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Handbook of Forensic Mental Health With Victims and Offenders: Assessment, Treatment, and Research

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Section I: Introduction and Overview

1 The Roles and Functions of Forensic Social Work in the 21st Century 3
   David W. Springer and Albert R. Roberts

Section II: Forensic Risk Assessment, Roles, and Specialized Practices

2 Double Jeopardy: Risk Assessment in the Context of Child Maltreatment and Domestic Violence 25
   Aron Shlonsky and Colleen Friend

3 Prevention of Prisoner Sudden Deaths: Safety Guidelines and Suicide Screening Protocols 53
   Kenneth R. Yeager and Albert R. Roberts

   Carlton E. Munson

5 Expert Testimony on Woman Battering and Its Effects 93
   Evan Stark

6 The Role of the Forensic Social Worker in Developing Mitigation Evidence 125
   John P. Niland

7 Emerging Trends in Batterer Intervention Programming: Equipping Forensic Workers for Effective Practice 151
   Fred Buttell and Michelle Mohr Carney
Section III: Juvenile Justice Process, Assessment, and Treatment

8 Treatment Effectiveness With Dually Diagnosed Adolescents: Implications for Juvenile Offenders 173
Kimberly Bender, Johnny S. Kim, and David W. Springer

9 Forensic Practices and Serving Dually Diagnosed Youth Involved With the Juvenile Justice System 205
Gerald Landsberg and Jo Rees

10 Psychopathic Traits in Juveniles 225
Diana Falkenbach

11 Sex, Drugs, and Rock ‘n’ Rolling With Resistance: Motivational Interviewing in Juvenile Justice Settings 247
Sarah W. Feldstein and Joel I. D. Ginsburg

12 From Augustus to BARJ: The Evolving Role of Social Work in Juvenile Justice 273
Jonathan B. Singer

13 Social Work in Juvenile Courts 299
Allison Benesch, F. Carole Bryant, and Richard LaVallo

14 Multisystemic Treatment of Serious Clinical Problems in Youths and Their Families 315
Scott W. Henggeler, Ashli J. Sheidow, and Terry Lee

15 Treatment of Mentally Ill Juvenile Offenders 347
Lisa Rapp-Paglicci

16 Overrepresentation of African Americans Incarcerated for Delinquency Offenses in Juvenile Institutions 363
James Herbert Williams, Peter S. Hovmand, and Charlotte L. Bright

Section IV: Forensic Services and Programs for Adult Offenders

17 Drug Courts 385
Steven Belenko, David DeMatteo, and Nicholas Patapis

18 Jail Mental Health Services 425
Diane S. Young

19 Trauma and Posttraumatic Stress Disorder in Inmates With Histories of Substance Use 445
Sheryl Pimlott Kubiak and Isabel M. Rose
Section V: Restorative Justice and Victim-Offender Mediation

22 Victim-Offender Mediation and Forensic Practice 519
Marilyn Peterson Armour and Mark S. Umbreit

23 Restorative Justice: Cultural and Gender Considerations 541
Katherine van Wormer and Morris Jenkins

24 Posttrauma Intervention: Basic Tasks 563
Gary Behrman and William H. Reid

Harris Chaiklin

Author Index 587
Subject Index 611
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Social workers have been involved in forensic tasks—matters related to the courts and legal proceedings—ever since the profession’s formal inauguration in the late 19th century. Although the term forensic was not used by social work’s earliest practitioners, without question many of the profession’s original functions were forensic in nature. Perhaps the most visible manifestation included social workers’ involvement in the creation of the first juvenile court in 1899 as an alternative to handling minors in adult criminal courts. These pioneering social workers were visionary; they recognized that vulnerable people—in this case minors—could best be served by professionals who understand the importance of social services in the context of legal proceedings.

Since those significant, yet modest, beginnings, forensic social work has evolved and matured. Social work’s earliest practitioners hardly could have imagined the remarkably diverse functions performed by today’s forensic social workers, the settings in which they work, or the clinical, organizational, policy, and ethical challenges they face. Today’s forensic social workers provide expert witness testimony, assessments and diagnoses, clinical services, evaluations, mediation, arbitration, supervision, and research expertise. They work in settings as diverse as juvenile and adult courts, psychiatric hospitals, community-based mental health clinics, child welfare agencies and programs, domestic violence programs, and independent practice. Forensic social workers wrestle with complex ethical issues concerning possible conflicts of interest and individuals’ civil liberties and rights to informed consent, self-determination, privacy, confidentiality, and privileged communication. They must be adept at interdisciplinary training and willing to identify and implement “best practices” based on the latest empirical research and evidence.

The education required to be a competent forensic social worker has grown exponentially in recent years. Contemporary forensic practitioners must be knowledgeable about and proficient in clinical assessments and interventions, legal rights and procedures, ethical issues, and research, in addition to being competent in their primary field of practice (mental health, addictions, child welfare, domestic violence, juvenile justice, criminal justice, aging, and so on).

Historically, forensic social workers have had to rely on knowledge and information drawn from diverse disciplines and sources. Only recently have forensic social workers been able to rely on literature produced explicitly by and for them. Springer and Roberts’
Handbook of Forensic Mental Health With Victims and Offenders is a vitally important addition to this emerging and essential body of knowledge. This compelling publication places between two covers a broad collection of informative, original essays on core issues in forensic social work. This engaging volume offers readers keen insights into forensic practice related to child abuse and neglect, domestic violence, suicide, psychiatric care and mental illness, juvenile justice, adult corrections, addictions, trauma, and restorative justice.

As the Handbook of Forensic Mental Health With Victims and Offenders clearly demonstrates, social workers are uniquely positioned for forensic tasks. Social work’s explicit and deliberate endorsement of a generalist perspective, which includes simultaneous focus on individuals’ private troubles and the environmental circumstances and public policies that surround them, is particularly well suited to forensic practice. Social workers in court, correctional, child welfare, mental health, addictions treatment, and domestic violence settings must attend to both complex clinical issues and daunting organizational, community, and policy dynamics that affect offenders, clients, and victims. Competent forensic practitioners must understand the ways in which these diverse and wide-ranging phenomena influence mental illness, criminal conduct, child and elder abuse and neglect, addictions, and domestic violence; in addition, they must grasp the ways in which these same phenomena can help people address the troubling issues in their lives and lead to the design, funding, and implementation of meaningful services, programs, and policies. Social work’s broad-based perspective, education, training, and practice are ideal for this daunting task.

Further, social work stands alone among human service professions in its firm, unambiguous, clearly stated commitment—as expressed in the preamble of the National Association of Social Workers Code of Ethics—to assisting our world’s most vulnerable, oppressed, and disadvantaged citizens. The intersection between social work’s formal mission statement and the goals and tasks of forensic practice is compelling.

Many years ago I started my formal social work career working in the criminal justice system as a group worker in a federal correctional institution. At the time I was relatively unaware of the broader field of forensic practice. Many years later, my work in the criminal justice field continues, currently in the form of my longtime service as a member of a state parole board. Along the way I have watched the forensic field mature. The context in which I practice today is vastly different from the one that existed when I entered the field. Today we have a much firmer, clearer, and more enlightened understanding of the nature of forensic practice, including the challenging roles, functions, responsibilities, and dilemmas that this field of practice offers. The contents of Springer and Roberts’ Handbook of Forensic Mental Health With Victims and Offenders provide ample evidence of that fact.

