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FIVE COLLEGE DEPOSITORY

THE USE AND MISUSE OF PSYCHOLOGICAL IQ TESTING
ON BLACK AND OTHER MINORITIES
HIGH-RISK/AT-RISK YOUTH

"A Youth Network System Project
in New Haven, Connecticut"

A Dissertation Presented

by

WESLEY THOMAS FORBES, SR.

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

September 1984

Education

Wesley Thomas Forbes, Sr.



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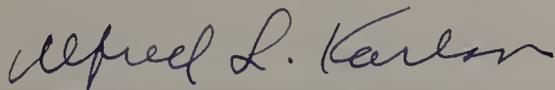
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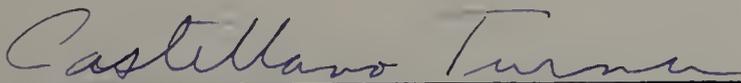
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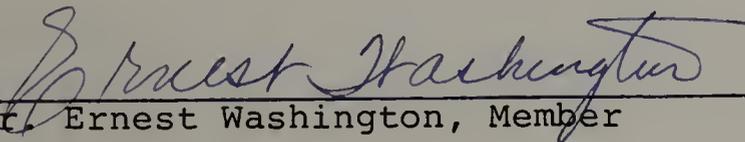
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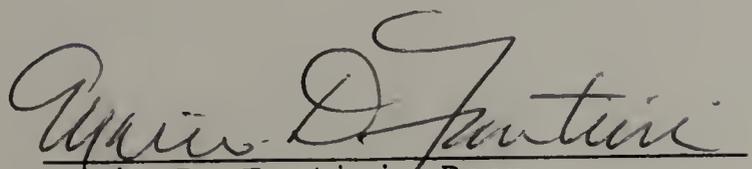
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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my family, who had to sacrifice during the years of my work, especially my children: Shawn, Todd, Jeffery, Dorca, Michael, George, and all the children who are sacrifices for the decisions made by adults.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work was conducted through the "City-Wide Network System for High-Risk and At-Risk Youth," sponsored by the Community Action Agency of New Haven, Inc. (CAANH) in conjunction with the Multi-Cultural Psycho-Educational Clinic (MCC).

A project like this could not have been completed without the cooperation and support of many people. There are so many individuals I would like to thank for their contributions, so many I could not list them all.

As an out-of-state student, the job of coordinating the work and meeting with the doctoral committee tended to be a monumental task. This could not have been possible without the help of Dr. Alfred Karlson, my Committee Chairman; Dr. Castellano Turner; and Dr. Ernest Washington, who put forth the time and effort to make this work a reality.

Along with the committee members, the many agencies and staff contributed so much to the project. They included the sponsoring agency CAANH, Dixwell Neighborhood Corporation, Dwight Educational Support Program, Fair Haven Farnam Neighborhood House, Fair Haven Junta for Progressive Action, Hill Latino Youth Development, Newhallville Neighborhood Corporation, West Rock

Neighborhood Corporation, and Albie Booth Memorial Boys' Club who participated as host agencies; also, the Training Research Institute for Residential Youth Centers, Inc., and Durham Hill School and the youth they serve.

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PREFACE

Despite the often tumultuous state of affairs that invariably affects our lives in American society, there should always remain a firm commitment in consideration to fair play, honesty, and sincerity toward our troubled youth. It is the feeling of the writer, based on experience, that much remains to be done in the area of providing a relevant scope of comprehensive, youth-oriented service to poor and minority youngsters. If the American society is to succeed, the people of this country will have to draw upon all of its potentially talented resources and leadership, regardless of race, creed, or color. It is a task that in order to accomplish will require the maximum dedication, individual assertiveness, and firm initiative of all human service providers. We, the caretakers of life's greatest creative human energy resource, youth, should relentlessly strive to continue developing, researching, and implementing new, innovative approaches toward the betterment of our future leaders. As it is written in the book of Joel (2:28), "Your old men shall dream dreams; your young men shall see visions." Truly, the key to tomorrow's world lies in the hands of today's youth!

ABSTRACT

THE USE AND MISUSE OF PSYCHOLOGICAL IQ TESTING
ON BLACK AND OTHER MINORITIES
HIGH-RISK/AT-RISK YOUTH
"A Youth Network System Project
in New Haven, Connecticut"

September 1984

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Directed by Dr. Alfred Karlson

The purpose of this study is twofold: to investigate the use and misuse of psychological IQ testing by the juvenile court system and other youth service agencies. The main focus was to research the use of the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children-Revised (WISC-R), which tends to be culturally biased, resulting in mislabeling, inadequate, and inappropriate treatment and placement.

This practice of utilizing the WISC-R has an effect on the adjudication of youthful offenders identified as High-Risk/At-Risk youth. The largest population of this group tends to be black and Hispanic. The study further

explores the impact of the race of the examiner on the examinee.

The IQ scores are a deciding factor and ultimately considered in the process of sentencing, treatment, and placement planning.

The second study was to evaluate the effectiveness of appropriate treatment planning on the Youth Network System (YNS) of New Haven, Connecticut, in contrast with the Community Service Agencies (CSA).

The method employed in evaluating the studies was as follows: (a) identification of the population most represented in High-Risk/At-Risk group; (b) selection of a random sample of subjects, 30 black and 30 white, who received pretests by white examiners and posttests by black examiners. The results indicated a significant difference in IQ score results for the black subjects in pre- and posttest, but an insignificant difference for the white group.

In Study II the results indicated significant improvement for subjects in the YNS group compared to the CSA group in school performance, employment, and law involvement.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Although the subject of psychological IQ testing has always been a controversial issue, factors of race and ethnicity in this testing have intensified controversy throughout this century. Specifically, many criminologists, judges, attorneys, and other members of the judicial system are concerned by the impact non-minority psychiatrists and psychologists have on the decision-making process in sentencing minority criminal offenders. According to New Haven, Connecticut, court statistics, virtually all psychiatrists and psychologists are unrepresentative of the largest--blacks and Hispanics--population who come through the New Haven judicial system. This study explores how culturally biased tests and examiner/examinee cultural differences can adversely affect the future of minority youths in the judicial system.

Can psychologists tip the scales of Justice (Gobert, 1984)? This is the question addressed in this research project. How does the input of psychologists and psychological IQ testing impact on the decision-making process of youth service providers and the juvenile courts? What are the instruments and variables used to influence the treatment, placement plans, and sentencing of youthful

offenders? Are these instruments fair and nonbiased to all persons who come before juvenile authorities? Are the users of these instruments utilizing objective approaches in the administering of the test, and can they, within reason, communicate effectively to acquire a fair assessment to those youngsters of a different race and culture? What group and/or groups seem to be affected by the input of the psychologist and psychological testing in a positive or negative way?

Scope and Purpose

The purpose of this study was to examine the impact of IQ testing and its use in the sentencing of minority youth conducted in 1982-1983 in New Haven, Connecticut.

There is a growing need to question the use or misuse of psychological IQ testing (e.g., the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children-Revised [WISC-R]) by the juvenile courts and other youth service providers on black and other minority youth in the process of sentencing, treatment, and placement planning.

The WISC-R test has proven to be an excellent instrument for diagnosing those children whose lack of success in normal classrooms suggested the need for some form of special education (Gould, 1981). This, and only this, was the original intent of its creator, Binet.

The WISC-R test has been controversial regarding cultural bias and its use in cross-cultural interpretation of intelligence. The use of the WISC-R has resulted in many black and Hispanic youth being inadequately and inappropriately adjudicated, whose numbers are mounting disproportionately nationally. These youths have been identified as "High Risk/At Risk," and because of this labeling, many youths are unable to break the bond they bear both psychologically and physically.

Secondly, the programming for this population has also resulted in an increasing recidivism rate.

The study further explored the issues and nontest variables effective in predicting success of nonrecidivism. Historically, the predictors of recidivism have been consistently associated with "social characteristics such as demeanor and race have been found to be major factors among police in determining whom to arrest" (Piliavin & Briar, 1964, p. 211).

Barton (1976) reported middle-class values to be a salient factor in the court's decision. Thus such things as family situations, school adjustment, and associations become more important as the youth moves through the system. Consistent with Barton's findings, Abadinsky (1976) reported that white middle-class juveniles are most successful in avoiding juvenile court processing.

Then can we say that middle-class association and

background are synonymous variables of successful predictors in nonrecidivism? In still another study of juvenile delinquency, Thomas (1976) found that the juvenile court largely applied

its harshest sanctions to blacks, to those who have dropped out of school, to those in single parent or broken homes, to those against whom a complaint was filed by a parent or police officers, and to those from a lower socio-economic background--to those, in other words, who are the least likely in our society to have the ability, the power, to deal with the juvenile court establishment on equal terms.
(p. 122)

The above correlation is one of the hypotheses associated with the impact of race and ethnicity of the examiner on the examinee who ultimately applies the label to the subject based on their perceptions, which tend to be limited and narrow.

The above issues and concerns motivated the researching of this problem and the development of the study.

This work takes the form of two studies. The first study assessed a set of procedures and methods designed to evaluate High Risk¹ minority youngsters more fairly than traditional evaluation procedures, which tend to work against them. This first study involved a comparison of the two procedures, one developed by the Youth Network System program in New Haven, Connecticut, and the other

¹The High-Risk/At-Risk target population is described in Chapter III.

utilized by juvenile authorities and other traditional youth service providers. In the second study, which examined possible effects of an examiner's race on the IQ scores of black and white high-risk youth, white and black examiners gave the WISC-R test to both black and white youth.

Both studies have demonstrated a definite correlation between examiner race and examinee IQ score, due to the fact that IQ scores are a deciding factor that ultimately are considered in the process of presentencing investigations in juvenile courts and treatment and placement planning by youth service provider agencies on the local, state, and national level.

The method employed in the work was as follows:

1. Set up a Youth Network System (YNS) to identify what group, black, white, or Hispanic, will comprise the largest population of high-risk and at-risk youth by the juvenile authorities.
2. Explore the demographic data and characteristics of this population.
3. Develop a motivational counseling advocacy and educational program to screen applicants and to address their needs.
4. Select a random sample of 30 blacks and 30 whites between the ages of 12 and 16, and compare the IQ score

differences of subjects being tested by both white and black examiners.

The youth have been screened, processed, and exposed to the YNS program, and pre- and postdata on the program's effect on school attendance, dropout rate, employment, law involvement, and days of incarceration were compared. The data were analyzed to explore what nontest variables are effective or equally effective in predicting success (nonrecidivism).

Hypotheses²

Hypothesis 1

Blacks and Hispanics represent the smallest population in the city of New Haven, Connecticut, but will comprise the large population of high-risk and at-risk youth groups identified by youth service providers and juvenile authorities.

Hypothesis 2

The WISC-R as an instrument commonly used by the New Haven, Connecticut, Juvenile Court System and youth service providers tends to be culturally biased, and black and other minority youths' IQ scores will be lower than those of the white contrasting group.

²The hypotheses are restated in testable form in Chapter 3.

Hypothesis 3

The race and ethnicity of the examiner will impact the scores of the examinee, resulting in lower IQ scores. This will be demonstrated by a random sample of 30 white and 30 black high-risk youth between the ages of 12 and 16, comparing pre-posttest scores administered by white and black examiners.

Hypothesis 4

Successful nontest variables will be demonstrated by those youth exposed to the YNS. The YNS participants will experience less law involvement, fewer days in jail, and show improvement in school attendance, dropout rate, which will result in nonrecidivism. They will also experience higher rates of employment demonstrated through pre-post-YNS experience.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

The central issues in this review are the cross-cultural interpretation of intelligence tests and the use and misuse of psychological testing by the court system and other public and private agencies.

Chapter II explores two basic elements by first outlining the traditional assumptions in cross-cultural testing and experimentation, and second, exploring the use of psychological testing in the New Haven, Connecticut, courts. It is important to look at how psychological testing has begun to play many roles in a vast number of areas over and beyond its original intent.

In 1904 Binet was commissioned by the minister of public education to perform a study for a specific, practical purpose: to develop techniques for identifying those children whose lack of success in normal classrooms suggested the need for some form of special education. Binet insisted upon three cardinal principles for using his tests. All his caveats were later disregarded, and his intentions overturned by American hereditarians who translated his scale into written form as a routine device for testing all children. (Gould, 1981, p. 149)

Binet's three cardinal principles for using the tests are outlined as follows:

1. The scores are a practical device; they do not buttress any theory of intellect. They do not define

anything innate or permanent. We may not designate what they measure as "intelligence" or any other reified entity.

2. The scale is a rough, empirical guide for identifying mildly retarded and learning-disabled children who need special help. It is not a device for ranking normal children.

3. Whatever the cause of difficulty in children identified for help, emphasis shall be placed upon improvement through special training. Low scores shall not be used to mark children as innately incapable (Binet, 1904).

