

WOMEN AND GIRLS IN THE CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM: OFFENDERS AND VICTIMS

**A CONGRESSIONAL BRIEFING
MAY 19, 2006**

SPEAKERS:

MARGARET ZAHN, PH.D.
North Carolina State University
and RTI International

CANDACE KRUTTSCHNITT, PH.D.
University of Minnesota

***SHERYL PIMLOTT KUBIAK, PH.D.**
Wayne State University
Research presented by:

BARBARA SOLT, PH.D.
The Institute for the Advancement
of Social Work Research

TRANSCRIPT OF PROCEEDINGS



WOMEN AND GIRLS IN THE CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM: OFFENDERS AND VICTIMS

A Congressional Briefing: Friday, May 19, 2006

8:30 to 10:30 a.m.

B 338 Rayburn House Office Building

The American Criminal Justice system has focused its efforts on the major offenders and victims – men and boys. However, as crime rates have fallen in the past few years a disturbing trend has been the increase in women and girls as offenders. According to Bureau of Justice Statistics data, during 2004 the number of female prisoners rose more than twice as much as the increase among men. Since 1995, the total number of male prisoners has grown nearly 32 percent; the number of female prisoners by 53 percent. Texas, the Federal System, and California held more than a third of all female inmates, but Oklahoma, Mississippi, and Louisiana had the highest incarceration rates, and North Dakota, Montana, and West Virginia had the largest average annual increases between 1995 and 2004. Why is this happening?

Women's needs in the criminal justice system are often quite different than men. They worry about their children on the outside, they sometimes are pregnant when they encounter the criminal justice system, and they are more likely to be substance abusers than men. In addition, they are often victims of abuse. Furthermore, they continue to be victims of crimes that impact their lives throughout the life cycle. The results of research on all of these issues will be discussed by three distinguished social scientists.

SPEAKERS:

Margaret Zahn, Ph.D., RTI International and North Carolina State University
"Delinquent Girls: Trends, Causes, and Interventions"

Candace Kruttschnitt, Ph.D., University of Minnesota
"The Violent Victimization of Women: A Life Course Perspective"

Barbara Solt, Ph.D., The institute for the Advancement of Social Work Research
(substituting for Sheryl Pimlott Kubiak)
"Service and Treatment Needs of Women Across the Criminal Justice Continuum"

MODERATED BY:

Howard J. Silver, Executive Director, Consortium of Social Science Associations

Sponsored by the Consortium of Social Science Associations, the American Sociological Association, and the Institute for the Advancement of Social Work Research.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | |
|---|----|
| Executive Summary..... | 4 |
| Welcome by Howard Silver..... | 5 |
| Margaret Zahn <i>“Delinquent Girls: Trends, Causes, and Interventions”</i> | 6 |
| Candace Kruttschnitt <i>“The Violent Victimization of Women: A Life Course Perspective”</i> | 13 |
| Sheryl Pimlott Kubiak <i>“Service and Treatment Needs of Women Across the Criminal Justice Continuum” Research presented by: Barbara Solt</i> | 18 |
| Question & Answer..... | 23 |
| Speaker Biographies..... | 24 |
| Attendance List..... | 26 |
| For More Information..... | 28 |



EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

According to Bureau of Justice Statistics data, the number of female prisoners rose more than twice as much as the increase among men during 2004. The rise of women and girls as offenders is a developing trend that has sparked the attention of many social and behavioral scientists. In addition, women as victims of crime, has also engendered considerable research interest.

On May 19, the Consortium of Social Science Associations (COSSA), in conjunction with the American Sociological Association (ASA) and the Institute for the Advancement of Social Work Research (IASWR), held a Capitol Hill briefing on the state of women and girls in the criminal justice system to further examine these issues.

A panel of social scientists presented research results on girls and women as offenders and victims. Margaret Zahn of RTI International and North Carolina State University co-directs the Girls Study Group, a multidisciplinary group of researchers and practitioners attempting to answer questions about such factors as the causes and correlates of female delinquency. Funded by the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, the Girls Study Group evaluates programs to help determine the best interventions for female delinquents. Recent data shows that 29 percent of juveniles who are arrested in this country are girls, and they account for 15 percent of the juveniles who are in custody. The primary offense in these cases was usually simple assault.

Zahn pointed out that girls and boys experience many of the same risk factors that lead to delinquency, but the difference among boys and girls is in the sensitivity to and the rate of exposure to those factors. Risk and protective factors associated with delinquency that are more important for girls are: early puberty or developmental factors, sexual assault, depression and anxiety, cross-gender peer influence, and attachment and bonding to your school.

Candace Kruttschnitt highlighted findings from a National Institute of Justice supported study that examined the 'life course perspective' of the violent victimization of women. The University of Minnesota sociology professor described a life-course perspective as one that "draws attention to the question of whether victimization experiences unfold across relationships over time." Kruttschnitt further explained that this perspective "draws attention to relationships and linked lives and asks to what degree do specific relationships, parent, child, dates, acquaintances, strangers, shape the kinds of violence that occurs within them." Using data conducted from the National Violence Against Women Survey, Kruttschnitt explained that relationship type has a strong impact on the nature of violence women experience.

Barbara Solt of the IASWR presented the results of research conducted by Sheryl Pimlott Kubiak of Wayne State University. Kubiak was unable to attend the seminar because of a death in the family. Solt clarified the misperceptions about the classification of female offenders in the criminal justice system. "Often when we think about women in the criminal justice system we think about prison," she said. "However, 85 percent of women in the criminal justice system are in the community, on parole, and or probation" and these women are generally lumped into services designed for and by men. She argued that the increase in women and girls in the criminal justice system calls for a deeper look into the design of service systems. "Understanding who the women are and what their service needs are is the first step in designing appropriate interventions" concluded Solt.

WELCOME: HOWARD J. SILVER

Good morning. I am Howard Silver, the Executive Director of the Consortium of Social Science Associations (COSSA). We are an advocacy group promoting attention to and federal funding for the social and behavioral sciences. COSSA is supported by over a hundred professional societies, scientific societies, universities, and research centers and institutes. Part of our mission is to connect the academic research community with the Washington policy community. These briefings are part of that effort to make that connection.

I want to start out by thanking Representative Chip Pickering of Mississippi, who secured the room for us. I would also like to thank the co-sponsors: the American Sociological Association, its Executive Officer Sally Hillsman, and Lee Herring; and the Institute for the Advancement of Social Work Research, its Executive Director Joan Zlotnik, and Barbara Solt, who you will hear from later. Finally, let me express my appreciation to the COSSA staff: La Tosha Lewis, Pamela Pressley, Karen Craft, and Angela Sharpe, who is not here this morning because Dr. Zerhouni, the director of the NIH, is testifying before the Senate Appropriations Committee.

As many of you know, the American criminal justice system has focused its efforts on the major offenders and victims – men and boys. However, as overall crime rates have fallen in the past few years, a disturbing trend has been the increase in women and girls as offenders. Data from the Bureau of Justice Statistics suggest that the growth rate of female prisoners is rising faster than the growth rate of male prisoners. In addition, women's needs in the criminal justice system are often quite different than men. Incarcerated women worry about their children on the outside. They sometimes are pregnant when they encounter the criminal justice system, and they are more likely to be substance abusers than men. In addition, women prisoners are often victims of abuse, and furthermore, they continue to be victims of the crimes that impact their lives throughout their lifecycle.