Frederic G. Reamer
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In this completely new text—in collaboration with a distinguished team of 45 justice, forensic, and mental health experts—we have set out to provide an authoritative resource on the delivery of evidence-based forensic mental health services with victims, offenders, and their families.

Consider some sobering statistics. Early in the 21st century, the U.S. Department of Justice and the FBI reported that 26 million rapes, burglaries, robberies, and thefts took place annually. A woman is battered every 9 seconds somewhere in the United States, and 40 to 70% of juvenile and adult offenders have a mental health disorder.

Indeed, forensic social workers have a formidable and critical role in providing risk assessments, expert testimony, mental health care, substance abuse treatment and other timely best practices to both victims and offenders. Accordingly, the common thread that binds together the 25 chapters in this book is a collective response to the overarching question: What is being done to advocate for, and deliver, critically needed mental health interventions and social services to perpetrators and survivors of serious and violent crimes? Consider just a few of the topics and issues covered in this handbook: forensic risk assessment, expert testimony, developing mitigation evidence, batterer group treatment, juvenile justice policies, juvenile offender assessment and treatment, substance abuse treatment, mental health treatment, multisystemic treatment of juveniles, motivational interviewing, criminal and drug court practices, adult correctional services and programs, PTSD and substance abuse treatment, services for HIV infected and incarcerated female offenders, community-based aftercare and recidivism prevention programs, restorative justice, and victim-offender mediation.

It is our sincere hope that this handbook will be a useful and timely resource among administrators, professionals, educators, and students in social work, psychology, and criminal justice. Editing a book of such volume is a formidable task. Yet, if it helps improve the life of just one offender or victim, it will have been worth the effort.
Most important, we particularly thank our diligent team of distinguished authors for writing their cutting-edge chapters. We are extremely grateful to Theodore C. Nardin, CEO and Philip Laughlin, Senior Editor of Springer Publishing Company, for their responsiveness in quickly offering us a contract based on the completed manuscript that we submitted. Special thanks to the diligent editorial and production leadership of Matthew Byrd, production manager at Techbooks. The systematic support throughout the editing and camera-ready copy preparation process for this book by Hollee Ganner, Diana Villarreal, Kathleen Kelleher, and Maya Mills of The University of Texas at Austin is sincerely appreciated. The cover design by Mimi Flow at Springer Publishing adds a colorful dimension to the Handbook, and we applaud her for her creative contribution. David Springer would like to thank his wife, Sarah, for her lively spirit and sense of humor. Al Roberts would like to thank his wife, Beverly, for wise counsel.

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Introduction and Overview
Introduction

To forensic practitioners, the study of and intervention with victims as well as offenders is certainly a challenging and most worthy endeavor. Forensic practitioners have a formidable role in providing risk assessments, expert testimony, mental health care, substance abuse treatment, and other timely best practices to both victims and offenders. During the past decade, the pendulum has finally swung from neglecting crime victims to providing full federal, state, and local funding for comprehensive social services, police response, court intervention, computerized court case notification, emergency shelter, emergency medical care, mental health services, victim compensation, advocacy, and crisis intervention for crime victims and survivors of domestic violence.

Violent crime victimizations are pervasive throughout American society, and the costs are enormous. Early in the 21st century the U.S. Department of Justice and the FBI reported that 26 million rapes, burglaries, robberies, and thefts took place annually (Roberts, 2003). In addition, a woman is battered every 9 seconds somewhere in the United States, and approximately 8.7 million women are battered annually (Roberts & Roberts, 2005). With regard to the cost of crime, the Bureau of Justice Statistics (BJS) has indicated that tangible and intangible costs total over $500 billion annually; this includes property and productivity losses, medical expenses, pain and emotional suffering, disability, and risk of death (Roberts, 2003). What is being done to advocate for, and deliver, critically needed social services and interventions to survivors of violent crimes? All 25 specially written chapters in this new book examine the current developments and the most promising evidence-based practices in child maltreatment and domestic violence assessment and treatment; assessment and treatment of juvenile offenders; mental health, drug treatment, medical treatment, and aftercare for adult offenders; trauma survivor assistance; victim–offender mediation; batterers intervention programs; restorative
justice; expert testimony in child welfare and woman battering cases; and social worker mitigation testimony in death penalty cases. The victim rights and services movement is flourishing, especially with the recent passage of the Violence Against Women Act (VAWA III), which allocates $3.9 billion for the years 2006 to 2010 for programs to aid battered women and sexual assault victims, as well as education and training for victim advocates, social workers and nurses, law enforcement officers, prosecutors, and judges in victim issues, and effective intervention strategies. In contrast, the funding picture for practitioners in correctional settings has a long way to go and varies from state to state.

Unfortunately, all too often juvenile and criminal justice policies have been promulgated based on erroneous and magnified fears that all criminal offenders are violent and dangerous, and as a result need many years of incarceration and punishment.

The fact is that the overwhelming majority—more than 80 percent—of crime victimizations in the United States are the result of property-related crimes, rather than violent crimes. However, the violent murders committed by a very small number of offenders receive a disproportionate amount of attention from the news media. (Roberts & Brownell, 1999, p. 359)

In addition, a large number of mental health professionals are unaware of the fact that many juvenile and adult offenders were victims of child physical abuse or sexual abuse, child neglect, and/or domestic violence while growing up.

Many of today’s politicians and citizens are unaware that the revenge, punishment, and confinement-oriented policies of the 1800s did not work but led instead to inmate violence and offenders who, on release from incarceration, were far more violent and hateful than they were before confinement. If an inmate is treated like a wild animal, in all likelihood, he will become a violent predator. However, if convicted people are given opportunities for education, vocational training in a marketable skill, social skills training, confrontational group therapy, and substance abuse treatment (that is, therapeutic communities like Synanon and Daytop Village of the 1960s and 1970s), then there is a viable opportunity for them to seek a law-abiding lifestyle, particularly if they are young offenders and have not been corrupted by habitual and chronic convicted felons in maximum-security institutions and sadistic guards. (Roberts & Brownell, 1999, p. 360)

These are challenging times for the practitioners who are employed in or who hope to be employed as correctional treatment specialists or counselors in adult correctional facilities, and as victim advocates in victim assistance and domestic violence intervention programs. Capital spending for prison building projects, custody and security, and law enforcement staff has increased significantly. The increased funding for custody, security, and law enforcement can provide some opportunities for forensic practitioners as long as law enforcement and correctional administrators recognize the important roles and complementary skills of forensic practitioners. According to the BJS (2004), funding for major criminal justice functions—corrections (529% increase), police (281% increase), and judicial (383% increase)—has steadily increased over the last 2 decades (from 1982 to 2001). As a result of “three strikes and you’re out” punitive legislation, state and federal governments have built more prisons, and judges have meted out longer prison sentences.

Starting in the early 1990s, the public furor over the amount of highly publicized, violent crime being committed by former offenders led to a new trend in which some state
legislatures enacted laws to put habitual offenders (upon their third conviction) regardless of whether or not it was a minor offense in prison for the rest of their life, creating a new philosophy or ‘three strikes and you’re in prison with a life sentence.’ (Roberts, 1997, p. 7)

The critical issues of punishment versus rehabilitation, deterrence, and the determination of whether individual offenders are capable of change—long the topics of public debate—have never been more relevant than they are today. The type of treatment that the accused offender receives during and after arrest, adjudication, and conviction will have a profound effect on the individual and on society. As forensic practitioners, many of us believe in the offender’s potential for change, provided he or she is given opportunities for legal and system advocacy, individual and group therapy, substance abuse treatment, motivational interviewing and strength-based treatment, social services, and vocational rehabilitation. Unfortunately, the emphasis on custody and punishment in many states has led to the elimination of many mental health professional positions in adult corrections, while other states have hired more forensic practitioners to work with juvenile offenders and to prepare adult offenders better to transition to their reentry into the community (Roberts, 1997).