If Binet's principles had been followed, and his tests consistently used as he intended, we would have been spared a major misuse of science in our century (Gould, 1981). Gould continued by saying:

The misuse of mental tests is not inherent in the idea of testing itself. It arises primarily from two fallacies, eagerly (so it seems) embraced by those who wish to use tests for the maintenance of social ranks and distinctions: reification and hereditarianism. (p. 155)

Reification is the assumption that test scores represent a single, scalable something in the head called general intelligence (Gould, 1981). Hereditarians believed the physiological, psychological, and intellectual traits were directly inherited, just as are skin color and physique; others viewed the legacy as more subtle, as a tendency toward criminality rather than "the very germs of theft and murder . . . stirring in the blood of [one's]

progenitor ages back" (Cohn & Udolf, 1979, p. 61).

Hereditarianism

Hereditarianism (Binet, 1904), an American creation, is the belief that both physiological as well as psychological traits are inherited, and was used to reify Binet's scores as a measure of intelligence. The three major pioneers were H. H. Goddard, L. M. Terman, and R. M. Yerkes.

Hereditarianism is an American creation. Alfred Binet avoided this fallacy and stuck by his three principles. American psychologists misconstrued Binet's intention and invented the hereditarian theory of IQ. They reinterpreted Binet's scores and took them as measures of an entity called intelligence. They assumed that intelligence was largely inherited, and developed a series of specious arguments confusing cultural differences with innate properties. They believed that inherited IQ scores marked people and groups for an inevitable station in life. And they assumed that average differences between groups were largely the product of heredity, despite manifest and profound variation in quality of life (Gould, 1981). Thus the use and misuse of IQ testing was born in the United States.

The three major pioneers of hereditarianism in America were H. H. Goddard, who brought Binet's scale to America

and reinterpreted its scores as innate intelligence; and L. M. Terman, who developed the Stanford-Binet Scale, and dreamed of a rational society that would allocate professions by IQ scores; and R. M. Yerkes, who persuaded the Army to test 1.75 million men, thus establishing supposedly objective data that vindicated hereditarian claims which led to the Immigration Restriction Act of 1924, with its low ceiling for lands suffering the blight of poor genes (Gould, 1981). The study was made from the Yerkes Armed Services data, which compared the IQ scores of various immigrant groups with each other. The study categorized the foreign born according to how many years they had lived in the United States, to compare which group had an average IQ that was the same as the native born population. The interpretation of the results indicated that an average of over 20 years living in the United States for foreign immigrants would yield the average IQ of the native born population, in that new immigrants were really less bright than those who had arrived earlier. The main impetus emanated from Brigham's work of 1923, when he published his book based on Yerkes's data, A Study of American Intelligence. This book became a primary vehicle for translating the Army results on group differences into social action, thus establishing the supposedly objective data that vindicated hereditarian

claims which led to the Immigration Restriction Act of 1924 (Gould, 1981).

Such misuse of testing creates controversy and questions. The study also stated that over 50% of the Dutch immigrant population exceeded the average native born intelligence score, which further challenged the studies based on Brigham's analysis of 1923. This study further concluded that the American intelligence was declining, and the decline would be more rapid than in Europe.

Congressional debates leading to passage of the Immigration Restriction Act of 1924 continually invoke the Army data. Eugenicists lobbied not only for limits to immigration, but for changing its character by imposing harsh quotas against nations of inferior stock--a feature of the 1924 Act that might never have been implemented, or even considered, without the Army data and eugenicist propaganda (Gould, 1981).

IQ Test/Race, Cultural Bias

During the early days of testing, theorists believed that the environment and educational opportunities would invariably affect the scores and would make comparisons of individuals' scores from dissimilar environments difficult (Binet & Simon, 1905).

Empirical and theoretical classification schemes have different advantages and disadvantages. Science

proceeds by an alternation of the methods of inductive and deductive reasoning. Inductive reasoning involves going from one specific to the general, as in the generation of hypotheses to account for a series of specific experimental findings. For example, if three criminals are found to have lower than average IQ scores, the hypothesis might be generated that stupidity is associated with criminality. Thus, starting with the hypothesis that there is a relationship between low IQ and criminal behavior, one would predict a high crime rate for a low IQ population (Cohn & Udolf, 1979).

With study after study publicizing the low IQ scores of blacks and other minorities, public opinion (mind set) was established that the minority subgroups in America are inferior, a self-fulfilling prophecy.

Culture-Free Testing

The question of psychological testing on blacks began to crystallize and gained momentum in 1948. Consideration began to be explored and discussed of the socialization and mental activities of blacks, white middle-class, and low-class children regarding social class influences upon learning. The issues were: (a) the structure of reward and punishment among middle- and lower-class persons, (b) the influence of class upon problem solving in standardized mental tests, (c) the nature of problem-solving

activities and mental behavior, (d) cultural biases in standardized mental tests, and (e) the inadequacy of curriculums for optimal mental development and the middle-class orientation of the school culture. Social class is seen as a "system of privilege" which limits and rigidly defines the learning environment; and the public school, which might ideally provide an environment where lower-class children can learn middle-class values and motivations, has been seen as failing in its socialization task. It is also felt that middle-class children who are generally trained in school in a less permissive manner than lower-class children may be emotionally bruised by their parents' early demands for achievement. A research project was established to construct culture-free test items which would measure a broad range of mental activity (Davis, 1948, 1965).

Testing practices are viewed as a control device and an exclusionary tactic by members of the black community. They have felt its impact in all walks of life, be they classified as middle-class or lower-class, especially in education and employment. Testing for blacks can be viewed only as a ploy to exclude them, and to deem them inferior to whites, which reinforces "Black Paranoia."

The "Griggs vs. Duke Power" decision of the Supreme Court is an example which specifies that job relatedness

is the only lawful reason for using tests for the purpose of selection when their use results in the disproportionate exclusion of minority group members. One of the main implications of the "Griggs" decision for the test producer and user alike is a renewed emphasis on sound practices of employee selection. The producer of employment tests must put more effort into job analysis activities, criterion development activities, and criterion-related validity studies.

Another general concern for the test publisher is that certain characteristics of the test or its administration are irrelevant to the specific abilities being measured which depress scores of members of one group. Another consideration is that of differential validity studies. There is more than one responsible definition of test fairness, and these definitions are in conflict; thus, competing values must be weighed. The test maker cannot resolve the problem of competing values, but he can provide the test user with information that will make explicit the value implication of various uses of tests (Linn, 1972).

The challenge of the controversy has been met with a number of responses from black colleagues in the testing field. The Black Intelligence Scale of Cultural Homogeneity (BITCH-100), a cultural-specific test, was one

of the responses to the issue of fair test practices focusing on the exclusion of minority input in the development of testing instruments. The aim of the test is to describe the rationale and evaluation of the Black Intelligence Scale of Cultural Homogeneity.

The "culture specific" test is used to determine the taker's ability to function symbolically or to think in terms of his own culture and environment. A combination of dialect specific and culture specific tests would certainly enhance the possibility of measuring what is inside the black child's head; this is the basic rationale for the BITCH-100. Over 2 years' time a 100-item test was developed.

The purpose of the first experiment was to demonstrate that the test would discriminate black from white takers. One hundred white and 100 black St. Louis, Missouri, high school students ranging in age from 16 to 18 years, half from low-socioeconomic levels and half from middle-income levels, took the BITCH-100. The black group showed a clear superiority over the white group. The distribution of scores approximated a normal distribution in which blacks comprise the upper half, whites the lower half. Twenty-eight black Neighborhood Youth Corps high school dropouts were administered the BITCH and the California Achievement Test in the second experiment. The results confirmed the hypothesis regarding the sensitivity of the BITCH in

picking up "intellectual indicators" not commonly found in conventional tests (Williams, 1972).

The challenge to biased and culturally loaded tests was met by the white counterparts in the testing field. The impact of environment on intelligence, while great, was believed to have not yet been fully explained (Jensen, 1973). Research was conducted on the question, "How biased are culture-loaded tests?" The culture-loaded Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT) and the Culture Reduce Raven's Progressive Matrices (colored and standard forms) were examined and compared for large samples of white, black, and Chicano school children, K-8, in three California school districts. On both tests, groups of culturally homogenous younger and older white children (separated by 2 years) perfectly simulated the white and black differences in Ethnic Group x Item Interactions and choice of error distractors in the Raven's. Certain expectations from a culture bias hypothesis were borne out only for PPVT in the Chicano group. Unless the unlikely and empirically unsubstantiated assumption is made that culture bias affects all kinds of test items about equally, the various items analysis of the present studies lend no support to the proposition that either the PPVT or the Raven is a culturally biased test for blacks (Jensen, 1973).

Further research was conducted challenging the validity of test bias construct. The several statistical

methods described for detecting test bias in terms of various internal features of a person's test performances and the test's construct validity can be applied to any groups in the population. But the evidence regarding groups other than U.S. blacks and whites is either lacking or is still too sketchy to permit any strong conclusions. Jensen (1975) stated, "The results are unequivocal." The evidence regarding black-white comparisons, however, is based on a number of well-known, widely used, and quite diverse standardized individual and group tests of intelligence given to a large representative sample of whites and blacks. The results concluded that these standardized tests of intelligence--the Peabody Picture Vocabulary, Raven's Progressive Matrices, Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children, Stanford-Binet, Wonderlic Personnel Test, and most likely other similar tests--are not at all culturally biased for blacks and whites. They behave statistically the same in both racial groups and did essentially the same job in both groups (Jensen, 1975).

Further studies explored race and mental ability, focusing on differences between Caucasians and Negroes in the United States, summarizing from a "scientific standpoint" the main facts and theoretical issues involved in the study of human racial differences and behaviors. Three principles were considered to govern the orientation of this study: (a) objective research and knowledge are

possible and should not be entangled with political and social policy, (b) phenomena are better explained by theory as opposed to ad hoc explanations, and (c) conclusions expressed in terms of statistics and probabilities must be accepted with their tentative nature kept in mind.

Among the topics dealt with were: (a) mutation and drift, migration, and selection processes affecting evolutionary differentiation; (b) formulation of heritability of group differences; (c) psychometric evidence for the author's conclusions; and (d) hypothesis of culture-biased tests and environmental foci. Jensen reiterated that it is highly probable that genetic as opposed to environmental factors are involved to a substantial degree in the lower average IQ of American Negroes (Jensen, 1974). This concept entered the genetic school of thought.

According to Jensen, an average of 80% of the variability in IQ scores can be attributed to genetics. To prove his point, he conducted research on monozygotic twins who were reared apart, stating that they would have IQ scores that are the most similar. He also conducted research on IQ scores of adopted children, which he concluded would be closer to those of natural parents than of the adopted parents. Jensen's article received a great deal of attention because the popular press wrote about his findings. The media (popular press) which represented the dominant culture seemingly welcomed Jensen's findings,

mainly because they tend to substantiate the belief of the status quo (Gould, 1981).

The status quo position is derived from the individualist school of thought which believes that inferiority is innate to the minority individual or group (i.e., the problem is one of personal genetic defect rather than the system or instrument utilized to determine the findings). Also, no consideration was given to who administered the test, the examiner, and his or her social circumstance.

In still another study by Irvine and Carroll (1980), they stated that psychometricians were, and possible still are, disposed either to hierarchical and correlated factored theories of ability, following Spearman, Burt, Vernon, and Cattell, or to relatively uncorrelated factor theories in which no single ability determines any other following Thurston and Guilford. Tests have been based on theories of correlated or uncorrelated factors, and they have reflected these theories in their construction. For example, Jensen's recent and controversial studies (1969, 1971a, 1971b, 1973a, 1973b, 1973c, 1974a, 1974b, 1974c) are empirical attempts to assign levels of ability (implying hierarchy) to limited cognitive domains. His constructs have not led him to any new measures of intelligence. Instead, he has selected from these tests already available a number of measures that imply hierarchy in their

construction. Consequently, Jensen's work, in its present state, represents no major theoretical advance across cultures. It is, rather, a variant of the correlated factor traditions (Irvine & Carroll, 1980).

Based on Spearman's hypothesis, the nature of the average difference between blacks and whites on psychometric test experiment hypotheses suggests that the varying magnitudes of the mean difference between whites and blacks in standardized scores on a variety of mental tests are directly related to the size of the tests' loadings on the general factor common to all complex tests of mental ability. Several independent large-scale studies involving factor analysis and the extraction of a general factor from a number of diverse tests given to white and black samples show significant correlation between test general factor loadings and the mean white-black difference (expressed in standard score units) on the tests, thus substantiating Spearman's hypothesis. The average white-black difference on diverse mental tests interpreted as essentially a difference in Spearman's general factor, rather than as a difference in the most specific factors peculiar to any particular content, knowledge, acquired skills, or type of test (Jensen, 1978).

Concern with the negative impact on blacks of the national trend toward assessing aptitude achievement and intelligence almost solely through test instructions whose

validity and/or administration method is often suspect was reflected in the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People's (NAACP) annual conference report. The conference proceedings were designed to explore certain issues regarding the impact of testing on public policy, rather than to resolve all the testing issues. The conference's objectives were to elicit recommendations to deal with the issues and problems identified, a rationale for the Task Force's recommendations that gives meaning to and a basis for interpreting the recommendations, suggestions for implementing the recommendations, and a presentation of all issues, including pros and cons. The issues discussed were the use and misuse of tests, the psychometric integrity of tests, public policy, and a fair testing code. The NAACP conference concluded that some type of assessment is needed, that tests vastly influence the economic potential of human beings, and that test developers have a responsibility to tell what tests do and do not measure (NAACP, New York, 1976).