We are here to talk about the results of research on these issues with distinguished social scientists. I have to start the introduction of the speakers on a sad note. Sheryl Pimlott Kubiak cannot be with us this morning. Her father passed away earlier in the week. She did provide her material and it is in your packets. Barbara Solt will substitute and take us through Professor Kubiak's presentation.

We are delighted that Margaret Zahn, professor of sociology at North Carolina State, and the principal investigator of the Girls Study Group at RTI International, is with us. She is the former director of the Crime, Justice, Policy, and Behavior Program at RTI. She received her B.A. in social administration, her M.A. in sociology, and her Ph.D. in sociology from the Ohio State University.

Also with us is Candace Kruttschnitt, a professor in the Department of Sociology at the University of Minnesota. She has published extensively on the subject of female offenders, as well as victims. She received her B.A. degree from the University of California, Berkeley, a Master's of Philosophy and a Master of Arts, and Ph.D. degrees in sociology from Yale University.

Barbara Solt is the senior program associate at the Institute for the Advancement of Social Work Research here in Washington, DC. She has helped promote the interests of social work and social work research. She has a Master's in Social Work from Columbia, and a Ph.D. in Social Work from Catholic University. We are going to begin with Margaret Zahn.

DELINQUENT GIRLS: TRENDS, CAUSES AND INTERVENTION PROGRAMS

MARGARET A. ZAHN, PH.D.
RTI International and North Carolina
State University



First, I would like to thank COSSA and Howard for inviting me, and thank the American Sociological Association and the Institute for the Advancement of Social Work Research for co-sponsoring. I am very pleased to be here with you to share some of the things that we are doing regarding girls' delinquency.

Before I speak more about that, I want to share with you an experience I had a couple of weeks ago when I went to the North Carolina Heart Program, which is a residential facility for girls in North Carolina. There I met two young women – one, Karen and the other Stephanie.

When I first walked in I sat next to a quiet young woman to chat. As we were talking I asked, "Does your family come to visit?" She said, "Oh, no. My mom and dad, they are too busy; they have got to sell their drugs, you know - they don't have time. I haven't seen them in two years."

She said, "I'm very close to my grandmother. She does come and visit me but she has lung cancer now." What she didn't know, as they were about to tell her, is that her grandmother would not be coming anymore to see her. The next girl I met was Stephanie. Stephanie wasn't quiet the way that Karen was. Stephanie was moving around, shaking and talking, and she would break into conversation. She would go on and on. Afterwards, after we tried to calm her down, I asked the staff about her background.

At age nine or 10 – they are not sure when – her mother had not paid her drug bill – illegal drug bill. And the people coming to collect the debt duct-taped this girl to a chair, put a gun to her head, with a rope on the gun, and said if your mother doesn't pay, we are going to open the door and blow your brains out. Stephanie has what many would probably say is PTSD (Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder), not unlike some of the soldiers returning from Iraq out of a war zone.

These are two delinquent girls. So when we talk about delinquent girls, I would like you to remember their stories as we go through our information. To begin with we need to know what delinquency is. Delinquency is, first of all, a violation of criminal codes. As an adult, if you steal, if you assault someone, if you murder somebody, it's against the law. So it's a crime.



However, for minors, there are other kinds of offenses, such as running away, not obeying your parents, truancy, that are also offenses. These are called status offenses. It is important to be aware of this because there is a key difference in the arrest patterns for boys and girls based on the kinds of offenses that are committed.

Much of what I will be talking about today derives not from my work alone but from the work of the Girls Study Group. The Girls Study Group is a multidisciplinary group of researchers and practitioners who are attempting to answer questions about the patterns, causes, and correlates of female delinquency, and also evaluate programs to help us determine what are the best interventions. It is funded by the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention, and my mentor, Barbara Allen-Hagen, is in the audience. The names of all of the people in the study group are at the back of your packet. I won't go through who they are but they are there for your perusal.

The study group is trying to answer some basic questions: Who is the delinquent girl? What has she done? Why has she done it? Has that changed over time? And what can we do about it? In terms of patterns, who is delinquent depends partially on the method used to study it. If you use self-reports, you have a lot of delinquents. If you use simply arrest records, you may have fewer, but an increasing number, as we will see.

Twenty-nine percent of juveniles who are arrested in this country currently are girls, and girls account for 15 percent of the juveniles who are in custody. What are they in custody for? The primary offense is a person offense, usually simple assault. And simple assault is variously defined. It can be many different things. I did an earlier study in Phoenix, where I saw many arrests for simple assault, so I asked, what are all of these people doing? They were giving a lewd hand gesture because simple assault in some places is, bad words, lewd gestures, and sometimes it also means hitting someone. In any event, the largest percentage of person arrests is for simple assault.

A key difference between boys and girls who are in custody is that more girls are in custody for status offenses, in particular, technical violations; running away and truancy. Remember Stephanie? Stephanie hadn't been in school in two-and-a-half years, and she is 15 years old. She represents girls who are in custody for status offenses and at a much higher proportion than are boys.

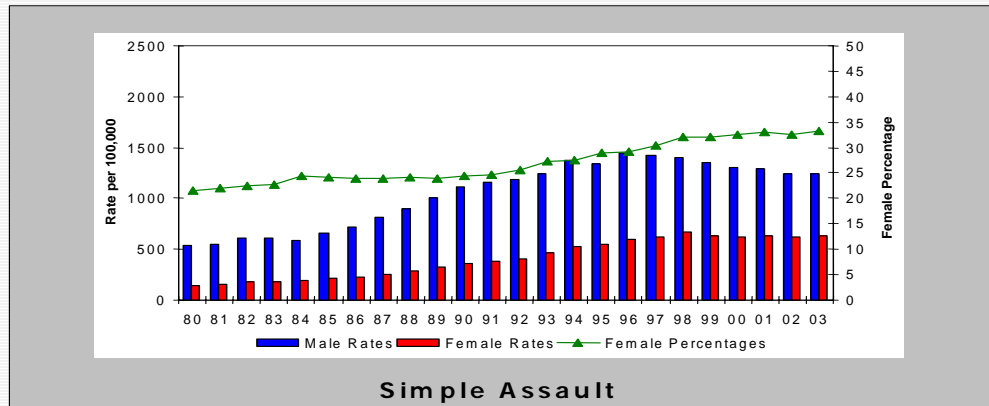
The girls in custody are also different, from boys in custody in other ways. First of all, there are a higher percentage of girls in custody who have been sexually assaulted. A higher degree of these girls have also been physically abused. I think one can obviously say that if you have got a gun put to your head you are being physically abused. They are also more likely to suffer from PTSD, depression, and anxiety. In other words, a higher percent have mental health issues.

They are also, compared to boys, more likely to be substance abusers, and in terms of education, they are more likely than girls in the general population to have dropped out of school, to have repeated a grade at least once, and to be performing below grade level. So there are true educational problems for this group.

Have things changed over time with regards to the, “delinquent girl”? That was one of the key questions that we asked as a study group, and Darrell Steffensmeier has done a major chapter on this. I will be quoting from these various chapters that have been produced by the Girls Study Group and which will eventually be published as a book.

