Family-Based Treatments for Adolescent Substance Abuse:
Advances Yield New Developmental Challenges

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The Oxford Handbook of Adolescent Substance Abuse
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Abstract

Adolescent drug and alcohol abuse remain a serious health problem. Family-based treatments are recognized as among the most effective interventions for youth with drug and alcohol problems. This chapter presents the state of the science of the family-based adolescent substance abuse treatment field, summarizing the advances, methodological features, and outcomes of 36 randomized controlled trials, representing 18 distinct models of family-based therapies for youth substance abuse. We review developments and gaps in this specialty, including theory issues, treatment development, research, and services for referred youths. We discuss the unknowns of the field, including the topic of treatment mechanisms and moderators, and deliberate on the complicated topic of implementing evidence-based therapies in usual care settings.

Keywords: adolescent substance abuse, family-based treatment, adolescent treatment research
Family-Based Treatments for Adolescent Substance Abuse: How Scientific Advances Yield New Developmental Challenges

Adolescent drug and alcohol abuse continue to pose global public health challenges (Toubourou et al., 2007). Epidemiological studies, expert-authored reports from private and government agencies, media coverage, and accumulating research all reveal a consistent concern with the consequences and costs of substance misuse and related problems among adolescents (Armstrong & Costello, 2002; CASA, 2011; Costello, Foley, & Angold, 2006; Meier et al., 2012; O'Connor, 2013; WHO, 2009). Scientific advances in the youth substance abuse specialty are numerous, and summarized in basic science (Squeglia, Jacobus, & Tapert, 2009; Steinberg, Fletcher, & Darling, 1994) and the increasing number of intervention-focused reviews (Akram & Copello, 2013; Winters, Tanner-Smith, Bresani, & Myers, in press). Scholars in developmental psychology and developmental psychopathology have specified the continuing importance of developmental considerations (Brown, 2004; Brown et al., 2008; Windle & Zucker, 2010), positive and long-term relationships, and a youth’s family relationships in particular to short and longer-term developmental outcomes (Cranford, Zucker, Jester, Puttler, & Fitzgerald, 2010). Longitudinal studies about risk and protective factors that influence the development of drug and alcohol problems (Corte & Zucker, 2008; Cranford et al., 2010; Zucker, 2008; Zucker, Donovan, Masten, Mattson, & Moss, 2008) have created a clinically relevant knowledge base unavailable in youth treatment’s earliest days.

Family-based conceptual frameworks, theories of change, and intervention programs have been specified over the past four or so decades and influenced the major disciplines and sectors of clinical care (Akram & Copello, 2013). Ecological, contextual, developmental, and dynamic systems theories and research have all been represented in the family-based therapies for youth substance abuse, and the research base of these treatments has grown in size and quality over the years.

Amidst these accomplishments, vexing clinical puzzles and numerous scientific gaps remain. Most youth in need of treatment do not receive it (Kessler et al., 2003), the treatment retention (Grella, Hser, Joshi, & Douglas Anglin, 1999) and outcomes of usual care (Weisz, Jensen-Doss, & Hawley, 2006), remain inconsistent compared to those achieved by evidence-based treatments. Clinicians across sectors of care have inadequate opportunity to learn how to provide evidence based therapies, and those responsible for training new generations of clinicians seem to be lackadaisical about incorporating evidence based therapies into their training (Weissman, Brown, & Talati, 2011).

Family Based Treatments. The number of stand-alone family-based treatment models that specialize in adolescent substance abuse treatment has increased significantly since the specialty’s formative days (Catalano, Hawkins, Wells, & Miller, 1990; Stanton & Shadish, 1997). Initially, approaches were more standard classic family therapy models, aiming to change family interaction per se, as the most important, and in some cases the only therapeutic target. Gradually, as the influence of ecological theory and research grew, and in response to changes in family therapy thinking as well, the therapeutic models tended became more comprehensive. The more recent clinical models try to change family interaction but may also focus on extrafamilial sources of influence as change targets as well. But several approaches today retain behavioral roots, and feature contingency management methods as primary methods. Parents are included but extensive targeting of social ecological settings is generally avoided in the behavioral models.

This chapter presents a state of the science characterization of the family-based adolescent substance abuse treatment specialty. We review the scientific advances, methodological features, and outcomes of 36 randomized controlled trials, representing 18 distinct models of family-based therapies for youth substance abuse. We discuss a variety of developments and gaps in this specialty – gaps that touch on theory, clinical work, research, services for referred youths, and the complicated topic of implementing evidence-based therapies (Fixsen, Blase, Metz, & Naoom, in press) in usual care settings.

