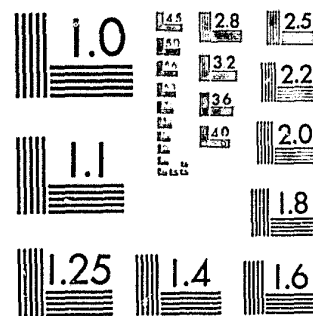


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Federal Probation

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"Desperate Alternative" *John A. Moccia*

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Federal Probation

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This Issue in Brief

The "Effectiveness" Issue Today: An Overview.—An unsettled atmosphere exists regarding the effectiveness of rehabilitation or habilitation, asserts California researcher Ted Palmer. Neither the global optimism of the 1960's nor the extreme pessimism of the middle and later 1970's seem justified, and neither view in fact prevails. The author describes two slightly more moderate "camps" which have replaced them, and underscores the substantial but far from complete disagreement which exists between these two.

Targeting Federal Resources on Recidivists: An Empirical View.—INSLOW researchers report results of a study of recidivism among Federal offenders and Federal policy for dealing with repeat offenders. The central question examined is whether Federal prison populations or crime rates, or both, can be reduced through the use of a strategy of increased focus by U.S. attorneys on cases involving recidivists. Analysis of Federal recidivism patterns indicates substantial opportunity to identify dangerous, repeat offenders prospectively using a simple statistical assessment procedure; analysis of survey data on current Federal prosecution policy reveals an absence of any explicit prosecutorial guidelines that attempt to do so.

A Radical/Marxist Interpretation of Juvenile Justice in the United States.—This article by Catherine M. Sinclair reflects the history and development of the juvenile justice system tracing the growth, nature, and perspective of radical/Marxist criminology. According to the views of the radical/Marxist criminologists, although youthful misconduct is extremely widespread throughout society, a vast amount of behavior that is defined as delinquent is strictly the result of social labeling—differentially applied to those youths from the lowest socio-economic classes who are caught and formally processed through the juvenile justice system.

The Emergence of Determinate Sentencing.—Besides exploring some of the prominent

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All phases of preventive and correctional activities in delinquency and crime come within the fields of interest of FEDERAL PROBATION. The Quarterly wishes to share with its readers all constructively worthwhile points of view and welcomes the contributions of those engaged in the study of juvenile and adult offenders. Federal, state, and local organizations, institutions, and agencies—both public and private—are invited to submit any significant experience and findings related to the prevention and control of delinquency and crime.

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FEDERAL PROBATION QUARTERLY

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90382

Screening Ex-Offenders for Employment Services: A Preliminary Assessment*

BY CHARLES A. LINDQUIST, PH.D.

Department of Criminal Justice, University of Alabama in Birmingham

NUMEROUS STUDIES have focused on the economic problems faced by ex-offenders—especially immediately after release (Erickson, 1973; Pownall, 1971; Taggart, 1972; Waller, 1974; Witte, 1976). The economic problem of greatest significance has been the difficulty in obtaining (and retaining) a job. Unemployment rates among ex-offenders have consistently been higher than those for other members of the labor force. To illustrate this point, Beck (1981) examined a sample of parolees released during 1978-1979 and found an unemployment rate of 25 percent after 12 months. The national unemployment rate for all members of the labor force was approximately 6 percent during the same period. Beck (1981:4-5) also found a statistically significant higher rate of unemployment for minority and younger ex-offenders (43%). Even if a job is obtained, many ex-offenders, especially younger ones, have great difficulty in retaining the job (Cook, 1975). For example, Wiederanders (1981) examined a California Youth Authority project designed to improve the employability of ex-offenders and found that, while many jobs were obtained, the modal retention time was less than 2 months.

An array of variables have been cited to explain the reasons for the lack of ex-offender success in the job market. Some relate this lack of success to the failure of prison vocational program (Glaser, 1969; Smith and Warner, 1977); others focus on the stigma attached to the ex-offender (Dale, 1976—especially by prospective employers (Schwartz and Skolnick, 1962). Difficulty in meeting bonding (Dale, 1976:325-330) and licensing (Hunt, Bowers and Miller, 1973; Waldemar, 1972) requirements and the fact that offenders leave prison with little savings and a small amount of gate money (Lenihan, 1975) are considered to be negative factors, as is the absence of access to temporary financial assistance programs (Colter, 1975)—on other than an experimental basis (Reinarman and Miller, 1975;

Rossi, Berk, and Lenihan, 1980). Finally, the lack of job skills on the part of some ex-offenders and the lack of programs to effectively enhance the employability of ex-offenders have also been cited as reasons for their higher unemployment rate.