NC STATE UNIVERSITY

Trends in Juvenile Female and Male Arrest Rates^a (per 100,000) and Female Percentage of Arrests^b for Violent Offending: *Uniform Crime Reports, 1980–2003*



^aRates are adjusted for the sex composition of the population and for changes in UCR coverage over time. The population base includes ages 12-17.
^bFemale Percentage = Female Rate / (Female Rate + Male Rate)*100%
 From Steffensmeier, 2005



What you will see is based on arrest records. Arrests for violence by girls have increased steadily and the proportion of girls to boys for arrest has as well (i.e. the proportion of girls has increased). This is what big news reports are saying when they talk of “girls gone wild” and “mean girls.”

The question is does this really tell the whole story? If you take a look at self-report data, such as Darrell did with “Monitoring the Future” and other self-report indicators, what you find is there has not been a steady increase in the amount of violent behavior of girls. It appears from the analysis that has been done, that the arrest rate has gone up but the behavior has not changed substantially over the last 20 years.

So what has changed? What we think has changed, and which we will be following up with additional studies, is that a variety of social policies have changed that has increased the number of girls who have come into the system. What are some of those policies? The ones we think – and again, these are hypotheses as to what is happening is the rate has been impacted by zero-tolerance policies. In schools – now, you call the SRO (School Resource Officer) or you call the police - where previously the matter was handled internally. So people who may not have been arrested before are now arrested.

In fact, I just got back from Florida a couple of weeks ago. Twenty-three thousand kids in Florida last year were sent into the juvenile justice system because of zero-tolerance policies in schools. And some of them probably did not pose a danger.

One boy, for example, had helped his sister move the day before and a butter knife had dropped out of the box, so it was in the back of his car. You can't have a weapon at school. He was expelled and sent to the juvenile justice system for having a weapon at school.

In any event, zero-tolerance policies we think have fueled some of the increases in arrests. Secondly, domestic violence arrest policies have probably fueled some of this as well. Again, these are hypothesis of what we think may help explain changing arrest patterns. In terms of domestic violence, mandatory arrest policies mean that if you go into a house where there is fighting going on, somebody is going to get arrested.

Now, perhaps a girl is fighting with her mother, and the girl's mother has other children to watch, perhaps the one that gets arrested is the girl even though this is an interactive situation between the mother and the girl or the parent and the girl. Do we know that for a fact? No. We think this may be the case and we want to follow up. In fact, the violence and victimization division at NIJ might be a real good place to begin looking at some of these kinds of issues.

In any event, domestic violence arrest policies may have a second side or another side to them that gets reflected in additional arrests. Furthermore, there aren't many places to house children in the community. As a result, they may get arrested so they can be put somewhere.

If you talk to judges – and I was at the American Bar Association recently talking to a number of people – they indicated they may not have anywhere else to house a runaway. Where do you put someone, like Karen, whose parents are basically absent, and who has a grandmother who really can't take care of her now. She may run away or skip school. Where are you going to put her if there is no place in the community to do so?

***...girls and boys
experience many of the
same risk factors in
creating delinquency;
however, there is a
difference in sensitivity to
some of those factors
and the rate of exposure
to some of those factors***

Again, these are hypotheses about why we see more girls in the system at this time. But the basic bottom line here is there is no evidence of an increasing violence pattern among girls at least in terms of the actual behavior we see.

However, when a girl is delinquent, what causes it? In the last year-and-a-half, the Study Group has spent enormous amounts of time taking a look at that issue.

We used the ecological model, taking a look at individual factors, including biological ones, as well as family, school, peers, and community factors. And I would like to share some of the things that we have found from the analysis of 1,600 pieces of literature that have been reviewed and meta-analyses that have also been reviewed.

What have we found? First of all, girls and boys experience many of the same risk factors in creating delinquency; however, there is a difference in sensitivity to some of those factors and the rate of exposure to some of those factors. In terms of gender similarities, the following risk factors are associated with delinquency for both boys and girls.

One is family dynamics. Candace was instrumental in writing the chapter on this. Structure and stability of the family is important. Supervision and control are also central. Adolescents who are supervised appropriately by parents don't tend to become delinquent. Certain kinds of supervision are better than other kinds of supervision. There have been studies done on authoritarian versus authoritative, neglectful versus permissive, kinds of parenting. Authoritative, not authoritarian, tends to be associated with the best outcomes.

Also family criminality – evidence suggesting that if your parents are criminal, if they are dealing drugs, if they are smoking dope, if they are involved in prostitution, if they are going out and stealing, the chances the kids are going to do it are much greater. And that seems true for both boys and girls. Maltreatment also, whether it's neglect or physical assault, has a relationship to delinquency. Maltreatment is a very tricky issue though because often the studies may combine sexual assault with physical assault, and/or with neglect. To sort out which source is more problematic or if it is the whole package that creates the result are some unresolved questions.

Let me list the things where there seems to be difference in sensitivity, or difference in rates of exposure. Early puberty in girls, especially when coupled with living in a disadvantaged neighborhood, is a bigger predictor for delinquency in girls than for boys. So developmental issues, especially if you have early puberty which creates a maturity gap between social reality and biological reality, are associated with higher levels of delinquency for girls, and I can get into reasons for that in the question and answer period.

Depression and anxiety shows higher incidence among girls. Cross-gender peer influence is more important in girls' delinquency than in boys. For very serious delinquency, the Bonnie and Clyde story is a good one in the sense that for serious delinquency, the girl influences the boy and the boy influences the girl. For minor delinquency, the girl is more influenced by the boy than the reverse. At least that is what it appears at the present time. And attachment and bonding to school – there is a difference with girls. If they are very bonded to school, they may avoid delinquency.

There are differential rates of exposure by gender. Girls are supervised more closely than boys in general, which has kept their delinquency rate lower. They are more exposed to sexual assault, which may have elevated their delinquency somewhat. I say *may*, for there are a lot of caveats here. In terms of neighborhood effects – and I would like to at least get this mentioned – there has not been a lot of studies on the gendered effects of neighborhoods. We do know that structurally disadvantaged neighborhoods – high levels of poverty – are associated with delinquency for both boys and girls. However, girls are less exposed to community violence than boys because they are not out in it as much, so those neighborhoods may not be quite as detrimental to girls as to boys for that reason.

There needs to be a lot more research on this. One very good study, called “The Move to Opportunity Study,” was a randomized study of low-income children. Some were randomly assigned into affluent neighborhoods, while others were left in their poor neighborhoods as controls. They then studied the impact on boys' and girls' delinquency. What they found – and they did a follow up for at least three years - is that in the first year, both boys' and girls' violence behaviors and delinquency behaviors dropped dramatically in the experimental group.

By the end of year two, however, the boys were stealing more than the boys in the control group; but the girls' official delinquency remained reduced. They were dramatically impacted by being in a good neighborhood. Boys, conversely, actually ended up with higher levels of delinquency over time when they moved to that neighborhood. I think it is very interesting to look at the gender effects of community.

In the end, to explain delinquency, we do need to have a gender-responsive-kind-of-theory because while there are a lot of similarities between what causes delinquency in boys and girls, there are differences and those differences need to be built into a theory to explain female crime. Furthermore, because the profile of girls is different from that of boys when they are in custody, and because the causes are somewhat different, we need to have gender-responsive programming for girls in custody.

