (510)

- Lehman, H.C., 408 (397), 489 (474)
 Lehtinen, S., 127 (122)
 Lehwald, G., 307 (295, 298), 665 (657), 683 (675)
 Leites, N.S., 307 (284)
 Leithwood, K.A., 522 (509), 878 (876)
 Leli, D.A., 129 (122)
 Lempers, J., 522 (512)
 Lenard, H.G., 128 (123)
 Lerner, J., 522 (514)
 Lerner, R., 522 (514)
 Lerner, R.M., 683 (670)
 LeRose, B., 100 (96), 360 (339, 340), 691 (687)
 Leroux, J., 629, 723 (719)
 Lesgold, A.M., 146 (137), 323 (314)
 Leskinen, E., 334 (327)
 Leslie, L., 324 (320)
 Leslie, P., 777 (771)
 Lester, F.K., 307 (300)
 Lester, M.L., 130 (123)
 Leung, E.K., 691 (689)
 Leung, K.C., 129 (121)
 Levertov, D., 441 (436)
 Levey, S., 740 (728, 730)
 Levine, C., 552
 Levine, E.S., 723 (714, 717)
 Levi-Strauss, C., 206 (199)
 Leviton, L.C., 592 (588)
 Levy, J., 129 (120, 121), 206 (194)
 Lewis, D., 279 (273)
 Lewis, G.F., 723 (720)
 Lewis, H., 278 (254, 255, 257, 260, 264, 276)
 Lewis, J., 206 (193), 691 (688)
 Lewis, J.F., 740 (731)
 Lewis, M., 307, 308 (292, 293 (297, 298, 301, 302, 304),
 522, 524 (509, 510), 683 (671)
 Lewman, B.S., 307 (303), 665 (655)
 Leydon, S., 423
 L'Hommedieu, R., 617 (614)
 Libbey, P., 550 (548)
 Libby, R., 229 (225)
 Liberati, D., 127 (125)
 Liberman, A., 278 (258)
 Licata, J.W., 582 (573, 574)
 Lichsteinstein, P., 112 (106)
 Lichtenstein, S., 231 (225)
 Lickona, T., 552 (541)
 Lienert, G.A., 229 (219)
 Liker, J., 323 (320)
 Lim, S.H., 129 (121)
 Lin, C.Y., 564 (563)
 Lin, N., 582 (569)
 Lincoln, Y.S., 360 (358)
 Lindley, D.V., 230 (216)
 Lindsey, M., 629
 Lindsley, D.B., 129 (123)
 Lindzey, G., 706 (696)
 Link, F., 565 (559)
 Linn, M., 665 (654)
 Linnemeyer, S.A., 723 (709)
 Lipman, M., 565 (558)
 Lipset, S.M., 847
 Lipson, M.Y., 146 (137)
 Lipton, M., 592 (587)
 Little, A., 522 (512)
 Little, J.W., 581 (579)
 Little, M.B., 537 (532)
 Little, T.D., 335 (331)
 Liu, Y., 814 (812)
 Livingston, S.A., 229, 232 (219)
 Lloyd, B., 250 (235), 451 (443)
 Lloyd, B.H., 99 (96), 768 (757)
 Lochhead, J., 145 (140)
 Lock, R., 423
 Lockwood, A., 385 (373)
 Loef, M., 144 (142)
 Loehlin, J.C., 112 (106, 107), 129 (116)
 Loevinger, J., 707 (706)
 Loewenstein, D.A., 130 (122)
 Lofquist, L.H., 707 (695, 697, 706)
 Lohman, D.F., 86 (78)
 Lohmann, G., 550 (548)
 Lomax, R.G., 335 (327)
 Lombroso, C., 408 (393, 396), 646 (631, 632), 793 (780)
 Londo, W., 807 (799, 800, 803, 804, 805, 806)
 Lopes da Silva, F., 130 (117)
 Lord, F.M., 229 (220), 249 (246), 308 (285)
 Lorenz, K.Z., 683 (673)
 Lortie, D., 408 (394)
 Lose, B.D., 231 (218)
 Lottenberg, S., 129 (122)
 Louis, B., 307, 308 (293, 298, 304), 522, 524 (509, 510),
 683 (671)
 Lovecky, D.V., 522 (516)
 Lovell, K., 582 (574)
 Low, A., 280 (254), 524 (509, 516)
 Lowe, B., 666
 Lowell, E., 522 (515)
 Lowenfeld, V., 278 (254)
 Lowenstein, L.F., 99 (96), 793 (791)
 Lubar, J.F., 129 (121)
 Lubart, T.I., 67 (57), 100 (93)
 Lubart, T.J., 362, 902 (900)
 Lubinski, D., 129 (121), 706, 707 (696, 697, 699, 700, 701,
 702, 703, 705)
 Luca, M., 278 (254, 255, 257, 260, 264, 276)
 Lucci, D., 281
 Luchins, A.S., 145, 146 (137)
 Lucito, L.J., 690 (685)
 Luecking, E.M., 647
 Luftig, R.L., 99 (95, 96)
 Luiz, J.J., 847
 Lukenbill, N.B., 45 (31, 33, 35)
 Lum, M.K., 665
 Lunneborg, C., 206 (192, 193), 488 (474)
 Lupart, J.L., 227, 229 (210, 217), 723 (709, 713, 716, 721),
 878 (875)
 Lupkowski, A.E., 451 (447), 707 (699, 700, 701), 741 (734)
 Lupton, P.E., 100
 Luquet, G., 279 (254)
 Luria, A.R., 206 (194)
 Lykken, D.T., 85 (74), 111, 112 (106, 109), 682 (670)
 Lynch, S., 441 (431), 691 (688)
 Lynch, S.J., 470 (457, 458)
 Lynn, R., 129 (121), 683 (670), 792 (786)
 Lyon, P., 506
 Lytton, H., 707 (705)
 Maccoby, E.E., 451 (443)
 MacDonald, L., 179 (164), 277 (274)

- MacDonald, W.R., 361 (352)
 Machlowitz, M., 707 (704)
 MacKay, A.W., 777 (771)
 Mackey, W.D., 683 (678)
 Mackie, R., 629 (621)
 MacKinnon, D.W., 334 (330), 470 (454, 455), 537 (532, 533), 565 (557), 707 (697, 701)
 MacLachlan, A., 129 (122)
 Macmann, G.M., 99 (95)
 MacRae, L., 227, 229 (210)
 MacVicar, M.L.A., 740 (737)
 MacZala, C.M., 666 (655, 658)
 Madaus, G.F., 564 (555)
 Madden, N.A., 147 (141)
 Maddux, C.D., 408 (398)
 Madigan, F., 441 (432)
 Maehr, M.L., 335 (329)
 Maesch, C., 723 (715)
 Magoon, R.A., 424
 Mahan, J.M., 582 (569)
 Mahoney, A., 723 (718)
 Mahoney, P., 793 (790)
 Maier, N.E.A., 146 (141), 878 (871, 874, 875, 876, 877)
 Maker, C.J., 146 (134), 249, 251 (237, 238, 243), 363 (340), 385, 386 (365, 369, 371), 424 (412, 414, 417), 538 (530), 629 (623), 691 (687, 690), 723, 724, 725 (709, 711, 712, 713, 714, 716), 768, 770 (757, 762), 902 (890, 891)
 Maksic, S., 793 (780, 781, 784)
 Male, R.A., 230 (210)
 Malet, O., 488 (474)
 Mallatt, S.G., 129 (125)
 Manaster, G.J., 646 (637, 642)
 Mandell, C., 629 (621)
 Mandl, H., 65 (59), 323 (311)
 Mangieri, J.N., 441 (432)
 Manitoba education and training, 777 (776)
 Mann, C.A., 129 (121)
 Mann, L., 229 (225)
 Manning, R.G., 128 (122)
 Mansfield, R.S., 359 (339), 470 (454, 455), 565 (559, 560), 768 (760)
 Mansi, L., 127 (122)
 Manske, F., 506 (492, 493, 496)
 Manturzeska, M., 793, 794 (784)
 Manuel, H.T., 279 (257, 259)
 Manz, C., 506 (492, 502)
 Manzanero, J., 646 (641)
 Maoz, N., 617 (606), 751 (743, 746, 749, 750)
 Maple, S.A., 707 (693)
 Marat, S., 807 (798)
 Marchaim, U., 470 (467)
 Marcus, M.M., 130 (124)
 Mardell-Czudnowski, C., 308 (291)
 Marek-Schroer, M.F., 228 (209)
 Margolin, R.A., 128 (122)
 Mari, S., 665 (656)
 Marjoram, D.T.E., 249 (233), 308 (301), 424, 451 (444, 449), 794 (787, 791)
 Markel, D., 127 (122)
 Marks, C., 424 (418)
 Markwardt, E.C. Jr., 248 (244)
 Marland, E., 618 (606)
 Marland, S.P. Jr., 27 (19), 45 (29, 30), 86 (70, 71, 76, 78, 81), 249 (233, 234, 235, 236), 488 (475), 506 (492), 723 (710, 720), 768 (755), 777 (774), 831 (817), 902 (889)
 Marquardt, R.G., 537 (534, 535), 723 (718)
 Marshalek, B., 206 (191), 707 (696, 697)
 Marshall, K.J., 385 (367)
 Marshall, M., 279 (271)
 Marshall, R.L., 180 (169)
 Marshall, R.S., 582 (580)
 Martin, D., 565 (558)
 Martin, D.E., 360
 Martin, N., 128 (116)
 Martin, R.P., 307 (289)
 Martin, S.L., 229 (216, 222)
 Martin, S.M., 146 (141)
 Martindale, C., 129 (119)
 Martinson, R.A., 334 (327), 488 (478)
 Maruyama, G., 592 (588, 590)
 Marwood, K.A., 99 (96)
 Marx, M.H., 100 (89)
 Marzano, R., 385 (374), 565 (559)
 Mascie-Taylor, C.G.N., 683 (672)
 Maslow, A.H., 424, 506 (493), 665 (657)
 Mason, E.J., 100 (89, 95)
 Mason, P., 424
 Mastropieri, M.A., 146 (134, 136, 138), 425
 Matarazzo, J.D., 129 (123)
 Matheson, I.J., 45 (40)
 Mathews, F.N., 308 (303)
 Mathews, W., 385 (381)
 Mathis, W., 617 (605, 616)
 Matters, P., 831 (819)
 Matthew, J.L., 691 (688)
 Matthews, J., 279 (255)
 Matyushkin, A.M., 665 (657)
 Maughan, B., 666 (656, 660)
 Maurer, K., 129 (117)
 Maurer, T.J., 229 (219)
 Mauser, A., 723 (711)
 Mauser, A.J., 537 (533)
 Mawhinney, P.E., 408 (395)
 Maxcy, S.J., 582 (573)
 Mayr, U., 323 (315)
 Mazziotta, J.C., 279 (273, 275)
 Mbiti, J.S., 847 (834)
 McAlaster, R., 130 (123)
 McAlpine, D.S., 424, 618 (606), 831, 832 (819, 827, 828, 829)
 McAskie, M., 112 (108)
 McBeath, M., 691 (687)
 McCall, R.B., 308 (289), 522 (511)
 McCallum, R.S., 129 (119), 305, 308 (287, 289, 290)
 McCants, G., 723 (718)
 McCarthy, D.A., 308 (288)
 McCarthy, G., 128 (120), 206 (195)
 McCartney, K., 112 (106), 683 (670), 707 (699)
 McCauley, C., 309 (295)
 McClain, W.H., 441 (435)
 McClary, S., 27 (26)
 McClean Taylor, J., 551
 McClearn, G.E., 112 (105, 106, 107, 109)
 McClelland, D., 180 (168), 522 (515), 629 (624)
 McClelland, D.C. 334 (330, 331), 665 (659), 740, 902 (885, 886, 889)
 McClelland, J.L., 206 (194)
 McCoart, R.F., 470 (457, 458)
 McConnell, F.E., 722 (717)
 McCuen, J.T., 666 (650)

- McCumsey, J., 582 (574)
 McCurdy, H.G., 334 (329), 522 (508, 514)
 McDermott, J., 145 (137), 323 (314)
 McDill, E.L., 878 (875)
 McDonald, F., 550 (542)
 McDonnell, R.C., 144 (133), 227 (210), 250 (239, 245), 536 (525), 666 (655), 691, 738 (731, 734)
 McElwee, R., 488 (482, 483)
 McFarland, C.E., 308 (295)
 McFie, J., 206 (199)
 McGarry-Roberts, P.A., 129 (125)
 McGavern, N.G., 740 (737)
 McGaw, B.V., 469 (455), 592 (589), 628
 McGill, A.M., 470 (456, 457)
 McGillivray, B., 127 (117)
 McGinn, P.V., 441, 442 (433)
 McGowan, R.J., 666
 McGrath, C., 831 (824, 825)
 McGrath, S.K., 521 (509)
 McGreevy, A., 723 (718), 740 (728, 729)
 McGregor, I., 279 (264)
 McGue, M., 85 (74), 111, 112 (105, 106, 109), 682 (670)
 McGuffog, C., 522 (513)
 McHolland, J.D., 666 (662)
 McHugh, M., 664 (655)
 McIntyre, D.J., 227 (224)
 McKenna, M., 385 (375)
 McKenna, P.G., 740 (737)
 McKenzie, J.A., 740 (731)
 McKernon, P., 278 (268)
 McKnight, C., 768 (764)
 McLean, J., 831 (828)
 McLean, J.M., 279 (260)
 McLeod, J., 249 (242, 245), 691 (686, 687), 792 (780)
 McMann, N., 723 (718)
 McNair, M.L., 740 (736)
 McPherson, S.L., 323 (319)
 Mda, L., 847 (841)
 Mebert, C.J., 279 (260)
 Meckstroth, E.A., 310 (293), 488, 489 (474, 475), 538 (525, 526, 529, 530, 531, 532, 534, 535, 536), 645, 646, 647 (637, 641), 903 (894, 895)
 Medin, D.L., 229, 230 (224)
 Meece, J.L., 706 (704)
 Meehl, P.E., 230 (223)
 Meeker, M.N., 146 (136, 140, 141), 361 (342, 348, 358), 385 (368), 424 (414), 691 (687), 768 (759, 760)
 Meeker, R., 146 (140), 424 (414), 691 (687)
 Mehlhorn, G., 794 (787)
 Mehlhorn, H.-G., 794 (787)
 Meichenbaum, D.A., 146 (137)
 Meili, R., 130 (115)
 Meininger, L.K., 361 (350)
 Meintjies, C., 847 (842)
 Meisgeier, C., 723 (711)
 Mellenbergh, G.J., 230, 231, 232 (216, 221)
 Meloth, M.S., 145 (141)
 Melzer, A.S., 564 (561)
 Menacher, P., 66 (50), 304 (301), 792 (790), 878 (868, 869, 870, 873), 901 (895)
 Menard, S., 159 (149)
 Menges, R.J., 617 (614)
 Mentz, H.J., 847 (842)
 Mercer, J.R., 691 (688), 740 (731), 768 (761)
 Merenheimo, J., 100 (96)
 Meriman, H.O., 583 (580)
 Merleau-Ponty, M., 441 (427)
 Merriam, S.B., 488 (478), 740
 Merrill, M.A., 362 (342), 524 (511)
 Merton, R.K., 470 (453)
 Merz, F., 451 (443)
 Mesibov, G.B., 180 (165)
 Messick, S., 617 (615)
 Metherell, T., 488 (476)
 Meumann, E., 794 (780)
 Meyer, J., 901 (891)
 Meyers, M.B., 280 (260)
 Meyersberg, H.A., 666 (651)
 Mezynski, K., 470 (457, 458)
 Michael, C., 740 (730)
 Michael-Dyer, G., 769 (762)
 Michalson, L., 308 (297, 298 (301, 302))
 Michel, G.F., 279 (260)
 Michener, L.A., 582 (576, 579)
 Micklus, S., 146 (141), 565 (559)
 Midgley, C., 706 (704)
 Migdal, S., 159 (157)
 Milam, C.P., 617 (606, 611), 740 (729, 731, 733)
 Miles, C.C., 334 (327), 523 (509, 514)
 Miles, M.B., 582 (580)
 Milgram, N.A., 159 (154), 565 (561)
 Milgram, R.M., 100 (97), 159 (153, 154), 361 (344, 347, 348), 523 (516), 564, 565 (561), 751 (743, 748), 902 (895)
 Mill, J.S., 408 (394), 523 (509)
 Miller, A., 537 (532)
 Miller, A.B., 582 (580)
 Miller, E., 130 (120)
 Miller, J., 385 (375)
 Miller, L.B., 740 (729, 731, 733)
 Miller, L.K., 180 (165, 166, 167, 168, 169, 168, 171, 176, 179), 279 (253, 263, 267, 268, 274, 275), 523 (509)
 Miller, N.B., 646 (640, 641)
 Miller, P., 385 (375)
 Miller, R., 552 (546)
 Mills, C.J., 441 (430, 431, 433), 691 (688)
 Mills, C.N., 228, 230 (221)
 Mills, J.R., 308 (299, 300)
 Milner, J.O., 100 (96), 308 (298)
 Minchin, M., 831 (818)
 Ministre de l'Education du Nouveau-Brunswick, 777 (775)
 Ministre de l'Education du Quebec, 777 (775)
 Ministry of Education, R.O.C., 807 (804)
 Minkovitch, A., 740 (731)
 Minner, S., 723 (712, 714), 878 (875)
 Minor, L.L., 99 (95), 304 (300), 333 (326), 706 (704)
 Minton, H.L., 100 (90)
 Miranda, D., 307 (298)
 Mischel, H.N., 552 (539)
 Mischel, W., 552 (539), 683 (675)
 Mishra, S., 249 (243)
 Mistry, J., 537 (527, 530)
 Mitchell, B., 425 (416), 691 (687)
 Mitchell, B.G., 101 (92)
 Mitchell, B.M., 86 (81), 794 (785, 788)
 Mitchell, C., 228 (217)
 Mitchell, R.F., 206 (193)
 Mitchell, S., 831 (817)
 Mocks, J., 128 (123)
 Modgil, C., 552 (546)
 Modgil, S., 552 (546)