Many minority educators and testing specialists thought blacks were not accustomed to consistent test taking. Therefore, a seminar in test-taking strategies was developed. The seminar aimed at improving the students' understanding of the use of tests in academic and employment decisions, and helping students to improve their scores on standardized tests by teaching them test-taking

strategies. The long- and short-range benefits of training students in the techniques of test taking were minimal. Although such seminars may have been of some advantage to students, benefits are often temporary at best. Wilson (1977) suggested a more appropriate and valuable approach to produce alternative assessment procedures and to develop more culturally relevant assessment systems.

Joseph (1977) believed that a closer look needed to be taken at intelligence, IQ, and race, and when, how, and why they became associated. The work of Alfred Binet, as well as the validity and reliability of his scales, and the philosophy of Sir Francis Galton, were continued by the early eugenics movement in America. Other works in review at this time were research by Jensen, Herrnstein, Shockley, Terman's revision of Binet's scale, the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale, and group tests such as the Army Alpha Beta Scales. As a result, three models of socialization and black culture in America were developed: (a) the deficit model suggesting that black children raised in a disadvantaged environment lack skills and abilities considered to be indicators of success for the white middle class; (b) the difference model, which recognizes racial and cultural differences, especially with respect to language; and (c) the bicultural model arguing that Afro-Americans are exposed to two different cultures (Joseph, 1977).

Much of the recent debate over interethnic testing seems ideological rather than scientific. Polemics have taken precedence over plausible rival hypotheses; simplistic interpretations of results, in which ethnicity assumes a pivotal causal position, have tended to make matters worse. However, controversy is not to the psychometrician. Whenever inferences have been made from group means about aptitudes and processes of mankind (e.g., Fick, 1939), scientific rebuttals based on construct definition (Biesheuvel, 1943) have survived.

The original work has inevitably provided the heuristic stimulus to further research. It is in this spirit that one has to approach the controversies of the late 1960s (Irvine & Carroll, 1980). Hence some dismay might well be registered by psychologists perceiving the weltanschauung of Cole and Scribner (1974) and Scribner (1975) who advance this position: "There is simply no way to evaluate the source of variation when aborigines do not respond to an IQ test in the same way Cambridge undergraduates do" (Cole & Scribner, 1974, p. 173).

Racial Attitudes

Racial attitude is another factor to consider which was examined in a 1971 study by Brooks on race and attitudes toward out-groups--out-groups meaning groups outside of the individual's race, and in the testing field,

most examiners are white males. According to Brooks, no one, be he black or white in America, is without prejudice toward people considered outside of their group, the "out-group." The white American experience creates in many cases a racial extremist attitude toward blacks and other minorities in this country. This attitude is one that tends to be the norm and acceptable behavior by the status quo in the system. It was well put in the development theory by Jackson (1976) and revised by Hardiman (1979):

The White person at Stage I actively accepts and lives by the racist notions of superiority of whiteness that he/she unconsciously internalized growing up in the racist environment of America. At this stage the individual operates from the belief that people of color are inferior to Whites because of genetic and biological traits, and, furthermore, that these traits determine the social, moral and intellectual qualities of people of color. This belief in the innate inferiority of Third World people justifies their inferior treatment by Whites. (p. 7)

This issue concerning racial attitudes was investigated in another cross-cultural study comparison of Danish and United States' racial attitudes to determine whether there were real differences between attitudes of Danes and Americans toward out-groups, or whether publicity and public relations have created the stereotype of each country. An out-group is referred to as a group receiving prejudice and discrimination. If there are basic differences in attitudes toward out-growth in Denmark and the United States, the nature of these differences may help

to understand just how general the concept of attitude toward out-groups really is. The purpose of this study was to compare attitudes toward out-groups in a control study. The results of the study using analysis of variance indicated that white subjects, whether Danes or Americans, generally hold negative attitudes toward culturally relevant out-groups, but Danes did not feel quite as negative toward Mediterraneans as Americans did toward blacks. The results support the generalizability of the concept of the culturally relevant out-group (Brooks, 1971). Just as in the Brigham study, stated previously, Brigham suggested immigration should be restricted and highly selective. In this instance, intelligence testing was beginning to be utilized as an exclusionary device to control the immigration traffic. This was clearly an example of misuse of testing. Hence the present usage of testing in the court system demonstrates a condition tantamount to attempt to control the minority population (i.e., black and Hispanic).

Because most states utilize psychologists and psychological testing as a prerequisite in the decision-making process for court hearings and sentencing, psychologists are playing an increasingly important role in dealing with the problems of society, specifically, crime and delinquency. Assume, for the sake of discussion, that you get into serious trouble with the law. If you are found guilty, there is a good chance that you will be

interviewed by a psychologist before sentence is passed. The report will probably influence the judge's decision. If you are unfortunate enough to be sent to prison, another psychologist will help prison officials determine how to rehabilitate you. Finally, whether or not you get probation will depend in part on the psychologist's evaluation of your progress and the likelihood that you will "go straight" (Ragland & Saxon, 1981).

In preparing youth offenders for adjudication, the Juvenile Justice System administers traditional psychological tests based on the norms and values of the middle-class dominant culture, tests which tend to be inappropriate for minorities. The present study investigated the validity and the use of the WISC-R on black and other minority youth offenders.

The wide use of psychological evaluations by the courts includes IQ testing (e.g., Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children-Revised [WISC-R] or Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale [WAIS]/Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale-Revised [WAIS-R] tests) to determine largely the functional ability of offenders. This assessment is viewed to assist passing judgment on these individuals and the recommendations of the psychiatrist or psychologist is heavily weighed in making the final decision. The courts' testing practices have yielded an out-of-proportion number of minorities who have been mislabeled, inappropriately

treated, and placed in correctional and mental retardation facilities.

While most labeling theory research has concerned the impact of juvenile court labeling on the delinquent's self-concept and whether such labeling contributes to a delinquent career, Klein (1976) suggested that the emphasis should actually be on the labeling agents, the police department and the court system.

Another serious problem resulting from mislabeling is the inappropriate mental retardation label which tends to still remain a controversial issue for minorities. Prescott and Van Houten (1979) reported on the retarded juvenile offender in New Jersey placed in correctional and mental retardation facilities:

The American Association of Mental Deficiency (AAMD) defines retardation as "a condition that exists when there is significantly sub-average general intellectual functioning concurrent with deficits in adaptive behavior which is manifested during the developmental period." In clarifying this definition, the AAMD defines "significantly sub-average performance" as existing when an individual scores two standard deviations below the mean or average score using standardized tests. On the most commonly used standardized tests, the Stanford-Binet and Wechsler, this represents an IQ score of approximately 70.
(p. 249)

The study compares the ratio of blacks and other minority youth in Juvenile Justice Systems, the demographic characteristics of the individual in this phenomenon, along with their backgrounds in the New Jersey system. Although

an IQ score of 70 was established by the AAMD, 70-79 is considered borderline in Wechsler's intelligence classifications (Wechsler, 1974).

In the New Jersey system, this standard was disregarded and their use or misuse of IQ testing was in the hands of the user to meet the New Jersey system's needs. At the time of the search, 950 juveniles were housed in correctional facilities; 195 (21%) of them were classified by the Department of Corrections as mentally retarded, with a ceiling level IQ of 79. Using the AAMD determination of 70 as the ceiling level, 6% of the total juvenile corrections population fell in the mentally retarded range (Santamour & West, 1977). The remainder of the correctional data was reported to the AAMD according to its guidelines.

This study was conducted as a needs assessment to find out how many children were in both the Department of Mental Retardation (DMR) and the Department of Corrections (DOC). The ethnicity percentile of the two groups is shown below:

Table 1

Ethnicity Percentile of Department of Mental Retardation and Department of Corrections Youth

Ethnic group	DMR	DOC (IQ 70 and below)
Blacks	63%	76%
Caucasians	30%	9%
Hispanics	7%	15%

Table 1 leads to the inference that Caucasian juvenile offenders in New Jersey are more likely to be diverted to mental retardation facilities than their peers in minority groups (Prescott & Van Houten, 1979). The report cited similarities and differences between data and other research findings throughout the country. By now it is a litany: Retarded people are overrepresented in the incarcerated offender population; they are predominantly male, black, and poor; programming is nonexistent, inadequate, or inappropriate (Prescott & Van Houten, 1979).

Another research report written on mentally retarded youth in Cuyahoga County Juvenile Court, by a Juvenile Court Work Research Group, stated:

The race/ethnicity data shows [sic] the black youths comprise 69 percent of the mental retarded group. There may be several reasons for the over-representation of blacks in the retarded group. IQ tests, indicators used to define mental retardation, may have cultural bias. A federal district court in California recently ruled that IQ tests have a built-in bias against minority children. It is possible that some of the blacks identified as retarded in this sample actually do not belong in this group. Identification in the court should include measures of social adaptability as well as of intellectual capacity, in order to help eliminate this bias. (Santamour & Watson, 1982, p. 152)

Statistics reflect an astounding disproportion of minorities to whites institutionalized in the criminal justice system (see Table 2).

Blacks are approximately 10% of the nation's population, and Hispanics much less. In Connecticut, blacks

Table 2

Incarceration Rate by Race^a

State		Number of prisoners	Incarceration rate	Rank
California	White	7,870	42.0	41st
	Black	6,684	405.6	41st
	Hispanic	4,382	130.9	25th
	Native Amer.	210	230.7	24th
	Other	172	-	-
	Total	19,318	92.0	34th
Colorado	White	1,119	46.1	40th
	Black	465	522.5	31st
	Hispanic	664	238.8	12th
	Native Amer.	24	271.6	22nd
	Other	0	-	-
	Total	2,272	89.6	36th
Connecticut	White	1,573	55.5	35th
	Black	1,528	717.4	16th
	Hispanic	446	550.6	1st
	Native Amer.	0	-	-
	Other	14	-	-
	Total	3,561	116.2	24th
Delaware	White	488	98.8	9th
	Black	759	985.7	9th
	Hispanic	0	-	-
	Native Amer.	1	152.4	28th
	Other	0	-	-
	Total	1,248	216.7	8th
District of Columbia	White	185	103.9	8th
	Black	4,475	900.4	11th
	Hispanic	0	-	-
	Native Amer.	2	209.2	26th
	Other	0	-	-
	Total	4,662	672.7	1st

^aIncarceration Rate by Race taken from 1980 FBI Report of Crime in the United States. The states represented reflect the race, number of prisoners, the incarceration rate per 10,000, and rank from 1st to 51st states by rank of race.

represent fewer than 20% of the population, and Hispanics fewer than 10%. As can be seen from Table 2, proportionately the number of blacks and Hispanics in prison, the incarceration rate, and the rank are higher than the white population. In New Haven, Connecticut, blacks are fewer than 20% of the population, and findings show that blacks represent more than 50% of the incarcerated population.

A research project by Pape (1979) examined the relationship between race and crime as reflected in the existing literature and evaluated explanations based upon these findings. The studies that Pape reviewed show overrepresentation by blacks in arrests and convictions. Pape concluded that a disproportionate number of blacks' involvement in official measured crime and delinquency is frequently explained by a selection bias based on racial characteristics.

A study conducted comparing the WISC-R and Cultural Fair Intelligence Test (CFIT) in a juvenile delinquent population obtained CFIT and WISC-R scores from 51 delinquent juveniles (mean age 14.9 years) of black, white, and Mexican-American backgrounds. Comparison of mean scores on the two tests for minority and white juveniles demonstrated the CFIT to be less culturally biased than the WISC-R (Smith, Hays, & Solway, 1977). With all the controversy over the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC),

David Wechsler revised his instrument in 1974, hoping to improve the test. Wechsler prefaced his new, revised manual as follows:

The revised WISC, like the Scale it succeeds, has been designed and organized as a test of general intelligence. Its author believes that general intelligence exists; that it is possible to measure it objectively; and that, by so doing, one can obtain a meaningful and useful index of a subject's mental capacity. He also believes that the much challenged and berated IQ in spite of its liability to misinterpretation and misuse, is a scientifically sound and useful measure, and for this reason he has retained the IQ as an essential aspect of the revised Scale. But the new WISC, like its predecessor, has broader applications than just providing a reliable Intelligence Quotient, important as this index may be. (p. iii)

The new tests were tried out with 2,200 subjects who constituted the standardization population. Wechsler selected a stratified sample of boys and girls 6½ through 16½ years old, including black and other minority groups in equal proportions reported in the 1970 U.S. Census, and felt this was more representative of the country as a whole, which was different than the sample used in the standardization of the original WISC introduced in 1949 (Wechsler, 1974).