Our next steps for the Girls Study Group is to take a look at all of the programming in the country with regards to girls to examine them in terms of evaluations that have been done of them so that we can do some ranking as to what are the most effective programs.

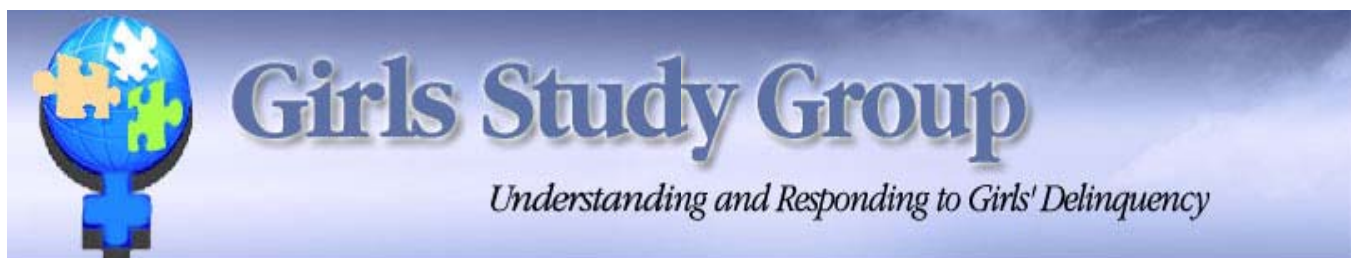
I have listed what we are going to use as the basis for the evaluation, and I won't go through that. You can consult that in your own packet. We are also going to take a look at how gender responsive programs are and rate them in that regard. We will be using evaluation studies as a basis for much of this. Some programs, such as the Heart Program, Wings, and Pace have been evaluated. Many programs have not been evaluated and that is problematic. There needs to be more evaluation of programs and we hope that will occur.

We will also examine programs that have proved effective such as functional family therapy, multi systemic therapy, and look at the gender effects, which have not yet been examined. The Blueprints Program staff is going to work with us to look at the gendered effects of these programs.

In the end, what we hope to come up with are lists of programs that number one, will do no harm, and number two, will help girls avoid lives of crime. We hope to help Karen and Stephanie lead productive and, we hope, better lives than perhaps their earlier lives have been. For information, please consult our website, the Girls Study Group website, which we will keep updated as we move along in the evaluation of programs. Thank you very much.

WEBSITE:

http://girlsstudygroup.rti.org/index.cfm?fuseaction=dsp_group



"THE VIOLENT VICTIMIZATION OF WOMEN: A LIFE COURSE PERSPECTIVE"

CANDACE KRUTTSCHNITT, Ph.D.

University of Minnesota

The research that I am presenting today was funded by the National Institute of Justice, and was completed with a colleague of mine at the University of Minnesota, Ross Macmillan. While research on women's violent victimization has grown tremendously over the past few decades, and provided some very important insights that have significantly shaped national policy, it has also been limited by compartmentalization. Here I am referring



to the fact that research on spouse abuse and research on sexual abuse have developed quite independently from each other. Virtually no attention has been given to the possibility of violence extending across relationships and over time. One notable exception of course is the research on child abuse where people have looked at if you were abused as a child is it likely that you will become an abuser yourself? Or in the case of women, if you grew up in an abusive home, are you more likely to marry someone who has those characteristics as well?

We used a life course perspective to try to understand how violence unfolds within relationships and across relationships over time. A life-course perspective draws attention to relationships and linked lives and asks to what degree do specific relationships -- parents, relatives, dates, acquaintances, strangers, partners -- shape the kinds of violence that occurs within them.

Why would we expect this to be the case? Why would we expect that certain relationships would have particular patterns of violence? You know that being a parent or being a partner has a lot of wonderful moments but it also has a lot of frustrating moments. So parent and partner relationships provide greater motivations for violence than relationships with acquaintances, neighbors or relatives. Also, by virtue of the living situation, they provide more opportunities for violence to occur.

A life course perspective also draws attention to life course linkages. As such, it suggests that violence experienced in one relationship might influence its occurrence in another relationship or in multiple relationships over time. To address these questions, we used the National Violence Against Women Survey. This was a survey conducted by Patricia Tjaden and Nancy Thoennes. It was supported by the National Institute of Justice and the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.

The data was gathered from 8,000 women and 8,005 men between November 1995 and May 1996. These individuals were drawn from a nationally representative sample of all households with telephones in all 50 states and the District of Columbia.

Our analyses only pertain to the women in this sample. The extent of information collected on victimization in this survey was vast. They looked at sexual assault, stalking, and a number of indicators of physical assault. The physical assault items represent a modified version of the Conflict Tactic Scales, for those of you who are familiar with this instrument. They looked at these violent experiences across every possible relationship. Did it happen to you with a parent, with a relative, with a date, with an acquaintance, with a stranger, or a current partner, or a former partner?

The first question we looked at with these data was do relationships shape violence? That is, are there differences in the specific kinds of violent acts that occur within a relationship? Or is the likelihood of encountering different kinds of violence the same regardless of relationship? We found that while rates of violent victimization are generally low, relationship type has a strong impact on the nature of violence women experience. Stalking, for example, is twice as likely to be perpetrated by a partner as by an acquaintance or a stranger. By contrast, sexual assaults are infrequent but relatively evenly distributed across relatives, partners, and acquaintances.

We found that in the case of relatives, dates, acquaintances, and strangers, the risk of experiencing any specific act of violence is independent of the risk of experiencing others...where we see patterns is in parent-child relationships and in relationships with partners

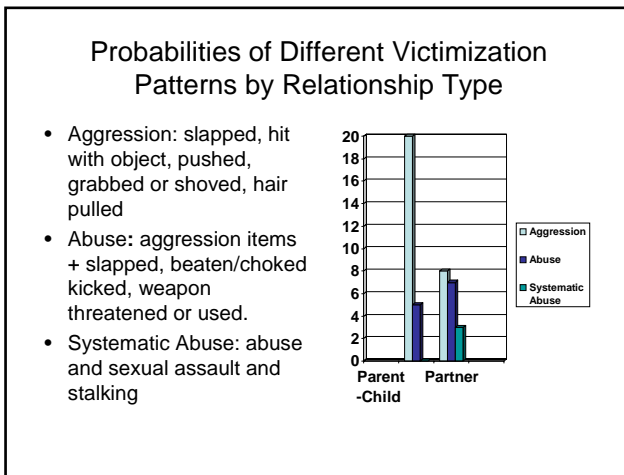
I couldn't list all of the different indicators of physical assaults that were included in these data but from the examples shown we can see the risk is clearly highest from parents and from partners. But even within these two categories, the forms of violence vary. Being hit with an object or having it thrown at you is twice as likely to be perpetrated by a parent as by a partner. Conversely, the most serious acts of violence, choking, weapon use, or threatening with a weapon, are more likely to be perpetrated by partners than parents.

Next we addressed the question of whether there are patterns or clusters of different kinds of violent events that occur within relationships. Up to this point, we have only examined specific rates of victimization for particular kinds of victimization. But if you want to know what is the probability of being stalked and hit and sexually assaulted, that is do certain kinds of violence cluster together in relationships, you need to look at the data a little differently.