Five of the chapters in this new book focus on forensic risk assessment roles and measures, expert testimony essentials and guidelines, methods of developing mitigation evidence related to child maltreatment and domestic violence, and the effectiveness of batterer group treatment modalities. The next nine of the chapters focus on the most promising juvenile justice policies, juvenile offender assessment measures, juvenile court procedures and practices, substance abuse treatment, mental health treatment, multisystemic treatment of juveniles and their families, motivational interviewing, and the continuum of mental health and case-management services needed by mentally ill juvenile offenders. The final eight chapters in this new book focus on criminal and drug court practices, adult correctional services and programs, best practices for posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) and substance abuse treatment, medical services for HIV-infected and incarcerated female offenders, community–based aftercare and recidivism prevention programs, and restorative justice and victim–offender mediation.

With violent crime and the fear of violence pervading American society, two major growth industries exist. The first is of paramount importance for social workers, counselors, and criminal justice professionals: expanding victim assistance, domestic violence intervention, rape crisis intervention, and sexual assault prevention programs. The second growth industry—creating more punitive prisons and incarcerating offenders for longer sentences—is often diametrically opposed to the helping profession’s role of facilitating rehabilitation and the delivery of humane social services. In the epilogue, social work pioneer Professor Emeritus Harris Chaiklin points out that too many ill-informed and conservative politicians and legislators blindside the public by repeatedly dramatizing punishment and long-term incarceration as the only solution to criminality. With all of the research studies that have been completed in the past 40 years, educated legislators and correctional administrators should realize that the only thing that does work in preventing recidivism is a wide range of programs and resources dedicated to humane treatment and rehabilitative services, and community–based options in the least restrictive environments for offenders who have gone astray.

Social workers as change agents, legislative advocates, policymakers, and program administrators can have an important influence on the development of humane and
cost-effective programs for both victims and offenders. Consider the career of one social worker, Dr. Noël Bridget Busch, who has served in each of these roles. Dr. Busch is Assistant Professor and Director of the Institute on Domestic Violence and Sexual Assault at The University of Texas at Austin School of Social Work. When Professor Springer and Professor Roberts approached Dr. Busch about contributing to this book, she was asked to share her story about how her career had evolved. Accordingly, her biographical narrative is exactly that—a narrative written in the first person.

Noël Bridget Busch, PhD, LMSW, MPA, Assistant Professor, The University of Texas at Austin

I am a social worker, and I have worked in the criminal justice system for the past 18 years. As my role as a social worker has evolved in various social institutions, I have come to believe strongly in the role of forensic social workers in prison, parole, and the court systems. I began my professional career in the criminal justice system as a student intern with the North Carolina Department of Correction, Division of Parole Services, in 1987. In 1989, after completing an internship and earning a bachelor’s degree in psychology, I served as the assistant director for a prerelease program funded by the North Carolina Department of Correction Parole Services. This community-based program, located in Greensboro, North Carolina, offered incarcerated men alcohol and drug treatment, interviewing and employment skills, group and individual counseling, stress management, and numerous other life skills programs with the goal of reducing recidivism. I regularly visited prisons in North Carolina, where my supervisor and I educated prison personnel on the benefits of the program and recruited potential clients. Clients attended the community-based program for 30 days and graduated with a certificate of completion.

After approximately 2 years in that position, the program was disbanded because of state budget cuts, and I became a parole officer and managed a caseload of paroled men and women in two North Carolina counties. Because of the high caseloads of 80–120 parolees and the structure of parole services, officers had little time to devote to supportive service for their clients. In my capacity as a parole officer, I was responsible for monitoring the whereabouts of my parolees, screening for drug use, ensuring that restitution and child support were paid, and verifying employment and nightly curfews. Ultimately, in my position as a parole officer I was charged with the responsibility of reporting to the court system if any of my clients were in violation of their parole requirements or absconded, and when the court so ordered I served arrest warrants.

In 1991, frustrated with the lack of services for paroled men and women, I decided to attend graduate school at the University of South Carolina, earning an MSW degree in 1993. As a student with emergent interests in feminism, I was placed at Sistercare, an organization that serves battered women and their children in Columbia, South Carolina. Because I was a second-year graduate student with a macro concentration, the agency charged me with organizing a statewide effort to advocate for incarcerated battered women who had killed their partners in self-defense. One of my first tasks was to research and document the numbers of incarcerated, battered women who had killed their partners in South Carolina. I analyzed the circumstances of their cases by reading trial transcripts and interviewing the women...
in prison. A statewide coalition was organized that included a steering committee comprised of incarcerated women and advocates. I met weekly with the coalition and, with their guidance and the supervision of the agency director, developed a strategic plan to advocate for early parole consideration for these women. In order to enhance my therapeutic skills, I also began to co-facilitate support groups for other incarcerated battered women in Columbia, SC. After months of planning and seeking the advice of many leaders of national women’s organizations, the coalition decided to use the legislative process to seek early parole consideration for these women. In 1994, the South Carolina Legislature passed a law that provided for early parole consideration of incarcerated individuals who had a history of intimate partner violence that may have contributed to her or his crime. I and the members of the coalition led a legislative effort that included educating members of the state assembly; organizing testimony of experts and incarcerated, battered women before house and senate subcommittees; and mobilizing a grassroots effort. The majority of women who qualified for early parole consideration and were later judged to be no longer a threat to society had also been engaged in therapeutic support groups for battered women, in individual counseling, and with social workers while incarcerated. As a part of the review for early parole, the coalition provided evidence that their histories of intimate partner abuse contributed to the commission of their crimes. The law also required that these offenders serve at least one-third of their sentences before being considered for early parole. Due to the efforts of many advocates, dozens of cases of incarcerated battered women who killed in self-defense have been reviewed by the parole commission, and subsequently many women have been released on parole.

After returning from 2 years as a Peace Corps volunteer in Romania, I earned a master of public administration degree from the University of South Carolina in 1997 and began a doctoral program in social work. At this time, I was reemployed with the same agency servicing battered women in Columbia, SC, and assisted in preparing additional cases for the parole commission. In December 2000, I completed a Ph.D. degree in social work from the University of South Carolina. My dissertation was entitled Battered Women’s Moral Reasoning: Conception and Considerations of ‘Right’ and ‘Wrong,’ and it was later published in condensed form as an article in the Journal of Social Work Education in 2004. No statistically significant differences on the Defining Issues Test (DIT), a measure of moral development, between battered and nonbattered women were found. Moreover, in-depth interviews revealed that while battered women defined their violent relationships as “wrong,” many reported that they were unable to leave their relationships because of fear of reprisal and threats of retribution by their abusers.

I joined the faculty at the School of Social Work at The University of Texas at Austin as an assistant professor in December 2001. I am now the Director and Principal Investigator of The University of Texas Institute on Domestic Violence and Sexual Assault and have managed over 20 research and direct service projects, totaling over $1.2 million dollars worth of external funding. I served as the principal investigator of the first statewide study of the prevalence of sexual assault in Texas. The information from this study has been used to educate legislators; state, county, and local leaders; and community members about the crime of sexual assault. I testified twice to members of the Texas Legislature about sexual assault crimes and
the Uniform Crime Report. Since moving to Texas, I have continued my direct social work practice with women in prison as a volunteer co-facilitator of a support group for survivors of intimate partner violence and sexual assault at the women’s prison in Gatesville, Texas.