Regardless of the reasons for the high rate of unemployment among ex-offenders, the sheer fact of its existence produces a major concern. Unemployment has been linked to *recidivism*. Several studies have examined the incidence of crime among ex-offenders and the relationship between employment status and crime. Buffum (1976), for example, found the frequency of self-reported crime among a sample of releasees to be 49.2 percent. Similarly, Petersilia, Greenwood, and Lavin (1977) found a considerable amount of crime among both employed and unemployed habitual felons; however, the overall level of criminal activity was significantly lower within the former category. In a recent study, Soothill and Holmes (1981) found no reconvictions among their sample of men who obtained a job shortly after release and worked for at least 1 year. Also, Rossi, *et al.*'s (1980:19-20), experimental study of transitional aid to newly released offenders showed that temporary financial assistance reduced arrests, as did being employed. Finally, being employed has also been equated with parole success in a large number of studies (Abadinsky, 1982; Glaser, 1969: 210-238; Irwin, 1970: 131-148). While some disagreement exists about the specific nature of the process by which employment and observance of rules are linked, many persons would probably agree that employment, in addition to provision of economic benefits, is an indicator of societal adjustment (Knox, 1981) and conformity (Meisenhelder, 1977) which increases affective well-being (Liker, 1982) and, accordingly, may insulate a person from crime in the future (Soothill and Holmes, 1981: 30).

Recognizing that the linkage between unemployment and recidivism is a major societal concern, a number of programs have been established to provide employment services for ex-offenders. Some of these programs have emphasized job placement via: vocational training (Huff, 1978; Spencer, 1980), improvement of self-image (Cellini, Giannini, Wright and

Coughlin, 1977), development of job hunting skills (Beck, 1981: 3-8; Wiederanders, 1981: 9-12) and familiarization with employer expectations (Potter, 1982). While many of these programs differ regarding their particular approach to service provision, most of the programs are designed to improve the client's employability and to develop contacts with prospective employers. Unfortunately, few, if any, of these programs provide the full continuum of services recommended by the Wilson, Lenihan, and Goolkasian (1981) program model.¹ This lack is especially noticeable in the area of postplacement support. Little attention is paid to considerations such as job satisfaction (Cook, 1975:22), life-career management (Smith and Warner, 1977:337) and job retention (Huff, 1978:11; Wiederanders, 1981: 11-12). In addition, most programs screen clients before entry; however, no evaluation of this type of screening process exists in the literature—nor do many overall program evaluations exist. There is an obvious relationship between screening and evaluation. If bad risks are screened from entry, program results may appear to be very positive. It is this screening phenomenon that will provide the eventual focus for this article.

Before addressing program screening, it may be instructive to look at the variables that have been found to be significant in the relatively small number of prior studies dealing with the correlates of program success and failure. Variables positively associated with program success have been: sentence length (Knox and Stacey, 1978), being white (Cassidy, 1978), being convicted of a property or drug offense (Reinarman and Miller, 1975:26), length of previous employment, being a veteran, having a driver's license, completion of high school, and being married (Knox, 1981: 492-494). Variables associated with program failure have been: greater length of incarceration, increased years of education, being older, and being a repeat offender (Knox and Stacey, 1978: 211-213). We will include these variables, among others, in our examination, not only to see if they can discriminate between success and failure, but also to see if the prospective clients screened from entry possess characteristics more closely related to program success or to program failure.

Purpose

Given the fact that most administrators try to take the best risks into their respective programs, screening at the entry stage has become a way of life. This

fact was recognized by Wilson, *et al.* (1981: 5-9), when they strongly criticized existing ex-offender programs for screening so extensively as to preclude appropriate evaluation of their effectiveness. It is also relevant to note that there is no published research examining the phenomenon of client screening in programs providing employment services for ex-offenders. Accordingly, it is our purpose to first examine the screening process, second, to see what variables are associated with program success and, third, to evaluate the former on the basis of the latter.