We used a statistical technique that permitted us to determine whether certain relationships have one or more different patterns of violence. For example, are partner relationships more likely to involve stalking and sexual assault than relationships with dates?

First, we found that in the case of relatives, dates, acquaintances, and strangers, the risk of experiencing any specific act of violence is independent of the risk of experiencing others. In other words, there are no patterns of violence in those relationships. Where we see patterns is in parent-child relationships and in relationships with partners.

In the case of parent-child relationships, three different patterns appear. You only see two here because I made the bar graph proportional to the two smaller categories. The largest category in the parent-child group, representing 75-percent of the sample, reported a low probability of experiencing any violence. That is, the vast majority of women say they didn't have violence in their childhood.



A second group, however, comprising almost 20 percent of the sample, have a high likelihood of being slapped, having something thrown at them, being hit with an object, pushed, grabbed, or shoved, and a moderate risk of having their hair pulled. We call this pattern, “physical aggression.”

And a third group, comprising about five percent of the sample consists of women who clearly reported physical abuse. That is, they had a high risk of all of the

behaviors that we classify as aggression as well as being beaten, choked, and threatened or attacked with a weapon. Patterned violence also characterizes partner relationships. We found four different groups. Again the largest group, roughly 80 percent of the sample, reports no violence or a very low risk of experiencing partner violence.

A second group experiences a pattern of violence that is very similar to the pattern we saw in parent-child relationships. In this group, women have a high risk of being pushed, grabbed, or shoved, and a moderate risk of being slapped, but a low risk of sexual assault or stalking. These women represent about eight percent of the sample.

A third group in partner relationships includes women who have a high risk of experiencing the previously noted aggression items plus a high risk of being beaten or choked, and a more substantial risk of weapon use. Again, however they have a relatively low risk of sexual assault and stalking. We refer to this group as “physically abused” and they comprise about seven percent of the sample.

The final group experiences a pattern of violence that we refer to as systematic abuse. Women experiencing systematic abuse have a very high risk of the most injurious types of violence and sexual assault and stalking. They are just three percent of the sample.

Clearly, there are different constellations of violent experiences within these two forms of relationships. But we were also interested in whether distinct patterns of violence emerge across different relationships over the life course. To look at this question, we focused on whether and how the patterns of violence we identified mesh with what we know about violence that occurs in other relationships. We found three life-course patterns of violence.

The first life course pattern, again, comprising the largest proportion of the sample, is “atypical” violence; that is, women who have a relatively low risk of violence across all of their relationships: parents, dates, acquaintances and partners. These women, comprising about 75 percent of the sample, have a relatively small risk of encountering any violence over their life course.

A second group of women have a high likelihood of childhood aggression but not abuse. Their risk of experiencing violence in other relationships, for example with dates and relatives, is low. Nevertheless, they also have a moderate risk of aggression from partners. As such, their violence is really confined to family relationships. We call this life course pattern, “parent-partner” violence.

The third, and the most disturbing, group of women encounter abusive violence in childhood, they have high risks of violence from relatives, relatively high risks from dates, acquaintances, strangers, and they encounter systematic abuse from their partners. They are six percent of the sample. We refer to this pattern as “multi-faceted, multi-relationship” violence. It occurs everywhere in all of their relationship over the life course.

Given these findings, we thought it would be important to examine what demographic and economic factors might be associated with these different life course patterns of violence. We did a statistical analysis that allowed us to determine the likelihood that particular individuals would experience, “atypical,” “parent-partner” or “multi-faceted” violence.

Before I discuss these findings, I want to note an important caveat: These aren’t causal factors. Given the data set we were working with, time order can’t be established. That is, the victimization experiences we are looking at occurred over the life course: some in childhood, some while they are dating, some currently. But some of the economic and demographic data that Tjaden and Thoennes gathered occurred after the violence. Are you unemployed? Are you in poverty? So we can’t talk about these as causal factors, but we can talk about them as factors that are associated with particular life course patterns of violence.

What did we find? First, in terms of atypical violence, that is women with relatively low risks of violence as opposed to women who had no violence in their lives, age is an important factor. Your risk increases up to the mid-30s and then declines thereafter. American-Indian women relative to white women had a slightly higher risk. Poverty, not surprisingly was important. And marital disruption, specifically here referring to whether you’re separated or divorce, was also a risk factor.

With regard to racial differences, for women experiencing parent-partner violence of four groups- African Americans, Asian Americans, Native Americans, and Mixed Race-only African American’s experiences differed significantly from those of non-Hispanic whites. Poor women’s risks were three-times greater than that for other women.

Women experiencing this pattern of violence also report higher rates of substance abuse and depression than women experiencing atypical violence. We did a separate analysis of the mental health and physical health factors associated with these three life-course patterns, and if you're interested in these findings, they will appear in the July/August 2006 issue of Public Health Reports.

Finally, we turn to the women who experienced multi-faceted, multi-relationship violence. The age effect here is interesting because while it is similar to the other age effects we observed -- where the risk increases up to about age 30 -- it also differs; whereas for others, the risk of violence declines at age 30, for these women it flattens out. This is very disturbing because it suggests that women who experience the most violence over their life course also have a reduced likelihood of having these violent experiences decline as they age. The race effect is also more pronounced here and it's mixed-raced women that have the largest risk. Unemployed women were almost three-times more likely to report multi-faceted violence and living in poverty increased the odds by a factor of four.

In terms of mental health and physical health, not surprisingly, women who experience this multi-faceted, multi-relationship violence report very high rates of depression, substance abuse, risk for miscarriage, and disturbingly, they are less likely to contact the police or seek medical care than other women who experience violent victimization. What are the implications of these findings? I think first and foremost they illustrate the diversity of women's violent experiences. While most women aren't victimized, those who are have very different experiences: for some, it's an isolated event; for others, it is confined to family relationships; and, for still others, it occurs across all relationships.

We really need to know more about what causes this variation. For example, we know childhood victimization is important, but not why or how it produces these patterns. We also know that poverty is important, as are its correlates, low education and unemployment. But why? Does poverty determine neighborhoods and networks where violence is prevalent? Or does it weaken interpersonal relationships, or both? And what are the mechanisms that produce different patterns of victimization across the life course?

Despite these questions, I also think there are some important policy implications that emerge from these findings. Certainly our findings highlight some of the costs of these experiences for women, especially women who are involved in this multifaceted, multi-relationship violence. As such, they suggest the need to tailor interventions for female victims of violence. Victimization services need to be able to adapt to different life-course patterns of victimization.

The criminal justice system is very good at dealing with atypical, isolated acts of violence that involve one specific offender, but not trajectories of violent encounters. Perhaps then we should think about using diagnostic instruments like the medical community does for screening. This might help identify broader patterns of victimization in an individual case.

Victims of multifaceted, multi-relationship violence may need extensive counseling and in some instances may even need relocation. Also the extensive co-morbidity of negative outcomes – such as substance abuse and mental health problems – from some forms of violence suggest the need for more coordinated services, that is, combining criminal justice interventions with counseling and substance abuse assistance.

And finally, given the importance of child abuse for subsequent patterns of victimization, I think more emphasis needs to be placed on intervention and providing extensive victim services to children to try to prevent those subsequent victimizations in their life-course.