Wechsler has spoken of the revision being a cooperative enterprise of himself and the publisher, and the assistance of many persons, but the racial breakdown of assistance was not noted. It is the opinion of the author that the design of the revision is where blacks' and other minorities' input should have been concentrated.

Bias

The controversy of testing continues with the question being, who should judge whom and by whose standards should judgment be made? The argument can be made that there is insufficient involvement of subcultures in the development of testing instruments, and not enough integration of the total society's cultural environment included to represent a fair intellectual assessment test. The socialization of individual subcultures is different, and in many situations the test or the examiner are inappropriate to evaluate the learning potential of certain people falling into this category. The question of the appropriateness of examiners and their interpretation should be high on the priority list regarding the accuracy of their findings.

One of the first things taught in teaching skills, "It is far better to be in error and to overscore than to underscore test results" (Nutell, personal communication, April 1980). Underscoring has a regressive effect on the individual, whereas overscoring would allow for greater expectations which may aid in a higher performance by the individual.

The National Institute for Personnel Research (NIPR) team met in Zambia to discuss the inclusion of their tests in the forthcoming Mental Ability Survey (MacArthur, Irvine, & Brimble, 1964). The conference established several principles implicit in operationalization and rationale for

data collection which were essential to correlate test findings. One of the principles emphasizes the appropriateness and/or inappropriateness of test presentation and administration:

If translation for test instructions are necessary, these should not be literal. They should be idiomatic expressions of the intent of the test demonstrator who ideally should be from the same ethnic group as those taking the test. This will reduce the possibility of extraneous motivational influences on test scores. (Irvine & Carroll, 1980, pp. 184-185)

The biases in testing, their interpretations based on race and ethnicity, have been a monumental problem for black and other minorities in the education, mental health, and criminal justice fields.

Pelosi (1968) investigated the influence of examiners' race, style of interaction, and sex on test responses of 96 black male subjects enrolled in an antipoverty work experience program. The Information, Comprehension, Vocabulary, Digit-Symbol, Block Design, and Picture Arrangement subtests of the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale were used, together with the Purdue Peg Board and IPAT Culture Fair Test. Contrary to previous research findings that suggested inadvertent bias due to white examiners, Pelosi concluded that the examiners' traits did not significantly influence performance of black male subjects on seven of the tests. The only exception was the IPAT Culture Fair Test, in which subjects treated coolly

performed better under black male examiners than black female examiners, and better under white female examiners than white male examiners (Pelosi, 1968). Implications and limitations of the study should be considered, being that the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale (WAIS) is geared for postadolescent young adults, age 17 and above, who are less impressionable than preadolescents, and who, in most cases, have a sense of self and have completed high school.

Although attempts were made to improve the WISC testing instrument, a study comparing black and white children's WISC and WISC-R test scores found the WISC-R still biased. Three researchers administered the WISC and WISC-R to 20 white psychiatric outpatients aged 7 to 15 years in a counterbalanced design. Subjects' WISC and WISC-R differences were compared to equivalent data obtained from a Munford study of black children conducted in 1978. The scores for the white subjects showed no differences between WISC, WISC-R, Verbal, Performance, and Full-Scale IQs, whereas black subjects scored significantly lower on the WISC-R than on the WISC in all three IQ measures. These findings indicate increased cultural bias in the WISC-R, despite efforts to produce contrary results (Munford, Meyerowitz, Munford, & Arna, 1980).

Comparison of the WISC-R and Cultural Fair Intelligence Test (CFIT) in a juvenile population obtained CFIT and WISC-R scores from 51 delinquent juveniles (mean

age 14.9 years) of black, white, and Mexican-American backgrounds. Comparison of mean scores of the two tests for minority and white juveniles demonstrated the CFIT to be less culturally biased than the WISC-R. On ANOVA, there was a significant difference due to ethnicity and test used, and a significant interaction of those two factors due to the elevation of the minority juveniles' scores on the CFIT compared with WISC-R scores. Correlations between the WISC-R scores, subtest scales scores, and CFIT scores were significant, providing further validation of the WISC-R's cultural bias (Smith et al., 1977).

In all of the research dealing with intelligence and race, there tends to be a fluctuation from the genetic school of thought versus the systemic. Hans J. Eysenck (cited in Berry & Tischler, 1978) explained the IQ score difference between blacks and whites by noting that blacks in the United States are a nonrandom, lower intelligence sample taken from the African population.

Shockley used the term "dysgenics" to refer to the disproportionate mating amongst genetically inferior individuals. Still another researcher, Scarr-Salapatk, who studied Philadelphia school children, concluded that intelligence is more a function of genetics among whites than among blacks (cited in Berry & Tischler, 1978).

In still another study on Inner City Schools in Crisis, the role of education in influencing the political,

economic, and social status of blacks, focusing particularly on the issue of educational testing and the activities of the Educational Testing Service, was considered. The failure of the educational system to effect significant changes in the status of blacks relative to whites and the role of social science in creating instruments that justify unequal educational treatment was examined. The Educational Testing Service (ETS) was described in terms of its involvement in the institution's efforts to redesign educational tests in order to remove their bias against minorities. It is stressed, however, that even the fairest of tests cannot alone achieve equality of opportunity, because other criteria can be invoked to perpetuate social discrimination. It is also held that the principal problems black educators face in their struggle to eliminate bias are their white colleagues' general unfamiliarity with lifestyles of common folk in general, and black people in particular, and theoretically based orientations. Other crucial problems in the area of testing were finally being researched at ETS (Barnett, 1977).

It is believed that equal educational opportunity is the springboard for equal opportunity and is the hope of the blacks, other minorities, and whites for fair participation in the economic marketplace. Standardized tests frequently contain a bias that mitigates against black students, thus presenting a barrier to higher

education. In many places, competency testing programs are being implemented without enough attention to how well the tests match the goals and curriculum of schooling, and little consideration has been given to how instruction should be organized to help students who do poorly on the tests. Efforts are being made to regulate standardized testing, many of which have taken the form of legislative proposals. Students of standardized testing are often distinguished among several social functions--for example, selection, placement, assessment, and guidance. While competency testing is a controversial topic, it is vitally important that in the area of teacher education it should be used to screen out inept and undertrained potential teachers (Atkinson, 1980).

With all the controversy regarding race, intelligence, and genetics, the differences whether real or not, stimulate a reexamination of the dispute surrounding Jensen's genetic hypothesis in an attempt to clarify his contention that the differences in IQ scores between blacks and whites may be attributed as much to heredity as environment (Jensen, 1973). Other strategies for humanizing the test for minorities were further argued that most standardized tests are biased against minorities, especially blacks in America, and several alternatives and guidelines were suggested to alter the present unfair administration, interpretation, and testing process (Scales & Smith, 1974).

Race, racial attitudes, ethnicity, education, genetics, and environment are all relevant to the search for truth of how they impact on the examiner, and are considerations of this research study.

In a very important sense, we do not know what they (intelligence tests) measure--so long as IQ tests are treated solely in terms of their ability to predict a child's school performance (criterion-referenced meaning), arguments about the nature of the test need not arise. But as soon as we ask what IQ tests really do measure (construct-referenced meaning), we enter an area of seemingly endless arguments and ambiguity (Cole & Scribner, 1974).

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Design of the Study

This study was expected to shed light on the hypotheses set forth in Chapter I to aid in bringing about further understanding and knowledge on psychological testing; more specifically, the juvenile courts and correctional system's use of IQ testing to demonstrate another area's misuse of the instrument for which it was not originally designed and intended.

The study also investigated the impact a Youth Networking System counseling and educational program would have on high-risk and at-risk youths' school attendance, school dropout rate, employment status, law involvement, and days of incarceration. The final segment of the study selected a random sample of the population in question of 30 black and 30 white youths between the ages of 12 and 16, and compared the IQ score differences of subjects tested by both white and black examiners.

Sources of Data

The city of New Haven, Connecticut, has a population of 126,109. The racial breakdown is as follows:

(a) whites, 78,326; (b) blacks, 40,235; (c) Hispanics,

10,042; (d) other, 7,548. New Haven is comprised of six target areas in which neighborhood youth service providers are located. A Youth Networking System (YNS) was established in the six locations where high-risk and at-risk youth were identified and screened. Referrals came from the city youth service providers, the schools, and the juvenile authorities (i.e., courts, probation, and Public Defender's office). Documents were researched from the city's Youth Service Bureau and the juvenile authorities.

In this study, specific generalizations were made of the group in the study. For example, the black sampling IQ scores would be lower than those of their white peers, and the black population would be the largest group in identified high risk. But what could not be generalized was full IQ score results of the subjects by white versus black examiners, and the subscores of the two groups (i.e., the Verbal and Performance scores).

Procedures for Data Collection

The study was conducted throughout the city with data collection from seven host agency counselors to ensure objectivity, reliability, and validity.

1. All participants in the study were screened through the neighborhood host agencies who housed the youth case work counselors from the YNS.

2. Pretest results, school attendance, law involvement, and days of incarceration data were collected by the case work counselor from referral and appropriate agencies, and monthly progress reports were submitted.

3. The subjects were randomly selected by the host agency case work counselors and referred to Multi-Cultural Clinic (MCC) where the posttest was conducted.

4. Test scores were not calculated by the examiner.

5. Pre-posttest scores were collected by the MCC's intake data collection staff, and were submitted for analysis.

Treatment of Data

The data collected from school dropout rate and attendance, employment, law involvement, and days of incarceration were compared with 6 months' pre-YNS program experience and 6 months' post-YNS experience. The rates of increase or decrease in the above data were noted as indicative of the impact that the YNS program had on the participants. Success nontest predictors were examined. On the IQ test, the Verbal, Performance, and Full-Scale scores were compared along with the subtest scores. Also, other predictor variables, such as demographic factors, were entered in a multiple linear regression analysis to show their effectiveness in predictions.

Study I

This study was designed to evaluate a set of evaluation procedures and methods which would treat high-risk minority youngsters in a more equitable manner. It was felt that traditional evaluation procedures involved biases which worked against them. This study involved a comparison of two different evaluation procedures. The first procedure was developed by the YNS program, and the second was utilized by community agencies.

Subjects

There were 60 subjects who were high-risk youth tested by the procedures developed by the YNS program, which are identified here as Group A (GA). The second group were 102 subjects who were evaluated by the procedures developed by social services community agencies. This group is identified as Group B (GB). Both groups consisted of youngsters who had had some previous involvement with the law. The subjects were randomly assigned to the two different groups.

Dependent Variables

The dependent variables were the treatment outcomes in which the youngsters were placed. The treatment outcomes consisted of the following variables or some combination of them: group, individual counseling,

vocational training, tutoring, residential, and job placement.

Independent Variables

Independent variables consisted of those sets of variables which were used in the evaluation process: (a) demographic variables (sex, race, ethnicity, years of schooling, age, parents' education), (b) school variables (tardiness, attendance, truancy, homebound, dropout rate, vocational training), (c) law involvement (number of arrests, number of days in jail, recidivism rate, (d) employment (job, attendance, wages, training), (e) test data (human figure drawing, Bender Gestalt, Thematic Apperception Test, WISC-R).

Data Analysis

These data required the use of multivariate statistics. The design involved two groups, five sets of independent variables, and six sets of dependent variables. The statistical procedures were applied to these data either by a multivariate analysis of variance or regression analysis. These two procedures are reducible to the same set of procedures. The processing of the data throughout the statistical analysis reduced the two sets of procedures.

Study II

This study involved an examination of the effects of race of the examiner on the IQ scores of black and white youth. In this study, white and black examiners gave the WISC-R to both black and white youth.

Subjects

There were 30 black, male, high-risk youth, 12 to 16 years old, randomly selected from the YNS program identified as Group A (GA). The second group was 30 white, male, high-risk youth, 12 to 16 years old, also randomly selected from the YNS to provide a contrast group, identified as Group B (GB).

Procedure

All the youth in this study were treated by white examiners when they first became involved with the law and/or youth service provider agencies. The youth service providers and/or juvenile court's mandate is part of the preplacement or sentencing procedure. The court adjudication and/or youth provider disposition was that these youth participate in the YNS program. Upon entering the program, these youth were retested with the WISC-R by a black examiner. These youth had been tested twice within a 6- to 10-month period, first by the referral agency, and the second time by YNS Multi-Cultural Clinic (MCC), a component of the program.

On the occasion of the first testing, the examiners of both the black and white youth were white. On the occasion of the second testing, the examiner for both the white and black youth was black.

Data Analysis

The WISC-R scores were used to compare both groups on Verbal, Performance, and Full-Scale scores. Both pre- and posttest scores were compared from white and black examiners. These data required the use of a 2 x 2 analysis of variance and t tests for the two groups, GA and GB.

In this study, this researcher believes that specific generalizations could be made of the group in the study. For example, the black sampling IQ scores would be lower than those of their white peers, and the black population would be the largest group in identified high risk. But what could not be generalized was the score result of the subjects by white versus black examiners, and the impact the YNS would have on the participants' recidivism rate.