Method

A full population sample of adult offenders (N = 376) who had been convicted of a felony, who were certified as meeting CETA's financial eligibility requirements and who applied for entry into Birmingham's Community Acceptance Program (CAP), was drawn for fiscal years 1980-1982. CAP is a job placement assistance program, sponsored by the Alabama Center for Higher Education (ACHE)—an association of seven predominantly black senior colleges in the State of Alabama—and supported by title II-B CETA funds through the Birmingham Area Manpower Consortium. CAP provides supportive services and both preemployment and on-the-job training. During the period under examination, CAP clients typically received four weekly stipends of \$75 during the preemployment training period and then progressed to a minimum of 6 weeks of on-the-job training at minimum wage. Upon completion of training, successful clients were either retained by their respective OJT employers on a regular basis or they obtained other employment.

The frequency distribution of client and nonclient characteristics was examined, as were the characteristics of program successes and failures. Discriminant analysis was then employed to determine the canonical discriminant function coefficients of the variables influencing program outcome. These coefficients then provided the basis for evaluating the screening process.

Findings

As indicated by table 1, it can be seen that approximately 60 percent (N=235) of those eligible for CAP were screened out.

Before proceeding further, several caveats are in order regarding our initial statement about CAP screening. A relatively large number of prospective clients screened themselves out of the program by not appearing for the preemployment training sessions. Given the fact that intake to the preemployment phase of the program occurred on a cyclical basis,

* Appreciation is expressed to Curtis Terry, Community Acceptance Program coordinator, and to Belinda McCarthy, George Reinhardt, and Brent Smith, University of Alabama in Birmingham, for their helpful comments on an earlier draft of this article.

¹The program model recommends that ex-offender employment services be provided within each one of the following phases: institutional preparation, community readjustment, preplacement job preparation, job development, job placement, and postplacement support.

TABLE 1.—Prospective Clients Eligible for CAP Entry

Characteristics	Screened In (N = 141)	Screened Out (N = 235)
General		
Sex (% Male)	83 %	83.8%
Race (% Black)	95.7%	93.6%
Age (X) ^a	29.7	26.9
Education (X)	11.2	11.1
Marital Status (% Single)	54.6%	61.7%
Family Status (% Independent)	61.7%	64.3%
Family Size (X)	2.0	1.9
Veteran (%)	25.5%	17.9%
[Type of Discharge (% Honorable)]	[63.9%]	[74.4%]
Driver's License (%)	44.7%	39.2%
Economic		
Months Unemployed (X)	6.7	5.0
Hourly Wage - Last Job	\$3.37	\$3.34
Months On Last Job (X)	11.3	9.6
Family Income (X)	\$1,786	\$1,483
Income Per Family Member (X)	\$ 968	\$ 909
Criminal		
Type Crime:		
Person	29.1%	22.1%
Property	56 %	59.1%
Drug	9.9%	8.5%
Incarcerated (%)	67.4%	66.4%
[Months Incarcerated (X)]	[17.4]	[18.3]
Sentence In Years (X)	4.1	3.9
Sentence Expiration In Months (X)	11.6	12.2
Present Status:		
Probation	32.6%	33.2%
Parole	33.3%	33.2%
Sentence Expired	31.2%	33.2%
Referral Source (% State Agency) ^b	32.6%	43.6%
Repeat Offender (%)	35.5%	32.3%

a. $p < .001$ b. $p < .05$

clients occasionally had to wait several weeks for entry. Some prospective clients, especially those who had been recently released from prison and needed immediate financial assistance, were apparently discouraged by the entry delay; in any event, they did not show up for preemployment training. A similar type of self-screening, albeit to a lesser degree, occurred as a result of delay in placement for on-the-job training. Some prospective clients, however, were admittedly screened out on the basis of staff perceptions of inappropriate (e.g. persistent use of profanity) or bizarre (e.g. hearing voices) behavior. These per-

sons were referred to other programs whenever possible. As an illustration, in reference to the examples cited above, such persons might be referred to a job readiness program sponsored by the Urban League or to a university psychiatric clinic, respectively.

Application of appropriate statistical tests to differences between the two groups described in table 1 was significant² regarding age and referral status. Those screened out were *younger* and *more* likely to have to have been referred to CAP by a state agency (e.g. a probation/parole office) than those clients accepted into the program.