"SERVICE AND TREATMENT NEEDS OF WOMEN ACROSS THE CRIMINAL JUSTICE CONTINUUM"

SHERYL PIMLOTT KUBIAK, PH.D.

Wayne State University

Research presented by:

BARBARA SOLT, PH.D.

The Institute for the Advancement of Social Work Research

Sheryl has been very kind to provide an extensive set of notes with her slideshow, and so it's almost like having the paper to deliver. And if you find that you all understand it, we can move on quickly, but there is a lot more with her notes than just what you have in your packet as a slide show. This is something I have never done before; other people have. I have done slide presentations, but they have usually been my own, so bear with me while I do more reading than usual.

One of the good things about going last is that you can always say "and this confirms, and/or is consonant with the other two presentations that you have heard." So, I hope you will find that there are some themes among the three presentations as I go through Sheryl's.

Sheryl thanks everyone for the opportunity she almost had to be with you today, with a subject that she finds compelling: a population where you generally find a culmination of all of the high-risk needs – and I think that is part of what we have talked about here – a population that is difficult and challenging to work with because of these multiple needs. She hopes that today's presentation will share some of her work with you so that you can understand some of the challenges and work together with us in the research and practice development arenas.

Before I begin talking about service and treatment needs, there are a couple of points that need to be said in the way of introduction to frame this presentation. The points are somewhat obvious, but like all things obvious, they are sometimes overlooked. The first major point is the criminal justice system is more than one disposition. She thinks it's important to think of it as a continuum rather than as a single static point.

Often when we think about women in the criminal justice system, we think about prison, assuming all of the women with a conviction are in prison. But 85 percent are in the community, on parole, and probation. This is an important factor in how and when we provide services.

Sheryl also believes that if we can provide services at earlier points along the continuum, we might prevent more expensive and punitive sanctions. For example, if we can prevent failures of women in meeting their probation mandates; we could prevent incarceration and family disruption for many more women. The criminal justice continuum is depicted here as a funnel – the greatest number of affected individuals under the top with an arrest, and the smallest number actually proceed to incarceration.



You are a sophisticated audience, she says here and many do not understand the various outcomes of the criminal justice system, nevertheless. People hear offender and often assume lock up. Point number one is “do not equate those two things.”

Now, because the criminal justice system is predominantly male, women are generally lumped into services designed for and by men. This is particularly problematic with institutional settings. Within the community, women in the criminal justice system often find themselves receiving treatment with other low-income women. But as some of the data that are discussed later in the presentation illustrate, these women are different from low-income women. Similarly they are different from other women who are receiving treatment in the community, even though their mental health needs are much higher than women in the general community. Why is this important? Understanding who the women are and what their service needs are is the first step in designing appropriate interventions. As stated before, these are women, not men.

Looking at prevention, we are certainly not talking about primary prevention here because obviously they have been arrested already. But prevention is again a continuum. You can prevent moving to subsequent stages. We know that many of the women we encounter in the criminal justice system have encountered great hardships as well as mental health and substance use disorders. Meeting the needs in the community may prevent subsequent sanctions that could separate families or expose someone to institutional violence such as rape within prisons.

Case example number one looks at outcomes following the sentencing of drug-convicted women and then compares them with women in the same community who were on welfare. The study was conceived as a way to determine the needs of women who had drug offenses and therefore may be eliminated from receiving benefits under the TANF welfare reform legislation that specifically allowed states to determine that those convicted of a felony drug offense would not be eligible for welfare benefits. That is a very important piece of information in terms of designing future services.

Another concern is the prevention of probation failure. This generally leads to negative sanctions. Quite often these sanctions result in incarceration. Therefore, preventing probation failure means preventing possible separations from community, family, and employment. Obviously, these are protective factors so we want to maintain those as much as we can. In addition, maintaining someone at the lower level of supervision means less cost. We know the cost of prison is somewhere between \$25,000 to \$30,000 a year; whereas women in Michigan on probation incur costs of about \$600 a year. So it is really important to design services that prevent incarceration.

Because there is very little data on probation and women, this study was interested in following a group of women through the probation period. The goal is to determine if there are differences between those who were successful and those who were not, and to determine if there were points of intervention that could prevent failures. The sample of women chosen for follow up was women convicted within the same county of a felony drug offense. The analysis focuses on the group of 177 women who had similar offenses and sentences to decrease the variability within the sample.

One of our first findings has to do with sentencing disposition. Again, one of the significant differences between this presentation and the others you have heard is you have had a systematic review and some meta-analysis of lots of studies, and here we have a study that really only has 177 people in whom we were really primarily interested. But sometimes having a study that replicates the other studies can tease out more of the factors that help us to say, ah-ha; we need to go there. On the other hand, those of you who may not be in the research world need to know that with a sample of 177, you cannot generalize, but hopefully we can learn. And we do know that what we found in this study is statistically significant.

Of the drug-convicted women a little more than half were sentenced to treatment, and less than 10 percent were ordered to undergo routine drug testing. Only half were referred to substance abuse treatment and only a very few were asked to undergo drug testing.

Next you have what is successful and what is a failure in terms of sentencing outcomes. Success is defined by the absence of any negative sanctions and the timely release from probation. So if you didn't fall backwards and you got through probation, you were successful. That is the definition in this study. It doesn't mean you have got a job; it doesn't mean your partner isn't beating you; it doesn't mean you're still using; it just means you got through this definition. Failure is defined as someone who required an increase level of sanctions such as jail, prison, higher level of treatment, or increase in length of time on probation.

Another indicator of negative outcomes is the issuance of a bench warrant. Forty-five percent of the women in the sample had a bench warrant issued. A bench warrant is when they have to go out and get you and bring you back because you haven't been complying with your probation officer and you can't be found. Why would this be important? It means that there is a really high level of "non-compliance."

You always have to say why is there non-compliance? A person may be dead. The person may be in a hospital. The person may be any number of places. I think what happens when one makes assumptions about these kinds of things, that it is the person's fault, yet there may be other extenuating circumstances. But the fact that 45 percent had to have a bench warrant is a fairly significant number.

Those who had a bench warrant were more likely to have subsequent criminal justice interaction; a new arrest or conviction. So if they didn't comply with probation, a program that is supposed to provide services, and they aren't following it, and a bench warrant has to go through, they are probably, quote "failing." Therefore, they need to go into a higher level of sanction and/or treatment.

Examining predictors of outcomes based on history and stipulations found that those with a prior incarceration or those ordered to substance abuse treatment were less likely to succeed, while those who were ordered to have drug testing and those who requested a personal protection order (PPO) were more likely to succeed. Although we assume that those who were in treatment would be more likely to succeed, it is unclear from this data if those who were ordered to treatment actually attended, or if those ordered to treatment may have had more severe substance abuse problems than the other half of the drug-involved women who were not ordered to treatment.

Looking at social and health factors as predictors of outcomes, the study defined a supportive partner is someone who helps you on a regular basis. Having a supportive partner is the best protective factor. Drug dependence produces failure. Rape history and PTSD, are all related to negatives. So, obviously we want to maintain relationships with a supportive partner, rather than have that person separated from that supportive partner and go into a facility where they wouldn't have contact with that person. In addition, treatment to address sexual assault history and mental health conditions related to trauma exposure may be important aspects of service delivery to prevent women from probation failure.