- Moede, W., 794 (780)
Moffett, A., 279 (267, 269, 272)
Moisan, C., 791 (790)
Mokyr, J., 27 (7)
Molenaar, I.W., 232 (221)
Monheit, M.A., 128 (120)
Mönks, F.J., 66 (49, 56, 62), 100 (94, 96), 159 (153), 249 (245), 334 (332), 488, 489 (476), 552, 646 (643), 794 (780, 787, 788, 790, 791), 902 (885, 894)
Monroe, G., 129 (122)
Monsaas, J.A., 334 (330)
Monson, J., 146 (134, 138), 425
Montessori, M., 683 (674)
Montgomery, H., 230 (225)
Montour, K.M., 180 (162), 408 (394), 488, 490 (477)
Mooij, T., 249 (238)
Moon, J., 617 (606, 612)
Moon, S.M., 159 (154), 228 (217)
Moon, T., 618 (616)
Moore, A.D., 230 (219, 225)
Moore, C., 523 (512)
Moore, L.C., 523 (516)
Moore, M.W., 691 (688)
Moore, P.J., 308 (300)
Moore, S., 738 (736)
Moores, D.F., 488 (474)
Morales, R., 863 (858)
Moran, J.D., 523 (516)
Moreau, J., 794
Morelock, M.J., 180 (161, 163, 179), 281, 488 (474, 480), 646 (635, 636, 637)
Moretti, M., 127 (120)
Morgan, D., 323 (320, 321)
Morgan, L., 723 (719)
Morgan, M., 279 (263, 264)
Morgan, S., 310 (293)
Morishima, A., 279, 281 (254, 264), 724 (717)
Morlet, J., 129 (125)
Morris, P.E., 323 (314)
Mortimer, P., 666 (656, 660)
Morton, J., 666
Mortorff-Albert, S., 724 (711)
Mosley, V., 740 (727, 729)
Moss, E., 100 (95), 146 (135, 140), 308 (295), 523 (512, 515)
Motard, D., 86 (77, 81)
Motorola Inc., 565 (561)
Moule, A., 407 (389, 398)
Moulin, E.K., 666 (660)
Muehle, G., 130 (115)
Muia, J.A., 581 (570)
Muir-Broadus, J.E., 308 (295, 297)
Mulcahy, R.F., 146 (140), 667 (656)
Mulder, G., 127 (118)
Müller, E.A., 902 (895)
Müller, H., 451 (449)
Munandar, U., 807 (798)
Mundy, P., 180 (170)
Munger, A., 646 (637)
Munro, T., 279 (261)
Murdock, M.C., 565 (561)
Murphy, D.L., 230 (214)
Murphy, J., 878 (875)
Murphy, T.D., 229 (224)
Murray, H.A., 159 (151)
Mursell, J., 180 (166)
Mussen, P.H., 666 (657)
Myers, D.G., 230 (225)
Myers, M.G., 307 (293)
Myers, R.E., 565, 566 (558)
Myrick, R.D., 666
Nagorcka, M., 831 (819, 824, 825)
Nagy, K., 248 (235)
Naisbitt, J., 768 (758)
Nakoneczna, D., 794 (784)
Narvaez, D., 552 (546)
Nash, W.R., 65 (56)
National Assessment of Educational Progress, 385 (372, 375, 376, 377)
National Assessment Governing Board, 385 (375)
National Association for Gifted Children (NAGC), 45 (37), 424 (417)
National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, 629 (623)
National Center for Education Statistics, 27 (21)
National Commission on Excellence in Education, 334 (325), 385 (365), 408 (396), 769 (766)
National Council of Teachers of English, 385 (373)
National Science Board Commission, 385 (365, 372)
Natriello, G., 878 (876)
Natsopoulos, D., 130 (120)
Nau, D.S., 230 (219)
Navarre, J., 740 (731)
Naylor, J.C., 230 (216)
Neber, H., 230 (217)
Nebes, R.D., 130 (120)
Necka, E., 230 (217), 249 (234), 794 (784)
Nedelsky, L., 230 (219)
Neethling, J.S., 847 (838)
Neiderhiser, J., 112 (111)
Neigemann, H., 146 (138)
Neill, R.D., 26 (14)
Nelson, D., 592 (590)
Nelson, J., 629 (621)
Nelson, R.B., 408 (395, 398)
Nelson, R.D., 308 (301), 451 (444, 449)
Nelson, V.L., 523 (514)
Nelson-Piercy, C., 523 (512)
Nesselrode, J.R., 112 (106, 107), 159 (149)
Nettlebeck, T., 130, 131 (124)
Neubauer, A., 86 (74), 130 (120)
Neubauer, P.B., 86 (74)
Neville, H., 279 (275)
Nevo, D., 692 (688)
New Brunswick School Act, 777 (775)
Newell, A., 206 (192), 323 (315)
Newfoundland Department of Education, 777 (775)
New Hampshire State Department of Education, 45 (31)
Newland, T.E., 249 (234), 425, 666
Newman, I., 738 (737)
Newman, J., 361 (347, 351)
New South Wales Board of Studies, 487 (476), 831 (818, 825)
New South Wales Department of School Education, 279 (261)
New South Wales Government, 488 (476)
New South Wales Government Strategy, 831 (818)
New South Wales Implementation Strategies, 831 (820)

- New South Wales Policy, 831 (818, 819, 820, 825)
 New Zealand Department of Education, 832 (816)
 New Zealand Ministry of Education, 832 (819, 828)
 New Zealand National Educational Guidelines, 832 (816)
 Nichols, M.L., 99 (95, 96)
 Nichols, P.L., 127 (121)
 Nichols, R.C., 129, 130 (116), 335 (329)
 Nickerson, R.S., 146 (140)
 Niedermeyer, E., 130 (117)
 Nielsen, M.E., 724 (711)
 Nirpharake, A., 565 (561)
 Nisan, M., 664 (654, 659, 661)
 Nisbet, J.F., 646 (631, 632)
 Nisbett, R., 552 (544)
 Nishimura, K., 724 (717)
 Nixon, J., 722 (715, 720)
 Nixon, R., 506 (491, 497)
 Noble, K.D., 489 (474), 523 (509, 510), 646 (637, 642, 643), 707 (704)
 Nolan, R.F., 308 (288)
 Noller, R.B., 564, 565 (558, 563)
 Norcross, J.C., 305 (287, 290)
 Norris, D.E., 408 (391)
 Northern Territory Policy, 832 (818, 824, 825)
 Novak, D., 425
 Nova Scotia Department of Education, 777 (775)
 Novick, M.R., 228, 229, 230 (213, 216, 220), 308 (285)
 Nuechterlein, K.N., 129 (122)
 Nutting, P.F., 488 (476)
 Nyman, B.A., 520 (515)
- Oakes, J., 385 (368), 592 (587, 588)
 Obrian, B., 281 (266)
 O'Boyle, M.W., 130 (121)
 O'Brien, M., 66 (55), 99 (96, 97), 145 (134), 249 (234), 360 (340, 347), 551, 768 (766)
 Ochse, R., 335, 336 (325), 523 (508)
 O'Connor, F., 441 (434, 436, 437, 440)
 O'Connor, N., 100 (95), 180 (161, 165, 166, 168, 172, 173, 176, 179), 278, 279, 280, 281 (259, 260, 274, 275)
 Oden, M.H., 100 (92), 112 (108), 159, 160 (150), 250, 251 (234), 310 (283, 287, 298), 324 (311), 335 (331), 362 (342), 408, 409 (393, 395), 489 (478, 479, 481, 484, 486), 538 (525), 647 (632), 667 (649), 741 (731), 769, 770 (763), 903 (884, 888)
 O'Donnell, B.F., 130 (125)
 Oestreicher, M., 740 (732, 737)
 Ogburn Colangelo, M.K., 646 (642, 643)
 Ogilvie, E., 425 (415, 423), 794 (786)
 O'Halloran, P.J., 604 (597)
 Oikle, E., 385 (381)
 Okey, J.R., 471 (456)
 Oklahoma State Board of Education, 45 (34)
 Oladokun, T.O., 847 (838), 878 (871)
 Oldfield, R.C., 279 (273)
 Oliver, R., 723 (718)
 Olson, D.R., 441 (428, 434, 436, 439)
 Olson, M.B., 130 (119)
 Olszewski, P., 769 (756, 762), 618 (606, 611)
 Olszewski-Kubilius, P.M., 100 (95), 386 (365), 604 (601), 646 (643), 683 (681), 740
 Olton, R., 564 (558)
 Olver, R.R., 205 (199)
 Ones, D.S., 231 (223)
- Ontario Education Act, 777 (772)
 Ontario Ministry of Education, 777 (772)
 Opwis, K. (318, 319)
 Orasanu, J.M., 228 (217)
 Orbzut, A., 408 (395, 398)
 Orbzut, J.E., 408 (395, 398)
 Orio, S., 550 (546), 791 (791)
 Orlando, J.E., 146 (141)
 Ornstein, R., 205 (194, 195)
 Ormrod, J.E., 65 (55), 86 (70)
 Or-Noy, A., 617 (606)
 Orr, D.B., 128 (121), 706 (700)
 Osaka, M., 130 (124)
 Osaka, N., 130 (124)
 Osborn, A.F., 565 (557)
 Osborne, R.T., 130 (121)
 Osburn, W.J., 408 (390)
 Oscanyan, F., 565 (558)
 Oser, F., 552 (548)
 O'Shea, A., 666
 O'Shea, H., 488 (482, 484), 552
 Ostow, M., 130 (123)
 Ostrander, S., 618 (605)
 Oswald, I., 305 (294)
 Ouston, J., 666 (656, 660)
 Overton, W.F., 361 (347, 348, 351, 352)
 Owen, D.R., 113 (107)
 Owen, S.V., 87 (70), 248 (236), 722 (715, 720)
- Packe, M.S.J., 408 (394)
 Packwood, G., 130 (120)
 Padak, N.D., 878 (865)
 Paek, J., 129 (122)
 Page, B.A., 537 (529)
 Page, R.N., 385 (368)
 Pagnin, A., 550 (547)
 Paine, S., 279 (254, 255, 256)
 Painter, F., 794 (786)
 Palincsar, A.S., 146 (141), 305 (296), 385 (377), 740
 Pallas, A.M., 878 (875)
 Palmer, F.B., 309 (287, 289), 523 (511)
 Panowitsch, H.R., 552 (548)
 Paris, S.G., 146 (137, 141)
 Pariser, D., 180 (164), 279, 280 (253, 254, 255, 256, 257, 259, 265, 266)
 Park, C.C., 279 (254, 264)
 Parke, B.N., 618 (609), 769 (758)
 Parker, J.P., 425, 629 (626, 627)
 Parker, M., 724 (718)
 Parkerson, J.A., 335 (327)
 Parks, R.W., 130 (122)
 Parkyn, G.W., 832 (816)
 Parnes, S., 506 (491, 492), 769 (760)
 Parnes, S.J., 146 (141), 565 (557, 558, 560)
 Parr, I., 146 (138)
 Parreren, C.F., 100 (91, 97)
 Parson, J.E., 666 (658, 659)
 Pascual-Leone, J., 206 (197)
 Paskewicz, M., 724 (721)
 Passow, A.H., 26, 27 (14, 21), 46 (37), 66 (54), 230 (218), 361 (340), 384, 385, 386 (365, 369, 373), 408 (387, 390, 391, 392), 469, 470 (453 (466, 468), 488 (474), 582 (571, 580), 592 (588), 629 (627), 646 (632), 666 (649, 650, 651, 652, 653, 654, 655, 657, 658, 659, 660, 661, 662, 663), 683

- (682), 691 (685, 686), 740 (735), 751 (743, 748), 769 (757),
807 (807), 878 (865), 902 (888, 890, 891, 897, 898)
- Pasternak, S.R., 706 (701, 702)
- Patel, V.L., 324 (313, 314)
- Patrick, C.L., 666 (661)
- Patterson, C.H., 663 (661)
- Patton, J.M., 249 (237), 386 (381)
- Patton, J.R., 488 (474)
- Paul, R., 565 (558)
- Paulsell, J.C., 305 (299, 300)
- Pauly, P., 46
- Pawlik, K., 451 (443)
- Payne, D.A., 618 (612, 613), 666
- Payne, D.T., 521 (515)
- Payne, J., 488 (474)
- Peace Pilgrim, 646 (640, 641)
- Peat, D., 146 (140)
- Peat, F.D., 359 (346, 350)
- Peck, V.A., 85 (77), 144 (134), 305 (285, 293, 296, 297),
359 (339)
- Pedersen, N.L., 112 (106, 107)
- Pedrabissi, L., 550
- Pegnato, C.W., 230 (215, 223), 425, 489 (478), 629 (621)
- Peiser, N.L., 706 (701, 702)
- Pellegrino, A.S., 581 (579)
- Pellegrino, J.W., 100 (93), 308 (285)
- Pelletier, L.G., 86 (76)
- Pendarvis, E.D., 249 (239), 424 (423), 724 (712, 714, 716)
- Peng, C.Y., 228 (224)
- Pennsylvania Department of Education, 46 (32)
- Penny, J.B., 127 (122)
- Pentecoste, J.G., 666
- Pepler, D., 682 (670)
- Percy, W., 441
- Pereyra, C., 863 (859)
- Perfetti, C.A., 146 (137)
- Perkins, D.N., 86 (72), 146 (140), 361 (347), 385 (367), 441
(428, 438, 440), 683 (669)
- Perkins, J.A., 666 (661)
- Perkins, S., 468 (458)
- Perleth, C., 66 (57), 159 (152, 154), 230, 231 (217, 219),
304, 307, 308 (284, 285, 286, 289, 290, 296, 297, 301, 302),
335 (327), 902 (896)
- Perlmutter, M., 309 (295)
- Perney, J., 229 (220)
- Peronnet, F., 128 (120)
- Perou, R., 691
- Perrone, P.A., 159 (153), 230 (210)
- Perry, H., 309 (292), 523 (509)
- Pesut, D., 146 (140)
- Peters, C., 832 (818, 822)
- Peters, C.C., 230 (210)
- Peters, W.A.M., 794 (788)
- Petersen, A.C., 100 (96)
- Peterson, J.M., 279 (260)
- Peterson, K.D., 582 (573)
- Peterson, P.L., 144 (142)
- Petrill, S.A., 130 (116)
- Petzold, M., 66 (60)
- Pfouts, J.H., 308 (301)
- Pfurtscheller, G., 130 (120)
- Phelps, E., 159 (157)
- Phelps, M.E., 279 (273, 275)
- Phenix, P.H., 27 (4, 5)
- Philips, D., 506 (492)
- Phillips, I., 279 (260)
- Phillips, S.E., 249 (244)
- Phillips, W., 279 (265)
- Phillips-Jones, L., 740 (737)
- Phothisuk, U., 807 (805)
- Phua, S.L., 582 (575)
- Piaget, J., 27 (22), 100 (91, 93, 96, 97, 98), 180 (163), 206
(196, 197, 200), 279 (262), 361 (340, 343, 345, 350), 408
(394), 441 (430), 451 (445), 551, 552 (539, 545, 549), 646
(638), 666 (652, 657), 740
- Pickens, K., 618 (606)
- Pickering, J., 683 (673)
- Pidduck, R., 551 (546)
- Piechowski, M.M., 180 (163), 361 (344, 347, 348), 385
(368), 537 (529, 530, 531), 645, 646 (639, 640, 641, 642,
644)
- Pierce, J., 250 (234)
- Pifer, A., 27 (21)
- Pifer, K., 604 (595)
- Piirto, J.N., 537 (526, 531)
- Pinker, S., 147 (137)
- Piorkowski, C., 794 (780)
- Pipp, S.L., 205 (197)
- Pitts, J.R., 248 (237)
- Pitts, R., 537 (532), 722 (715)
- Pitz, G.F., 227, 230 (225)
- Pivik, R.T., 127, 130 (121), 305 (293, 294)
- Pizzini, E.L., 740 (727, 728, 729, 730)
- Planche, P., 523 (512)
- Plant, W.T., 707 (697)
- Plasket, C.M., 99 (95)
- Plato, 646
- Pledgie, T.K., 724 (712)
- Plomin, R., 86 (74), 112, 113 (103, 104, 105, 106, 107, 108,
109, 111), 127 (116), 523 (514), 683 (669, 670), 769 (761)
- Plowman, P.D., 424, 425
- Poats, R., 847 (836)
- Poirier, D., 777 (771, 772)
- Polette, N., 385 (375)
- Polin, R., 145 (141)
- Polk, B., 424, 425 (416)
- Pollack, S., 617 (614)
- Pollard, G., 724 (716, 721)
- Pollins, L.D., 408 (398)
- Pollock, J.I., 308 (294)
- Popham, W.J., 249 (240)
- Porter, R.M., 724 (709)
- Poskitt, J., 832 (828)
- Posner, M.I., 206 (193), 323 (316, 322)
- Postlethwaite, K., 423, 792 (786, 791)
- Postlethwaite, T.N., 470 (455)
- Potter, M.W., 333 (327)
- Povey, R.M., 794 (787)
- Powell, J., 147 (138)
- Powell, P.M., 537 (529, 530), 646 (637, 642)
- Powell, W.C., 581 (569, 575, 576)
- Poze, T., 565 (558)
- Prado, T.M., 451 (450), 792 (787, 790), 901, 902 (894,
895)
- Prasse, D.P., 305 (289)
- Prater, G., 723 (712)
- Pratt, F., 279 (265)
- Prentky, R.A., 130 (115)
- Presseisen, B.Z., 361 (348)
- Pressey, S.L., 408 (387, 389, 395)