In addition, I have served as an expert witness in a dozen cases involving victims of domestic violence or sexual assault from across the state of Texas. In my capacity as an expert witness, I have educated judges, attorneys, and juries in immigrant, civil, and criminal courts and parole services on the complex dynamics of interpersonal violence. I have provided written biopsychosocial assessments on clients and given oral testimony. In one federal immigration case, my written report and oral testimony provided critical analysis for understanding the plight of undocumented battered women. Consistent with the federal Violence Against Women Act (VAWA), I explained to the court the circumstances of extreme cruelty and extreme hardship that an undocumented battered woman faces and the power and control strategies that batterers utilize to instill fear and maintain silence in their intimate partners. Many undocumented victims of intimate partner violence report that they do not seek police intervention or assistance from local agencies serving victims because their abusive partners have threatened to report them to immigration services or physically harm or kill them and their children. These women feel trapped. My expert testimony provided the court with critical information that resulted in a favorable ruling for the victim. I recall arguing that “social workers should have a central role in forensic work. We are professionals highly skilled to complete in-depth assessments with clients that provide a broad, ecological framework for understanding complex circumstances and situations. Improvements in the jails and prisons, courts, and in the aftercare systems will only be achieved with the thorough and thoughtful professional consideration that social workers provide. It is a matter of striving toward social and economic justice for some of the most disenfranchised citizens in our society.”

[Editor’s Note: At the time of this writing, Dr. Noël Bridget Busch was awarded the 2006 Distinguished Recent Contributions Award by the Council on Social Work Education (CSWE).]

The Future

Social workers like Noël Busch embolden the future of forensic practice. What can we expect in the year 2017 and beyond? Will federal and state agencies continue to allocate billions of dollars to more and more jails and prisons? Will the skyrocketing costs and relative ineffectiveness of prisons result in a reallocation of scarce funds toward the more cost-efficient alternatives to incarceration such as pretrial diversion, electronic monitoring, family counseling, restorative justice and restitution, and victim–offender mediation? There seems to be a consensus among justice social work authorities that community-based alternatives to incarceration need to be expanded throughout the nation.

We predict that the future of forensic practice will become increasingly grounded in evidence-based practice as scientific research continues to be conducted. It is important to strike the right balance between corrections and treatment. A key point of contention among practitioners and researchers who work with juvenile and adult offenders has been an operational definition of the term effective treatment or evidence-based practice (EBP).
Simply defined, evidence-based practice is the use of treatments for which there is sufficiently persuasive evidence to support their effectiveness in attaining the desired outcomes (Rosen & Proctor, 2002). It is very important to underscore that EBP is also a process in which the practitioner poses a well-structured question, queries a database and the literature to find current evidence, evaluates the evidence found, and applies the evidence to the client taking into consideration the client’s values, preferences and clinical context (Sackett, Straus, Richardson, Rosenberg, & Haynes, 2000).

Take substance-abusing criminal offenders as one subset of offenders. The Treatment Outcome Working Group, a panel of treatment and evaluation experts sponsored by the Office of National Drug Control Policy (ONDCP), established the following results and outcomes that define effective treatment with substance-abusing offenders:

1. reduced use of the primary drug;
2. improved functioning of drug users in terms of employment;
3. improved educational status;
4. improved interpersonal relationships;
5. improved medical status and general improvement in health;
6. improved legal status;
7. improved mental status; and
8. improved noncriminal public safety factors such as reduction in diseases (ONDCP, 1996).

It is safe to assert that for most offenders, effective treatment must address the offender’s medical, psychological, social, vocational, and legal problems. The contemporary debate over what constitutes effective treatment with offenders is at least 4 decades old. In 1966, Robert Martinson, Douglas Lipton, and Judith Wilkes were charged by the New York State Governor’s Special Committee on Criminal Offenders to examine “what works” in rehabilitating criminal offenders. The Committee was formed on the premise that prisons could rehabilitate, that New York State’s prisons were not making serious efforts at rehabilitation, and that they should be transformed from serving a custodial function to a rehabilitative one (Martinson, 1974).

In their 6-month search of the literature reviewing all rehabilitation studies published in English from 1945 to 1967, Martinson and colleagues found 231 studies that met the following operationalization of rehabilitation: the extent to which a prisoner adjusted to prison life, experienced vocational and educational achievements, underwent personality and attitudinal changes, made a general adjustment to society, and returned to crime (recidivism). To be included, the study had to have a control or comparison group.

Martinson’s (1974) first published account synthesizing the 1,400-page report addresses only “the effects of rehabilitative treatment on recidivism, the phenomenon which reflects most directly how well our present treatment programs are performing the task of rehabilitation” (p. 24). However, Martinson noted that even this one measure brings with it several methodological limitations, such as the challenge of determining whether what works for one offender also works for another given the disparate groups being studied and the wide range of definitions ascribed to the term recidivism rate across studies. Nevertheless, in response to seven questions explored in Martinson’s (1974) article, he provided the following bold summary of the findings: “With few and isolated exceptions, the rehabilitative efforts that have been reported so far have had no appreciable
effect on recidivism” (p. 25, italics in original). Ignoring the major methodological limitations noted by Martinson, the politicians and media honed in on this dim summary.

In response to Martinson’s (1974) seminal work, others have conducted systematic and sophisticated analyses over the years to determine what treatment strategies are effective with different populations. Throughout this handbook, a review of what treatments work with specific populations will be a recurring theme.

The evidence-based practice movement has gained considerable momentum in the social work profession, both in North America and the United Kingdom. The most recent comprehensive addition to the social work literature is the *Evidence-Based Practice Manual*, by Roberts and Yeager (2004). In this book, Proctor and Rosen (2004) suggest that evidence-based practice is comprised of three assertions: (a) intervention decisions based on empirical, research-based support; (b) critical assessment of empirically supported interventions to determine their fit to and appropriateness for the practice situation at hand; and (c) regular monitoring and revision of the course of treatment based on outcome evaluation. We assert that evidence-based practice in forensic social work should be a recurring theme in social work curriculum.

**Curriculum for Social Work in the Justice System**

Treger and Allen (1997) asserted that the university will need to play a unique role in preparing social work students to fill the needs of the field in contemporary society. Nearly a decade later, this assertion is even more amplified. Schools of social work must assume leadership positions that will contribute to the inclusion of diversity and forensic content in the curriculum. Social workers entering the field of criminal and juvenile justice must possess knowledge of legal aspects and organizational systems unique to helping profession practice. In particular, it is critical that bachelor and master of social work (BSW and MSW) programs train social workers who are equipped to collaborate with criminal justice personnel such as judges, correctional treatment specialists, and probation officers. Accordingly, the curriculum requires a holistic approach to social work, including knowledge of the subculture of other human service professions and the processes of cooperation and achieving social change. Where possible, forensic social work courses should be cross-listed across social work, psychology, and criminal justice departments so that students from these disciplines have opportunities to learn from one another, integrate a range of perspectives, apply Socratic questioning to challenge their own assumptions, and build a common language from which to work.