Given the fact that approximately 80 percent of both groups consisted of black males, it is appropriate to focus our study on this particular category of clients. As indicated by table 2, significant differences existed

TABLE 2.—Black Males Eligible for CAP Entry

Characteristics	Screened In (N = 113)	Screened Out (N = 183)
General		
Age (X) ^a	29.8	27.2
Education (X)	11.2	10.9
Marital Status (% Single)	56.6%	62.0%
Family Status (% Independent)	66.4%	69.3%
Family Size (X)	2.0	1.8
Veteran (%)	31 %	20.1%
[Type of Discharge (% Honorable)]	[62.9%]	[75 %]
Driver's License (%)	42.5%	40.9%
Economic		
Months Unemployed (X) ^b	6.7	4.3
Hourly Wage - Last Job	\$3.45	\$3.45
Months On Last Job (X)	10.9	9.9
Family Income (X)	\$1,866	\$1,582
Income Per Family Member (X)	\$ 990	\$ 969
Criminal		
Type of Crime:		
Person	31.9%	25.1%
Property	54.9%	59.2%
Drug	8.0%	8.4%
Incarcerated (%)	70.8%	74 %
[Months Incarcerated (X)]	[18.8]	[20.8]
Sentence In Years (X)	4.3	3.7
Sentence Expiration In Months (X)	12.0	11.5
Present Status:		
Probation	31.9%	24.6%
Parole	35.4%	38.0%
Sentence Expired	30.1%	33.5%
Referral Source (% State Agency)	30.1%	38.0%
Repeat Offender (%)	37.2%	37.6%

a. $p < .003$ b. $p < .02$ ¹ $p < .05$ is the level of significance used in the study.

TABLE 3.—Black Males In Program: Results

Characteristics	Succeed (N = 69)	Fail (N = 44)
General		
Age (X)	29.3	30.5
Education (X)	11.3	10.9
Marital Status (% Single)	56.5%	56.8%
Family Status (% Independent)	65.2%	68.2%
Family Size (X)	2.0	1.9
Veteran (%)	34.8%	25.0%
[Type Discharge (% Honorable)]	[70.8%]	[45.5%]
Driver's License (%)	47.0%	41.5%
Economic		
Months Unemployed (X)	6.7	6.6
Hourly Wage - Last Job	\$3.48	\$3.40
Months On Last Job (X)	9.7	12.2
Family Income (X)	\$1,652	\$2,203
Income Per Family Member (X)	\$ 889	\$1,149
Criminal		
Type of Crime:		
Person	37.3%	27.5%
Property	56.7%	60.0%
Drug	6.0%	12.5%
Incarcerated (%)	73.5%	68.2%
[Months Incarcerated (X)] ^a	[21.8]	[14.2]
Sentence In Years (X)	5.0	3.3
Sentence Expiration In Months (X)	10.2	14.6
Present Status:		
Probation	29.0%	36.4%
Parole	39.1%	29.5%
Sentence Expired	29.0%	31.8%
Referral Source (% State Agency)	28.8%	34.9%
Repeat Offender (%)	43.3%	31.7%

a. $p < .05$

regarding age and number of months unemployed prior to applying for CAP entry. Those screened out (62%) were *younger* and had been unemployed for *fewer* months than those clients accepted into the program.

In terms of *all* clients accepted into the program, significant differences existed regarding sex and, if incarcerated, the number of months institutionalized. Successes, operationally defined as obtaining a job and retaining it for at least 30 days,³ were more likely to be *males* (60% v. 54%) and persons who, if incarcerated, were institutionalized for a *greater* number of months.

Focusing on black males, table 3 indicated that the only significant difference between successes and failures existed regarding number of months incarcerated. Successes were more likely to be those black males who, if incarcerated, were institutionalized for a *greater* number of months.

At this stage of our analysis, referring back to table 2, one might tentatively conclude that CAP screening had been ineffective due to the screening out of black males who were incarcerated for a slightly, but not significantly, longer period of time. This tentative conclusion, however, might be inappropriate. Very rarely does one variable exert such a significant influence by itself. Variables frequently operate in combination, so that it is a particular mix of variables that is associated with a particular outcome. If so, basing a conclusion (or policy) on a single, albeit significant, variable might be unwise. Being aware of this possibility, a careful analyst would attempt to control for the influence of as many variables as possible on number of months incarcerated. Given the large number of independent variables, coupled with the relatively small sample, application of control for the influence of all of these variables would be statistically infeasible. What can be undertaken in this type of situation, however, is an analysis that attempts to find out if some combination of variables differentiates optimally between successes and failures. Accordingly, the data were submitted to discriminant analysis.⁴

A combination of six (out of 20) variables comprised a function canonically correlated (.36) at a significant level with program results.⁵ While this function accounted for only 13 percent of the variance in program results, it was able to correctly classify successes and

³Most of the jobs were in the categories of general labor, maintenance, and food preparation. The average hourly earnings were slightly above the existing minimum wage. A small number of CAP clients (6%) transferred to other CETA funded programs and were coded as successes.