- Pressley, M., 146 (140), 308, 309 (286, 293), 324 (318), 385 (367)
- Preston, D., 552 (548)
- Prichard, J.W., 130 (119)
- Prillaman, D., 249 (237), 386 (381), 740 (734)
- Pringle, M.L.K., 489 (474, 483)
- Proctor, T.B., 230 (217), 407 (389), 425
- Prom, J.S., 100 (96)
- Promboon, S., 807 (805)
- Provus, M.M., 583 (580), 618 (609)
- Prudner, J.A., 362
- Puccio, G.T., 565 (557, 560, 561)
- Puka, B., 552
- Pulvino, C.J., 100, 740 (738)
- Purkey, W.W., 646 (643), 666
- Pusch, G., 793 (788)
- Pyryt, M.C., 66 (50, 51, 54), 230 (218), 470 (468)
- Quarforth, J., 227 (220)
- Queensland Department of Education, 832 (818, 820, 822)
- Queneau, R., 442
- Quenon, B., 227 (220)
- Qui, B.S., 470 (465)
- Quint, J., 739 (732, 736)
- Quisenberry, N.L., 305 (284), 550 (546)
- Rabinowitz, M., 361 (339), 385 (367)
- Rackliffe, G., 145 (141)
- Radford, J., 180 (164), 279 (267, 268, 269, 272, 276), 308 (300, 301), 523 (508, 509), 683 (672)
- Radford, W.C., 46 (39)
- Raffan, J.M., 794 (786, 787)
- Raina, M.K., 565 (561)
- Raine, A., 130 (120)
- Raizen, S., 618 (605)
- Raju, N.S., 229 (216, 222)
- Rallis, S.F., 706 (693)
- Ramos-Ford, V., 27 (22)
- Ramsay, S.G., 407 (389, 398, 401)
- Ramsey, C.L., 230 (219)
- Rand, D., 769 (762)
- Rand, Y., 145 (138, 141), 360
- Randhawa, B.S., 128 (120, 123), 522 (509, 514)
- Rankin, D., 832 (818)
- Rankin, R.J., 310 (287)
- Rapagna, S.O., 145 (135, 140), 522 (512)
- Raph, J.B., 27 (14), 666 (649, 650, 651, 652, 653, 657, 658, 659, 660, 661, 662, 663), 902 (897, 898)
- Rapoport, A., 230 (225)
- Rapoport, S.I., 128, 129 (122)
- Rapoport, T., 740 (729)
- Rasavieh, A., 359 (340, 341, 347)
- Rasher, S.P., 336 (329, 330)
- Raven, J., 308 (285, 289), 691 (688), 794 (791), 878 (865)
- Raven, J.C., 308 (285, 289), 691 (688), 740
- Rawls, J., 552 (544, 545)
- Rawlinson, C., 832 (829)
- Rawson, M., 724 (714)
- Ray, B.C., 847 (834)
- Raynor, J.O., 663 (658, 659)
- Raz, N., 131 (121, 122)
- Read, S.A., 227 (213)
- Reagan-Cirincione, P., 230 (225)
- Recht, D.R., 324 (320)
- Redding, R.E., 441 (428, 431, 433), 666 (658, 660)
- Rees, E., 144 (138), 227 (217), 323 (313, 314)
- Rees, J.W., 723 (715)
- Reese, H.W., 361 (352)
- Regan, D., 130 (118, 125)
- Reggia, J.A., 230 (219)
- Rehak, A., 278 (272)
- Reich, C.A., 27 (18, 25)
- Reichenberg, R., 146 (141)
- Reid, B.D., 27 (23), 159 (157)
- Reid, N., 250 (236), 582 (577), 618 (606), 878 (872)
- Reid, N.A., 832 (829)
- Reif, F., 145 (138)
- Reilly, J., 537 (534, 535)
- Reilly, R.R., 335 (331)
- Reimers, F., 863 (849)
- Reinhard, D.I., 582 (574)
- Reis, S.M., 86 (75, 82), 100 (97), 146 (136, 141), 230 (210), 361, 425, 566 (563), 582 (574, 575), 592 (587), 618 (609), 629 (623), 707 (704), 769 (756, 759, 760, 762, 763), 878 (873, 874, 876)
- Reisberg, B., 127 (122)
- Reiss, D., 683 (670)
- Reither, F., 65 (62)
- Rejskind, F.G., 147 (144)
- Rekdal, C.K., 130 (119)
- Remle, R.C., 567 (555, 556, 559)
- Rende, R., 112 (108)
- Renkl, A., 65 (59)
- Renzulli, J.S., 27 (23), 86, 87 (70, 71, 72, 74, 75, 76, 78, 79, 81, 82), 100 (93, 94, 96, 97), 146 (134, 136, 141), 159 (153, 154), 206 (186, 187), 230 (210, 212, 223, 224), 250, 251 (233, 234, 235, 236, 239, 244), 308 (283, 298), 324 (322), 335 (327, 332), 361 (340, 344, 345, 347, 348, 349), 385 (367, 368, 369, 370), 408 (391, 392, 396), 423, 425 (412, 413, 415), 440 (433), 523 (516, 518), 565, 566 (559, 563), 582 (574, 575, 580), 618 (605, 607, 608, 609, 611, 612), 629 (623), 666, 667 (650, 655, 656), 691 (689), 769 (755, 756, 759, 760, 766), 832 (817), 878 (873, 874), 902 (885, 887, 888, 890, 891)
- Resnick, L.B., 146 (137)
- Resnick, R., 385 (366)
- Rest, J., 180 (163), 552 (542, 543, 545, 546, 547, 548)
- Reuss, S., 551 (548)
- Revesz, G., 180 (161, 162, 163, 167, 168, 170), 279 (267, 268, 269, 276), 902 (885)
- Reynolds, B., 440, 441 (430, 436, 438)
- Reynolds, C., 538 (526)
- Reynolds, C.R., 128 (115), 565 (561)
- Reynolds, M.C., 65 (56, 57), 250 (234, 238), 308 (290), 385 (368), 425
- Reynolds, S.E., 582
- Rezba, R., 384 (373)
- Rhodes, L.E., 130 (124)
- Rhodes, M., 566 (555)
- Riccio, J., 739 (732, 736)
- Rich, Y., 520 (510, 518)
- Richard, L., 145 (143)
- Richards, B.S., 553 (546)
- Richardson, H.P., 740 (736)
- Richardson, J., 279 (254, 255, 256, 258, 260, 266, 277)
- Richardson, R., 740 (734)
- Richert, E.S., 144 (133), 230 (210, 221, 226), 249, 250, 251 (236, 239, 245), 536 (525), 691, 738 (731, 734), 769 (761)

- Richert, S., 227 (210, 223), 666 (655)
 Richet, G., 279 (268, 269)
 Rickards, A.L., 683 (671)
 Rickards, T., 564, 566 (561)
 Rickover, H.G., 27 (13, 14)
 Rideout, W.M.J. Jr., 847 (836)
 Rieben, L., 794 (788)
 Rieder, H., 324 (320, 321)
 Riessman, F., 27 (20)
 Riley, D.A., 552 (548)
 Rimland, B., 180 (164, 165), 279 (274)
 Rimm, S.B., 86 (69, 70, 78), 99 (92), 227 (212), 248, 250
 (235, 237, 238, 239, 242), 407 (400), 424, 425 (412, 419),
 537, 538 (531, 532, 534), 618 (609), 664, 666 (649, 650,
 651, 652, 653, 654, 657, 658, 660, 661), 690, 722, 724 (711,
 718), 768, 769 (757, 763), 902 (898)
 Rindskopf, D., 230 (217)
 Risemberg, R., 592 (586)
 Rishpon, M., 617 (606), 751 (749, 750)
 Rising, G.R., 451 (449)
 Rissland, E.L., 207 (192)
 Robbins, A., 506 (493, 498)
 Robeck, M.C., 87 (77, 81)
 Roberts, G., 682 (671)
 Roberts, N.M., 145 (136)
 Roberts, W., 506 (492)
 Robertson, F.S., 847 (837)
 Robertson, J., 724 (711)
 Robertson-Tchabo, E., 129 (122)
 Robinson, A., 100 (96), 147 (143), 231 (216), 250 (247),
 360, 361 (339, 340, 345, 348), 441 (432, 433), 538 (526,
 535), 592 (590, 591), 618 (606, 613), 769 (760)
 Robinson, C., 521 (519)
 Robinson, H.B., 27 (20), 87 (74), 146 (134), 308, 310 (290,
 298, 301, 302, 303), 451 (448), 489 (475), 523, 524 (509,
 510, 517, 518), 552, 740 (734), 769 (756), 814 (809)
 Robinson, J.A., 308 (296)
 Robinson, J.T., 386 (373)
 Robinson, M., 832 (827)
 Robinson, N.M., 66 (55), 86 (72, 79), 99 (96), 249, 250
 (234, 242), 308 (287, 290, 298), 385 (368), 408 (398), 488,
 489 (474, 478, 481), 521, 522, 523 (509, 510, 511, 514, 515,
 516, 517, 519, 520), 537 (526, 533), 551 (546, 547), 645,
 646 (637, 642, 643), 740
 Robinson, R., 385 (375)
 Robinson, R.E., 280, 423, 440, 487 (474, 475)
 Robson, W.M., 129 (121)
 Roche, G.R., 740 (730)
 Roche, S., 280 (268)
 Rock, D.A., 228, 230 (218)
 Rodriguez, M., 683 (675)
 Rodriguez, R., 740 (732, 737)
 Roe, A., 130 (125), 324 (312), 335 (329, 330, 332), 490,
 707 (697)
 Roe, R.A., 230 (217)
 Roedell, W.C., 87 (74), 308, 310 (290, 298, 301, 302, 303),
 451 (448), 523, 524 (509, 510, 517, 518), 538 (529), 552
 (546), 646 (637, 638, 642), 724 (718), 740 (734), 814 (809)
 Roehler, L.R., 145 (141)
 Roelofs, J.J.W., 66 (49), 159 (153), 249 (245), 334 (332),
 488 (476), 794 (788, 791)
 Roeper, A., 538 (529), 582 (570, 573, 574, 576, 577)
 Roessmann, U., 129 (122)
 Rogers, B.G., 146 (134, 143), 250 (244), 629 (626)
 Rogers, C.R., 424
 Rogers, H.J., 228
 Rogers, K.B., 66 (50, 51, 54, 55, 56, 57), 231 (217), 361
 (339), 385 (366), 408 (398), 592 (588, 589, 590, 591), 769
 (756), 878 (876)
 Rogers, M.T., 538 (529, 533), 646 (641, 642)
 Rogoff, B., 537 (527, 530)
 Rohan, B.J., 408 (390)
 Rohrbaugh, J., 230 (225)
 Roldan, A.H., 46 (42), 807 (797, 801, 802, 806, 807), 878
 (871)
 Rolfe, L.M., 281
 Romney, D.M., 707 (705)
 Ronning, R.R., 65 (57), 128 (115), 565 (561)
 Ronvik, R., 361 (340)
 Rosch, E., 553 (546)
 Rose, D.H., 309 (292), 523 (509)
 Rose, M., 441 (428)
 Rose, M.A., 66 (58)
 Rose, S.A., 309 (292)
 Rosecrans, E.R., 336 (330)
 Rosemann, B., 66 (60)
 Rosenbaum, D.A., 207 (192)
 Rosenbaum, S.A., 724 (715)
 Rosenberg, B.G., 538 (532)
 Rosenblatt, E., 279 (258, 260)
 Rosenbloom, P.S., 323 (315)
 Rosenblum, S., 741 (732, 736)
 Rosen Marmor, J., 667 (652)
 Rosenstein, P., 878 (873)
 Rosenthal, R., 618 (614), 666 (656), 707 (699)
 Rosenzweig, J.E., 582 (576)
 Rosman, B.L., 522 (514)
 Rosner, S.L., 724 (712)
 Ross, A., 309 (287, 289), 523 (511)
 Ross, A.O., 538 (533)
 Ross, H.L., 690 (686)
 Ross, L., 552 (544)
 Rosselli, H., 506 (494, 497, 499, 500)
 Rossi, P., 618 (605)
 Rost, D.H., 66 (57, 62), 130 (115), 159 (153), 231 (216,
 223), 309 (283, 284, 297, 302, 303), 682 (681), 794 (790)
 Roth, C., 324 (318, 319)
 Roth, R.N., 666 (651)
 Rothenberg, A., 361 (349, 352), 566 (561)
 Rothman, E., 279 (275)
 Rothman, S., 27 (22), 113 (106), 250 (242)
 Rothmann, E., 180 (165)
 Rothney, J.W.M., 739 (734)
 Rothstein, H.R., 617 (614)
 Rotter, J.B., 666 (658), 683 (675)
 Rovine, M., 112 (106)
 Rowe, D.C., 113 (103)
 Rowe, M.P., 741 (731)
 Rowlands, P., 794 (786)
 Rubenson, D.L., 27 (6, 7), 361 (346, 347, 348)
 Rubin, D.B., 707 (699)
 Rubinson, H., 323 (314)
 Ruckman, D.R., 751 (744, 750)
 Rudnitski, R., 159 (155)
 Rugg, H.O., 408 (394)
 Ruiz, C., 864 (860)
 Rumelhart, D.E., 180 (168), 206 (194)
 Runco, M.A., 66 (57), 87 (72), 158 (154), 333, 336 (332),
 359, 361 (346, 347, 348), 566 (558, 561)
 Runions, T., 740, 741 (729, 730, 736)