In short, the fields of social work, psychology, and criminal justice simply must do a better job of bridging a nexus. Consider the following excerpt from chapter 17 as Belenko, DeMatteo, and Patapis examine the role of the social worker in drug courts: “It is important for social workers in drug courts to understand fully the adjudication process, the legal rights of offenders, criminal procedure, which rights are waived by those agreeing to participate in the drug court, and other aspects of the criminal courts. Cross-training on these issues is important so the social worker understands and appreciates how adjudicatory decisions are made and how such decisions may conflict with the clinical interests of the client. Although drug courts are a treatment-oriented intervention, they are part of the criminal court system, and the first priorities are always adequate resolution of the criminal case and public safety.” This is just one example, but it highlights the
importance of practitioners understanding their roles within the context of the criminal justice system.

In chapter 4, Carlton E. Munson shares the results of a study conducted by the National Organization of Forensic Social Work (NOFSW), which found that only 4.3% of accredited social work programs offered a course in forensic social work, and only 4.3% offered a forensic specialization. Only 14% of the schools surveyed had plans to develop a forensic specialization. Sixty-four percent of the schools reported offering a course in social work and the law, but there was no indication that the courses focused on forensic social work (Neighbors, Green-Faust, & van Beyer, 2002).

If social work is to become increasingly relevant to the justice system, it must conceptualize the field of practice and narrow the gap between education and the needs in the field. A mutually useful relationship between educational institutions and the community may provide a cost-effective model for stimulating the kind of interchange and development that provides multiple benefits to a range of systems. When education involves itself with contemporary problems, it may become more effective in improving the conditions of life—both in the states and abroad.

International collaborations must be given higher priority. College students are increasingly looking for study-abroad opportunities as part of their collegiate program of study. For example, UT–Austin is placing an increased emphasis on supporting study-abroad opportunities for students and faculty, as are many universities. The UT–Austin School of Social Work recently collaborated on a symposium entitled *Youth, Education, and Juvenile Justice: Perspectives from the U.S. and Brazil*.

International comparisons place Brazil in fourth place with regard to the number of general population homicides and in fifth place with respect to juveniles (Waiselfisz, 2004). Further review of these data show a homicide rate among the general population as being relatively stable since 1980, yet the rate involving juveniles has almost doubled in the last 20 years (1980: 30 homicides per 100,000; 2000: 54.5 homicides per 100,000; Waiselfisz, 2004). One encounters a similar pattern involving juveniles in the United States. Furthermore, in relationship to other large geographical regions, Latin America and the United States are the only regions where the rates of juvenile homicides are significantly greater than those observed in the general population (Waiselfisz, 2004).

Despite the progress in the legislative arena, recent reports indicate that serious problems continue to be encountered in the transformation of a protective doctrine, expressed by the Child and Adolescent Act, in educational interventions for juvenile offenders. The most obvious findings reported include:

- lack of reliable and complete data relative to juvenile crimes;
- poor communication among responsible service providers working with juvenile offenders (police, district attorneys, judges, program administrators, and non-governmental agencies offering socioeducational services);
- lack of a stable, socioeducational services system that address the needs of juvenile offenders;
- lack of research studies on interventions for this specific group of adolescents; and
- lack of systematic evaluation models to assess the efficacy of these efforts in spite of a variety of existing, isolated initiatives.

With this in mind, it is evident that a need exists for more in-depth, systematic investigation by those invested in the success of juvenile offenders, such as teachers,
social workers, correctional officers, and judges—a multidisciplinary effort involving different disciplines and service providers. Another important aspect is the need for open, informed analysis and discussions of the experiences of others confronting similar challenges.

In response to such concerns, the UT–Austin School of Social Work entered a collaborative model with numerous other entities, namely various other units at UT–Austin (Brazil Center, Teresa Lozano Long Institute of Latin American Studies, School of Law, School of Education), the Texas Youth Commission, the Texas Juvenile Probation Department, the Federal University of Rio Grande do Sul, and the Brazilian Ministry of Education. Such a collaboration has the potential not only to inform the research of professors, but also to enhance the educational opportunities for college students interested in studying (in this case) juvenile justice. Consider the project’s four objectives:

1. Elaborate an integrated data system to capture essential information relative to the juvenile offenders and incorporate it into the existing Rio Grande do Sul database relating to children and youth;
2. Identify and systematize current effective educational and rehabilitative practices with youth offenders;
3. Study promising pedagogic practices whose goals are to facilitate the education of youth with diverse behavior profiles in the general education system; and
4. Elaborate formative and summative models of evaluation to assess the effectiveness of implemented educational and rehabilitative interventions used with youth offenders.

During the spring of 2005, visitors from Brazil visited Austin, Texas, for the first part of the symposium. At the time of this writing, Professor Springer had just returned from a visit to Porto Alegre, Brazil, with a team of delegates (faculty, community administrators and practitioners, and graduate students) from Austin to learn firsthand about Brazil’s juvenile justice system and to lay the groundwork for future faculty and student exchanges (including graduate student research and internships). If social work programs are truly to prepare social workers for culturally competent, holistic, community-based practice, interdisciplinary and international collaborations like the Brazil initiative highlighted previously may be worth exploring as part of the future of the social work curriculum.

Of course, we must also examine different ways of infusing forensic social work content into existing curricula. Possibilities might range from simple course offerings to a more formalized dual course of study leading to both the Master of Social Work (MSW) and a law degree. Professor Noël Busch, in her role as director of the Institute on Domestic Violence and Sexual Assault, has spearheaded an effort to infuse domestic violence and sexual assault content throughout the curriculum, not only in the UT–Austin School of Social Work but also across the UT campus. These are just a few examples of how social work curriculum can be enhanced to prepare students for work in the field of forensic social work.

The course description and objectives from a forensic social work elective syllabus offered at the UT–Austin School of Social Work is provided here. The emphasis in the course description that is placed on delineating and managing the dilemmas between social work and legal ethics, the social worker’s authority, and the tension between social control and social support is done so deliberately.
Forensic Social Work Syllabus

Course Description

Forensic social work is the practice specialty that focuses on the intersection between law and health and human services. It requires the ethical knowledge and skill capacity to balance the mutual and conflicting interests of client and community. Multidisciplinary in nature, forensic social workers are found in such settings as child protective services, guardian ad litem programs, juvenile offender treatment programs, mitigation services, victim services, witness assistance programs, and domestic violence shelters. Apart from work in forensic settings, social workers increasingly encounter client problems (e.g., termination of parental rights, vulnerable adults, child abuse and neglect, and foster and permanency placement) that require them to work effectively in cross-disciplinary settings with police, court personnel, attorneys, and corrections officers.

The purpose of this course, therefore, is to gain familiarity with the structure of the American criminal and civil legal system with an emphasis on those areas relevant to forensic social work, including expert testimony, rules of evidence, risk assessment and management, and theories of causation of violence and aggression. The course also focuses on delineating and managing the dilemmas between social work and legal ethics, the social worker’s authority, and the tension between social control and social support.

Course Objectives

Upon successful completion of the course, students will be able to:

1. understand forensic social work including purposes, functions, practice roles, and practice settings.
2. demonstrate familiarity with the adversary process including the steps in civil matters and criminal prosecution.
3. identify relevant social work values and ethics, apply them toward resolving ethical dilemmas encountered in forensic social work practice, and critically appraise the relationship between legal and social work ethics.
4. comprehend and articulate relevant theories and models of offender causation including the influence of oppression and socioeconomic injustice.
5. demonstrate an understanding of best practices in developing mental health evidence for forensic purposes.
6. utilize assessment skills relevant to determining competency of an accused to understand rights, waive rights, be tried, and be executed.
7. apply the biopsychosocial assessment process to evaluate (a) degree of criminal responsibility, (b) relevant mental and/or substance disorders, and (c) collateral information including records, testing, and medical reports.
8. apply the knowledge and skills required to present court testimony, including the role and responsibilities associated with being an expert witness.
9 utilize skills in forensic social work as it relates to child welfare including the interviewing of children and adults, giving of testimony, writing reports required by the courts, and assessing foster care and adoption placements.