Significance of the Study

It is the hope of the writer that this study will aid youth service providers and the correctional system in the following ways: (a) reducing the incidence of mislabeling of socially, economically, and culturally deprived youth; (b) ensuring that cultural differences from dominant culture

norms are considered both in diagnostic assessments and treatment; (c) researching, expanding, and developing a more comprehensive treatment service designed to meet the special needs of high-risk youth; and (d) providing preventive treatment to aid in reducing delinquent acts and contact with the Juvenile Justice System by high-risk youth. Of further interest in the study were questions of other predictors of success regarding nonrecidivism among this population.

1. What nontest variables were effective or equally effective in predicting success (nonrecidivism)?

2. What alternative predictors were there in terms of existing data?

The study reviewed the use and misuse of these phenomena in America, and focused on the city of New Haven, Connecticut's, high-risk and at-risk youth processed through the court system and mislabeled, resulting in inappropriate treatment and placements. The study explored three major areas: (a) the issue of cultural bias in the WISC-R as an instrument commonly used by the juvenile court system and youth service providers; (b) the impact of race of the examiner and how it affected the examinee; (c) ascertaining who represented the largest population identified as New Haven, Connecticut's, high-risk group, selecting a random sample of 30 black youths ages 12 to 18, and comparing their pre-post-IQ test scores with those of 30 white

counterparts who had been tested by both white and black examiners.

The objectives of this study were to research and evaluate the effectiveness of approaches and methods of treatment in order to evaluate youth increasing in number and identified as high-risk/at-risk. It is most important that research be conducted to derive solutions to the problems faced by educational and correctional institutions in order to improve the quality of life for youth in the country who are the ultimate future of our nation. This study hoped to shed further light on a most difficult subject to aid in the improvement of service, and hoped the interpretation of the data resulting from this study might provide more understanding.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Study I

Table 3 presents information used to evaluate the first hypothesis. Hypothesis 1 states that, while blacks and Hispanics will be found to represent the smallest populations in the city of New Haven, Connecticut, these groups will comprise the largest populations of high-risk/at-risk youth identified by youth service providers and juvenile authorities. Table 3 shows that Hypothesis 1 was supported. The population frequency distribution indicates that blacks (31.9%) and Hispanics (6.0%) are represented to a lesser extent than whites (62.1%) in the city of New Haven. In contrast, the sample frequencies show that blacks (82.9%) and Hispanics (12.2%) are represented with greater frequency in the high-risk/at-risk youth sample relative to whites (4.9%).

The expected frequency distribution shows the relative frequency for the racial groups in the high-risk/at-risk youth sample in terms of their relative frequency in the city of New Haven. A chi-square statistic was computed between the observed and expected frequency distributions. The results show that the two distributions are

Table 3

A Comparison of the Frequency Distribution of White, Black, and Hispanic Youth in the City of New Haven and the Population of High Risk and At Risk Identified by Youth Service Providers and Juvenile Authorities

Population frequency distribution--city of New Haven				
Youth	n		%	
Whites	78,326		62.1	
Blacks	40,235		31.9	
Hispanics	7,548		6.0	
Total	126,109		100.0	

High-risk/at-risk sample frequencies: Observed and expected ^a				
Youth	Observed		Expected n ^a	
	n	%	n	%
Whites	48	4.9	607	62.1
Blacks	811	82.9	312	31.9
Hispanics	119	12.2	59	6.0
Total	978	100.0	978	100.0

$\chi^2 = 1378.88^*$

^aExpected frequency: Based on population percentages.

* $\chi^2 > .599$, $df = 2$, $p < .05$. A significant difference between observed and expected sample frequencies is noted.

significantly different, $\chi^2 = 1,378.88 > 5.99$, $df = 2$, $p < .05$. Therefore, the high-risk/at-risk youth racial distribution differs from the racial distribution found for the city of New Haven. From comparing the expected and observed frequency distributions, blacks and Hispanics are found to appear in higher percentages than whites, which is consistent with Hypothesis 1.

Table 4 presents the descriptive statistics for a random sample of 30 white and 30 black high-risk/at-risk youth regarding their scores on the WISC-R obtained during two testings. The pretest was administered by white examiners, and the posttest was administered by black examiners. These group statistics were analyzed for the purpose of evaluating Hypotheses 2 and 3. Hypothesis 2 states that because the WISC-R is culturally biased, the scores of blacks will be lower than those of whites when the WISC-R is administered by white examiners. Hypothesis 3 states that scores on the WISC-R are dependent on the race of the examiners such that black youth will show significantly higher WISC-R scores when tested by black examiners (posttest) compared to white examiners (pretest), while the WISC-R scores of white youth would not change when tested by black examiners.

A two-factor (race of youth and examiner) repeated measures analysis of variance was used to test the hypothesis of a relationship between race of youth and

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for Black and White Youth Under Test Administration by Black and White Examiners for All Scales of the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children, Schedule R

Verbal scores						
Youth	Pretest ^c		Posttest ^d		Both	
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD
Whites ^a	83.97	21.67	84.90	21.56	84.43	18.58
Blacks ^b	76.33	13.03	83.47	17.12	79.90	11.28
Both	80.15	15.27	84.18	16.12	82.16	11.46
Performance scores						
Whites	89.57	21.61	89.10	22.06	89.33	18.51
Blacks	79.93	16.67	87.37	18.74	83.65	14.13
Both	84.75	16.92	88.23	17.00	86.49	12.63
Full-scale scores						
Whites	86.17	20.91	85.83	21.99	86.00	18.33
Blacks	76.60	15.01	84.37	18.03	80.48	13.07
Both	81.38	15.92	85.10	16.82	83.24	12.21

^a_n = 30

^b_n = 30

^cPretest = white examiners

^dPosttest = black examiners

examiner regarding scores achieved on the subtests of the WISC-R. In the event of a significant interaction between race of youth and examiner, a Newman-Keuls post hoc test was applied to the group means.

The information used to evaluate Hypotheses 2 and 3 was obtained from the analysis of the interaction between the race of youth and examiner.

The analysis of variance gave additional information which was considered as relatively unimportant in the context of this research project--specifically, the analysis of variance tests both race of youth (Factor A) and race of examiner (Factor B) as single factors. In other words, the overall mean scores for black and white youth were compared without considering the race of the examiner, and the mean scores obtained by black and white examiners were compared regardless of race of youth. The analyses of Factor A and Factor B were termed as main effects. In addition, there was some irrelevant information obtained from the analysis of the interaction between race of youth (Factor A) and race of examiner (Factor B). These were termed as cross-comparisons. These were: (a) the group mean of white youth when tested by white examiners compared to mean score of black youth tested by black examiners, and (b) the group mean of black youth when tested by white examiners compared to the group mean for white youth when tested by black examiners.

The results for the WISC-R subtests are presented in Tables 5 through 7. Table 5 presents the results pertinent to WISC-R verbal scores. The results show that the race of the youth, treated as a single factor (main effect), was not significant: $F = .93 < .400$, $df = 1, 58$, $p > .05$. In other words, white ($\bar{X} = 84.43$, $SD = 18.58$) and black youth ($\bar{X} = 79.90$, $SD = 11.28$) did not differ significantly from one another when test scores under both white and black examiners were combined. The overall group means tested as main effects may be found in Table 4 (p. 53). The single factor of race of examiner was significant when tested as a single factor, $F = 25.29 > .400$, $df = 1, 58$, $p < .05$. In examining the group means presented in Table 4, the posttest mean scores obtained by black examiners ($\bar{X} = 84.18$, $SD = 16.12$) on the verbal portion of the WISC-R were higher than those for white examiners ($\bar{X} = 80.15$, $SD = 15.27$). Therefore, the overall mean score is significantly higher when the examiner is black rather than white.

The interaction between race of youth and examiner was significant: $F = 13.72 > 4.00$, $df = 1, 58$, $p < .05$. This result indicates a dependence between race of youth and examiner. A Newman-Keuls post hoc test was applied to the four group means for Verbal scores. This test examines the differences between all means compared in pairs. Those differences marked with a double asterisk in the lower portion of Table 5 are significantly different ($p < .05$) as

Table 5

Analysis of Variance Summary, Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children, Schedule R: Verbal Scale

Source of variation	SS	df	MS	F
Between subjects	39,974.67	59		
A (race of youth)	632.67	1	632.67	.93
Subjects within groups	39,342.00	58	678.31	
Within subjects	1,936.00	60		
B (race of examiner)	504.67	1	504.67	25.29*
AB	273.75	1	273.75	13.72*
B x Subjects within Groups	1,157.58	58	19.96	

Newman-Keuls Post Hoc Test ^a				
Mean differences	76.33	83.47	83.97	84.90
	76.33	-	7.14**	7.64**
	83.47		-	.50
	83.97			-
	84.90			

$S_{\bar{B}} = .58$	$r = 2$	$r = 3$	$r = 4$
$q .95(r, 58)$	2.83	3.40	3.74
** $S_{\bar{B}} q .95(r, 58)$	1.63	1.96	2.16

* $F > 4.00$, $df = 1, 58$, $p < .05$.

^aNewman-Keuls Post Hoc Test: Test on differences between all pairs of means.

Table 6

Analysis of Variance Summary, Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children, Schedule R: Performance Scale

Source of variation	SS	df	MS	F
Between subjects	45,644.69			
A (race of youth)	969.58	1	969.58	1.26
Subjects within groups	44,675.12	58	770.26	
Within subjects	2,034.00	60		
B (race of examiner)	364.36	1	364.36	17.60*
AB	469.26	1	469.26	22.67*
B x Subjects within Groups	1,200.38	58	20.69	
Newman-Keuls Post Hoc Test ^a				
Mean differences	79.93	87.37	89.10	89.57
	79.93	-	7.44*	9.17**
	87.37	-	-	1.73**
	89.10	-	-	.47
	89.57	-	-	-
$S_{\bar{B}} = .59$				
	$r = 2$	$r = 3$	$r = 4$	
$q_{.95}(r, 58)$	2.83	3.40	3.74	
** $S_{\bar{B}} q_{.95}(r, 58)$	1.66	1.99	2.19	

* $F > 4.00$, $df = 1, 58$, $p < .05$.

^aNewman-Keuls Post Hoc Test: Test on differences between all pairs of means.

Table 7

Analysis of Variance Summary, Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children, Schedule R: Full Scale

Source of variation	SS	df	MS	F
Between subjects	42,686.49	59		
A (race of youth)	929.11	1	929.11	1.29
Subjects within groups	41,757.39	58	719.96	
Within subjects	1,801.50	60		
B (race of examiner)	430.69	1	430.69	27.84*
AB	476.64	1	476.64	30.81*
B x Subjects within Groups	894.17	58	15.47	

Newman-Keuls Post Hoc Test ^a				
Mean differences	76.60	84.37	85.83	86.17
	76.60	-	7.77**	9.23**
	84.37		-	1.46**
	85.83			-
	86.17			

$S_{\bar{B}} = .50$	$r = 2$	$r = 3$	$r = 4$
$q .95(r, 58)$	2.58	3.40	3.74
** $S_{\bar{B}} q .95(r, 58)$	1.42	1.70	1.87

* $F > 4.00$, $df = 1, 58$, $p < .05$.

^aNewman-Keuls Post Hoc Test: Test on differences between all pairs of means.

judged by their exceeding the appropriate criterion level. An explanation for computing the criterion levels may be found in Winer (1962).

According to the Newman-Keuls post hoc analysis, the following pairs of group means, excluding cross-comparisons, were found to be significantly different ($p < .05$):

1. The mean scores of white youth ($\bar{X} = 83.97$, $SD = 21.67$) significantly exceeded the mean scores of black youth ($\bar{X} = 76.33$, $SD = 13.03$) when tested by white examiners.

2. The mean scores of black youth were significantly higher when tested by black examiners ($\bar{X} = 83.47$, $SD = 17.12$) compared to white examiners ($\bar{X} = 76.33$, $SD = 13.03$).

3. The mean scores of white youth were not significantly different when tested by white examiners ($\bar{X} = 83.97$, $SD = 21.67$) compared to black examiners ($\bar{X} = 84.90$, $SD = 21.56$).

4. The mean scores of white youth ($\bar{X} = 84.90$, $SD = 21.56$) and black youth ($\bar{X} = 83.47$, $SD = 17.12$) were not significantly different when tested by black examiners.

The difference between whites and blacks on pretest scores (white examiners) in the direction of significantly higher mean scores for white youth supports Hypothesis 2. The important findings relevant to evaluating Hypothesis 3 are that blacks improved significantly in their scores when the WISC-R was administered by black examiners, while white youth showed no change when tested by black examiners.

Table 6 (p. 57) presents the analysis of variance results for Hypotheses 2 and 3 regarding WISC-R performance scores. The single factor, race of youth, was not found to be a significant factor in determining the performance scores of youth across race of examiner: $F = 1.26 < 4.00$, $df = 1, 58$, $p > .05$. The overall mean score for black youth ($\bar{X} = 83.65$, $SD = 14.13$) is not considered to differ from the overall mean score of white youth ($\bar{X} = 89.33$, $SD = 18.51$). The race of the examiner was found to be significantly related to scores on the performance subscale such that white and black youth, as a group, were found to have significantly higher performance mean scores when tested by black examiners ($\bar{X} = 88.23$, $SD = 17.00$) compared to their mean scores when tested by white examiners ($\bar{X} = 84.75$, $SD = 16.92$).