Signs of the times. More complex and rigorous methodological standards for reporting RCTs have come from diverse sources (e.g., Lindstrom, Rasmussen, Kowalski, Filges, & Klint Jorgensen, 2013). For instance, the Consolidated Standards of Reporting Trials (CONSORT) guidelines were
developed by researchers and editors of medical journals to serve as “an evidence-based minimum set of recommendations for reporting RCTs” (see http://www.consort-statement.org/home). They address issues such participant eligibility, randomization, sample size, and other similar methodological features. Their purpose was to enable readers to understand a trial’s design, conduct, analysis and interpretation, and to assess the validity of its results. CONSORT guidelines have resulted in more consistent reporting of core methodological details, yet their use frequently hinges on whether journals require authors to follow the standards (Hопewell, Ravaud, Baron, & Boutron, 2012; Turner, Shamseer, Altman, Schulz, & Moher, 2012). At the same time, Ladd, McCrady, Manuel, and Campbell (2010) found that authors had increased their reporting of CONSORT items in alcohol treatment research regardless of whether or not the journal required it. Tools to evaluate methodology (Miller & Wilbourne, 2002), an increase in meta-analyses (Baldwin, Christian, Berkeljon, Shadish, & Bean, 2012) and quality of evidence reviews (Becker & Curry, 2008; Hogue, Henderson, Robbins, & Ozechowski, 2014; Miller & Wilbourne, 2002; Sprenkle, 2012; Waldron & Turner, 2008) are other examples of attention to the methodological aspects of this specialty’s science. Overall, the major and most consistent improvements in the research base have been in reporting participant characteristics, obtaining more reliable measurements of key outcome variables, specifying and monitoring intervention delivery, and conducting more appropriate and sophisticated data analytic methods.

Defining the Evidence Base. Potential studies to discuss in this chapter were identified by searching Medline, PsychInfo, and the aggregated Social Sciences database on ISI Thompson's Web of Knowledge. We created a set of search items based on a variety of addictive behaviors as well as addictive products such as marijuana, cannabis, and alcohol. Another set of terms was formed to include different types of treatment, including family therapy. We then combined these two sets and limited the search to studies of treatment outcomes published in English that examined adolescents as a target age group and involved families in treatment. Our final set of articles consisted of papers that: (a) used a family-based model as either a standalone treatment or was combined with features of another type of treatment in an integrative model; (b) participants were between the ages of 11 and 18; (c) random assignment to a family/integrative treatment or an intervention intended to produce a decrease in substance use (in contrast to a no-treatment control condition or placebo treatment) occurred; (d) the study sample was drawn from a clinically referred population with adolescent substance abuse as a presenting problem; (e) substance use was a main outcome variable in the study; and (f) have a minimum of two time-points (usually pre-intervention and post-intervention).

For some studies, more than one outcome paper was published from the same sample. In such cases, we included the most recent publication. The final sample included 36 randomized controlled trials. The comparison treatments were categorized as “Active Treatment” or “non-Active Treatment”. To meet criteria for “Active Treatment”, treatments had to meet more stringent criteria than previous reviews to make it consistent with current standards. Active Treatment is defined as (1) using a treatment manual in the study, (2) stated supervision procedures where therapists received feedback on treatment delivery, and (3) an instrument was used to conduct fidelity checks on treatment delivery.

Of the 36 studies, 12 (33%) compared the family-based treatment to an active treatment, including CBT (group and individual), CBT with Motivational Enhancement Treatment, Chestnut’s Bloomington Outpatient Treatment, Family Process, Functional Family Therapy, Motivational Interviewing, Joint Family and Individual Therapy, Adolescent Group Therapy, Individual Cognitive Behavioral Therapy, Residential Treatment, and The 7 Challenges Program/Strengths-Oriented Family Therapy (compared to each other without specification of which is the experimental condition). The other 14 studies compared the family-based therapy to non-active comparisons. These comparison treatments were interventions described as group counseling / group therapy, individual psychotherapy / individual counseling, usual continuing care, treatment as usual / services as usual, community referral, traditional family therapy, individual cognitive problem-solving therapy, extended services, parent group, group care, and Training in Parenting Skills.

The 36 studies occurred in diverse settings, and used multiple designs - efficacy, effectiveness, and hybrid studies that blended elements of efficacy and effectiveness studies (Carroll & Rounsaville,
Five of the studies are considered effectiveness studies. They were conducted within community settings, with community-based therapists providing the experimental condition within agencies. These studies are strong in external validity and provide new information about the feasibility of delivering of evidence-based interventions in usual care settings. Twenty-one of the studies are considered efficacy studies. Clinicians hired specifically for the study usually provided these interventions. Generally speaking, these therapists receive high quality supervision, and have lower case loads than they might have in a standard clinic position. Furthermore, participants (youth and families) recruited for these studies frequently need to meet certain criteria (such as diagnosis or severity of symptoms). In hybrid studies (n=10), the intervention is delivered in a community setting, but typically had involvement from the developer and or affiliated researchers. Finally, six studies were independent replications, undertaken by a separate group of researchers, with no affiliation with the developers.