- Runkel, P.J., 582 (576)
 Rüppell, H., 100 (93), 309 (291), 794 (790)
 Rushton, J.P., 552
 Russell, J.T., 231 (222)
 Russell, M.J., 130 (124)
 Rust, J.O., 130 (124), 231 (218)
 Rutherford, F., 385 (373, 374, 379)
 Rutherford, W.L., 582 (574, 577)
 Rutledge, A.N., 131 (121, 122)
 Rutter, M., 113 (103), 335 (331), 666 (656, 660)
 Ryan, E.B., 310 (297)
 Ryan, R.M., 86 (74, 76), 683 (676)
 Ryba, K., 832 (828)
 Rynders, J.E., 145 (138, 141), 360
- Saccuzzo, D.P., 249 (243)
 Sachs, N.J., 227, 230 (225)
 Saetveit, J., 279 (273)
 Safter, H.T., 566 (555, 560)
 Sah, A., 385 (381), 724 (721)
 Sahin, H., 231 (224)
 St Clair, K.L., 902 (894)
 St Denis, H., 552 (548)
 Sakharov, M., 582 (576)
 Salgado-Gama, M.C., 523 (517)
 Salomon, G., 385 (367), 441 (428, 438, 440)
 Salthouse, T.A., 324 (313)
 Salzer, R.T., 309 (299, 300)
 Sameroff, A., 769
 Samper, M.Z., 864 (857)
 Samson, G.E., 324 (312)
 Sanborn, M.P., 538 (532)
 Sanchirico, S.M., 740 (736)
 Sander, A., 231 (224)
 Sanders, J.H., 878 (866)
 Sanders, J.R., 618 (611)
 Sanders, L.H., 878 (866)
 Sanders, M.P.M., 66 (49), 159 (153), 249 (245), 334 (332),
 488 (476), 794 (788, 791)
 Sanderson, G.F., 683 (670)
 Sant'Ana, T.C.M., 864 (856)
 Sapphire, D.G., 724 (715, 716)
 Sapon-Shevrin, M., 582 (574)
 Saskatchewan Education, 777 (773)
 Saskatchewan Education Act, 777 (773)
 Sato, I.S. 250 (245), 877 (867)
 Sattler, J.M., 87 (82, 85), 250 (242, 243), 309, 310 (284,
 285, 286, 287, 288, 289, 290, 291), 538 (525, 526), 724
 (717)
 Savola, K.L., 160 (157)
 Sawicki, R., 228 (220)
 Sawrey, J.M., 489 (475)
 Sawyer, J., 231 (223)
 Sawyer, R., 250 (241, 246)
 Sawyer, R.N., 604 (594, 599), 751 (744)
 Sawyer, S., 130 (121)
 Sawyers, J.K., 523 (516)
 Saxe, G.B., 741
 Sayler, M.F., 248, 251 (244)
 Scardamalia, M., 144, 146 (137)
 Scariano, M.M., 180 (165)
 Scarr, S., 87 (74), 113 (107), 523 (514), 683 (670), 707
 (699)
 Schack, G.D., 100 (95), 231 (224), 629 (626)
- Schafer, E., 128, 130 (120, 124)
 Schafer, E.W.P., 206 (195)
 Schaffer, R.E., 128 (120)
 Schaie, K.W., 159 (149, 152, 156, 157)
 Scharten de Voogd, V.J., 794 (788)
 Scheblanova, H.I., 304 (284)
 Schecter, J.S., 489 (478)
 Scheerenberger, R.C., 180 (164)
 Scheerer, M., 180 (165), 279 (275)
 Schein, E.H., 582 (573)
 Scheinfeld, A., 279 (267, 272)
 Schenkenberg, T., 128 (124)
 Schetky, D.H., 646 (637, 641)
 Scheuerle, J., 306 (298)
 Schiefelbeim, E., 864 (849)
 Schiefele, U., 87 (74), 335 (327)
 Schiever, S.W., 646 (641, 642), 691 (687, 688, 690), 768
 (757)
 Schiff, M.M., 646 (637), 724 (711, 714, 715, 716)
 Schiffman, G.B., 386 (381)
 Schiller, D.P., 335 (327)
 Schlichter, C., 87 (69), 361 (345), 424, 425 (416), 566
 (559), 878 (873)
 Schmidt, F.L., 231 (223), 707 (704)
 Schmidt, M.H., 722 (718, 719), 901 (895)
 Schmiedler, A., 769 (762)
 Schmitz, C., 724 (718)
 Schmuck, R.A., 582 (576)
 Schmuckler, M., 469 (463)
 Schneider, B.H., 100 (96), 309 (288)
 Schneider, K., 309 (297)
 Schneider, R.W., 666 (659)
 Schneider, W., 65 (59), 159 (149, 153, 154, 155, 157), 231
 (217), 305, 308, 309 (286, 293, 295, 297), 323, 324 (318,
 319, 320, 321, 322)
 Schneidman, E., 724 (719), 769
 Schnur, J.O., 724 (711, 714)
 Schölmerich, A., 307 (298)
 Scholwinski, E., 538 (526)
 Schonberg, H.C., 279 (267, 268, 269, 271)
 Schöpfung, J., 794 (787)
 Schopler, E., 180 (165)
 Schoppa, L.J., 408 (404)
 Schrader, F.-W., 592 (586)
 Schreier, G., 794 (787)
 Schroeder, K., 604 (597)
 Schroeder, T.L., 307 (300)
 Schuler, G., 130 (120)
 Schultz, R., 131 (121, 122)
 Schunk, D.H., 87 (83), 146 (140)
 Schwanke, P.E., 863 (858)
 Schweiger, A., 281
 Scott, D., 279 (267, 269, 272)
 Scott, E., 552 (546)
 Scott, J., 383 (366)
 Scott, J.A., 564 (558)
 Scott, M., 408 (398), 522 (512), 740 (733)
 Scott, M.E., 537 (532)
 Scott, M.S., 691
 Scott, P., 739 (730)
 Scripp, L., 158, 159 (153)
 Scriven, M.S., 66 (62), 618 (605, 611)
 Scruggs, T.E., 146 (134, 136), 425
 Scudder, M.T., 487 (476)
 Seagoe, M., 538 (527, 528)

- Sears, P.S., 27 (20), 878 (875)
 Sears, R.R., 27 (20), 324 (312), 489 (484), 878 (875)
 Seashore, C., 279 (273), 489 (476)
 Sebring, A.D., 538 (529, 533), 646 (637)
 Seefeldt, C., 523 (517)
 Seeley, K.R., 250 (238), 386 (365, 378, 382), 409 (400), 582 (580), 724 (718, 719)
 Sefer, J., 794 (781, 784)
 Segal, J.W., 144, 146 (140)
 Segal, N.L., 85 (74), 111 (106), 683 (670)
 Seghini, J.B., 582 (571, 575)
 Seiden, R., 724 (719)
 Seidman, H.L., 864 (849)
 Sekowski, A., 46 (43, 44), 100 (95), 794 (780, 781, 784), 878 (867)
 Selfe, L., 180 (164, 171, 172, 174, 175, 176), 280 (254, 263, 264, 265)
 Selig, K., 489 (480, 484)
 Seligman, M.E.P., 536 (532)
 Sells, L.W., 707 (704)
 Senate Select Committee, 832 (819)
 Senge, P., 878 (876)
 Sergeant, D., 280 (268)
 Sergiovanni, T.J., 582 (574, 575)
 Serpell, R., 206 (199)
 Seymour, J., 724 (712)
 Shafer, J., 552 (548)
 Shaffer, D.R., 646 (644)
 Shailovsky, T., 751 (750)
 Shaklee, B.D., 691 (687, 689), 878 (865)
 Shallcross, D., 506 (491)
 Shane, H., 385 (373)
 Shanon, E., 280 (273)
 Shapiro, B.K., 309 (287, 289), 523 (511)
 Shapiro, E.C., 741 (731)
 Share, D.L., 683 (670)
 Sharp, A., 565 (558)
 Sharp, D.W., 205 (200)
 Sharpley, C.F., 231 (224)
 Shaughnessy, P., 127 (121)
 Shaver, J.P., 666
 Shaw, G.B., 146 (143), 489 (485)
 Shaw, J.C., 206 (192)
 Shaw, M.C., 666 (650, 652, 653, 658)
 Shaycroft, M.F., 128 (121), 706 (700)
 Sheldon, P.M., 489 (480, 482)
 Shepard, L., 231 (220), 408 (401)
 Shephard, H.A., 582 (569)
 Sheppard, S., 146 (137, 141)
 Sher, B., 386 (370)
 Sheramata, W., 130 (122)
 Sherman, J.G., 469 (456)
 Sherrod, L.R., 159, 160 (157)
 Sherwood, F., 794 (786, 787)
 Sherwood, R.D., 229 (213, 218, 220)
 Sheslow, D., 305 (287, 290)
 Shigaki, I.S., 100 (95), 523 (512)
 Shi Jiannong, 309 (296)
 Shimahara, N.K., 408 (404)
 Shiman, D., 847 (833)
 Shine, L.C., 230 (216)
 Shipman, V.C., 522 (515)
 Shively, M.S., 129 (121)
 Shlomo, K., 146 (141)
 Shmukler, D., 692 (688)
 Shneidman, E., 724 (719)
 Shoda, Y., 683 (675)
 Shonburn, S., 306 (298)
 Shore, B.M., 66, 67 (51, 55), 100 (95), 144, 145, 146, 147 (134, 135, 137, 138, 142, 143, 144), 231 (210, 216), 306, 309 (285, 296), 361 (339, 340, 347, 348), 424, 425 (422), 538 (526, 535), 723 (718, 719), 877 (876)
 Short, M., 794 (786, 787)
 Shucard, D., 130 (124)
 Shulman, L.S., 147 (142, 143)
 Shuter-Dyson, R., 280 (253, 267, 268, 269, 272, 273)
 Shuval, J.T., 666
 Shwedel, A.M., 307 (295), 522, 523 (510, 515, 518), 723 (709, 720)
 Shymansky, J.A., 470 (455)
 Sickinger, A., 794 (780)
 Sicola, P., 769 (760)
 Siegel, B.V., 129 (122)
 Sieglen, J., 231 (217), 335 (331)
 Siegler, R.S., 206 (197), 309 (298), 324 (312, 318), 361 (349), 683
 Siegvold, H., 451 (443)
 Sielaff, K., 451 (449)
 Sierwald, W., 66 (57), 230 (217, 219), 308 (285, 290, 302), 335 (327)
 Sigel, I.E., 361 (340, 343)
 Sigman, M.D., 180 (170), 305 (292)
 Silberg, J., 113 (103)
 Siler, R.F., 99 (95)
 Silk, A.M.J., 281
 Silva, M., 506 (491, 493, 495)
 Silva, P.A., 683 (670)
 Silver, H., 629 (625)
 Silver, S.J., 100 (95)
 Silverman, L.K., 180 (179), 250 (234, 242), 385, 386 (365, 378, 381, 382), 409 (400), 425, 489 (474, 475, 478, 480, 485, 486), 523 (510), 538 (526, 532, 533), 646, 647 (633, 637, 638, 640, 641, 642, 643, 644), 666 (657), 707 (704), 724 (716)
 Silverman, L.R., 629 (625)
 Silverstein, N.A., 741
 Simmons, S., 280 (261)
 Simon, B., 408 (402, 403)
 Simon, D.P., 145 (137), 323, 324 (314)
 Simon, H.A., 145 (137), 179 (169), 206 (189), 323, 324 (312, 313, 314, 315, 316, 318, 319), 769 (756)
 Simon, M., 228 (224)
 Simon, R., 228, 230 (221)
 Simon, S.B., 552 (549)
 Simon, T., 205 (192), 277 (253), 359 (341), 645 (632, 638)
 Simonoff, E., 113 (103)
 Simons, R.H., 666
 Simonton, D.K., 27 (7), 67 (57), 113 (103), 180 (164), 335, 336 (329, 330), 361 (347), 523 (509), 667, 902 (900)
 Sims, H., 506 (492, 502)
 Sinatra, R., 441 (428)
 Sing, C.F., 113 (110)
 Singapore Ministry of Education, 807 (802)
 Singer, L.T., 306 (292)
 Singley, M.K., 231 (217)
 Sisk, D., 361 (340), 506 (491, 493, 494, 496, 497, 499), 629 (621, 623, 624), 769 (762), 878 (867)
 Sithole, M., 847 (834)
 Sitkoff, S., 470 (466)
 Sizer, J., 385 (366)

- Skilbeck, M., 592 (585)
 Skinner, M., 683 (673)
 Skon, L., 592 (590)
 Skuy, M., 231 (217), 250 (237), 691, 692 (688), 847 (841)
 Slater, A., 309 (292), 523 (509)
 Slavin, R.E., 100 (97), 147 (141), 385 (381), 408 (401), 592 (588, 589, 590, 591), 769 (759, 763)
 Sloane, K.D., 280 (254, 258, 259), 335 (327, 330)
 Sloat, R.S., 537 (526, 529, 530), 723 (718, 719)
 Sloboda, J.A., 249, 251 (235), 280 (267, 268, 269, 272, 273, 274), 324 (317)
 Slosson, R.L., 309 (287)
 Slovik, P., 231 (225)
 Smart, L., 691 (687)
 Smeeke, H., 564 (561)
 Smilansky, M., 667 (656), 692 (688)
 Smit, G.J., 847 (837)
 Smith, B.D., 280 (260)
 Smith, C., 383 (381)
 Smith, E.E., 146 (140), 230 (224)
 Smith, E.R., 231 (224)
 Smith, J., 100 (96), 145 (133, 134), 180 (168), 323 (311, 312, 313, 314, 315), 832 (828, 829)
 Smith, L.H., 230 (210, 223), 250 (244), 425
 Smith, M.H., 408 (401)
 Smith, M.L., 408 (401), 469 (455), 592 (589), 628
 Smith, P., 629 (622)
 Smith, P.C., 231 (217)
 Smith, R., 683 (671, 672)
 Smith, S.B., 181 (178)
 Smolak, L., 523 (512)
 Smyth, E., 777 (771)
 Snarey, J.R., 552 (544)
 Snow, R.E., 65 (57), 206 (191), 564, 566 (559, 561), 707 (696, 697), 878 (865)
 Snyder, B., 385 (367)
 Snyder, P., 741 (732, 736)
 Snyder, S., 181 (163)
 Snyder, T.D., 408 (392)
 Snyderman, M., 27 (22), 113 (106), 250 (242)
 Sobell, J.L., 113 (110)
 Sobesky, W.E., 552 (545)
 Soderling, E., 129 (122)
 Sodian, B., 309 (295)
 Sokoloff, L., 128 (122)
 Solano, C.H., 470 (457)
 Solomon, G., 506 (493)
 Solorzano, D.G., 384 (372)
 Somekh, M.G., 127 (125)
 Sommer, S.S., 113 (110)
 Sommers, N., 385 (366)
 Sommers, S., 647 (637)
 Sontag, L.W., 523 (514)
 Sortore, M.R., 567 (555, 560)
 Sosniak, L.A., 280 (254, 256, 258, 259, 267, 272), 324 (316), 335 (327, 330), 470 (454)
 Sousa, J.A., 310 (298)
 Southall, G., 281
 South Australia Policy, 832 (818)
 Southern, M.L., 707 (697)
 Southern, W.T., 407, 408, 409 (388, 389, 390, 398, 399, 401), 488, 490 (485), 523 (519), 769 (758)
 Souza, L.M., 863, 864 (856)
 Soviet Commitment to Education, 27 (12)
 Spady, W.J., 385 (367)
 Span, P., 592 (586), 793, 794 (780, 787, 788)
 Spanier, G.B., 683 (670)
 Sparling, S., 769 (762)
 Spaulding, R.L., 27 (20)
 Spearman, C.E., 206 (190, 191, 192), 280 (253), 309 (285)
 Speer, S.K., 307, 309 (288, 298)
 Spengler, O., 27 (3, 4)
 Sperber, R., 309 (295)
 Sperry, R.W., 130 (119), 206 (194)
 Spickelmier, J., 552 (547)
 Spilich, G.J., 324 (314, 319)
 Spitz, H.H., 523 (512, 518)
 Spivey, N., 385 (375)
 Spranger, E., 795 (780)
 Springer, S.P., 181 (178)
 Sprinthall, N.A., 552 (548)
 Sprott, D.W., 130 (118)
 Stacy, D., 408 (398)
 Stage, F.K., 707 (693)
 Stahl, S., 385 (375)
 Stains, G., 707 (704)
 Stake, R.E., 618 (605, 611)
 Stamm, M., 795 (788)
 Stanley, B.S.K., 409 (390), 471 (457)
 Stanley, J.C., 27 (20), 65 (56), 87 (78), 127 (120), 159 (154), 231 (211, 213, 216), 250, 251 (236, 238, 243), 280 (267), 335 (326, 328), 361 (345, 348), 383, 384, 385, 386 (368, 369, 370), 407, 409 (389, 390, 395, 396, 400, 405, 406), 425, 441 (429, 430), 451 (447), 468, 470, 471 (453, 456, 457, 458, 462, 463, 464), 487, 489 (473, 478, 486, 487), 604 (598), 647 (632), 706, 707 (694, 699, 700, 701, 704), 738, 741 (731, 734), 769 (758, 762)
 Stanley, T.D., 100 (96), 618 (606, 613)
 Stanowski, W.M., 87 (69, 77)
 Stapf, A., 309 (284, 293, 300), 795 (790), 902 (894)
 Stapf, K.H., 309 (284, 293)
 Starkes, L.L., 324 (315)
 Starko, A.J., 100 (95), 147 (141), 231 (224), 583 (574, 579), 629 (626)
 Starnes, W.T., 691 (687, 689), 722 (716)
 Starosta-Rubinstein, S., 127 (122)
 Start, K.B., 488 (480, 482, 483)
 Staszewski, J.J., 323, 324 (314, 315)
 Stäudel, T., 65 (62)
 Stedman, L.M., 409 (387, 394)
 Stednitz, U., 795 (788)
 Steel, J.G., 724 (717)
 Steeley, J., 424
 Steen, L.A., 451 (445)
 Steen, R.G., 127 (119)
 Stefanich, F., 724 (714)
 Stefanich, G.P., 724 (711)
 Steffens, K., 66 (60), 231 (219)
 Stehli, A., 181 (165)
 Stein, M., 769
 Stein, M.I., 566 (557, 560), 902 (897)
 Steinberg, D., 307 (295), 522 (515)
 Steinberg, H., 128 (123)
 Steinberg, L., 489 (484)
 Steiner, C., 159 (152, 156)
 Steiner, G., 441 (427, 431, 440)
 Steinkamp, M.W., 335 (329)
 Stelmack, R.M., 129 (125)
 Stephens, M.A., 667
 Sterling, A., 361 (346, 348, 350)