A significant interaction effect was found to occur for the factors of race of examiner and youth, $F = 13.72 > 4.00$, $df = 1, 58$, $p < .05$. The results obtained from the Newman-Keuls post hoc test, omitting unimportant cross-comparisons between the pretest of one race and posttest of the other, are as follows:

1. White youth showed a significantly higher group mean ($\bar{X} = 89.57$, $SD = 21.61$) compared to black youth ($\bar{X} = 79.93$, $SD = 16.67$) when tested by white examiners (pretest).
2. White youth showed a significantly higher group mean ($\bar{X} = 89.10$, $SD = 22.06$) compared to black youth

($\bar{X} = 87.37$, $SD = 18.74$) when tested by black examiners (posttest).

3. Black youth scored significantly higher when tested by black examiners ($\bar{X} = 87.37$, $SD = 18.74$) compared to white examiners ($\bar{X} = 89.57$, $SD = 21.61$).

4. No significant difference was found for white youth regarding the mean scores they achieved when tested by white examiners ($\bar{X} = 89.57$, $SD = 21.61$) compared to black examiners ($\bar{X} = 89.10$, $SD = 22.06$).

The results of the analysis of the interaction between race of youth and examiner regarding performance scores support Hypotheses 2 and 3.

The results for the full-scale WISC-R scores are presented in Table 7 (p. 58). The main effect for race of youth was not significant, $F = 1.29 < 4.00$, $df = 1, 58$, $p > .05$. White youth cannot be considered to have a significantly higher mean score ($\bar{X} = 86.00$, $SD = 18.33$) than black youth ($\bar{X} = 80.48$, $SD = 13.07$) across race of examiner. The main effect for race of examiner was significant, $F = 27.84 > 4.00$, $df = 1, 58$, $p < .05$. Therefore, the mean scores of youth under test administration by black examiners ($\bar{X} = 85.10$, $SD = 16.82$) is significantly higher than mean scores of youth when tested by white examiners ($\bar{X} = 81.38$, $SD = 15.92$).

The interaction effect between race of youth and examiner is significant, $F = 30.81 > 4.00$, $df = 1, 58$,

$p < .05$. The results regarding mean differences, excluding cross-comparisons are:

1. White youth scored significantly higher ($\bar{X} = 86.17$, $SD = 20.91$) than black youth ($\bar{X} = 76.60$, $SD = 15.01$) when tested by white examiners.

2. White youth scored significantly higher ($\bar{X} = 85.83$, $SD = 21.99$) than black youth ($\bar{X} = 84.37$, $SD = 18.03$) when tested by black examiners.

3. Black youth scored significantly higher ($\bar{X} = 84.37$, $SD = 18.03$) when tested by black examiners compared to their mean score when tested by white examiners ($\bar{X} = 76.60$, $SD = 15.01$).

4. White youth failed to score higher when tested by white examiners ($\bar{X} = 86.17$, $SD = 20.91$) compared to black examiners ($\bar{X} = 85.83$, $SD = 21.99$).

The above results support Hypotheses 2 and 3 regarding full-scale WISC-R scores. In summary, the overall results for all WISC-R scales fully support Hypotheses 2 and 3.

Study II

The two study groups, Community Service Organizations (CSA) and Youth Network Systems (YNS), were compared with regard to the demographic variables including race, age, year in school, and parents' educational level. The results of the chi-square tests between group percentages for the racial variables are presented in Table 8. The

Table 8

Percentage of White, Black, and Hispanic Youth by Study Group

	CSA ^a		YNS ^b		X ²
	n	%	n	%	
White	8	7.8	9	15.0	10.61*
Black	82	80.4	34	56.7	
Hispanic	12	11.8	17	28.3	
Total	102	100.0	60	100.0	

*X² > 7.82, df = 3, p < .05.

^aCSA = Community Service Agencies

^bYNS = Youth Network Systems

percentage of white youth was 8% for the CSA group compared to 15% white youth for the YNS group. Blacks comprised 80% of the CSA youth compared to 57% of the YNS youth. Finally, the percentage of Hispanic youth in the YNS group was 28% compared to 12% of Hispanics in the CSA group. The results of the chi-square test showed that the racial percentage distribution for the study groups were statistically different, $\chi^2 = 10.61 > 7.82$, $df = 3$, $p < .05$.

The results in Table 9 show that the mean age of CSA youth was 15.6 years (187.05 months) compared to the mean age of YNS youth, 16.02 years (192.28 months). The differences between age group means were not statistically significant, $t = 1.87 < 1.96$, $df = 160$, $p > .05$. Regarding mean years in school, the YNS youth had been attending school for a significantly longer duration ($\bar{X} = 10.07$, $SD = 1.79$) than CSA youth ($\bar{X} = 9.41$, $SD = 1.22$), $t = 3.33 > 1.96$, $df = 160$, $p < .05$. For the purpose of comparing the educational level of parents, the following values were assigned to highest educational levels achieved: 1 = not completed high school, 2 = graduated from high school, 3 = attended college but not graduated, 4 = completed 2 years of college (AA or AS degree) or completed vocational education or technical school, 5 = completed 4 years of college (BA or BS degree), 6 = completed Master's degree, and 7 = completed doctoral degree (PhD, MD, or equivalent). The average educational level of the parents

Table 9

T-Tests of Significance Between the Means of Study Groups for the Demographic Variables Including Age, Year in School, and Parents' Educational Level

Age in months			
	\bar{X}	SD	t
Community Service Agencies ^a	187.05	18.29	1.87
Youth Network Systems ^b	192.28	15.10	
Years in school			
Community Service Agencies ^a	9.41	1.22	3.33*
Youth Network Systems ^b	10.07	1.19	
Parents educational level			
Community Service Agencies ^a	2.98	1.44	2.57*
Youth Network Systems ^b	3.53	1.10	

* $t > 1.96$, $df = 160$, $p < .05$, two-tailed t test.

^a $n = 102$

^b $n = 60$

Note. A two-tailed t test is used to test the null hypothesis of no significant differences between the study groups on the demographic variables.

of CSA youth was 2.98 (graduated from high school to attend college) compared to 3.53 (attended college to completed 2 years of college) achieved by the parents of YNS youth. The difference in educational levels was significant in the direction of higher educational level for parents of YNS youth, $t = 2.57 > 1.96$, $df = 160$, $p < .05$.

The results in Tables 10 through 13 are important for evaluating Hypothesis 4, which predicts that the Youth Network Systems study group will perform significantly better on all outcome variables grouped according to law involvement (Table 10), school performance (Tables 11 and 12), and employment (Table 13). Beginning with Table 10, the Youth Network Systems study group was shown to have a significantly lower rate of arrest ($\bar{X} = .05$, $SD = .22$) compared to the Community Service Agencies study group ($\bar{X} = 1.58$, $SD = .71$), $t = 16.21 > 1.65$, $df = 160$, $p < .05$. Also, the Youth Network Systems youth had a significantly lower number of arrests ($\bar{X} = 3.00$, $SD = 13.19$) compared to Community Service Agencies youth ($\bar{X} = 16.93$, $SD = 19.53$), $t = 4.90 > 1.96$, $df = 160$, $p < .05$. Finally, the Youth Network Systems youth had a lower percentage of recidivism (5%) compared to Community Service Agencies youth (49%), $\chi^2 = 33.24 > 3.84$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$.

Tables 11 and 12 show the results for school-related outcome variables. First, Youth Network Systems youth were significantly less tardy ($\bar{X} = .37$, $SD = .55$) than Community

Table 10

Tests of Significance Between the Means and Percentages of Study Groups for Outcome Variables Related to Law Involvement Including Number of Arrests, Days in Jail, and Recidivism

Groups	Number of arrests				
	\bar{X}	SD	t		
Community Service Agencies ^a	1.58	.71	16.21*		
Youth Network Systems ^b	.05	.22			
	Days in jail				
Community Service Agencies	16.93	19.53	4.90*		
Youth Network Systems	3.00	13.19			
	Percentage of recidivism				
	Yes		No		χ^2
	n	%	n	%	
Community Service Agencies	50	49	52	51	33.24*
Youth Network Systems	3	5	57	95	

* $t > 1.65$, $df = 160$, $p < .05$, one-tailed test

* $\chi^2 > 3.84$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$

^a $n = 102$

^b $n = 60$

Note. A one-tailed t test is used to test the one-directional hypothesis of higher mean scores for the Community Service Agencies study group on the outcome variables.

Table 11

T-Tests of Significance Between the Means of Study Groups for School-Related Outcome Variables Including Days Tardy, Days Absent, and Days Truant

Groups	Days tardy		
	\bar{X}	SD	t
Community Service Agencies ^a	3.18	4.20	5.15*
Youth Network Systems ^b	.37	.55	
Days absent			
Community Service Agencies	1.74	2.61	3.35*
Youth Network Systems	.58	.81	
Days truant			
Community Service Agencies	1.20	2.25	3.69*
Youth Network Systems	.12	.32	

* $t > 1.65$, $df = 160$, $p < .05$, one-tailed test

^a $n = 102$

^b $n = 60$

Note. A one-tailed t test is used to test the one-directional hypothesis of higher mean scores for the CSA study group on the outcome variables.

Table 12

Chi-Square Tests of Significance Between the Percentages for School-Related Outcome Variables Including Percentage Homebound, School Dropouts, and Returning to School

Percentage homebound					
Groups	Yes		No		χ^2
	n	%	n	%	
Community Service Agencies ^a	3	2.9	99	97.1	.02
Youth Network Systems ^b	2	3.3	58	96.7	
Percentage school dropouts					
Community Service Agencies	56	54.9	46	45.1	10.77*
Youth Network Systems	17	28.3	43	71.7	
Percentage returning to school					
Community Service Agencies	1	1.0	101	99.0	157.81*
Youth Network Systems	60	100.0	0	0.0	

* $\chi^2 > 3.84$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$

^a $n = 102$

^b $n = 60$

Table 13

T-Tests of Significance Between the Means of Study Groups for the Employment-Related Outcome Variables of Entering Vocational, Education, Entering Jobs or Job Training, and Job Attendance

Percentage entering vocational education					
Groups	Yes		No		χ^2
	n	%	n	%	
Community Service Agencies ^a	5	4.9	97	95.1	23.43*
Youth Network Systems ^b	20	33.3	40	66.7	
Percentage entering jobs or job training					
Community Service Agencies	17	16.7	85	83.3	105.23*
Youth Network Systems	60	100.0	0	0.0	
Job attendance in days					
	\bar{X}	SD	t		
Community Service Agencies	1.85	5.49	2.13*		
Youth Network Systems	.33	.66			

* $t > 1.65$, $df = 160$, $p < .05$, one-tailed test

* $\chi^2 > 3.84$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$

^a $n = 102$

^b $n = 60$

Service Agencies youth ($\bar{X} = 3.18$, $SD = 4.20$), $t = 5.15 > 1.65$, $df = 160$, $p < .05$. Regarding days absent from school, Youth Network Systems youth had significantly lower mean scores ($\bar{X} = .58$, $SD = .81$) compared to Community Service Agencies youth ($\bar{X} = 1.74$, $SD = 2.61$), $t = 3.35 > 1.65$, $df = 160$, $p < .05$. The mean scores for the variables of truancy are significantly lower for Youth Network Systems youth ($\bar{X} = .12$, $SD = .32$) than Community Service Agencies youth ($\bar{X} = 1.20$, $SD = 2.25$), $t = 3.69 > 1.96$, $df = 160$, $p < .05$. Referring to Table 12 (p. 69), the results for percentage homebound show no significant differences between Youth Network Systems youth (3.3%) and Community Service Agencies youth (2.9%), $\chi^2 = .02 < 3.84$, $df = 1$, $p > .05$. A significantly lower percentage of Youth Network Systems youth (28.3%) left school compared to Community Service Agencies youth (54.9%), $\chi^2 = 10.77 > 3.84$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$. Finally, all Youth Network System youth (100%) were found to return to school compared to 1% of the Community Service Agencies youth returning to school, $\chi^2 = 157.81 > 3.84$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$.

The results for the employment-related outcome variables are presented in Table 13. The percentage entering into vocational education was significantly higher for Youth Network Systems youth (33.3%) compared to Community Service Agencies youth (4.9%), $\chi^2 = 23.43 > 3.84$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$. All Youth Network Systems youth

(100%) were found to have entered into jobs or job training compared to 17% of the Community Service Agencies youth, $\chi^2 = 105.23 > 3.84$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$. In contrast, the Youth Network Systems youth had a significantly lower rate regarding daily job attendance ($\bar{X} = .33$, $SD = .66$) compared to Community Service Agencies youth ($\bar{X} = 1.85$, $SD = 5.49$), $t = 2.13 > 1.65$, $df = 160$, $p < .05$.