10 understand the concept of mitigation in criminal cases and demonstrate an understanding of effective methods of developing skills in mitigating evidence in capital and noncapital cases.

11 identify and evaluate methods of risk assessments and risk management for their applicability to the criminal justice process.

Further examples of expanded social work roles addressed in social work curriculum are reflected throughout the remainder of the book. This handbook is broken down into five sections.

Section I of the book, comprised of chapter 1, examines the role and functions of forensic social workers and provides the conceptual foundation for the rest of the book. An emphasis is placed on evidence-based policies and practices to guide forensic social work. In chapter 1, David W. Springer and Albert R. Roberts examine the vast potential for professional social workers to become involved and responsive to both criminal offenders and their innocent victims. We also examine current evidence-based policies and practices, update trends and research findings, and focus on the most effective interventions—best practices for the 21st century.

Section II of this book, comprised of chapters 2 to 7, coalesces around forensic risk assessment issues and measures and forensic social work with special populations. This section covers a range of topics, such as expert witness testimony in child welfare, expert witnessing in criminal and civil cases involving woman battering, correctional social work with criminal offenders and their children, the role of the forensic practitioner in developing mitigation evidence, practice with HIV-infected women offenders, and emerging trends in group treatment approaches with batterers.

In chapter 2, Aron Shlonsky and Colleen Friend address risk assessment in the context of child maltreatment and domestic violence. Their chapter is conceptualized in the context of responding to child maltreatment allegations. That is, it assumes that the entry point for co-occurring child maltreatment and domestic violence cases is a child maltreatment allegation. From this perspective, the literature is reviewed with respect to the prevalence of domestic violence and how it is linked to child maltreatment. The authors examine the challenges in making predictive assessments in both domestic violence and child protection, positing that a nested or layered risk classification system offers the greatest potential to assist caseworkers in making service decisions. Key to this nested approach is the integration of safety and risk assessment information with a detailed assessment of child and family functioning. This should include consideration of the survivor’s perception of risk and the potential for long-term harm that could accompany a range of responses from either a child’s placement or removal from the home, as well as the child’s remaining in the home. Professors Shlonsky and Friend suggest that engaging in the process of evidence-based practice encompasses the use of these two elements (risk and contextual assessment) and extends to the identification and continued evaluation of services for both child maltreatment and domestic violence.
In chapter 3, Kenneth R. Yeager and Albert R. Roberts examine the high rates of preventable deaths in jails and prisons as a result of hanging, hog-tying, Taser shocks, and cutting off the inmates’ breathing with four-way restraints within juvenile and adult correctional facilities. The objectives of this chapter are threefold: to examine potential risk factors for inmate death, to highlight statistics associated with inmate suicide, and to examine risks associated with the practice of restraint within the criminal justice system. This chapter combines actual cases and case exemplars designed to highlight contributing factors and to discuss potential interventions to minimize potential foreseeable negative outcomes of inmate abuse, harm, self-harm and injuries, victimization, and death.

In chapter 4, Carlton E. Munson addresses expert witness testimony (EWT) in child welfare. Professor Munson explains that the forensic roles are primarily in three interrelated areas: (a) performing evaluations for courts and attorneys, (b) serving as consultants to attorneys, and (c) providing direct and rebuttal EWT. The author defines and explores the role of expert witness, including expert witness qualification factors, the content of EWT, and the selection of experts. Despite the challenge associated with the lack of a body of scientific studies regarding forensic social work practice, or perhaps because of it, Professor Munson underscores the importance of preparing for forensic social work practice and EWT. The chapter covers forensic child evaluations and diagnoses, depositions, affidavits, and interrogatories. Professor Munson reminds us that the ultimate intervention in forensic social work is the provision of EWT. Accordingly, he provides step-by-step guidelines for how to be professional and act in the best interest of the parties in a case.

In chapter 5, Evan Stark provides an overview of expert witnessing in criminal and civil cases involving woman battering, with an emphasis on how such testimony bears on cases also involving the welfare of children. The first part of the chapter reviews the background and most significant milestones in the evolution of expert testimony on battering; the rationale, scope, and general applicability of domestic violence testimony; and the major conceptual approaches to representing women’s experience of abuse. The second part focuses on how to conduct a domestic violence evaluation in preparation for trial. Drawing on his experience as a witness in a pathbreaking class action lawsuit against the child welfare system in New York, Nicholson v. Williams, Professor Stark also examines the role of the expert in cases where children have been exposed to domestic violence. In the final sections, the author outlines the factors that can assist in evaluation and risk assessment. Although there is often a need to assess victims, perpetrators, or children in domestic violence cases clinically, this chapter is limited to the most common scenario in which domestic violence experts are called, when an attorney or prosecutor wants to provide the finder of fact or a jury with general information about woman battering and its effects, including its effects on children.

In chapter 6, John P. Niland explores the role of the practitioner in developing mitigation evidence; he defines mitigating evidence as anything that can justify a more lenient sentence. In the context of a death penalty case, effective mitigating evidence can spell the difference between life and death. In the noncapital case, mitigating evidence can be used to support a sentence that the defense feels is appropriate in light of the mitigation offered.

In chapter 7, Fred Buttell and Michelle Carney examine emerging trends in batterer intervention programming. Professors Buttell and Carney begin their chapter by tackling
the debate surrounding the prevalence of domestic violence, asserting that the answer to this debate will ultimately drive solutions. Their review of the literature continues to address complex issues. Given that most men in batterer intervention programs are there as convicted offenders, the authors review the sequence of events that leads to the adoption of pro-arrest policies in police calls involving domestic violence. They go on to critically appraise outcome evaluations of treatment programs for domestic violence perpetrators. The intervention program described in more detail is a structured, intensive, 26-week, feminist-informed, and cognitive-behavioral group treatment program that focuses primarily on anger management and skills development. A central issue for those treating this population is determining how to do so within the constraints of both legal mandates regarding arrest and state-legislated programming.

Section III of this book, comprised of chapters 8 to 16, examines the assessment and treatment of juvenile offenders and the emerging role of the social worker and other mental health professionals in juvenile justice. After increasing for a number of years, and contributing to the spread of “get-tough,” punitive legislation, juvenile crime peaked in 1994 and then declined almost every year for the past 12 years. However, despite overall declines in juvenile arrests and even in violent arrests, arrests in some categories have increased. The two areas of concern in recent years are simple assaults and drug violations. One plausible explanation is the fact that more than a decade of rapidly spreading get-tough and punitive policies increasingly placed juveniles in largely ineffective and potentially dangerous environments such as boot camps, adult prisons, and large, overcrowded juvenile facilities. On the positive side, we have recently witnessed a slow yet gradual return to the rehabilitation-focused roots of the juvenile justice ideal. To a large extent, this therapeutic and rehabilitative movement is the focus of this section.