Finally, the 36 studies varied in the frequency and intervals of their research follow-up interviews. To be a part of this review, studies had to have a minimum of two time-points (usually pre-intervention and post-intervention). Seven of the 36 studies met this minimum requirement, with other studies exceeding it ($M = 4.34, SD = 1.06$). Most studies had between three (n = 7) and seven (n = 2) follow-ups, with most having four (n = 9) or five (n = 11). Those with the most follow-ups assessed families up to 24 (Slesnick, Erdem, Bartle-Haring, & Brigham, 2013) and 48 months (Dembo, Wothke, Livingston, & Schmeidler, 2002; Henggeler, Clingempeel, Brondino, & Pickrel, 2002; Liddle et al., 2012).

Table 1 provides definitions for the methodological attributes used to evaluate the research quality of the included studies\(^1\). Table 2 provides a description of every family therapy model included in this chapter. Table 3 gives details on the studies included and summarizes the study outcomes. It also includes a methodological “score” consisting of a percentage of the number of methodological attributes included in the study divided by the total number of methodological attributes.

This section summarizes the state of the science, focusing on attributes that are frequently reported, attributes that are infrequently reported (noting biases non-attendance to these issues may introduce), and attributes reported more frequently in recent vs. older studies.

**Frequently reported attributes.** Studies adequately described the background and clinical characteristics of treatment samples (89%), specified treatments using a treatment manual (89%), used a self-report or objectively rated measure of treatment fidelity (78%), and provided information on the background of the therapists providing the treatment (72%). Although all studies were randomized controlled trials, only 69% of them described the random sequence process in enough detail to guarantee that all participants had an equal chance of receiving the intervention. In 67% of studies, researchers are reporting the procedures they used to train therapists, and specify testable hypotheses. Researchers are also taking steps to get a strong measurement of their primary outcomes with 61% of studies including an objective measure of substance use (such as use of urinalysis) and 64% using collateral report to substantiate participants’ self-reports (usually parent report).

**Infrequently reported attributes.** Keeping investigators blind to the randomization sequence (31%) and keeping assessors blind to the treatment condition of participants (22%) are reported in less than one-third of studies. While entirely conceivable that these are simple omissions — i.e., researchers followed these procedures but did not document them in their manuscripts — particulars of this nature may be helpful to establish transparency of research conduct. Some research suggests that allocation concealment and blind outcome assessment can guard against effect size inflation (Brouwers et al., 2005; Jüni, Altman, & Egger, 2001; Moja et al., 2005). With that said, it is possible that some of the attributes most recently emphasized in the research methodology literature, including the dimension of allocation concealment and blind assessment of outcomes may not always be possible in certain types of clinical outcome research. In community-based studies, for example, it may be unethical or impossible – given the setting (e.g. juvenile justice) - to withhold information regarding treatment assignment from

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\(^1\) A table summarizing the presence or absence of these attributes, as well as the proportion of studies reporting these attributes may be obtained by visiting [www.oxfordhandbooks.com](http://www.oxfordhandbooks.com)
community collaborators, which would also make it impossible to keep the research staff blind to treatment assignment.

The least frequently occurring attributes are (a) providing explicit justification for sample sizes (17%) and (b) a lack of independent replications (17%). Some researchers may consider the former superfluous if their studies are adequately powered; however, under half of the studies met this criterion (44%). With respect to independent replication, Wampold (2013) discussed how researcher allegiances can influence outcome. As stated by Sprenkle (2012), “even though researchers are only very rarely intentionally deceptive, certain biases may creep into research about models favored by the investigators. Biases include using alternatives (control groups) to the experimental treatment that are less well organized, which have less invested therapists or have other characteristics which suggest they are less valued by the researchers” (p. 9).

Interestingly, the four attributes that seem to be reported more frequently in recent years—justifying sample size (17%), adequate statistical power (44%), intent-to-treat (ITT, 53%) analyses, and effect sizes (69%)—all concern statistical reporting. These developments might be seen as co-occurring alongside parallel requirements of publications such as the Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology (Odgaard & Fowler, 2010), more accessible methods for deriving effect sizes from more advanced analytic procedures (Feingold, 2009) and, in the case of ITT, advanced procedures for handling missing data, and their implementation in statistical software such as Mplus (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2013) and hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). Developments such as the CONSORT statement, and related procedures are changing the nature of publications and thus the available knowledge base in clinical science.