In summary, the results in Tables 10 through 13 support Hypothesis 4 related to program outcome variables. More favorable outcomes were found for Youth Network Systems youth on all variables with the exception of job attendance. However, this finding can be explained by the finding that more Youth Network Systems youth returned to school (and fewer school dropouts), and therefore, were less involved in employment.

While the evaluation of the hypotheses has been completed, additional exploratory analyses were done. First, all outcome variables having continuous scale measurement were intercorrelated. The intercorrelations between the outcome variables show the relative similarity between what the variables measure. Referring to Table 14, the highest correlation ($r = .68$) occurred between the variables of days in jail and number of arrests. While many correlations were statistically significant, most were not large in magnitude.

The results of the regression analysis in Table 15

Table 14
 Pearson Correlations Between Pairs at Outcome Variables Having Continuous
 Scale Measurement

	Days tardy	Days absent	Days truant	Number of arrests	Days in jail	Days job attendance
Days tardy	-					
Days absent	.10					
Days truant	.32*	.20*				
Number of arrests	.30*	.13*	.15*			
Days in jail	.13*	.06	.14*	.68*		
Days job attendance	.12	.22*	.00	.13*	.09	-

* $r > .13$, $p < .05$, two-tailed r -value (correlation value)

Table 15

Stepwise Regression of Outcome Variables on Group Assignment to Determine Which Outcome Variables Best Differentiate the Two Study Groups

Analysis of variance summary for regression					
Source	SS	df	MS	F	
Regression	27.63	6	4.60	70.35*	
Residual	10.15	155	.06		

Regression analysis summary						
Variable	Beta	R	Mult-R	R-Sq.	Change	Overall F
Number of arrests	-.95	-.79	.79	.62	.62	262.84*
Days in jail	-.33	-.36	.83	.68	.06	170.64*
Days truant	.13	-.28	.84	.71	.03	130.40*
Days absent	-.10	-.26	.85	.72	.01	103.15*
Days tardy	-.08	-.38	.85	.73	<.01	84.35*
Days job attendance	-.04	-.17	.86	.73	<.01	70.35*

* $p < .05$. All F-criterion values are not given because each step requires a different F-criterion due to the change in degrees of freedom.

Note. A stepwise discriminant analysis between the two study groups could have been used. The same results would have been obtained. The regression analysis was used because it is generally better understood. The outcome variables included in the regression were those having continuous scale measurement.

show the ability of the variables to distinguish between the two study groups arranged in the best combination. To achieve the latter, both the correlations between group outcome variables as well as the intercorrelations between outcome variables are considered. The variables as a group were highly significant, $F = 70.35$, $df = 6, 155$, $p < .05$. However, by use of the r-square, values were changed in the regression analysis summary portion. The best predictors were variables related to law involvement--number of arrests and days in jail. The next best predictors were three school-related variables including days truant, days absent, and days tardy. The work-related variable, days job attendance, was the least important in predicting group differences.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

In analyzing the data from all four hypotheses, the hypotheses were supported and substantiated. So what are the implications for this study?

Hypothesis 1 findings indicated that blacks and Hispanics are the smallest population in the city of New Haven, Connecticut, but reflects representation with greater frequency in the High-Risk/At-Risk sample relative to whites. This suggests that the court system and youth service providers need to review their policies and procedures in the processing of minority youth.

The study also suggested a need for further research in the problem of the high rate of minorities high-risk/at-risk youth in the system, and the need for a new preventive program to address the problem.

Also, knowing some of the major characteristics of this population, what correlations can be concluded that are characteristic in the society and the juvenile system which predict and guarantee the continuation of this phenomenon? For example, there are few or no minority examiners in the court system.

Seemingly the cost benefit in the long run would outweigh the long-term cost paid by the society and its victims.

Implication for Hypothesis 2 has been substantiated in numerous studies indicating the cultural bias in the WISC-R. The question then should be, why is the practice continued when knowingly the results will be incorrect in evaluating minorities? Again, this practice needs to be reviewed by the courts and other youth service agencies, along with the cost factor. It seems enough data have been generated to discontinue the use of the WISC-R on minorities, as many areas have already outlawed the use of this instrument.

If the use of the WISC-R in evaluating minorities is not discontinued, then at least consideration should be given to the administration and interpretation of test results.

Hypothesis 3 was supported by demonstrating significantly higher WISC-R scores when black subjects were tested by black examiners in contrast to lower scores when examined by white examiners; whereas, white subjects' scores showed no significant difference when tested by either white or black examiners.

These findings are significant, and further, in analyzing the data, it was found that the major problem area which tends to reduce the scores of black youth examined by white examiners was on the Verbal tests. This indicates a problem of communication and comprehension between white examiners and black examiners. With these findings,

consideration should be given to who should evaluate whom, and this would imply the possibilities of further discrepancies if subjects were Hispanic and/or foreign born. Consequently, the question of the examiner's race, ethnicity, and cultural background should be a consideration in testing, especially when using the WISC-R.

The findings in Study I on the use and misuse of psychological IQ testing have demonstrated significant implication regarding the use of IQ testing (i.e., the WISC-R on black high-risk youth). It is the intention of the researcher to explore further the use of the WISC-R in replication of this study to further substantiate these findings (i.e., comparing IQ scores of Hispanics who receive pretest by white examiners and posttest by Hispanic examiners along with other immigrants, e.g., Haitians and Iranians).

The implication for expanding the data on this question, if found significant, would challenge the WISC'R's use as a controlling device. It would further question the rights of youthful offenders, whether or not their rights are being violated by the courts who utilize this instrument to make judgment for adjudication in the determination of their sentencing, treatment, or placement.

This study and the research findings in the literature review suggest that if, in fact, the institutions of higher learning know and understand the original intent of Binet's

work, then we must not allow its misuse to continue. This research must definitely be continued.

In Study II, the findings are also significant in that they demonstrate those youth who are evaluated, programmed appropriately, and receive advocacy assistance, tend to be more successful in the courts. They also tend to demonstrate a much lower rate of recidivism.

The YNS program needs to be expanded and replicated in other cities to further demonstrate its effectiveness. Also, the findings would indicate a higher success rate for at-risk youth, those youth who are potentially high-risk, but who have not yet fallen into the juvenile justice system.

In conclusion, it is the belief of the researcher that the field of testing is in need of a serious overhaul. It is also in need of subculture involvement and participation by blacks, Hispanics, other minorities, and the poor to improve testing instruments. The WISC-R test and other testing instruments tend to be dangerous in the wrong hands. The exclusion of these groups in the development and administration of these testing instruments thereby deems the testing instruments used on minorities erroneous.

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APPENDIX

CITY-WIDE NETWORK SYSTEM FOR HIGH-RISK YOUTH

HOST AGENCY _____

CONFIDENTIAL WORK-UP REPORT ON REFERRALS

NUMBER _____

NAME OF REFERRAL: _____ DATE: _____

ADDRESS: _____ TELEPHONE NO.: _____

NATURE OF MEETING: _____

PROBLEMS: _____

RECOMMENDATIONS: _____

FOLLOW-UP: _____

ANTICIPATED MEETINGS APPOINTED: _____

AGENCY REPRESENTATIVE INVOLVED: _____

UN EMPLOYER: _____ ADDRESS _____ TELEPHONE _____

EARNINGS: _____ RATE PER HR. _____ PER WEEK _____

CITY-WIDE NETWORK SYSTEM FOR HIGH-RISK YOUTH

CLIENT NUMBER: _____

QUESTIONNAIRE ON REFERRAL

Female Referral

NAME: _____ PLACE OF BIRTH: _____
LAST FIRST

PRESENT ADDRESS: _____ DATE OF BIRTH: _____

LOCATION OF FAMILY, IF DIFFERENT FROM ABOVE ADDRESS:

COMPOSITION OF FAMILY: _____

LAST GRADE ATTENDED IN SCHOOL: _____ NAME OF SCHOOL: _____

PRESENTLY ENROLLED IN SCHOOL: YES _____ NO _____

DOES APPLICANT HAVE ANY CHILDREN? YES _____ NO _____

HAS SHE EVER BEEN PREGNANT? YES _____ NO _____

WHAT TERMS WOULD BEST CHARACTERIZE HER RELATIONSHIP WITH:

- A. Males
- B. Females

WHAT SORT OF RELATIONSHIP DOES THE APPLICANT HAVE WITH HER FAMILY? (PLEASE INDICATE SPECIFIC RELATIONSHIPS AND ANY UNUSUAL OCCURRENCES WHICH CHARACTERIZE THEM.)

NAME: _____ DATE OF REFERRAL: _____
(INDIVIDUAL OR AGENCY REFERRING APPLICANT)

REASON: _____

HOW DOES APPLICANT RESPOND TO AUTHORITY? _____

HAS APPLICANT HAD ANY CONNECTIONS WITH DRUGS OR DRINKING PROBLEMS? YES _____ NO _____

HAS THERE BEEN ANY COURT CONVICTIONS? (IF SO, PLEASE INDICATE NATURE OF CONVICTIONS.)

ARE THERE ANY COURT CASES PENDING? (IF SO, GIVE DETAILS.) _____

IS THERE ANY PAST HISTORY OF MENTAL ILLNESS? (IF SO, GIVE DETAILS.) _____

CLIENT NUMBER: _____

FEMALE REFERRAL (CONT.)

THE FOLLOWING CONOITIONS MUST ALSO BE MET PRIOR TO APPLICANT'S ENROLLMENT IN HIGH-RISK PROGRAM.

- A. ANY PSYCHOLOGICAL TEST WHICH MIGHT HAVE BEEN OONE ON THE ABOVE APPLICANT BE MADE AVAILABLE TO THE OIRECTOR OF THE MULTI-CULTURAL PSYCHO-EDUCATIONAL CLINIC.
- B. AGENCY OR REFERRING SOURCE MUST SET UP ANO/OR COORINATE WITH THE CASEWORK COUNSELOR AN APPOINTMENT FOR A PHYSICAL EXAMINATION BY A OCTOR PRIOR TO ACCEPTANCE IN THE PROGRAM, OR PROOF OF RECENT PHYSICAL EXAMINATION.
- C. THE PROGRAM MUST COMPLETE UP-TO-DATE MEDICAL RECORD ON ANY APPLICANT PRIOR TO THEIR PARTICIPATION IN THE PROGRAM.
- D. IF AN APPLICANT IS IN THERAPY PRIOR TO COMING TO THE PROGRAM, THE REFERRING AGENCY IS RESPONSIBLE FOR SEEING THAT ARRANGEMENTS ARE MADE TO CARRY ON AFTER APPLICANT IS ACCEPTED. ACCEPTANCE MAY BE CONTIGENT UPON THIS.
- E. IF A GIRL IS FOUNO TO BE PREGNANT AND SUCH A PREGNANCY OCCURS PRIOR OR DURING HER ENROLLMENT IN THERAPY, THE PARENT OR AGENCY REFERRING THE GIRL SHALL ASSUME THE RESPONSIBILITY OF REMOVING THE GIRL FROM THE PROGRAM WITHIN FIVE (5) OAYS AFTER BEING NOTIFIED BY THE PRGRAM OF HER CONOITION.

I HEREBY GRANT AUTHORIZATION TO HAVE THE MUTLI-CULTURAL PSYCHO-EDUCATIONAL CLINIC INVESTIGATE ANY PERSONAL RECORDS REGAROING MILITARY, MEDICAL AND POLICE RECOROS.

SIGNATURE OF APPLICANT, PARENT/GUARDIAN

CITY-WIDE NETWORK SYSTEM FOR HIGH-RISK YOUTH

CLIENT NUMBER: _____

QUESTIONNAIRE ON REFERRAL

Male ReferralNAME: _____ PLACE OF BIRTH: _____
LAST FIRST

PRESENT ADDRESS _____ DATE OF BIRTH: _____

LOCATION OF FAMILY, IF DIFFERENT FROM ABOVE ADDRESS:

COMPOSITION OF FAMILY: _____

LAST GRADE ATTENDED IN SCHOOL: _____ NAME OF SCHOOL: _____

WHAT TERM WOULD BEST CHARACTERIZE HIS RELATIONSHIP WITH:

- A. Males
- B. Females

WHAT SORT OF RELATIONSHIPS DOES THE APPLICANT HAVE WITH HIS FAMILY? (PLEASE INDICATE SPECIFIC RELATIONS AND ANY UNUSUAL OCCURRENCES WHICH CHARACTERIZE THEM.)

_____NAME: _____ DATE OF REFERRAL: _____
(INDIVIDUAL OR AGENCY REFERRING APPLICANT)

REASON: _____

HOW DOES APPLICANT RESPOND TO AUTHORITY? _____

HAS APPLICANT HAD ANY CONNECTION WITH DRUGS OR DRINKING PROBLEMS? YES _____ NO _____

HAS THERE BEEN ANY COURT CONVICTIONS? (IF SO, PLEASE INDICATE NATURE OF CONVICTIONS.)