Now, when we think about these outcomes in relation to prevention – all of the women were in the community utilizing community-based services – none were incarcerated. How might women in this probation sample compare to other women who may be utilizing similar community services?

We now move into comparing women on probation with women on welfare in the same community. Who were these particular women that were in the criminal justice system, how alike are they to women who are on welfare but not in the criminal justice system? We conducted interviews with women at various stages in the criminal justice system using the same survey items as the two other studies in the welfare and the work population. They compared women in the community on probation to other groups using cross-sectional data. Women on probation, but living in the community, had the lowest rates of employment and welfare participation.

Women on probation, who are in the criminal justice system, but living in the community, had the lowest rates of employment and the lowest rates of welfare participation.

Let me say that again. Women on probation, who are in the criminal justice system, but living in the community, had the lowest rates of employment and the lowest rates of welfare participation. The question is how are these women supporting themselves? Probably through some illegal activity that got them into the criminal justice system in the first place. These women also have the highest rates of homelessness and food insufficiencies.

Thus, you have people who by and large exist outside of the safety net. They either were deemed ineligible for welfare benefits or had difficulty gaining employment due to their conviction status. They had probably worn out their welcome in a lot of these places, and they were scratching their way and ended up getting arrested for doing something.

Further comparisons using the sample of probationers and welfare recipients indicate that those in the criminal justice system have higher rates of depression, PTSD, and drug dependence, with not all that much difference in terms of alcohol dependence. Again, you see higher needs for services and if they do not get it, they probably go into the criminal justice system instead of some treatment system.

The second comparison is co-occurring substance abuse and PTSD among women. Substance abuse is known as a criminogenic need. Criminogenic means it makes crime happen or it leads to criminal activity, one that is common for both men and women involved in the criminal justice system. Treatment within the institution has been found to decrease relapse and recidivism, especially where there is a continuum of care in the community. This is an important piece of information. I think a lot of people think treatment doesn't happen in incarceration facilities, but it does. When it does happen there, it is effective, especially if there is a continuity of care and ongoing services once back in the community.

In assessing treatment outcomes and exploring the following questions, what is the prevalence of co-occurring PTSD among prisoners in substance-using treatment, and do substance abuse treatment outcomes differ from those with co-occurring PTSD?

What is significant here is the difference between the male and the female clientele of the criminal justice system in terms of drug abuse and drug use. The male population has way more poly-drug use than the female (89% to 40%). Women have more mental health treatment (35% to 18%). We know that women more often than not get tracked into mental health treatment systems and men get tracked more often into prison. Very often because women have traditionally tended to act out against themselves, they get put into mental health treatment systems; whereas men will act out against others, so they go to prison. So that's part of that differential.

With reference to daily drug use, most of the male population doesn't use every day, while a significant number of the women do (32% to 75%). Does that mean not knowing what the drug of choice is, but what's the need and/or accessibility for the female population? Are men holding jobs and bingeing on weekends, going out and partying, but women are doing whatever they're doing every day.

Finally, looking at outcomes in relation to prevention a most important point is that males are more likely to leave trauma as they exit prison. The study showed that more trauma happens to men when they are in prison, while more trauma happens to women when they are not in prison. So, when men leave prison, they are leaving the trauma behind and have therefore, one would presume, a better chance of working it out outside. Women are more likely to return to the trauma such as the domestic violence and other forms of abuse Candace talked about. That is a classic finding, in terms of how do you design service systems for the differential needs of men and women? You have to be aware of that.

In conclusion, opportunities and needs may differ based on where the individual is within the criminal justice continuum. Again, remember that prevention can happen at every stage. Inclusion and integration of the criminal justice system to a systems level may assist in wider prevention efforts. We have talked today about the criminal justice systems. There are factors that interact act with that system, such as substance abuse, domestic violence, employment opportunities, housing needs, that are part of larger systems in which the criminal justice system must operate. These all need integration to prevent further sanctions or people moving into the prison system. Gender is a proxy for differential exposure. Responsive treatment needs to incorporate unique characteristics of women in the criminal justice system within community treatment and service needs.

I think there is consistency between these results and the others. I thank you for you patience and indulgence as I worked through this, and I look forward to your questions. Thank you.

QUESTIONS & ANSWERS

Q: Thomas Feucht: National Institute of Justice. I wondered whether we have more data about these women who will be in and out of probation – in and out of the justice system.

KRUTTSCHNITT: I don't believe the Tjaden and Thoennes dataset included that. It's an incredible dataset for measuring the nature and extent of violence in a variety of contexts, but I don't believe they asked about women's involvement with the justice system beyond whether they called the police after being victimized.

Q: Sarah From: Institute on Women & Criminal Justice. My question is about the violence and women's study. I am wondering, in the results that you have, how the level of violence compares to what was previously understood about level of violence in women's lives. I'm particularly thinking about data on sexual assault.

KRUTTSCHNITT: That's a great question. The data I showed on sexual assault indicated a very low prevalence rate because they are broken down by type of relationship; the aggregate rate reported from the results of the survey was around 18 percent. The question on sexual assault in the Tjaden and Thoennes data was, "were you forced to have sex (oral, anal or vaginal) with someone?" When you see the larger estimates, for example those that have emerged from Mary Koss' research, usually you will find people asking a broader set of questions about sexual assault: for example, "were you touched in places where you didn't want to be touched?" This is why prevalence estimates of sexual assault vary anywhere from 10 percent to 50 percent.

SILVER: Join me in thanking the speakers, particularly Barbara Solt, who did a terrific job under difficult circumstances. And thank you all for coming and listening.

SPEAKER BIOGRAPHIES

MARGARET ZAHN, PH.D. DIRECTOR, CRIME, JUSTICE POLICY, AND BEHAVIOR PROGRAM, RTI

Margaret Zahn is the Principal Investigator and Project Director of the Girls Study Group. She is a criminologist with 30 years' experience in violence research. Dr. Zahn has served as Director of the Violence and Victimization Division of the National Institute of Justice and was Dean of Humanities and Social Sciences at North Carolina State University. She is a Fellow and has served as President of the American Society of Criminology. Dr. Zahn is a member of the peer-review panel for injury research at the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, as well as peer reviewer for multiple agencies and journals. She is also a member of the faculty of North Carolina State University in the Department of Sociology and Anthropology. During her academic career, she has led a number of research projects, including studies of intimate partner homicide and multicity studies of homicide. She has edited three books on violence and homicide and has published extensively in peer-reviewed social science and criminology journals. She received her B.A. in Social Administration, her M.A. in Sociology, and her Ph.D. in Sociology from Ohio State University.

CANDACE KRUTTSCHNITT, PH.D. PROFESSOR, DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY, UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

Candace Kruttschnitt is a Professor in the Department of Sociology at the University of Minnesota. She has published extensively on the subject of female offenders, including both reviews of research pertaining to gender differences in etiology and primary analysis of criminal court sanctions. She recently completed a book with Rosemary Gartner on women's imprisonment (*Marking Time in the Golden State: Women's Imprisonment in California*, Cambridge University Press, 2005). She also chaired the National Research Council's Workshop on Violence Against Women. She was Vice President of the American Society of Criminology, and a council member of the Crime, Law, and Deviance Section of the American Sociology Association. She received her B.A. degree from the University of California, Berkeley, her M.Phil., M.A., and Ph.D. degrees in sociology from Yale University.