In chapter 8, Kimberly Bender, Johnny S. Kim, and David W. Springer systematically review randomized clinical trials of interventions for dually diagnosed adolescents. To accomplish this goal, the authors systematically reviewed empirical intervention studies and, for each intervention examined, asked the following questions: (a) What is the evidence in support of this intervention as an effective treatment for dually diagnosed adolescents? (b) What degree of change is associated with this intervention? (c) Given certain common factors among treatments with demonstrated effectiveness, what are some preliminary guidelines for treating dually diagnosed youth? Results examining both between-group effect sizes indicate the efficacy of several treatment modalities in improving specific aspects of treatment needs but highlight family behavior therapy and individual cognitive problem-solving therapy as showing large effect sizes across externalizing, internalizing, and substance abuse outcomes in dually diagnosed youth. Preliminary guidelines for treating dually diagnosed adolescents are derived from a review of those treatments shown to be most effective, and these findings are then examined in light of their implications for juvenile offenders.

In chapter 9, Gerald Landsberg and Jo Rees assert that for practitioners to be effective in their multiple roles as direct providers and as advocates they need to be cognizant of the pathways of mentally ill or dually diagnosed youth into the juvenile justice system. This chapter provides an overview of the pathways of youth into the juvenile justice system, highlights potential points in the process in which helping professionals can intervene, and gives examples of intervention based on New York City experiences that are also of value in other locations, describes training offered to practitioners, and then discusses the importance of advocacy and recommendations for systems-change activities.
In chapter 10, Diana Falkenbach examines the psychopathic juvenile offender. Professor Falkenbach explores psychopathic traits that constitute the construct of psychopathy, including an in-depth discussion of the downward extension of the construct of psychopathy to youthful populations and the controversy surrounding this shift. There is potential benefit in practitioners exploring psychopathic traits in juveniles, such as developing early prevention strategies. Given the importance of false positives and false negatives, the complexities surrounding the assessment of psychopathic traits in juveniles are a core focus of this chapter.

In chapter 11, Sarah W. Feldstein and Joel I. D. Ginsburg address the use of motivational interviewing with juvenile delinquents. This intervention strategy may be particularly useful for work with adolescents who experience ambivalence about changing their behavior. Rather than interpreting ambivalence as a sign of indecision or pathology, ambivalence is considered crucial to the practice of motivational interviewing. The authors describe and apply motivational interviewing to address a range of problems experienced by juveniles and review the effectiveness of this approach to date.

In chapter 12, Jonathan B. Singer provides an overview of the juvenile justice system, highlighting where social work values and practice can and should be employed. Balancing the scholarly with the practical, he presents both findings from research and insights from professionals in the field. Singer presents the current organization of the juvenile justice system and discusses roles of the practitioner and juvenile probation officer, including adjunctive helping profession services such as crisis intervention and family-based services. He concludes with a discussion of the Balanced and Restorative Justice (BARJ) model of juvenile justice that seeks to make the traditional rehabilitative–punitive framework obsolete. This discussion is very timely because the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention has supported the adoption of BARJ since 1998 and most states have included the principles in their statement of purpose.

In chapter 13, F. Carole Bryant, Allison Benesch, and Richard LaVallo explore the role of the helping professional in juvenile courts. The role of the helping professional in the juvenile court system has evolved considerably since the inception of social work as a bona fide profession in the late 1800s. At that time, social workers were considered social activists who advocated for change on behalf of people whom they encountered in prisons and social welfare agencies. In recent years, social workers have become an integral part of the criminal justice system as a whole, especially in the juvenile courts. The authors examine a range of issues, including the importance for social workers to become familiar with legal issues that have a direct impact on their role in the courts, social work qualifications, the reliability of expert testimony, the credibility of a witness, hearsay statements, confidentiality, therapist privilege, and immunity. The chapter concludes with reflections and words of wisdom from Allison Benesch, a former associate judge for the Travis County District Courts in Texas, where she has presided over juvenile delinquency, child protective services, and family law cases.

In chapter 14, Scott W. Henggeler, Ashli J. Sheidow, and Terry Lee provide an in-depth presentation of multisystemic therapy (MST), an intensive family- and community-based treatment that has been applied to a wide range of serious clinical problems presented by youths, including chronic and violent criminal behavior, substance abuse, sexual offending, psychiatric emergencies (i.e., homicidal, suicidal, psychotic), and, recently, serious health care problems. Youths with these types of serious clinical problems present significant personal and societal (e.g., crime victimization) costs, and,
due to their high rates of expensive out-of-home placements, consume a grossly disproportionate share of the nation’s mental health treatment resources. Across these clinical populations, the overarching goals of MST programs are to decrease rates of antisocial behavior and other clinical problems, improve functioning (e.g., family relations, school performance), and reduce use of out-of-home placements (e.g., incarceration, residential treatment, hospitalization). The steps of MST, and the effectiveness and transportability of MST in alleviating these problems in juvenile delinquents, are examined starting with the statewide programs in Missouri and South Carolina.

In chapter 15, Lisa Rapp-Paglicci draws on research studies in California, Virginia, Florida, Colorado, New York, North Carolina, and other states that indicate that the majority of juvenile offenders have one or more mental disorders and explores the complexity of treating this population. Professor Rapp-Paglicci examines the importance of conducting a thorough biopsychosocial assessment, ascertaining risk factors associated with offending behavior and mental health problems, and using screening instruments to aid in assessment with this population. She also reviews cognitive-behavioral therapy, educational rehabilitation, functional family therapy, MST, and wraparound programs as promising interventions to treat mentally ill juvenile offenders. Contraindicated approaches are also discussed, including boot camps, incarceration, and nondirective counseling. Recently, President Bush signed into law the Mentally Ill Offender Treatment and Crime Reduction Act of 2004. This law has set the stage to begin to address mentally ill offenders in the juvenile justice system in a new manner and to provide the desperately needed treatment that they require, as opposed to punitive-oriented boot camps or prison.

In chapter 16, James Herbert Williams, Peter S. Hovmand, and Charlotte L. Bright review the intersections between race and disparities in the juvenile justice system utilizing case examples of two communities at different stages in addressing disproportionate minority confinement, reviewing the salient literature, and providing an overview of practical approaches to address this significant issue.

Section IV of this book, comprised of chapters 17 to 21, explores forensic services and programs for adult offenders in drug courts, jails, state prisons, and aftercare settings in the community. Approximately 6.6 million people were on probation, in jail or prison, or on parole in the United States at the beginning of this century. We know that the rates of mental health and substance use disorders are typically much higher among incarcerated adults than the corresponding rates among general community populations. Therefore, this section identifies and discusses a range of important issues in adult corrections, including the role and effectiveness of drug courts in facilitating addictions treatment services, special needs of female offenders and their families, jail mental health services, the treatment of PTSD in inmates, and the restorative justice movement.

According to the BJS (2005), during 2004 the total federal, state, and local adult correctional population—incarcerated or under community supervision—grew by approximately 59,900 to reach the nearly 7-million mark. About 3.2% of the U.S. adult population, or 1 in every 31 adults, was incarcerated or on probation or parole at year-end 2004. Four states had an increase of 10% or more in their probation population in 2004: Kentucky (15%), Mississippi (12%), New Mexico (11%), and New Jersey (10%). The adult probation population decreased in 21 states. Washington was the only state with a double-digit decrease (down 27%). We are starting to see an increase in community
treatment of offenders under parole supervision in some states. Specifically, a total of 10 states saw double-digit increases in their parole population in 2004, led by Nebraska (24%). Nine states had a decrease in their parole population. Nevada, down 13%, was the only state with a decrease of more than 10%.