- Stern, W., 100 (91, 93), 647 (632), 795 (780), 902 (883, 884)
- Sternberg, L., 425
- Sternberg, R.J., 27 (22), 65, 67 (49, 55, 57, 58, 59), 87 (69, 71, 77, 83), 100 (93), 144, 147 (134, 136, 137, 138), 181 (163), 206, 207 (185, 192, 193, 195, 202, 203, 204), 227, 231 (214, 217), 250, 251 (233, 235, 236), 280 (253), 304, 306, 309 (285, 291, 295, 297), 335 (325), 362 (340, 341, 346, 347, 348, 350), 385 (366, 373), 425, 451 (444, 445), 523 (516), 566 (559, 561), 667 (650, 655, 656), 769 (755, 756), 878 (865), 902 (887, 900)
- Sternberg, S., 207 (193)
- Stevens, R.J., 147 (141)
- Stevenson, H.W., 385 (366, 372), 807 (799, 800, 803, 804, 805, 806), 878 (875)
- Stewart, J., 451 (449)
- Stiftung zur Förderung körperbehinderter Hochbegabter, 793, 795 (790)
- Stigler, J.W., 385 (366, 372), 878 (875)
- Stillings, N.A., 207 (192)
- Stivers, E., 407 (390)
- Stocking, V.B., 604 (594, 595, 599)
- Stoneburner, R., 523 (510)
- Storfer, M.D., 113 (103), 309, 310 (289, 290, 301, 302), 362 (347), 769
- Story, C., 629 (624, 628)
- Strang, R., 409, 524 (516), 538 (525, 530), 647 (634)
- Straumfjord, J.V., 129 (122)
- Strayer, F.F., 308 (295), 523 (512, 515)
- Streissguth, A.P., 520 (515)
- Strodtbeck, F.L., 902 (885, 886, 889)
- Stroebel, S.S., 309 (299)
- Stufflebeam, D.L., 583 (580), 618 (605)
- Stütz, W., 604 (597)
- Stüven, N., 451 (444)
- Su, W.H., 228 (216)
- Subotnik, R.F., 67 (55), 159 (152, 156, 157), 309 (286)
- Subotnik, R.S., 471 (467)
- Sullivan Royal Commission on Education, 777 (776)
- Sumption, M.R., 647 (634)
- Sunchawee, A., 807 (805)
- Super, C.M., 207 (199)
- Suppes, P., 628 (622)
- Supplee, P.L., 902 (898)
- Sutaria, M.C., 46 (43)
- Suter, D.P., 385 (381), 667 (657), 724 (715)
- Sutton-Smith, B., 538 (532)
- Suzuki, S., 280 (274)
- Svenson, O., 230 (225)
- Swafford, J., 768 (764)
- Swanson, H.L., 65 (50, 51, 54, 55), 99 (96), 307, 309 (288, 296)
- Swassing, R.H., 231 (209, 210, 214)
- Swearer, J.M., 130 (125)
- Sweller, J., 147 (141)
- Swenson, E.V., 335 (327)
- Swiatek, M.A., 100 (97), 231 (217), 385 (368), 707
- Swicord, B., 629 (624)
- Swing, E.E., 425 (423)
- Sylvester, R., 566 (563)
- Taba, H., 425 (416)
- Taffel, A., 471 (463), 741 (735)
- Taitel, R., 617 (606)
- Tajfel, H., 552 (544)
- Takacs, C.A., 538 (529)
- Tammadage, A., 451 (449)
- Tang, C., 129 (122)
- Tangherlini, A.E., 441 (429, 430, 435)
- Tannehill, R.S., 128 (120)
- Tannenbaum, A.J., 27 (14, 15, 22), 67 (49, 57, 59, 60), 87 (70, 71, 72, 75, 76, 78, 79, 80, 83), 100 (94), 159 (155), 231 (209, 210), 250, 251 (234, 236), 309 (283, 285, 292, 301, 304), 335 (325 (329, 332), 362 (341, 345, 347, 348), 385 (365, 371), 408, 409 (387, 391, 395), 425, 471 (468), 489 (473, 474, 475, 484, 486), 522, 524 (512), 538 (527, 533), 566, 583 (571, 573, 580), 647 (637), 667 (649, 650, 654, 660, 661), 707 (695, 699), 724 (712), 741 (729), 751 (743, 748, 750), 769 (755, 760, 765), 814 (809), 878 (865, 866), 902 (887, 893, 896, 897, 898)
- Tanner, A.E., 489 (476)
- Tan-Willman, C., 552 (546)
- Tao, T.C.S., 409 (405)
- Tao, W., 814 (811)
- Tarnowski, K.J., 309 (289)
- Tarrow, N.B., 847 (835)
- Tarshis, E., 147 (135)
- Tasmania Education Department, 832 (818)
- Tavris, C., 707 (704)
- Taylor, C., 552 (546)
- Taylor, C.A., 583 (574, 580), 847 (843)
- Taylor, C.W., 87 (69, 70, 72), 250 (235), 277 (262), 335 (331), 362 (345), 425 (415), 566 (557)
- Taylor, H.C., 231 (222)
- Taylor, J.H., 553 (548)
- Taylor, R.L., 425
- Taylor, S., 832 (829)
- Taylor Kaban, B., 667 (652)
- Teahan, J.E., 664
- Teare, J.B., 424, 425
- Teasdale, J.D., 536 (532)
- Teasdale, T.W., 113 (107), 683 (670)
- Teddlie, C.B., 582 (573, 574)
- Tedesco, J.C., 864 (849)
- Telford, C.W., 489 (475)
- Tellegen, A., 85 (74), 111 (109), 682 (670)
- Tembela, A.J., 847 (835)
- Tempest, N.R., 667 (649, 651, 661), 795 (786)
- Tennent, G., 551 (546), 724 (718)
- Teraski, P.I., 113 (110)
- Terman, L.M., 100 (90, 92), 130 (115), 158, 160 (150, 151), 231 (216), 250, 251 (233, 234, 235), 280 (253, 259), 309, 310 (283, 287, 293, 298), 324 (311, 312), 335 (326, 328, 330 (331), 362 (342, 349), 407, 409 (392, 393, 394, 395, 396), 451 (443), 487, 489, 490 (473, 474, 475, 477, 478, 479, 481, 482, 483, 484, 486), 524 (509, 510, 511, 514, 515), 538 (525), 553 (546), 647 (632, 643), 667 (649), 683 (681), 724 (718), 741 (731), 769, 770 (763), 902, 903 (883, 884, 888)
- Terrance, E.P., 424
- Terrassier, J.Ch., 309 (299), 647 (634, 635, 637, 638), 795 (780, 788), 878 (876)
- Tesch-Römer, C., 323 (315, 316, 317)
- Tessier, D.M., 583 (578)
- Tews, T.T., 617 (606, 611)
- Texas Education Agency, 46 (35)
- Thatcher, R.W., 130 (123)
- Thelen, H., 741 (733)
- Theman, V., 489 (481)

- Theophano, J., 741 (736)
 Thierau, H., 67 (62)
 Thoma, S.J., 552 (548)
 Thomas, B., 310 (299), 524 (515)
 Thomas, G.V., 281
 Thomas, J.R., 323 (319)
 Thomas, R.M., 847 (835, 836)
 Thomas, S.B., 667 (650, 661)
 Thomas, S.J., 564 (559)
 Thomas Committee Report, 667 (649)
 Thomason, J., 667
 Thompson, E., 553 (546)
 Thompson, L.A., 113 (106, 107, 109)
 Thompson, L.J., 724 (709)
 Thompson, M., 385, 386 (375, 378)
 Thompson, T., 707 (696)
 Thomson, G.H., 207 (190)
 Thomson, R., 280 (254)
 Thoresen, C., 724 (718)
 Thorndike, E.L., 280 (259), 707 (702)
 Thorndike, R.L., 67 (57), 100 (95), 250 (243), 310 (285), 286, 287, 290), 553 (546), 741
 Thurlow, J., 724 (715)
 Thurstone, L.L., 207 (190, 191), 310 (285)
 Thurstone, T.G., 207 (191)
 Tillitski, C.J., 618 (614)
 Timar, T.B., 683 (678)
 Timm, J., 667 (654)
 Tisdall, W., 424 (418)
 Tiwari, J., 113 (110)
 Tizard, B., 683 (673)
 Tlale, C.D., 847 (840, 841)
 Tobin, D., 386 (381), 471 (468)
 Todd, A.J., 489 (476)
 Todd, E., 740 (727, 729)
 Todd, S.M., 878
 Tolan, S.S., 310 (293), 489 (474, 475), 538 (525, 526, 529, 530, 531, 532, 534, 535, 536), 647 (638), 903 (894, 895)
 Tollefson, N., 99 (96), 360 (343), 665 (658)
 Tolor, A., 667
 Tomlinson, C.A., 618 (616), 878, 879 (876)
 Tomlinson-Keasey, C., 335 (331)
 Tomsic, M., 310 (287)
 Tonemah, S., 692 (686, 687, 689)
 Torgesen, J.K., 310 (293)
 Torrance, E.P., 160 (154), 250 (239), 335 (327, 329, 331), 506, 538 (526), 565, 566 (555, 557, 558, 559, 560, 562), 665, 667 (650, 653, 656, 661), 692 (686, 687, 689), 741 (727, 729), 770 (759, 760)
 Torrance, J.P., 566 (559)
 Torrance, P., 770 (759)
 Toynbee, A., 27 (3, 4)
 Tracey, A., 847 (834, 835)
 Tracy, A., 145 (141)
 Travers, T., 768 (764)
 Traxler, M.A., 583 (580)
 Treffert, D.A., 181 (164, 165, 166, 171, 177, 178), 280, 281 (253, 263, 265, 274, 275)
 Treffinger, D.J., 250 (234), 386 (367, 368, 369), 424, 425 (413, 414), 564, 565, 566, 567 (555, 556, 557, 558, 559, 560, 561, 562, 563), 667 (655, 656), 692 (689, 690), 768, 770 (759, 760)
 Tregoe, B.B., 565 (558)
 Tremaine, C., 425 (423)
 Trevarthen, C., 206 (194)
 Trevethan, S.D., 553
 Trickett, P.K., 524 (512)
 Tropin, I.T., 451 (448)
 Trost, C., 618 (606)
 Trost, G., 67 (62), 160 (151, 154, 155), 231 (217), 335 (328, 331), 489 (476), 795 (787, 790)
 Trotman, K.T., 229 (225)
 Trout, J., 130 (120)
 Trudewind, C., 524 (515)
 Trujillo, M., 336 (330)
 Trúno, L.C., 792 (786) (786)
 Tsai, S., 232 (220)
 Tsai, S.-L., 336 (330)
 Tschudi, S., 386 (375)
 Tsiamis, A., 231 (210)
 Tuddenham, R.D., 207 (197)
 Turaniczo, M., 128 (120)
 Turkheimer, E., 131 (121, 122)
 Turiel, E., 553
 Turnbull, H.R., 724 (709)
 Turner, L.A., 305 (297)
 Tuseth, A., 385 (368), 425
 Tuttle, D.H., 538 (533)
 Tuttle, F.B., 250 (239), 310 (298)
 Tutu, D., 847 (834)
 Tversky, A., 231 (225), 551, 553 (544)
 Tweedy, M., 323 (314)
 Twigden, D., 832 (829)
 Tye, K.A., 409 (400)
 Tyerman, M.J., 231 (217), 250 (234)
 Tyler-Wood, T., 489 (478)
 Tylor, L.E., 451 (443)
 Tzurriel, D., 250 (237), 692 (688), 847 (841)
 Udall, A.J., 617, 618 (605, 607, 608, 610), 724 (711, 714)
 Uguroglu, M.E., 336 (327)
 Uhlinger, C.A., 667
 UHS, 832 (825)
 Umezinwa, W.A., 879 (872)
 UNESCO, 847 (836)
 Union of South Africa, 847 (837)
 United Nations, 776, 777 (772), 847 (835)
 United Nations Development Program, 847 (836)
 Uphoff, J.K., 409 (398)
 Urban, K.K., 231 (217), 306, 310 (284, 293, 299), 362 (346, 347, 348), 423, 567 (561), 792, 795 (779, 780, 781, 787, 788, 790, 791)
 Urbano, R., 691
 U.S. Congress, 724 (710)
 U.S. Department of Labor, 567 (561)
 U.S. Public Law 94-142, 777 (772)
 USTC Admissions Office, 471 (461)
 Utah State Office of Education, 46 (34)
 Uzgiris, I.C., 524 (507)
 Vaillant, G.E., 160 (151)
 Valabreque, C., 795 (790)
 Välijärvi, J., 795 (785)
 Valilov, V.V., 451 (448)
 Vallance, E., 384 (367)
 Valle, V., 664 (655)
 Vallerand, R.J., 86 (76)
 Van Aalst, F., 536

- van Boxtel, H.W., 66 (49), 159 (153), 249 (245), 334 (332), 488, 489 (476), 592 (586), 692 (687, 689, 690), 792, 794 (787, 788, 790, 791)
 Vanco, P., 617 (606)
 van den Brink, W.P., 232 (216)
 van der Linden, W.J., 227, 230, 231 (216, 220, 221)
 Van der Meer, E., 67 (58, 59)
 Van der Westhuizen, C., 629 (627)
 Van Egeren, L.F., 520 (515)
 van Eldert, G.A., 792 (788)
 Van Gundy, A., 567 (560)
 VanMerrinboer, J.J.G., 145 (140)
 Van Roekel, J., 145 (136, 140)
 VanTassel, J., 583 (577)
 VanTassel-Baska, J., 231, 232 (210, 217), 249, 250 (237, 243), 362 (340, 345, 359), 386 (365, 368, 369, 370, 371, 378, 381, 382), 409 (400), 425 (416), 441 (435), 489 (474, 482, 485), 583 (570, 577), 667 (656, 657), 618 (606, 611), 770 (758), 879 (874, 875)
 Van Vorhees, B.V., 738 (736)
 Van Wyk, C., 847 (841)
 Varela, F.J., 553 (546, 549)
 Vasari, G., 181 (172), 280 (254, 260)
 Vassar, W.G., 583 (570, 574)
 Vaterrodt, B., 305 (300, 301)
 Vaughn, V.L., 100 (97), 232 (217), 386 (368), 592 (589, 590, 591), 770 (767)
 Vaughn, S., 879 (875)
 Vavrus, L., 145 (141)
 Venini, L., 550
 Venter, E.H., 847 (838)
 Verbaten, M.N., 127 (118)
 Verdonik, F., 160 (157)
 Verduin, J.R., 360 (344, 347, 348)
 Vereinigung Oesterreichischer Industrieller, 879 (874)
 Verleger, R., 128 (123)
 Vernon, P.A., 130, 131 (115, 116, 121)
 Vernon, P.E., 100 (89), 207 (190, 191), 424 (418), 489 (478), 706 (696)
 Very Special Arts Education Office, 724 (709)
 Vesonder, G.T., 324 (314, 319)
 Vespi, L., 724 (711, 712, 721)
 Vickers, D., 131 (124)
 Victoria Ministerial Papers, 832 (818)
 Victoria Ministry of Education, 832 (826)
 Viernstein, M.C., 441, 442
 Vijn, P., 232 (221)
 Villenave-Cremer, S., 553 (548)
 Vincent, K.R., 251 (244)
 Virginia Board of Education, 46 (33)
 Viscott, D.S., 181 (166)
Vision, 832 (826)
 Vockell, E.L., 67 (54)
 Volker, J., 552 (547)
 von Ardenne, M., 250 (235)
 von Hayn, S., 305 (300, 301)
 Von Lucadou-Muller, I., 128 (123)
 Voss, J.F., 27 (22), 324 (314, 319)
 Vrijhoff, B.J., 232 (216)
 Vukelich, C., 227 (224)
 Vukosavich, P., 336 (330)
 Vygotsky, L.S., 147 (134, 136, 138, 140), 181 (172), 207 (200, 201), 441 (428, 431, 433, 435), 524 (512), 667 (657), 879 (872)
 Wadsworth, S.J., 113 (107)
 Wagner, G., 27 (20)
 Wagner, H., 227, 232 (223, 224), 451 (444, 445, 447, 449), 592 (586), 604 (593, 601), 792, 795 (787, 788)
 Wagner, R.K., 87 (83)
 Waitkin, F., 181 (162)
 Walberg, H.J., 100 (97), 145 (140), 232 (220), 324 (312), 334, 335, 336 (327, 328, 329, 330), 471 (455)
 Walden, R., 683 (678)
 Waldman, I.D., 113 (103)
 Waldmann, M., 67 (57, 58, 60), 310 (285, 297)
 Waldron, K.A., 724 (715, 716)
 Walker, C.H., 324 (320)
 Walker, L.J., 553 (546, 548, 549)
 Walker, S., 723 (712)
 Walker, S.Y., 538 (535)
 Walkerdine, V., 683 (678)
 Wallace, A., 181 (162), 409 (394), 683 (682)
 Wallace, B., 250 (234), 663 (656), 846 (845, 846)
 Wallace, D.B., 232 (217), 360
 Wallace, J.F., 309 (292)
 Wallace, M.B., 100 (96)
 Wallace, S., 309 (288)
 Wallach, M.A., 336 (327), 441 (430), 567 (557, 558), 741 (728)
 Wallas, G., 362 (345), 471 (454)
 Wallsten, T.S., 230 (225)
 Walters, B., 667 (656)
 Walters, J.M., 87 (71), 207 (203), 280, 281 (267, 268, 269), 362 (342)
 Wang, M.C., 100 (97)
 Wang, Y., 323 (314)
 Ward, J., 725 (716)
 Ward, J.V., 551
 Ward, V.S., 147 (143), 231 (216), 250 (234, 236), 361, 362 (339, 340, 343, 347, 348, 358), 386 (368, 371), 538 (526, 535), 629 (627)
 Warren, D., 725 (714)
 Warschaw, T., 707 (704)
 Warshaw, S.J., 469 (463)
 Wasden, S.J., 582 (571, 575)
 Waterhouse, L., 280, 281 (267, 272)
 Waters, J.L., 523 (510)
 Watkins, H.D., 741 (730)
 Watley, D.J., 27 (16)
 Watlington, D.K., 308 (288)
 Watson, W.E., 232 (225)
 Watts, J., 538 (535)
 Watts, J.C., 667 (652)
 Webb, J.T., 310 (293), 489 (474, 475), 537, 538 (525, 526, 527, 529, 530, 531, 532, 533, 534, 535, 536), 647 (637), 903 (894, 895)
 Webb, R.A., 147 (134)
 Weber, J.R., 583 (579)
 Weber, M., 27 (8)
 Weber, P., 232 (219, 223)
 Webster, N., 647 (644)
 Wechsler, D., 310 (285, 287), 741
 Wechsler, S., 567 (561)
 Weed, K., 310 (297)
 Wees, J., 725 (721)
 Weill, M.P., 725 (715)
 Weimer, L.J., 408 (398), 523 (519, 520)
 Weinberg, H., 131 (124)
 Weinberg, R., 770 (756, 761)