⁴Due to missing values, 107 (out of 113) cases were analyzed. For a discussion of discriminant analysis, see Van de Geer (1971).

⁵Failures coded 0, successes coded 1.

failures in 65 percent of the cases. Table 4 depicts the results of this analysis.

As can be seen, the following variables contributed to program success: being older, earning a lower hourly wage prior to conviction, having a greater number of months until expiration of sentence, being sentenced to a shorter term, being a repeat offender, and having a greater income per family member. At this point, it is instructive to note that the one variable that earlier appeared to distinguish success and failure—number of months incarcerated—was initially retained in the discriminant analysis after stepwise entry; however, it was later removed from the equation. Removal indicates that while this variable was initially able to discriminate between

TABLE 4.—Classification Results Based on Discriminant Function

Classification Results			
Actual Outcome	(N)	Predicted Outcome	
Succeed		Succeed	Fail
100%	(66)	72.7%	27.3%
Fail			
100%	(41)	46.3%	53.7%
Discriminant Function ^a			
Age		.64	
Hourly Wage		-.35	
Sentence Expiration		.88	
Sentence Length		-.82	
Repeat Offender		.37	
Income per Family Member		.35	
a. Canonical correlation .35, $p < .05$			

successes and failures, it lost this power when other variables were combined in the equation.

As a subcategory, successes and failures among veterans were examined through discriminant analysis. While the number of veterans was relatively small ($N = 33$), six variables comprised a function canonically correlated (.66) at a significant level with program results. This function accounted for 44 percent of the variance and was able to correctly classify successes and failures in 64 percent of the cases. These variables (with canonical discriminant function coefficients) were: age (-.65), education (-1.15), referral by a state agency (.73), months incarcerated (.63), conviction for a property or drug offense (.68), and years sentenced (.71). Being younger, being less educated, being referred by a state agency, being incarcerated for a greater number of months, being convicted for a property or drug offense, and being sentenced to a longer term contributed to success.

While females constituted only a small fraction of CAP clients ($N = 24$), three variables comprised a function canonically correlated (.69) at a significant level with program results. This function accounted for 48 percent of the variance and was able to correctly classify successes and failures in 74 percent of the cases. These variables (with canonical discriminant function coefficients) were: marital status (.80), months until expiration of sentence (.57), and years sentenced (.66). Being married or divorced, having a greater number of months until expiration of sentence, and being sentenced to a longer term contributed to program success.

Discussion

We are now able to compare our findings regarding the success and failure of black males with prior research and to evaluate the screening process on the basis of our findings. Interestingly, our findings regarding variables contributing to program success seem to be more in line with the findings of prior research regarding variables contributing to program failure. For example, being older, having a shorter sentence, and being a repeat offender, respectively (Knox and Stacey, 1978:211-213), were associated with program failure in prior research; however, we found just the opposite. None of our important remaining variables (months until sentence expiration, income per family member or hourly wage prior to conviction) were found to be significant in prior research. None of the other variables significant in prior research (type of offense, length of previous employment, marital status, education, having a driver's license, or being a veteran) were significant in ours. There are a number of possible reasons for this disparity of findings. We studied black males, some of whom had never been incarcerated; others examined clients who had been incarcerated, without controlling for race. In this regard it is interesting to note that some of the variables important in our findings regarding the success of veterans (e.g. type of crime) and females (e.g. marital status), respectively, were selected for inclusion as a result of their importance in prior research. We dichotomized our dependent variable; others used different outcome measures (e.g. number of days employed). Finally, we employed discriminant analysis—an approach not followed by other researchers in this field.

How can our findings regarding black males be interpreted? Previous research (Meisenhelder, 1977: 319-323) has suggested that Hirschi's (1969) bonding theory might provide an answer; specifically, the greater the bond to conventionality, the less likely the chance of recidivism. This theory would suggest that those ex-offenders with a greater link to conventionality would be more likely to get and hold a job—thereby increasing adjustment to society and decreasing criminal activity. Knox (1981: 487-490) drew from Ohlin's (1970) structural-functional approach and developed the concept of differential integration; specifically, the greater the degree of structural integration, here measured by an index consisting of variables like having a lengthy work history, being married and living with wife, the less likely the chance of recidivism. Both of these approaches are similar in that they focus on strength of attachment to societal norms. Our findings, however, seem to point in two directions. While increased age and hav-

ing a greater income per family member were related to success (and to conventionality), being a repeat offender, earning a lower hourly wage prior to conviction and having a greater number of months until expiration of sentence were also related to success (and to unconventionality).