In chapter 17, Steven Belenko, David DeMatteo, and Nicholas Patapis examine drug courts as one means of helping drug-involved offenders. Grounded in a philosophy of therapeutic jurisprudence, drug courts have become an increasingly important model for linking drug-involved offenders to community-based treatment. The authors cover drug courts in depth, addressing key operational components of drug courts, eligibility for drug courts, the role of the drug court judge and other staff, application of sanctions and rewards, clinical assessment, and delivering treatment in drug court settings. A thorough review of the outcome research related to the effectiveness of drug courts is provided, and gaps in the drug court research literature are highlighted. Finally, critical issues, such as “creaming” and “net widening,” related to drug courts are discussed, and recommendations for improving the effectiveness of clinical services are made. Regarding the role of the practitioner, the authors conclude that given the case management, clinically oriented approach of drug courts, helping professionals can play a vital role in ensuring that the clinical and other service needs of drug-involved offenders are being met.

In chapter 18, Diane S. Young provides an overview of jail mental health services, beginning with a discussion of the scope of the problem. The legal basis for jail mental health care and the generally accepted standards for jail mental health services are presented. The organization of jail mental health services, including a description of current practices—what services are actually provided and by whom—are explained. Special clinical issues and dilemmas that occur in jail mental health practice are presented. Finally, promising approaches for the provision of jail mental health services are explored.

In chapter 19, Sheryl Pimlott Kubiak and Isabel M. Rose discuss the prevalence of trauma exposure and co-occurring trauma and substance use disorders among men and women involved in the criminal justice system. The authors examine methods for assessing trauma exposure and trauma-related disorders, as well as promising interventions appropriate for institutional settings.

In chapter 20, Elizabeth C. Pomeroy, Michelle A. Rountree, and Danielle E. Parrish examine best practices with HIV-infected/affected incarcerated women. The authors review rates of infection among this population, as well as epidemiological and etiological determinants of risk. They then summarize best practices, including targets for change, preventative and treatment modalities, and the use of culturally grounded treatments. The chapter concludes with a detailed description of a successful psychoeducational treatment that has been developed, implemented, and evaluated by the lead author, Professor Pomeroy.

In chapter 21, Jose B. Ashford, Bruce D. Sales, and Craig Winston LeCroy examine factors relevant to formulating strategies for maintaining changes achieved in the treatment process and in achieving specific rehabilitative objectives for preventing relapse. The authors begin with a description of similarities and differences in the historical development of aftercare in the fields of corrections and mental health. This is followed by an examination of the outcome literature on case management, intensive supervision,
psychosocial rehabilitation, and relapse prevention. In reviewing these approaches, Professors Ashford, Sales, and LeCroy identify unexamined areas and issues affecting the integration of correctional and mental health technology in caring for offenders in the community, which, if unattended to, are associated with relapse and recidivism.

Section V consists of four chapters focusing on restorative justice dialogues, victim–offender mediation programs, healing potential and outcome measures of restorative justice practices, and posttrauma group interventions in New York City in the aftermath of the September 11, 2001, mass terrorist murders.

In chapter 22, Marilyn Peterson Armour and Mark S. Umbreit explore victim–offender mediation (VOM), which is the oldest, most widely developed, and most empirically grounded expression of restorative justice. VOM provides interested victims the opportunity to meet with the juvenile or adult offender, in a safe and structured setting, with the goal of holding the offender directly accountable for his or her behavior while providing important assistance and compensation to the victim. Professors Armour and Umbreit discuss the values and traditions in which this approach is grounded and provide a brief history of the restorative justice movement. The authors go on to describe the context and stages of the VOM dialogue and address the role of the mediator based on their in–depth work in Minnesota, Illinois, Indiana, Texas, Utah, and other states as well as Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and England. The effectiveness of VOM is reviewed, as are pitfalls and unintended consequences of VOM. In the end, Professors Armour and Umbreit conclude that the widespread practice of VOM in thousands of cases each year and the empirical evidence generated over the past 25 years across many sites in numerous countries strongly indicate that VOM contributes to increased victim involvement and healing, to offenders taking responsibility for their behaviors and learning from this experience, to community members participating in shaping a just response to law violation, and to more positive public attitudes toward juvenile and criminal courts.

In chapter 23, Katherine van Wormer and Morris Jenkins examine the restorative justice movement, which represents a paradigm shift from conventional forms of resolving wrongdoing to a focus on the harm to victims and communities. The authors begin their chapter by addressing the scope of the problem, viewed as interpersonal violence (violence and other forms of violation by one person or the other) as well as structural violence at the societal level. Four models of restorative justice are explored, and in their review of the literature on the effectiveness of restorative justice, Professors van Wormer and Jenkins examine questions such as these: What does the literature show us about the long–term effectiveness of these restorative justice models? Are lives altered thereby? Does healing of the participants—victims and offenders—take place? The authors also explore gender–based restorative initiatives in situations of battering and rape, as well as cultural issues in restorative justice.

In chapter 24, Gary Behrman and the late William H. Reid present a task–based group treatment approach to posttrauma intervention. When persons are traumatized, much of what they assume about themselves, others, and the purposes of their lives are disrupted, resulting in multiple disconnections from their past. The model is designed to help individuals and their communities recreate these connections in meaningful, creative, and responsible ways, which may result in change on informative, reformative, or transformative levels. The model makes use of nine basic tasks in which the practitioner, individuals, and community are active participants. The tasks comprise welcoming, reflecting, reframing, educating, grieving, amplifying, integrating, empowering,
and terminating/revisiting. Use of the model is illustrated in the first author’s work with employees of the New York City Adult Protection Services, who were witness to the World Trade Center disaster.

In chapter 25, the epilogue, Harris Chaiklin provides an introduction and overview of key issues in correctional practice, addresses curriculum-related issues for practitioner education, and provides a historical perspective in order to bridge the past to the future of correctional practice and the improved delivery of social services to inmates.

**Conclusion**

To the extent that articles appearing in the *Social Work* journal published by the National Association of Social Workers (NASW) is a reflection of the field’s interest in forensic social work, the interest has seemed to wax and wane over the years. From July 1998 to July 2005, the *Social Work* journal published a total of 13 articles (an average of just one article every 6 months!). By contrast, from November 1998 to November 2005, the *Research on Social Work Practice* journal published 29 articles related to forensic social work (an average of one article nearly every 2 months). It is worth noting that the *Research on Social Work Practice* journal, edited by Dr. Bruce Thyer of Florida State University, is sponsored by the Society for Social Work and Research. It is difficult to speculate why *Research on Social Work Practice* has published many more articles related to forensic social work in the past 7 years than has *Social Work*. Is it because *Research on Social Work Practice* is associated with the Society for Social Work and Research, a professional organization that overtly commits itself to the development and dissemination of evidence-based practice? Is it because Dr. Thyer has been the sole editor of *Research on Social Work Practice* since its inception, while *Social Work* rotates its editors, who may have different editorial priorities and perspectives, on a 4-year cycle? Does it have something to do with the type of manuscripts being submitted to these respective journals? Perhaps it is because the NASW does not recognize forensics as a helping profession practice area. Whatever the reason, the relatively few number of forensic social work publications appearing in *Social Work* is of concern. With approximately 150,000 members of NASW (all of whom receive the journal), practice strategies for improving the criminal justice system have the potential to reach a wide audience. Yet, an alternative view is that we should feel emboldened. The Society for Social Work and Research continues to grow its membership, and all members are given the choice to receive *Research on Social Work Practice*.

**RESOURCES AND REFERENCES**