_____ARE THERE ANY CASES PENDING? (IF SO, GIVE DETAILS.) _____

_____IS THERE ANY PAST HISTORY OF MENTAL ILLNESS? (IF SO, GIVE DETAILS.) _____

CLIENT NUMBER: _____

MALE REFERRAL (CONT.)

THE FOLLOWING CONDITIONS MUST ALSO BE MET PRIOR TO APPLICANT ENROLLMENT IN HIGH-RISK PROGRAM.

- A. ANY PSYCHOLOGICAL TEST WHICH MIGHT HAVE BEEN DONE ON THE ABOVE APPLICANT BE MADE AVAILABLE TO THE DIRECTOR OF THE MULTI-CULTURAL PSYCHO-EDUCATIONAL CLINIC.
- B. AGENCY OR REFERRING SOURCE MUST SET UP AND/OR COORDINATE WITH THE CASEWORK COUNSELOR AN APPOINTMENT FOR A PHYSICAL EXAMINATION BY A DOCTOR PRIOR TO ACCEPTANCE IN THE PROGRAM, OR PROVIDE PROOF OF RECENT PHYSICAL EXAMINATION.
- C. THE PROGRAM MUST HAVE A COMPLETE UP-TO-DATE MEDICAL RECORD ON ANY APPLICANT PRIOR TO THEIR ARRIVAL AND PARTICIPATION IN THE PROGRAM.
- D. IF ANY APPLICANT IS IN THERAPY PRIOR TO COMING TO THE PROGRAM, REFERRING AGENCY IS RESPONSIBLE FOR SEEING THAT ARRANGEMENTS ARE MADE TO CARRY ON AFTER APPLICANT IS ACCEPTED. ACCEPTANCE MAY BE CONTINGENT UPON THIS.

I HEREBY GRANT AUTHORIZATION TO HAVE THE MULTI-CULTURAL PSYCHO-EDUCATIONAL CLINIC INVESTIGATE ANY PERSONAL RECORDS REGARDING MILITARY, MEDICAL AND POLICE RECORDS.

SIGNATURE OF APPLICANT, PARENT/GUARDIAN

CITY-WID NETWORK SYSTEM FOR HIGH-RISK YOUTH

HOST AGENCY _____

PREVIOUS ARREST INFORMATION

NUMBER: _____

DATE(S) ARRESTED: _____

CHARGES: _____

WHERE YOU CONFINED? YES _____ NO _____

LENGTH OF CONFINEMENT: _____

PLACE OF CONFINEMENT: _____

DISPOSITION OF CASE: (LENGTH OF PROBATION, LENGTH OF TERM, OTHER.) _____

PROBATION OFFICER: (NAME AND ADDRESS): _____

ADDITIONAL INFORMATION: _____

CITY-WIDE NETWORK SYSTEM FOR HIGH-RISK YOUTH

HOST AGENCY: _____

WEEKLY REPORT FORM

NAME: _____ NUMBER: _____

WORKER: _____ DATE: _____ TO _____

PROGRAM DATA

PROGRAM INVOLVEMENT: _____

COMMENT: _____

DISCIPLINARY ACTION (TYPE): _____

COMMENT: _____

GENERAL ATTITUDE: (A-F): _____

COMMENT: _____

SCHOOL DATA

WORK DATA

ATTENDANCE (DAYS MISSED): _____

GENERAL PERFORMANCE: _____

COMMENT: _____

GENERAL DATA

HOME CONTACT: _____

COMMENT: _____

AGENCY CONTACT: _____

COMMENT: _____

GENERAL PROGRESS, PROBLEMS AND OTHER RELEVANT INFORMATION: _____

HOST AGENCY _____

WEEKLY ATTITUDIAL REPORT

NAME: _____

A. RESPONSIBILITY TO SELF

a. ABILITY TO STABILIZE DAILY PATTERNS OF BEHAVIOR

EXCELLENT 100% GOOD 75% FAIR 50% POOR 25%

COMMENTS: _____

b. ABILITY TO STRUCTURE DAILY PATTERNS OF BEHAVIOR

EXCELLENT 100% GOOD 75% FAIR 50% POOR 25%

COMMENTS: _____

c. PERSONAL ACHIEVEMENTS (HOUSE, SCHOOL, WORK, FAMILY)

EXCELLENT 100% GOOD 75% FAIR 50% POOR 25%

COMMENTS: + _____

d. ABILITY TO CONTINUE GOALS AND DAILY OBJECTIVES

EXCELLENT 100% GOOD 75% FAIR 50% POOR 25%

COMMENTS: _____

B. RESPONSIBILITY TO GROUP

a. ABILITY TO UNDERSTAND AND RELATE TO OTHER PARTICIPANTS

EXCELLENT 100% GOOD 75% FAIR 50% POOR 25%

COMMENTS: _____

C. ARRESTS: _____

NUMBER OF DAY(S) IN JAIL: _____

COMMENT: _____

GENERAL COMMENTS: _____

HOME VISIT: _____ NAME: _____

TELEPHONE NO.: _____

MEETING WITH PARENT(S)/GUARDIAN: _____

TIME AND DATE: _____

PURPOSE: _____

MEETING WITH AGENCY

TIME: _____ DATE: _____

ADDRESS: _____

PURPOSE: _____

D. ADDITIONAL COMMENTS: _____

CASEWORKER _____
SIGNATURE

CITY-WIDE NETWORK SYSTEM FOR HIGH-RISK YOUTH

HOST AGENCY: _____

MONTHLY STATUS INFORMATION

NUMBER: _____

DISCIPLINARY ACTION TAKEN: _____

WHAT NECESSITATED ACTION?: _____

DAYS ABSENT FROM SCHOOL (SPECIFY REASON IN EACH INSTANCE): _____

SCHOLASTIC PERFORMANCE (LIST ALL PROBLEMS, ETC.): _____

RESIDENTIAL CONDUCT: _____

EXTRA CURRICULAR ACTIVITY PARTICIPATION: _____

EMPLOYMENT STATUS: _____

ARRESTS: _____

NUMBER OF DAYS IN JAIL: _____

DISPOSITIONS (IF APPLICABLE): _____

IMPRESSIONS: (COMMENTS, ETC.): _____

CITY-WIDE NETWORK SYSTEM FOR HIGH-RISK YOUTH

HOST AGENCY: _____

TERMINATION FOLLOW-UP INFORMATION

NUMBER: _____

CURRENT ADDRESS (WITH WHOM, RELATION): _____

EMPLOYMENT STATUS (WHERE EMPLOYED, WAGES, TYPE JOB): _____

EDUCATIONAL STATUS

SCHOOL: _____ GRADE: _____

DATE OF FOLLOW-UP: _____

ARRESTS (REASON, NUMBER OF TIMES, CHARGES, DISPOSITION): _____

MARITAL STATUS: _____

MILITARY STATUS: _____

CITY-WIDE NETWORK SYSTEM FOR HIGH-RISK YOUTH

PROBLEMS AND GOALS OF PARTICIPANT

NUMBER: _____

DATE: _____

NAME: _____

PROBLEMS IDENTIFIED BEFORE ENTRY

- 1. _____
- 2. _____
- 3. _____
- 4. _____
- 5. _____
- 6. _____
- 7. _____

SHORT-RANGE GOALS

- 1. _____
- 2. _____
- 3. _____
- 4. _____

LONG-RANGE GOALS

- 1. _____
- 2. _____
- 3. _____
- 4. _____

PROBLEMS IDENTIFIED AFTER ENTRY

DATE: _____

- 1. _____
- 2. _____
- 3. _____
- 4. _____
- 5. _____

CHANGES IN SHORT-RANGE GOALS

- 1. _____
- 2. _____
- 3. _____

COMMENTS: _____

YOUTH NETWORK SYSTEM
MONTHLY STATISTICAL REPORT

HOST AGENCY: _____ DATE SUBMITTED: _____
FOR MONTH OF: _____

NUMBER OF INTAKE THIS MONTH: _____ ACCUMULATIVE TO DATE: _____

SEX:

NUMBER OF MALES: _____ NUMBER OF FEMALES: _____

RACE:

NUMBER OF BLACKS: _____ HISPANICS: _____ WHITES: _____ OTHERS: _____

AGE:

12 _____; 13 _____; 14 _____; 15 _____; 16 _____

17 _____; 18 _____; 19 _____; 20 _____; 21 _____

Below Target Age (-12) _____ Above Target Age (21+) _____

SCHOOL STATUS:

PRE-YNS:

NUMBER OF HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES: _____ NUMBER ATTENDING COLLEGE: _____

NUMBER IN SCHOOL: _____ TARDINESS: _____ TRUANCY: _____ ABSENCE: _____

DROP-OUTS: _____ HOMEBOUND: _____

POST-YNS:

NUMBER OF HIGH SCHOOL GRADUATES: _____ NUMBER ATTENDING COLLEGE: _____

RETURNED TO SCHOOL: _____ TARDINESS: _____ TRUANCY: _____ ABSENCE: _____

DROP OUTS: _____ HOMEBOUND: _____

LAW ENFORCEMENT:

PRE-YNS:

NUMBER OF ARRESTS: _____ DAYS IN JAIL: _____

POST-YNS:

NUMBER OF ARRESTS: _____ DAYS IN JAIL: _____

EMPLOYMENT DATA:

PRE-YNS: CETA Age, 14 and above.

NUMBER EMPLOYED: _____ UNEMPLOYED: _____

VOCATIONAL TRAINING PROGRAM: _____

CETA: _____ PRIVATE SECTOR: _____

POST-YNS:

NUMBER EMPLOYED: _____ UNEMPLOYED: _____

YOUTH NETWORK SYSTEM
MONTHLY STATISTICAL REPORT

PAGE TWO

EMPLOYMENT DATA - CONT.

POST-YNS:

VOCATIONAL TRAINING PROGRAM: _____

CETA: _____ PRIVATE SECTOR: _____

REFERRALS SERVICES:

EMPLOYMENT: _____ EDUCATIONAL: _____ TRAINING: _____

WORKSHOPS: _____ HEALTH: _____ MENTAL HEALTH: _____

PSYCH. TESTING: _____ COURT: _____ PROBATION: _____

PUBLIC DEFENDERS OFFICE: _____ COUNSELING: _____

CRISES INTERVENTION: _____ OTHERS: _____ TOTAL REFERRALS: _____

DIRECT SERVICES:

EMPLOYMENT: _____ EDUCATIONAL: _____ TRAINING: _____

WORKSHOPS: _____ PSYCH. TESTING: _____ COUNSELING: _____

CRISES INTERVENTION: _____ OTHERS: _____ TOTAL REFERRALS: _____

AVERAGE NUMBER OF REFERRALS PER PARTICIPANT: _____

COMMENTS:

COUNSELORS SIGNATURE

HOST AGENCY DIRECTORS SIGNATURE

Community Action Agency of New Haven, Inc.

YOUTH NETWORK SYSTEM ACTIVITY CHECK LIST

DATE:	DIXWELL	DWIGHT	NEWHALLVILLE	HILL	FARNAM	JUNTA	WEST ROCK	TOT
DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION								
Number of Intakes								
Accumulative								
<u>SEX</u>								
Number of Males								
Number of Females								
<u>RACE</u>								
Blacks								
Hispanics								
Whites								
Others								
<u>AGE</u>								
12								
13								
14								
15								
16								
17								
18								
19								
20								
21								
-12								
+21								

Community Action Agency of New Haven, Inc.

YOUTH NETWORK SYSTEM ACTIVITY CHECK LIST

DATE:								
	DIXWELL	DWIGHT	NEWHAVENVILLE	HILL	FARNAM	JUNTA	WEST ROCK	TOT
SCHOOL STATUS PRE-YNS								
High School Graduate								
Attending College								
Number in School								
Tardiness								
Truancy								
Absence								
Drop-outs								
Homebound								
POST-YNS								
High School Graduate								
Attending College								
Returned to School								
Tardiness								
Truancy								
Absence								

Community Action Agency of New Haven, Inc.

YOUTH NETWORK SYSTEM ACTIVITY CHECK LIST

DATE:								
	DIXWELL	DWIGHT	NEWHALLVILLE	HILL	FARNAM	JUNTA	WEST ROCKY	TOT
EMPLOYMENT DATA POST-YNS								
Number Employed								
Unemployed								
Vocational Training Pro.								
CETA								
Private Sector								
<u>REFERRALS - SERVICES</u>								
Employment								
Educational								
Training								
Workshops								
Health								
Mental Health								
Psychological Testing								
Court								
Probation								

Community Action Agency of New Haven, Inc.

YOUTH NETWORK SYSTEM ACTIVITY CHECK LIST

DATE:								
	DIXWELL	DWIGHT	NEWHALLVILLE	HILL	FARNAM	JUNTA	WEST ROCK	TOT
REFERRALS - SERVICES Cont.								
Public Defenders Office								
Counseling								
Crises Intervention								
Others								
Total Referrals								
<u>DIRECT SERVICES</u>								
Employment								
Educational								
Training								
Workshops								
Psychological Testing								
Counseling								
Crises Intervention								
Others								
Total Referrals/Services								
Average Number of Referrals per Participant								