SHERYL PIMLOTT KUBIAK, PH.D.
ASSISTANT PROFESSOR SCHOOL OF SOCIAL WORK,
WAYNE STATE UNIVERSITY

Dr. Kubiak joined the faculty of the School of Social Work at Wayne State University in September 2002 after completing her doctoral work at the University of Michigan in psychology and women's studies. She received her MSW in 1988 (also at UM) in policy practice and practiced in the Detroit community for 10 years before entering the Ph.D. program. Her research has focused on cumulative experiences of stress and trauma and their effect on mental health, treatment of co-occurring psychiatric and substance use disorders, and efficacy of substance abuse treatment. Much of her work has focused on those in the criminal justice system (especially women).

BARBARA SOLT
THE INSTITUTE FOR THE
ADVANCEMENT OF SOCIAL WORK RESEARCH

Barbara E. Solt, PhD, LICSW, ACSW, Senior Program Associate, began service as a consultant with IASWR in February 2000, during her doctoral coursework. In January 2001, she became the Senior Program Associate, with primary responsibility for the weekly Listserv Announcements and the semi-annual *IASWR Research...Reports...Resources*. Her work includes representing IASWR in behavioral and scientific coalitions and with federal agencies, through which information related to policy advocacy and research initiatives is gathered and transmitted to the field. She staffs the summer research methods workshops, and coordinates other IASWR-sponsored training events. In addition to her work with IASWR, she consults with community agencies, the federal government, and foundations.

ATTENDANCE LIST

| <u>NAME</u> | <u>OFFICE/AFFILIATION</u> |
|------------------------|---|
| Barbara Allen-Hagen | Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention |
| Jaqueline Ayers | Office of Representative Bobby Scott (D-VA) |
| Jennifer Batchelder | Federal Bureau of Prisons |
| Katrina Baum | Bureau of Justice Statistics |
| Lisa Brooks | The Urban Institute |
| Tammy Marie Brown | Baltimore City Criminal Justice Coordinating Council |
| Henry Brownstein | NORC at the University of Chicago |
| Maureen Buell | National Institute of Corrections |
| Dawn Daggett | Federal Bureau of Prisons |
| Ernest Eley | Maryland Public Safety Education and Training Center |
| Cristina Fahrenthold | Child Welfare League of America |
| Thom Feucht | National Institute of Justice |
| Jocelyn Fontaine | National Institute of Justice |
| Denise Forte | House Committee on Education and the Workforce |
| Sara From | Institute on Women and Criminal Justice |
| Ericka Harrell | Bureau of Justice Statistics |
| Lee Herring | American Sociological Association |
| Sally Hillsman | American Sociological Association |
| Jessica Holmes | Council on Social Work Education |
| Alyssa Holt | Children's Defense Fund |
| Jake Horowitz | National Institute of Justice |
| Julie Kernochan | National Juvenile Defender Center |
| **Candace Kruttschnitt | University of Minnesota |
| David Laird | Child Welfare League of America |
| La Tosha Lewis | Consortium of Social Science Associations |
| Cristina Mator | Criminal Justice Coordinating Council |
| Chelsea Maughan | Office of Senator Hillary Clinton (D-NY) |
| Angela Moore Parmely | Violence and Victimization Research Division, NIJ |
| Carrie Mulford | National Institute of Justice |
| Johanna Olexy | American Sociological Association |
| Nicole Otto | Medstar |
| Paul Pace | NASW News |
| Carol Petrie | National Academies |
| Brent Pettingill | Office of Representative Vic Snyder (D-AR) |
| Mary Poulin | Justice Research and Statistics Association |
| Kevin Pranis | Justice Strategies |
| Pamela Pressley | Consortium of Social Science Associations |
| Winifred Reed | National Institute of Justice |
| Stephanie Rogers | Federal Bureau of Prisons |
| Sean Rosenmerkel | Federal Bureau of Prisons |
| Robyn Rosenthal | George Mason University |

Julie Samuels
Joanna Serra
Tracey Shollengerger
*Howard Silver
Tracey Snell
**Barbara Solt
Rita Webb
Randy West
**Margaret Zahn

Department of Justice
Office of Representative Eliot Engel (D-NY)
The Urban Institute
The Consortium of Social Science Associations
Bureau of Justice Statistics
Institute for the Advancement of Social Work Research
National Association of Social Workers
Witness Justice
RTI International and North Carolina State University

** Moderator*

***Speakers*

FOR MORE INFORMATION

HOWARD SILVER

Email: silverhj@cossa.org

MARGARET ZAHN

Email: mzahn@rti.org

CANDACE KRUTTSCHNITT

Email: kruttsch@atlas.socsci.umn.edu

SHERYL PIMLOTT KUBIAK

Email: spk@wayne.edu

BARBARA SOLT

Email: BESIASWR@naswdc.org



L to R: Howard Silver, Margaret Zahn,
Candace Kruttschnitt, and Barbara Solt

COSSA

CONSORTIUM OF SOCIAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATIONS



TRANSCRIPT REQUEST FORM

With generous support from the **Ford and the W.K. Kellogg Foundations** COSSA has sponsored a series of Congressional briefings over the years. The briefings, which feature prominent social and behavioral scientists, are designed to bring the results of social, behavioral, and economic research to policymakers.

To obtain a free copy of any of the following transcripts, please complete the transcript request form and fax to COSSA at (202) 842-2788. You can also email your requests to coffa@coffa.org.

Women and Girls in the Criminal Justice System: Offenders and Victims
MAY 19, 2006

Risk and Crisis Communications: Building Trust and Explaining Complexities When Emergencies Arise
JUNE 7, 2004

Transforming the Middle East: The Future for Democracy and Economic Growth
JULY 18, 2005

Detecting Deception: Research to Secure the Homeland
MARCH 19, 2004

Protecting Privacy: How Much Are We Willing to Give Up?
JUNE 23, 2005

Rebuilding the World Community: Global Institutions and Interactions in an Era of Terrorism
SEPTEMBER 25, 2003

Growing Old in an Aging America: The Health and Retirement Study's Window Into the Future
JULY 14, 2004

Enhancing Educational Performance: Social, Motivational and Cultural Factors
JULY 17, 2003

*Obesity, What Can Be Done Now?
Examining Environment and Lifestyle*
MARCH 21, 2003

SEND THE FOLLOWING MARKED TRANSCRIPTS TO:

(PLEASE PRINT)

NAME: _____

EMAIL: _____

STREET ADDRESS: _____

CITY/STATE/ZIP: _____

THE CONSORTIUM OF SOCIAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATIONS (COSSA) IS AN ADVOCACY ORGANIZATION SUPPORTED BY MORE THAN 100 PROFESSIONAL ASSOCIATIONS, SCIENTIFIC SOCIETIES, UNIVERSITIES AND RESEARCH INSTITUTIONS. IT SERVES AS A BRIDGE BETWEEN THE ACADEMIC RESEARCH COMMUNITY AND THE WASHINGTON POLICYMAKING COMMUNITY.