Two possible interpretations of our findings are offered. It is possible that some black ex-offenders, as representatives of a minority group within a minority group (Waldemar, 1972: 26-27), adhere to different sets of expectations. What is commonly accepted as a standard for one group may not be for another and vice-versa. Another interpretation, of a less theoretical nature, relates to the possibility that experienced ex-offenders, as defined by being a repeater or being sentenced to a longer term, may try harder to obtain and retain a job especially during the first several months of their probation or parole, in order to satisfy the demands of their respective supervisors. As these ex-offenders get closer to the expiration of their period of supervision, demands may very well become less stringent and job hunting becomes an acceptable substitute for holding.

With regard to the CAP screening process, another caveat is in order, in addition to those presented earlier; given the limited resources available to CAP, the number of clients that could be taken into the program was determined in advance. Since demand occasionally exceeded supply, some screening was necessary; however, we have no evidence that this screening was specifically used to prevent the entry of persons who possessed characteristics associated with program failure. Reference back to table 2 indicates that the screening process was, however, somewhat effective in terms of distinguishing program successes and failures. CAP clients were significantly older than those screened out.^a While clients and nonclients did not significantly differ on the basis of the remaining variables, two differences were in the direction of success—CAP clients had a higher income per family member and a greater number of months until expiration of sentence than did those who did not enter the program—and one—CAP clients received longer sentences than nonentrants—was in the direction of failure. (For all practical purposes, the amount of hourly earnings prior to conviction and the percentage of repeat offender were the same in both categories.) At this point, then, we are able to tentatively conclude that both the self-screening and the screening conducted by CAP staff probably accounted for some degree of the program's success ratio.

^aIt should be remembered that the only other significant difference between CAP clients and those screened out—months unemployed prior to applying for program entry—was not an important variable regarding success or failure.

That we are able to reach a tentative conclusion about program screening is, in itself, significant. Only very rarely can any conclusion be reached about program screening because, in most instances, records are not kept regarding those screened from entry. The lack of access to this type of data makes program evaluation very difficult because analysts are not able to make appropriate comparisons. In the specific case of CAP, despite the absence of figures regarding the job acquisition and job retention of those screened out, we were at least aware that two significant differences existed between those entering and those screened out. This information, coupled with the knowledge that one of these two variables—age—was included in our discriminant function, would be important in any formal evaluation of CAP's effectiveness.

Implications

The issue of program screening is both salient and complex. On the one hand, to maximize the efficient use of limited resources, it may be desirable to provide services to those who stand a greater chance of succeeding. On the other hand, it might be argued that these persons are more likely to be able to find jobs on their own; hence, program entry should be reserved for those who lack the characteristics associated with success. Another position might argue random selection or, conversely, the establishment of parameters for purposive inclusion.

From an agency perspective, screening is an important adjunct to the improvement of its success ratio, which may, in some circumstances, determine future funding. From a research perspective, screening makes programs difficult to evaluate. From a consumer perspective, screening makes program entry problematical. Finally, from a public interest perspective, even accepting the questionable assumption that screening is valid and reliable, screening has the effect of providing services to one group but not to another; as such, a number of ethical issues must be considered.

Similar perspectives have been voiced about the screening that occurs in other criminal justice programs (e.g., in diversion and personal recognizance (R-O-R) programs); however, given the increased use of risk prediction instruments in these other programs, greater acceptance of screening appears to exist. Accordingly, we take the position that all programs receiving public funds should consider the development and use of screening instruments when resources are such that the number of clients has to be limited. Prospective clients should be informed about the criteria for program entry and, if the pro-

gram is unable to accept them, they should be referred to other agencies in either the public or private sector. While this modest recommendation does not address the complex issue of program screening in its entirety, it does recognize that screening is legitimate in some circumstances and, as such, articulated standards for its exercise are appropriate.

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END

TRAINING well spent would be in how to get along with or tolerate co-workers, how to hang on to an unexciting job long enough for promotions or better opportunities for work to present themselves, how to use informal peer networks for support or to air gripes, and how to get on-the-job or part-time training for better employment when motivation for it develops.

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