- Weinberg, R.A., 113 (107)
 Weiner, B., 362 (343)
 Weiner, N., 409 (394)
 Weinert, F.E., 67 (57, 58, 60), 307, 310 (285, 296, 297),
 324 (319, 320, 322), 592 (586), 604 (593)
 Weinstein, T., 324 (312), 336 (330), 471 (455)
 Weisberg, L.L., 128 (120)
 Weisberg, R.E., 67 (57, 58), 903 (900)
 Weisberg, R.W., 87 (72)
 Weisler, S.E., 207 (192)
 Weiss, D.J., 310 (291, 304)
 Weiss, P., 618 (605 (607))
 Welch, W.W., 334 (327), 386 (373, 374)
 Wellman, H.M., 306 (285, 295), 683 (676)
 Welsh, G.S., 471 (454)
 Wendell, R., 629 (623)
 Werblo, D., 723 (711)
 Werner, E.E., 741 (729)
 Werner, E.M., 683 (671, 672)
 Wertsch, J.D., 683 (672, 680)
 Wessels, K., 227 (220)
 Wessells, M.G., 310 (285)
 Wesson, C., 725 (715)
 West, S.S., 524 (508)
 West, T.G., 363
 Western Australia Policy, 832 (817, 818)
 Whaley, C., 506 (496)
 Wheatley, G., 386 (365, 378, 382), 409 (400)
 Wherry, J.N., 307 (277)
 Whipple, G., 409, 903 (884)
 White, A.J., 250 (244), 425
 White, B.L., 147, 424, 667 (652, 657, 658), 683 (674)
 White, P.A., 181 (172)
 White, R., 362 (343)
 White, R.W., 667 (657)
 White, W.B., 362
 White, W.L., 647 (633)
 Whitehead, A., 280 (266)
 Whiteley, J., 553 (548)
 Whiting, B., 506 (493)
 Whiting, S.A., 725 (716)
 Whitlock, M.S., 101 (97), 629 (624, 625)
 Whitmore, J.R., 251 (236, 237, 238, 242), 310 (299), 384
 (381), 425 (418), 524 (516), 538 (526, 529, 530, 531, 532),
 647 (637, 641, 642), 665, 667 (649, 651, 652, 653, 657, 658,
 659, 660, 661, 662), 725 (709, 710, 711, 712, 713, 716, 718,
 721), 770 (762, 763), 903 (898)
 Wicas, E.A., 666 (661)
 Wiebe, D., 308 (295)
 Wiczercowski, W., 227, 232 (223, 224), 451 (450), 792,
 795 (788), 902 (894, 895)
 Wiegand, J., 100 (93)
 Wiener, N., 181 (162)
 Wiggins, G., 551
 Wild, K.P., 160 (153), 795 (791)
 Wilgosh, L., 667 (656)
 Wilkinson, I., 383 (366)
 Willerman, L., 112 (107), 131 (121, 122), 310 (287, 289,
 301), 524 (511)
 Willet, J., 471 (456)
 Willging, T.E., 553 (548)
 Williams, B., 832 (830)
 Williams, F., 362 (341)
 Williams, F.E., 425 (415), 567 (558), 903 (891)
 Williams, M., 522 (515)
 Williams, M.S., 667
 Williams, R.E., 251 (244)
 Williams, S.M., 683 (670)
 Williams, W.G., 101 (92), 794 (785, 788)
 Willingham, W.W., 336 (328)
 Willis, G., 250 (237), 879 (875)
 Wills, E.L., 129 (122)
 Willson, R.J., 131 (124)
 Willson, V.L., 308 (288)
 Wilms, D., 46 (38), 795 (787)
 Wilson, B., 280 (254, 255, 258, 259, 262)
 Wilson, B.J., 130 (120)
 Wilson, E.M., 129 (122)
 Wilson, E.O., 553 (545)
 Wilson, M., 280 (254, 255, 258, 259, 262)
 Wilson, R.S., 113 (106)
 Wing, H.S., 280 (273), 336 (327)
 Wingenbach, N.G., 384 (381), 665 (657), 725 (711)
 Winn, M., 181 (169), 280 (268, 269, 271, 272, 276)
 Winner, E., 181 (166), 278, 279, 280 (253, 254, 255, 257,
 258, 259, 260, 261, 262, 263, 264., 266, 272)
 Winteler, A., 335 (327)
 Winterbottom, M., 524 (515)
 Winters, B., 741 (728)
 Wirsup, I., 386 (366)
 Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, 46 (32, 34)
 Wise, K.C., 471 (456)
 Wissler, C., 207 (189)
 Wittrock, M., 567 (562)
 Witty, P., 87 (69, 71, 78, 79), 251 (239), 409, 489 (474,
 481), 538 (525), 647 (634), 692 (686)
 Wixon, K.K., 146 (137)
 Wolf, A.P., 127 (122)
 Wolf, C., 278 (277)
 Wolf, D.P., 280 (261)
 Wolf, J., 667 (657)
 Wolf, J.S., 385, 386 (381), 724 (715)
 Wolf, W., 100 (95), 523 (512)
 Wolfe, L.M., 706 (704)
 Wolff, G., 794 (780)
 Wolfe, D., 27 (13)
 Wolke, D., 310 (294)
 Wolleat, P.L., 741 (731)
 Womble, S.R., 228 (210), 248 (245, 247), 690 (687)
 Wonderly, D.M., 552
 Wong, B.Y.L., 147 (137)
 Wood, F., 131 (122)
 Wood, S.B., 692 (686)
 Woodrum, D.T., 147 (137)
 Woolfson, M.S., 127 (125)
 Woolverton, N., 740 (729, 731, 733)
 Woo-Sam, J., 310 (288)
 Wooster, J., 690 (687)
 Worcester, D.A., 409 (395, 398)
 Workman, E., 666
 Worthen, B.R., 618 (611)
 Wottawa, H., 67 (62)
 Wright, J., 682 (677)
 Wright, L., 524 (518), 647 (637, 643), 741 (734)
 Wright, L.B., 248 (237), 722 (715)
 Wright, R., 113 (111)
 Wu, J.C., 129 (122)
 Wu, W.-T., 46 (42, 43), 618 (612), 807 (803, 805)

Author Index

- Wu, Y., 814 (811)
Wundt, W., 310 (304)
Wurst, E., 307 (285, 291)
Wyant, S., 582 (574)
Wyndham, H.S., 832 (815)
Wyne, M.D., 581 (569, 575, 576)
Wyoming Department of Education, 46 (33)
- Xenos-Whiston, M., 147 (136)
Xeromeritou, A., 130 (120)
Xin, H., 814 (811, 812)
Xu, Y.H., 469 (464)
- Yagi, A., 131 (120)
Yahia, G.Y., 863 (852)
Yair, G., 740 (729)
Yakimowski, M.E., 305 (288)
Yamashita, J.J.M., 471 (456)
Yao, G., 706 (697)
Yarborough, B.H., 147 (133), 251 (236)
Yarger, S., 629 (622)
Yarrow, M.R., 550 (545)
Yavorsky, D.K., 618 (609, 611)
Yeager, C.L., 128 (120)
Yeo, R.A., 131 (121, 122)
Yewchuk, C.R., 232 (220), 251 (237), 668 (656), 683 (682),
722, 724, 725 (711, 712, 713, 714, 716, 717, 719, 720, 721),
879 (875)
Yoder, A.H., 489 (477)
Yoder, J.H., 847 (839)
Yonekura, Y., 127 (122)
Yoshii, F., 130 (122)
Young, A.B., 127 (122)
Young, C., 251 (238)
Young, C.H., 160 (157)
Young, M., 27 (9)
Youniss, J., 362 (343)
- Ysseldyke, J.E., 725 (715)
Yung, J., 807 (797)
- Zabel, M., 629 (624)
Zabel, R., 629 (624)
Zaffran, R., 384, 583 (578), 739, 740 (731, 738)
Zaltman, G., 582, 583 (569)
Zappia, I.A., 251 (237), 770 (761)
Zárate, M.A., 231 (224)
Zeeman, C., 451 (449)
Zettel, J.J., 27 (19)
Zha, Z., 310 (284), 524 (512), 814 (809, 811, 812)
Zhang, J.D., 471 (462)
Zhang, Y., 131 (124, 125)
Zhensun, Z., 280 (254), 524 (509, 516)
Zhou, L., 814 (811)
Zhu, X.M., 470 (458, 464), 707 (701)
Zhu, Y., 814 (811, 812)
Zieky, M.J., 229, 232 (219)
Zigler, E., 281, 524 (512)
Zilli, M.G., 668 (650, 660, 662)
Zimmer, I., 229 (225)
Zimmerman, B., 451 (444, 445, 447, 449), 604 (601), 795
(787)
Zimmerman, B.J., 87 (83), 147 (140), 592 (586)
Zimmerman, E.D., 277 (261, 262)
Zimmerman, I.L., 310 (288)
Zimmerman, W., 682 (678), 739 (731)
Ziv, A., 668 (658, 660), 751 (750)
Zorbaugh, H.W., 489 (482)
Zorman, R., 232 (220), 741 (732, 734)
Zu, X.M., 409 (405)
Zubiria, M., 864 (858)
Zuccone, C., 725 (718)
Zuckerman, H., 471 (453), 707 (695, 699)
Zuckerman, M., 131 (125, 126)
Zweig, S., 27 (11)

Subject Index

- Ability
 basic 311, 314–16
 and definitions of giftedness 69–72
 see also Cognitive ability
- Ability grouping 17, 420–21, 585–91, 893
 acceleration 586, 587, 590, 591
 cluster groups 587, 590, 591, 821–22
 enrichment 590
 guidelines on 590–91
 research on 588–90, 763
 streaming 421, 586
 tracking 587, 589, 590, 799, 883, 893
- Academic achievement
 exceptionally gifted 479
 prediction of 57, 155, 326–29
 higher education 328–29
 school 326–28
- Academic competitions 466–67, 594–97, 748, 749
- Australia 826
- Europe 595–96
- Korea 801
- Thailand 806
- Acceleration 387–406, 417–18, 422, 586, 757–58, 890
 advanced placement 388, 399, 405, 456, 457, 458, 462, 590, 591
- Australasia 405, 817, 818, 824–25, 828, 830–31
- benefits of 397
- China 405, 811
- definition of term 387, 389
- early admission 388, 389, 398, 399, 400, 417, 456–57, 519–20, 587, 590, 591
- and educational administration 406
- and enrichment activities 392–406
 debate on 396–401
 historical context 393–96
 international developments 401–5
- exceptionally gifted 485–86
- grade skipping 387, 388, 389, 395, 398, 399
- hazards of 397
- Indonesia 798
- Japan 404–5
- mathematics 447
- research on 395
- science and technology 456–58
- social–emotional development 394, 397, 398–99, 400, 418
- telescoping curriculum 388, 400, 587, 590, 591, 633
- types of 388
- United Kingdom 402–4, 417, 422
- Adolescents
 mentors 734–36
 musical gifted 271
- Adult achievement 77, 150–51, 153, 312
- artistic gifted 266–67
- exceptionally gifted 476
- higher education 328–29
- musical gifted 276
- at work 329–31
- Advocacy
 see Child advocacy
- Africa
 child advocacy 871–72
 historical background 833–34
 status of gifted education 833–46
 concepts of giftedness 835
 cultural issues 834–35
 economic issues 836
 egalitarian issues 835–36
 identification 839–41
 programs 841–46
 research needs 846
- America
 see Canada; Latin America; United States
- American College Test (ACT) 237, 238, 599
- Aptitude
 in model of giftedness and talent 72–74, 285
 tests 243
- Argentina
 status of gifted education 850
- Artistic gifted 171–77, 254–67
- adult achievement 266–67
- China 262–63, 275
- family influence 258–59, 330
- gifted disabled 171–74, 263–66
- identification of 261–62
 and intelligence 259
- language skills 260–61
- left-handedness 260
- Taiwan 804
- visual memory 260
- Asia
 status of gifted education 797–807
 see also China, Republic of
- Asynchrony 635–37
- Athletics
 Eastern Europe 782, 784
 expert–novice differences 319, 320
 family influence 330
- Australasia
 definitions 830
- educational provision 820–30
 acceleration 405, 817, 818, 824–25, 828, 830–31
 cluster groups 821–22
 enrichment 817, 818, 819, 820–21, 828
 organizations 826–27
 special classes and schools 823–24
 special interest centers 822–23
 supplementary programs 825–26
- egalitarian issues 815–17
- state and national policies 817–20, 830
- status of gifted education 815–31
 see also Australia; New Zealand
- Australia
 child advocacy 826
 educational provision 820–27

- policies on gifted education 39–41, 817–19, 830
see also Australasia
- Austria
child advocacy 874
status of gifted education 788
- Botswana
status of gifted education 839
- Brain research 115–27
cerebral hemisphere lateralization 118, 119–22, 260, 265
child prodigies and idiots savant 177–79, 260, 265, 275
experimental methods 116–19
information processing 122–23
and intelligence 193–96, 428
IQ 121–25
personality 125–26
- Brazil
child advocacy 870
policies on gifted education 44, 870
program evaluation 606
special programs 851–57
 gifted disadvantaged 853–55
 higher education 853
status of gifted education 850–57
- Canada
child advocacy 771, 776, 866, 874
program evaluation 606
status of gifted education 771–76
 historical background 771
 provincial policies 772–76
- Career guidance 422, 535
mentors 421, 735, 738
- Center for Talented Youth (CTY) 56, 428, 439
special programs 429–31, 436–38, 447, 594, 597–99
- Central America
see Latin America
- Chess
expert-novice differences 312–16, 318–19, 320–21
memory 313–14, 318
- Child advocacy 235, 535, 865–77, 899
Africa 871–72
Australia 826
Austria 874
Brazil 870
Canada 771, 776, 866, 874
Eastern Europe 866–67
France 876
international and regional organizations 867–71
national organizations 866–67, 870
New Zealand 872
principles and practices 873–75
 special populations 874–75
restructuring 871–73
 cultural factors 872
 teacher advocates 872
role and scope 865–66
United Kingdom 866
United States 866, 874
- Child development
see Cognitive development; Developmental theories;
Moral development; Social-emotional development
- Child prodigies 161–79, 283, 480, 671
artistic 174–77, 254–62, 266–67
brain research into 178–79, 260, 265
cognitive development 162–63
co-occurrence 164
definition 161
infants and preschool children 508–9
language skills 170–71, 260–61
musical 161–62, 170, 267–73, 276–77
and Piagetian theory 162–63
- Chile
status of gifted education 857
- China, People's Republic of
acceleration 405, 811
art education 262–63, 275
historical background 7, 809
mathematics programs 405
science and technology programs 461–62, 464–66
status of gifted education 809–13
 developmental issues 813
 identification 809–10
 programs 810–13
- China, Republic of
see Taiwan
- Christianity
cultural legacy 10–11
- Cluster groups 587, 590, 591
Australia 821–22
- Cognitive ability
and acquisition of expertise 311–22
basic ability 311, 314–16
 role in exceptional performance 314–16
conceptions of 696
genetic influences 103–11, 311
sex differences 699–701
see also Cognitive processes
- Cognitive development
child prodigies 162–63
infants and preschool children 512–13, 514–15
see also Developmental theories
- Cognitive processes 133–44
educational implications 142–43
flexibility 138–39
memory 137
problem categorization 138
self-regulation 137
skills training 140–41
structure of intellect model 136, 141, 342, 517
triarchic theory 22, 92, 134, 136, 203, 342, 887
see also Intelligence
- Co-occurrence 163–64
and child prodigies 164
- Colombia
status of gifted education 857–58
- Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS)
mathematics programs 448, 783
science and technology programs 459–61
- Computers
computer science education 422, 423
and creativity 563
- Counseling 421–22
career counseling 422
research into 62, 894–96
for social-emotional development 535–36, 631–45, 894–96
asynchrony and dyssynchrony 634–38
early work in 632–34

- goals of 644
 theoretical framework for 642–43
 underachievement 661–62
see also Social–emotional development
- Creative writing 436–39
 Philippines 801–2
see also Writing skills
- Creativity 555–64, 896–97
 characteristics of 115, 126
 definition 3, 253, 349–50, 555
 divergent thinking 557, 558
 genetic influences 116
 idiots savant 166
 infants and preschool children 516
 and intelligence 557
 and IQ 14–15
 longitudinal study 327–28, 562
 mentors 563, 729
 and problem-solving 560–61
 productive thinking model 555–57
 research into 56–57, 58–59, 790
 science 454–55
 special programs 558–59, 760–61
 strategies for nurture 561–64
 tests of 154, 327, 331, 557–58, 790, 897
 theories of 345–46, 897
 in teachers of gifted 624
 underachievement 653
see also Productive thinking
- Cross-cultural studies 56–57
- Curriculum development 365–83, 889–92
 concepts of 367–68
 differentiation 419–20, 758
 gifted disabled 720–21
 "dumping down" 759
 language arts 374–80
 mathematics and science 372–74, 378–80, 455–56, 468
 minority groups 381
 national curriculum (US) 378–80
 research on 368–69
 social–emotional development 383
 talent 382
 theoretical models of 370–72
 content model 370
 epistemological model 371–72
 process-product model 370–71
- Deconstruction 24–26
- Delinquency 718–19
- Developmental theories 89–98
 biologically oriented 90
 and child prodigies 162–63
 and gifted education 97–98
 interactionist 91
 milieu oriented 90
 psychodynamic 90–91
see also Cognitive development; Piagetian theory
- Differential Aptitude Test (DAT) 243, 700, 701
- Differentiation 419–20, 758
 gifted disabled 720–21
- Disabilities
see Gifted disabled
- Disadvantaged
see Gifted disadvantaged
- DNA 109–111, 116
- Dyssynchrony 529, 635, 637–38
- Early childhood
see Infants and preschool children; Young children
- Eastern Europe
 child advocacy 866–67
 historical background 780
 mathematics programs 448, 783
 policies on gifted education 43–44, 781–83
 science and technology programs 459–61
 status of gifted education 781–85
 research 783–85
 special talents 783
 testing 782
- Education
see Gifted education
- Education for All Handicapped Children Act 1975 (Public Law 94–142) 29–30, 34, 366, 772
- Egalitarianism
 and attitude to gifted education 11, 12, 63, 587, 590, 789, 883
 Africa 835–36
 Australasia 40, 402, 815–17
 Eastern Europe 43, 781, 782
 Hong Kong 42
 Italy 786
 Japan 404, 798–99, 800
 Scandinavia 36–37, 785
 United States 17, 18, 392, 763–64
- Emotional development
see Social–emotional development
- Emotional response 637
 in idiots savant 166
- Enrichment activities 22–23, 390–92, 418–19, 890
 and ability grouping 590
 and acceleration 392–406
 debate on 396–401
 international developments 401–5
 Australasia 817, 818, 819, 820–21, 828
 Brazil 854
 Canada 775
 early examples of 395
 Enrichment Triad model 413, 415, 517, 720, 817, 890
 exceptionally gifted 485
 Hong Kong 797–98
 Japan 404, 799
 Korea 801
 mathematics 447
 Mexico 858
 United Kingdom 418, 422
see also Extracurricular activities; Out-of-school programs
 and activities;
 Special programs
- Equal education
see Egalitarianism; Females; Gifted disabled; Gifted disadvantaged; Minority groups; Sex differences
- Europe
 status of gifted education 779–91
 child advocacy 866–67, 874, 876
 Eastern Europe 781–85
 equality issues 789

- extracurricular and out-of-school activities 789–80
- females 790
- gifted disabled 790
- historical background 779–81
- identification and diagnosis 790–91
- political and organizational development 788–89
- Western Europe 785–88
- Excellence
 - criterion 185–86, 325
 - domains of 3–8
 - descriptions 4–6
 - perspectives on 3–8
 - prediction of 325–33
 - in higher education 328–29
 - methodological problems 325–26
 - in school 326–28
 - at work 329–31
- Exceptionally gifted 473–87
 - acceleration and enrichment 485–86
 - definition 474–76, 886
 - early development of 481
 - early reading in 473–74, 481–83
 - examples of 473–74
 - IQ 475, 478
 - peer acceptance 484–85, 486, 487
 - play interests 483
 - research into 476–80
 - early studies 476–77
 - major studies 478–80, 632
 - methodology and measurement 477–78
 - optimum educational environment 699
 - social–emotional development 479, 480, 481
- Expertise
 - acquisition of 59–60, 311–22
 - expert–novice approach 137–40, 312–21
 - models of 316, 321–22
 - practice 315, 316–18
 - role of basic ability 314–16
 - role of knowledge base 318–21
- Expert–novice approach 59–60, 137–40, 286, 312–21
 - adult studies 312–18
 - athletics 319, 320
 - chess 312–16, 318–19, 320–21
 - child studies 318–21
 - memory 313–14, 315, 318, 319
 - music 317–18
 - problems of 313
 - teachers of gifted 625
- Extracurricular activities 743–51, 892
 - Europe 789–80
 - Israel 744–49
 - Japan 799
 - mathematics programs 748–49
 - research and evaluation 749–51
 - science programs 603, 744–47
 - South Africa 842–43
 - see also* Out-of-school programs and activities
- Family influence 669–82, 756–57, 899–900
 - birth order 675
 - artistic gifted 258–59, 330
 - athletically gifted 330
 - China 813
 - eminent persons 329, 330
 - genetic influence 670–71
 - gifted disadvantaged 680
 - homework 678
 - infants and preschool children 513–15
 - language 672–73
 - longitudinal research 677–81
 - motivation 675–76
 - musical gifted 272, 330
 - nutrition 670–71
 - scientists 329, 330
 - sex differences 678–79
 - social cognition 676–77
 - social–emotional development 532, 680–81
 - television viewing 678
 - underachievement 652–53, 657–58
 - young gifted children 301–2
 - see also* Family relationship; Parent–child relationship; Parent influence
- Family relationship 532–33
 - family therapy 536
- Females 21, 238, 633, 762, 892
 - Europe 790
 - mentors 731, 736
 - play interests 483
 - underachievement 654–55
 - fear of success 659
 - see also* Sex differences
- France
 - child advocacy 876
 - status of gifted education 788
- Gender differences
 - see* Sex differences
- Genetic influences
 - on cognitive ability 103–11, 311
 - creativity 116
 - DNA 109–11
 - IQ 106–7, 670
- Genius
 - concepts of 631–32, 779–80
 - definition 3
 - studies of 108, 329, 342, 393, 632, 779, 884
- Germany
 - academic competitions 595–97
 - historical background 780
 - mathematics programs 448–49
 - policies on gifted education 38, 586
 - program evaluation 606
 - residential programs 602–3
 - status of gifted education 787
- Gifted disabled 237–38, 709–22, 762
 - artistic gifted 263–66
 - characteristics 711–12
 - child advocacy 875
 - definition 710
 - Europe 790
 - hearing impairments 716–17, 721
 - identification 237–38, 712–15
 - teacher judgment 714
 - incidence 710–11
 - learning disabilities 381, 712, 715–16, 721, 762, 875
 - underachievement 656–57
 - musical gifted 274–76
 - preschool 719–20

- retarded 717
social-emotional development 530, 711-12
 emotional disturbances 718-19
special programs 720-21
see also Idiots savant
- Gifted disadvantaged 237, 685-90, 898-99
Brazil 853-55
characteristics of 685-86
child advocacy 16, 875
family influence 680
identification 237, 686-88
Israel 688
mentors 731-32, 734, 736
programs and curricula 688-89
South Africa 841
Turkey 688
underachievement 655-56
- Gifted education 19-20, 22-23
Africa 833-46
Asia 797-807
Australasia 815-31
Canada 771-76
China 809-13
cognitive skills training 140-44
and developmental psychology 97-98
Europe 779-91
instructional strategies and models 417-19
 ability grouping 420-21
 counseling 421-22
 differentiation 419-20
 mentors 421, 423, 468, 563, 727-38
 out-of-school activities 422
 teaching-learning models 412-16
 teaching strategies 417-19
Montessori system 97-98, 517, 674, 891
moral development 548-59
theories of 339-59
 creativity theories 345-46
 giftedness theories 344-45
 intelligence theories 341-43
 relation to practice 348, 358-59
 theory unification 350-58
see also Ability grouping; Acceleration; Curriculum development; Enrichment activities; Extracurricular activities; Identification; Out-of-school programs and activities; Policy on gifted education; Program administration; Research; Special programs; Teacher education; Teachers of gifted
- Gifted handicapped
see Gifted disabled
- Giftedness
concepts of 49, 835, 886-88
 educational perspective 212-14
criteria for 185-88
definitions of 3, 49, 69-72, 91-94, 115, 133-34, 234-35, 773-74, 775, 830, 850, 886-88
 achievement-oriented 93-94
 cognitive approach 93
 Marland definition 30, 33, 235, 423, 492, 755-56, 774, 889
 psychosocial approach 94
 trait-oriented 92-93
 and value systems 79-80
history of 3-26, 188-89, 631-32, 884
 China 7
 Christian influences 10-11
 constraints 6-8
 Greek influences 8-9
 Jewish influences 9-10
models of 69-85, 284-86, 344-45
 abilities 69-72
 aptitudes 72-74, 285
 catalysts 74-75
 developmental theories 93-94, 95-96
 differentiation from talent 72-76
 expert-novice 286
 information-processing 285-86
see also Genius; Intelligence; Talent
- Girls
see Females
- Greece
cultural legacy 8-9
- Guatemala
status of gifted education 858
- Handicapped
see Gifted disabled
- Heredity
see Genetic influences
- Higher education
Brazil 853
mentors 737
prediction of excellence in 328-29
- Hong Kong
policies on gifted education 42
status of gifted education 797-98
 identification 797
 programs 797-98
- Hungary
research on giftedness 784
- Identification
Africa 839-41
artistic ability 261-62
Asia 797, 798, 801, 802, 804
China 809-10
decision theory and strategies 214-26
Europe 790-91
females 238
gifted disabled 237-38, 712-15
gifted disadvantaged and culturally different 237, 686-88
of intellectual potential 185-205, 888-89
infants and preschool children 510-12
IQ 22, 115, 133-34, 153-54, 234, 332, 756, 860
and longitudinal research 155, 283, 303, 326-29, 330-31
methodological issues 209-27
musical ability 273
parent judgment 303, 333, 510
Peru 859-60
research needs 62
Revolving Door model 81, 210, 226, 239, 344-45, 612
for special programs 209-27, 233-48
Talent Search model 210-11, 390, 429, 823-24
teacher judgment 223-25, 303, 327, 333, 621-22, 651, 714, 791
underachievement 238, 650-51
young children 283-304
see also Tests

- Idiots savant 164–79, 717
 artistic 171–74, 176–77, 263–66
 brain research into 177–79, 265, 275
 characteristics 165–66
 definition 164–65, 253
 incidence of 165
 language skills 170
 musical 166–70, 274–76
see also Gifted disabled
- Independent study 413–14, 419, 891
- Individual Education Plans (IEPs) 30, 31, 34, 141
 Australia 821
- Indonesia
 policies on gifted education 42
 status of gifted education 798
- Infants and preschool children
 child prodigies 508–9
 cognitive studies 512–13
 early school admission 519–20
 early precocity 509–10
 eminent achiever studies 508
 exceptionally gifted 481
 gifted disabled 719–20
 identification 510–12
 parent judgment 510
 psychometric measures 511
 specific abilities 511–12
- IQ 512
 mentors 733–34
 parent influence 513–17
 cognitive development 514–15
 family background 514
 personality development 515–16
 special preschool programs 517–19
 evaluation of 518–19
 selection for 518
 underachievement 652
see also Young children
- Information processing 766
 and brain research 122–23
 theories of intelligence 192, 203, 285–86
 young gifted children 291–97
- Intelligence
 and artistic ability 259
 and brain research 193–96, 428
 and creativity 557
 genetic influences 106–7, 116
 identification of potential 185–285, 888–89
 and musical ability 272
 relationship to giftedness 77–78, 136, 756, 884
 theories of 188–204, 341–43, 525–26
 anthropological theories 198–200
 biological theories 193–96, 342–43, 355
 cognitive trait theories 341–42
 computational/information-processing theories 192–93,
 203, 285–86, 342, 353
 epistemological/developmental theories 196–98, 343,
 355
 factor theories 342, 352
 geographical theories 190–92
 historical views 188–90
 social interaction theories 343
 sociological theories 200–2
 systems theories 202–4
see also Cognitive processes; Giftedness; IQ; Tests
- IQ
 brain research 121–25
 and creativity 14–15
 effect of nutrition 670–71
 exceptionally gifted 475, 478
 genetic influences 106–7, 670
 in identification of gifted 22, 115, 133–34, 153–54, 234,
 332, 756, 860
 infants and preschool children 512
 intergenerational gains 25
see also Intelligence; Tests
- Israel
 extracurricular activities 744–49
 gifted disadvantaged 688
 mentors 735–36
 policies on gifted education 41–42
 program evaluation 606
 residential programs 603, 745–47
 science and technology programs 467–68, 744–47
- Italy
 status of gifted education 786
- Japan
 acceleration 404–5
 educational policy 585–86, 798–99
 enrichment activities 404, 799
 status of gifted education 798–800
- Javits Gifted and Talented Students Education Act 1989
 (US) 31, 366, 689, 765, 766, 874
- Journals 826, 827, 866
 research articles 51–54
- Judaism
 cultural legacy 9–10
 family influence 302
- Kaufman Assessment Battery for Children (K-ABC) 195,
 243, 288–89, 290, 478, 688
- Kenya
 status of gifted education 839
- Knowledge base 295
 domain-specific 59, 311
 impact on performance 318–21
 and exceptional performance 311–21
 and memory 137, 319–20
 science 373–74
- Korea
 policies on gifted education 42, 800
 program evaluation 606, 612
 status of gifted education 800–1
 academic competitions 801
 enrichment 801
 special schools 800–1
- Language acquisition 298–99
- Language arts
 curriculum development 374–80
 collaborative learning 376–77
 interdisciplinary applications 377
 metacognition 376
 multiculturalism 376
 definition of verbal talent 428–30
 nurturing talent in 427–40

- creative writing 436–39, 801–2
 reading 432–34
 second language learning 434–36, 801
 special programs 431–32, 436–39
 speech communication 431–32
 tests of verbal ability 429–30
see also Creative writing; Language skills; Reading skills; Writing skills
- Language skills**
 and artistic ability 260–61
 child prodigies and idiots savant 170–71
 family influence 672–73
see also Language arts
- Latin America**
 status of gifted education 849–63
 overview 849–50
 United States-sponsored schools 861–62
- Leadership**
 Africa 846
 behavioral strategies 494–503
 gaining self-knowledge 499
 goal setting 494–95
 interpersonal competence 499–50
 responding to the future 495–98
 success syntax 498–99
 value difference and conflict 501–3
 concepts of 491–93
 definition of 493–94
 education for gifted 491–505
 Texas Governor's Honors Program 491, 494, 503–5
 and moral development 547
 and self-development 644
 and social cognition 677
- Learning Potential Assessment Device (LPAD)** 202, 688, 841
- Left-handedness** 120, 260, 272–73
- Legislation** 19, 29–45, 366, 765, 766, 771–74
 and child advocacy 874
see also Policy on gifted education
- Longitudinal studies** 149–58
 advanced placement 457, 458
 creativity 327–28, 562
 definition of 149–50
 expert–novice research 59, 321
 family influence 677–81
 gifted program outcome 154–55
 and identification 155, 283, 303, 326–29, 330–31
 mentors 727, 729
 methodological issues 155–57
 Terman's research 150–51, 283, 311–12, 326, 330–31, 349, 393, 478–79, 525, 763, 780
see also Study of Mathematically Precocious Youth (SMPY)
- Marland Report** 19, 29–30, 31, 33, 55, 70, 233, 492, 755–56, 765, 817, 889
- Mathematically gifted**
 China 405
 concepts of mathematics talent 444–47
 curriculum development 372–74
 Eastern Europe 448, 783
 extracurricular activities 748–49
 Germany 448–49
 Israel 748–49
 mentors 734
 nurturing talents 443–50
 acceleration and enrichment 447
 programs in advanced mathematics 447–49
 sex differences 693–96, 699, 701–5, 757
 Taiwan 804
 young children 300–1
see also Study of Mathematically Precocious Youth (SMPY)
- Mediated learning** 22, 201, 517, 845
- Memory**
 chess 313–14, 318
 idiots savant 166
 and knowledge base 137, 319–20
 musical 169–70, 268
 skilled memory 315
 visual 260
 young gifted children 292–93
- Mental disorders** 24, 125–26, 631–32, 779–80
 anorexia nervosa 529, 719
 depression 530, 531–32
 suicide 719
- Mentors** 421, 423, 727–38, 743, 748
 Australia 825–26
 career guidance 421, 735, 738
 creativity 563, 729
 females 731, 736
 gifted disadvantaged 731–32, 734, 736
 life-stage mentoring 737–38
 longitudinal studies 727, 729
 mentor–mentored relationship 727–30
 parent role 732–33
 teacher role 468, 733
 Singapore 803
 special programs 733–37
 adolescents 734–36
 mathematics 734
 preschool 733–34
 special populations 734
 young adults 737
- Metacognition** 134, 140, 141, 845
 idiots savant 166
 infants and preschool children 515
 language arts 376
 young gifted children 295–97
- Mexico**
 status of gifted education 858
- Minority groups** 16–17, 21–22, 685–90, 761–62, 898–99
 characteristics of 685–86
 child advocacy 535, 875
 identification of gifted 236–37, 238–39, 686–88
 mathematics 381
 mentors 734, 736
 programs and curricula 688–89
 underachievement 655–56
- Montessori system** 97–98, 517, 586, 674, 891
- Moral development** 539–50
 in gifted 539, 546–50
 educational interventions 548–59
 research on 546–47
 moral motivation 544–46
 theories of 539–43, 544–46
 structure of morality 543–44
- Motivation**
 achievement motivation 515–16, 659, 893

- family influence 675–76
- moral motivation 544–46
- sex differences 704
- young children 297–98
- Multicultural education 26
 - Australasia 816, 824
 - language arts 376
 - leadership 504
- Multiple intelligences model 70, 92, 202–3, 369, 517, 526
- Multiple Talent approach 69, 345
- Musically gifted 153, 166–70, 171, 267–77
 - adult achievement 276
 - Australia 823
 - family influence 272, 330
 - gifted disabled 166–70, 274–76
 - identification of 273
 - and intelligence 272
 - Korea 801
 - left-handedness 272–73
 - memory 169–70, 268
 - mentors 727–38
 - Poland 783
 - residential programs 746–47
 - role of practice 317–18
 - sleep 317
 - South Africa 842, 843
 - Suzuki method 274, 275
 - Taiwan 804
- National Association for Gifted Children (UK) 37, 600, 786, 789, 866
 - counseling 421–22
 - Saturday clubs 422, 600
- National Association for Gifted Children (US) 236, 351, 866, 899
- Netherlands
 - historical background 780
 - status of gifted education 787–88
- New Zealand
 - child advocacy 872
 - educational provision 827–30
 - organizations 829–30
 - primary 828–29
 - secondary 827–28
 - policy on gifted education 819–20, 827, 830
 - program evaluation 606
 - see also* Australasia
- Nigeria
 - status of gifted education 838–39, 871
- Nutrition
 - effect on IQ 670–71
- Oral expression
 - see* Speech communication
- Out-of-school programs and activities 535, 593–603, 892
 - academic competitions 466–67, 594–97, 748, 749
 - after school and Saturday programs 422, 599–601
 - long-term courses 600–601
 - parent-initiated 599–600
 - parent self-help groups 600
 - Australia 826
 - Europe 789–80
 - residential programs 601–3
 - Germany 602–3
 - Israel 603, 745–47
 - summer programs (US) 601–2
 - science 603
 - selection for 593–94
 - South Africa 843–45
 - see also* Extracurricular activities
- Parent attitudes
 - identification of gifted children 303, 327, 510
 - infants and preschool children 510
 - sex differences 303, 652, 678–79
 - underachievement 653, 657–58
- Parent–child relationship 532, 533
 - characteristics of good parenting of gifted 682
 - interaction and imitation 673–75, 682
 - parental pressure 679–80
 - young gifted children 302
 - underachievement 652, 658, 659, 663
 - see also* Family influence; Family relationship; Parent influence
- Parent influence
 - infants and preschool children 513–17
 - parents as mentors 733
 - reading skills 673
 - see also* Family influence; Family relationship; Parent-child relationship
- Parent participation 533–34
 - gifted disabled 721
 - out-of-school activities 599–600
 - self-help groups 600
 - special program planning 578
- Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT) 289, 290, 860
- Peer acceptance 484–85, 486, 487, 529, 531
- Perfectionism 516, 529
- Personality 78–79, 813
 - exceptionally gifted 480
 - infants and preschool children 515–16
 - achievement motivation 515–16
 - creativity and risk-taking 516
 - perfectionism 516
 - self-esteem 516
 - and moral development 546–47
 - predictive validity of traits 332
 - problems 529–30, 531–32
 - psychophysiology of 125–26
 - science gifted 454
 - theories of 353, 354
 - underachievement 658–59
- Peru
 - status of gifted education 858–61
 - identification 859–60
 - research 859
- Philippines
 - policies on gifted education 43
 - status of gifted education 801–2
 - identification 801
 - programs 801–2
- Piagetian theory 91, 119, 196–7, 343, 345, 355, 394, 439, 638
 - child prodigies 162–63
 - moral development 539, 541, 545, 547
 - testing 197–98
- Poland

- musically gifted 783
 Polish Children's Fund 782, 783, 789
 research on giftedness 784–85
 Policy on gifted education 29–45
 Australia 39–41, 817–19, 830
 Austria 788
 Brazil 44, 850, 870
 Canada 771–76
 Eastern Europe 43–44, 781–83
 Germany 38, 586, 787
 Hong Kong 42
 Indonesia 42
 Israel 41–42
 Japan 798–99
 Korea 42, 800
 New Zealand 819–20, 827, 830
 Philippines 43
 Scandinavia 36–37, 785
 Singapore 42, 802–3
 South Africa 38–39
 Taiwan 42–43, 803–4
 United Kingdom 37, 586, 786
 United States 29–36, 763–66
see also Legislation
 Preschool children
see Infants and preschool children
 Prevalence
 of giftedness and talent 80–85
 Prodigies
see Child prodigies
 Productive thinking 758–59
 model of 555–57
 Productive Thinking Program 558
see also Creativity
 Program administration 569–81
 administrator's role 569–70
 child advocacy 873–74, 876–77
 implementation of programs 572–73, 578–80
 initialization of programs 572, 574–76
 institutionalization of programs 573, 580
 model for organizing gifted programs 570–73
 planning of programs 572, 576–78
 parent participation 578
 vizationizing of programs 572, 573–74
 Program evaluation 580, 605–616, 763, 800
 problems of gifted program evaluation 607–16
 aptitude-treatment interactions 614
 comparisons and standards 611–13
 defining entire programs 609–10
 definitions and descriptions 608–9
 instrumentation 614–15
 personnel 613–14
 setting priorities 610–11
 threat and intimidation 607–8
 utilization 616
 preschool programs 518–19
 status in gifted programs 606–7
 Psychotherapy 535–36
 family therapy 536
 Public Law 94–142
see Education for All Handicapped Children Act 1975
 Raven Progressive Matrices 195, 196, 243, 289, 635, 670, 687, 688, 701, 714, 782
 Reading skills
 curriculum development 377
 exceptionally gifted 473–74, 481–83
 infants and preschool children 511–12
 nurturing talent in 432–34
 parental influence 673
 young gifted children 299–300
 Research
 ability grouping 588–90
 acceleration 395
 applied research 61–62
 basic research 61
 cognitive psychology approaches 57–58
 counseling 62, 894–96
 creativity 56–57, 58–59, 790
 cross-cultural studies 56–57
 curriculum development 368–69
 development of gifted children 94–96
 achievement-oriented research 96
 cognitive component research 95–96
 psychosocial research 96, 153
 trait-oriented research 95
 early 884–86
 Eastern Europe 783–85
 evaluation studies 62
 exceptionally gifted 476–80, 632
 expert–novice approaches 59–60, 137–40, 312–21, 625
 extracurricular activities 749–51
 interdisciplinary approaches 54, 56
 journal articles 51–54
 moral development 546–47
 needs 60–63, 766–67, 846, 900
 Peru 859
 psychometric approaches 57–59
 social psychology 60
 and social responsibility 63
 teachers of gifted 621–26
 topics 50–57
 twin studies 105–6, 670
see also Longitudinal studies
 Revolving Door model 81, 210, 226, 239, 344–45, 612, 828, 890
 Risk-taking 516, 529–30, 894
 Role models
see Mentors
 Romania
 research on giftedness 784
 Savants
see Idiots savant
 Scandinavia
 policies on gifted education 36–37, 785
 Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) 154, 242, 243, 326, 328, 390, 399, 405, 429, 430, 445, 449, 458, 464, 465, 599, 694, 701
 Science
 attitudes to 12–13, 18–19
 Science gifted
 China 461–62, 464–66
 Commonwealth of Independent States 459–61
 creativity 454–55
 curriculum development 372–74, 378–80, 455–56, 468
 extracurricular activities 603, 744–47
 family influence 329, 330

- Israel 467–68, 744–47
- Korea 800–1
- nurturing talents 453–68
 - acceleration 456–58
 - competitions 466–67, 594
 - mentors 468, 730, 735
 - special programs 459–66, 467–68, 603
- Philippines 801–2
- and psychology of eminence 454–55
- Taiwan 804
- United States 462–63, 466
- Second language learning
 - nurturing talent in 434–36, 801
- Self-directed learning
 - see Independent study
- Self-esteem 852
 - and ability grouping 590
 - infants and preschool children 516
 - and motivation 675
- Sex differences 122, 152, 153, 155, 238, 678–79, 693–706, 895
 - cognitive abilities 699–701
 - counseling needs 894, 895
 - mathematics and science 693–96, 699, 701–5, 757
 - mentors 731
 - parent attitudes 303, 652, 678–79
 - preferences 701–4
 - life-style choices 703–4
 - professional achievement 331
 - spelling 700–1
 - see also Females
- Siblings
 - birth order 675
 - environmental differences 669–70
 - relationship with 532
 - Saturday clubs 600
- Singapore
 - policies on gifted education 42, 802–3
 - status of gifted education 802–3
 - identification 802
 - mentors 803
 - programs 802–3
- Skill acquisition
 - see Expertise, acquisition of
- Sleep
 - musically gifted 317
 - young gifted children 293–95
- Social cognition
 - family influence 676–77
- Social-emotional development 96, 153, 383, 525–36, 546, 681, 893–96
 - and acceleration 394, 397, 398–99, 400, 418
 - and child advocacy 535
 - counseling and psychotherapy 535–36, 631–45, 894–95
 - Dabrowski's theory of emotional development 638–41
 - emotional education program 633
 - exceptionally gifted 479, 480, 481
 - gifted disabled 530, 711–12, 718–19
 - needs of gifted children 526–27
 - possible problems 527–33
 - asynchrony 635–37
 - avoidance of risks 529–30
 - depression 530, 531–32
 - dyssynchrony 529, 635, 637–38
 - educational needs 531
 - family relationships 532–33, 680–81
 - loneliness and isolation 680–81
 - multipotentiality 530
 - overexcitability 641–42
 - peer acceptance 529, 531
 - perfectionism 529
 - self-criticism 530
 - vulnerability 638
- problem prevention and amelioration 533–35
 - career guidance 535
 - out-of-school activities 535
 - parent participation 533–34
 - socialization 643–44
 - see also Counseling
- Socioeconomic background 634
 - scientists 329
 - young gifted children 301–2
- South Africa
 - policies on gifted education 38–39
 - status of gifted education 837–38, 840–46
 - identification 840
 - programs 841–46
 - segregated education 837–38
- South America
 - see Latin America
- Spain
 - status of gifted education 786
- Special programs
 - advanced mathematics 447–49
 - Center for Talented Youth programs 429–31, 594, 597–99
 - creative writing 436–39
 - mathematics 447
 - and child advocacy 873
 - creativity 558–59, 760–61
 - gifted disabled 720–21
 - gifted disadvantaged and culturally different 688–89
 - identification for 209–27, 233–48
 - language arts 431–32, 436–39
 - leadership 491, 494, 503–5
 - mentors 733–37
 - preschool 517–19
 - program administration 569–81
 - program effectiveness 154–55, 763
 - science and technology 459–66, 467–68
 - see also Enrichment activities; Extracurricular activities; Out-of-school programs and activities; Program administration; Program evaluation
- Speech communication
 - nurturing talent in 431–32
- Sport
 - see Athletics
- Sputnik
 - impact of 12–13, 14–15, 29, 369
- Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale 243, 287, 289–90, 478, 511, 636, 638, 670
 - Abbreviated Binet for Disadvantaged Students 687
- Structure of Intellect model 136, 141, 342, 412, 414–15, 517, 890
- Student interests 438, 750
- Study of Mathematically Precocious Youth (SMPY) 23, 78, 120, 152, 154, 213, 326, 328, 345, 390, 403, 405, 406, 430, 456, 464, 465, 598, 670, 693–96, 697, 734, 890
 - sex differences 120, 465, 693–96
- Suzuki method 274, 275
- Switzerland
 - status of gifted education 788

- Taiwan
 policies on gifted education 42–43, 803–4
 program evaluation 612
 status of gifted education 803–5
 identification 804
 programs 804
- Talent
 anomalous talents 6, 70
 classifications of 75
 concepts of 49, 70, 884
 curriculum development 382
 definitions of 3, 5–6, 49, 69–72, 235
 models of 69–85
 differentiation from giftedness 72–76
 prevalence 80–85
 quota talents 5–6, 70
 research into 49–63
 scarcity talents 5, 70
 surplus talents 5, 70
see also Giftedness
- Talented Youth Project 13–14
- Talent Search model 210–11, 390, 429, 823–24
see also Center for Talented Youth
- Talent Unlimited model 70, 345, 369, 416, 559, 873
- Tanzania
 status of gifted education 839
- Teacher attitudes 625, 626–28
 Brazil 851
 identification of gifted 223–25, 327, 333, 622, 791
 underachievement 651, 661
- Teacher education 142–43, 579, 622, 626, 627
 Australasia 827
 Europe 789
 Philippines 801
 South Africa 838
 Taiwan 805
 underachievement 663
- Teachers of gifted 621–28
 characteristics of 623–28
 child advocacy 872
 creativity 624
 gifted disabled 714
 mentors 468, 733
 and program evaluation 613–14
 research on 621–26
 present trends 623–26
 research methodologies 622–23
 stress and burnout 624
- Technology gifted
see Science gifted
- Television viewing 678
- Tests 22, 191–92, 193, 195–96, 199–200, 201–2, 203–4, 810
 American College Test (ACT) 237, 238, 599
 artistic ability 261–62
 Bayley's Scales of Infant Development 289, 511
 Binet's 189–90, 780
 brain research and test performance 122–23
 creativity 154, 327, 331, 557–58, 790, 897–98
 culturally relevant 840–41
 Differential Aptitude Test (DAT) 243, 700, 701
 Eastern Europe 782
 Galton's 188–89
 for gifted disabled 713–14
 infants and preschool children 511
 Kaufman Assessment Battery for Children (K-ABC) 195, 243, 288–89, 290, 478, 688
 Learning Potential Assessment Device (LPAD) 202, 688, 841
 moral development 542
 musical ability 273
 Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT) 289, 290, 860
 Piagetian 197–98
 predictive validity 153–4, 326–27
 Raven Progressive Matrices 195, 196, 243, 289, 635, 670, 687, 688, 701, 714, 782
 Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) 154, 242, 243, 326, 328, 390, 399, 405, 429, 430, 445, 449, 458, 464, 465, 599, 694, 701
 selection for special programs 241–48
 achievement tests 243–44
 aptitude tests 243
 characteristics of tests 241–42
 intelligence tests 242–423
 multiple selection criteria 245–47
 rating scales 244–45
 Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale 243, 287, 289–90, 478, 511, 636, 638, 670
 Abbreviated Binet for Disadvantaged Students 687
 Torrance Test of Creative Thinking (TTCT) 154, 327, 331, 558, 688
 verbal ability 429–30
 Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC-R) 243, 287, 288, 290, 448, 478, 635, 638, 687, 714, 715, 716, 717, 782
 Wechsler Preschool and Primary Scale of Intelligence (WPPSI) 243, 287–88, 448, 478, 860
 for young gifted children 285, 286–91
see also Identification; IQ
- Thailand
 status of gifted education 805–6
- Thinking processes
see Cognitive processes
- Torrance Test of Creative Thinking (TTCT) 154, 327, 331, 558, 688
- Tracking
see Track system
- Track system 587, 589, 590, 799, 883, 893
- Triadic model 94, 153, 412, 824, 890
- Triarchic theory 22, 92, 134, 136, 203, 342, 887
- Turkey
 gifted disadvantaged 688
 status of gifted education 786
- Twin studies 105–6, 670
- Underachievement 610, 649–63, 763, 897–98
 at-risk children 652–57
 children of divorced parents 653
 culturally different 655–56
 females 654–55
 highly creative 653
 learning disabled 656–57
 unwanted and rejected children 652–53
 causes of 657–58
 characteristics of underachievers 658–60
 achievement need 659
 affiliation need 659
 behavioral characteristics 659–60

Subject Index

- fear of success 659
- locus of control 658
- school factor 660
- self-concept 658
- counseling 661–62
- curriculum and teaching methods 660–61
- definitions 649–50
- emotional disturbances 718
- identification of gifted underachievers 238, 650–51
- preschool 652
- school-centered intervention 662–63
- verbally talented 428
- United Kingdom
 - ability grouping 421
 - acceleration 402–4, 417, 422
 - child advocacy 866
 - differentiation 419–20
 - enrichment 418, 422
 - policies on gifted education 37, 586, 786
 - program evaluation 606
 - status of gifted education 786–87
- United States
 - 1950s 12–15
 - 1960s 15–19
 - 1970s 19–21
 - 1980s 21–23
 - child advocacy 866, 874
 - legislation and policies 19, 29–36, 763–66
 - equity 763–64
 - educational goals 764–66
 - state policies 31–35
 - status of gifted education 755–67
 - creativity 760–61
 - current issues 759–63
 - definitions 755–56
 - educational reform 759–60
 - family influence 756–57
 - females 762
 - gifted disabled 762
 - intelligence 756
 - minority groups 761–62
 - policy issues 763–66
 - research directions 766–67
 - school adaptations 757–59
 - underachievers 763
- Venezuela
 - status of gifted education 861
- Verbal ability
 - see* Language arts; Language skills
- Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC-R) 243, 287, 288, 290, 448, 478, 635, 638, 687, 714, 715, 716, 717
- Wechsler Preschool and Primary Scale of Intelligence (WPPSI) 243, 287–88, 448, 478, 860
- World Council for Gifted and Talented Children (WCGT) 23, 867, 874, 877, 899
 - conferences 38, 50–51, 54, 784, 788, 816, 867–70, 873
- Writing skills
 - curriculum development 377–78
 - young gifted children 299–300
 - see also* Creative writing
- Young children
 - indicators of giftedness 283–304
 - approaches to 284–86
 - attention 291–92
 - family influence 301–2
 - habituation 292
 - information processing model 291–97
 - language acquisition 298–99
 - mathematics 300–1
 - memory 292–93
 - metacognition 295–97
 - motivational characteristics 297–98
 - psychometric assessment 286–91
 - reading and writing 299–300
 - sleep 293–95
 - see also* Infants and preschool children
- Zone of proximal development 201–2, 872