**Summarizing the Scientific Advances of Family Interventions**

Summarizing these data, there can be no doubt that the methodological quality of family-based RCTs for adolescent substance abuse has improved considerably over the years (Catalano et al., 1990; Deas & Thomas, 2001; Liddle & Dakof, 1995). Criticisms from these and other reviews (i.e., incomplete reporting of sample characteristics, inadequate comparison treatments, missing follow-up data, use of invalidated outcome measures or solely using participant self-reports) have by and large been addressed, as Table 3 shows. Further, in a recent methodological review of couple and family therapy, Sprenkle (2012) rated RCTs conducted in 10 substantive research domains to 12 dimensions of methodological quality focused on the maturation of couple and family therapy research over the past decade. On Sprenkle’s rating system, the strength of the research base for substance abuse research ranked just below conduct disorder with 11 of 12 dimensions of methodological strengths being represented. Notably, a number of RCTs have been conducted in community settings using samples representative of what is seen in clinical practice (e.g., comorbid conditions) and employing active comparison treatments. Family treatments have performed well against a variety of comparison treatments—evidence-based therapies (Barrett, Slesnick, Brody, Turner, & Peterson, 2001; Dembo et al., 2002; Hendriks, van der Schee, & Blanken, 2012; Liddle, Dakof, Turner, Henderson, & Greenbaum, 2008), treatment modalities frequently seen in clinical practice (e.g., adolescent group therapy, individual psychotherapy), and treatment as usual (TAU)/TAU-enhanced conditions. Although family treatments have outperformed some evidence-based comparisons, effect sizes are typically not as strong as when other comparisons are utilized. That said, a way in which the research base can be improved is in reporting more details to specify TAU comparison conditions. In some studies, it is difficult to determine the type and amount of services youth randomized to TAU conditions received, and this issue has not necessarily improved in recent studies. Godley’s work (M. D. Godley, Godley, Dennis, Funk, & Passetti, 2002; M. D. Godley, Godley, Dennis, Funk, & Passetti, 2007) in this regard is notable, as these researchers have described “usual continuing care” quite well, along with describing how much of the types of interventions included they received. Hogue, Henderson, Ozechowski, and Robbins (in press) update the Waldron and Turner (2008) summary of

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2 The specific domains were: conduct disorder, drug abuse, psychoeducation for major mental illness, couple distress, alcoholism, relationship education, depression, childhood and adolescent disorders (other), chronic illness, and interpersonal violence.
adolescent substance abuse treatment research and note that the majority of the methodologically strong studies conducted in the past five years are family-based treatment trials, and of six well-established treatments for adolescent substance abuse, three either consist of or incorporate family interventions: ecologically-based family therapies, behavioral family therapies, and contingency management + family integrative treatments.

**Comparative Effectiveness of Family Interventions**

As noted in recent reviews (Hogue & Liddle, 2009; Rowe, 2012) and summarized in Table 4, several manual guided versions of family therapy have established records of treatment efficacy for adolescent substance use (see also, NREPP, 2014). These models are defined in Table 2. Beyond substance use, family interventions have achieved favorable and durable effects on co-occurring externalizing and internalizing problems, and other key outcomes such as academic/school and peer relations. These studies usually include diverse samples with large proportions of racial/ethnic minority groups (López-Viets, Arons, Ellingstad, & Brown, 2003), and recently with international samples (Hendriks, van der Schee, & Blanken, 2011; Rigter et al., 2013; Sundell et al., 2008). These outcomes are noteworthy in light of some family-based prevention interventions’ failure to transfer due to cultural fit issues.

Two recent meta-analyses of outpatient treatment studies targeting adolescent substance use describe favorable results for family interventions. Baldwin et al. (2012) reviewed the impact of four family interventions—BSFT, FFT, MDFT, and MST—on substance use, delinquency, or both. Collectively, these models resulted in a significant, albeit modest, effect size when compared to treatment as usual (TAU) or an active, manualized comparison treatment; and a large effect size when compared to no-treatment control. There were no differences found between the treatment models, although the statistical power of the comparison was limited. In a larger meta-analysis including both family treatments and other interventions, Tanner-Smith, Jo Wilson, and Lipsey (2013) found that family treatments demonstrated superior outcomes in almost every group comparison in which they were tested, including tests against other manualized treatments. Other research-supported interventions including cognitive behavioral therapy, behavioral models, and motivational interviewing also demonstrated favorable outcomes, though not with the consistency of results of the family interventions.

Few studies involve head-to-head comparisons of research-supported interventions (n = 9), and the results of these studies are mixed, with some studies suggesting family-based treatments have outperformed research-supported interventions using other modalities (individual, group), and other studies indicating they have been similarly effective. MDFT is more effective than individual CBT in reducing symptoms of drug dependence and promoting abstinence and sustaining treatment effects (Liddle et al., 2008). Further, Barrett et al. (2001) showed that FFT and an intervention combining FFT with CBT resulted in superior substance use outcomes than individual- and group-delivered CBT alone. On the other hand, Slesnick et al. (2013) found no differences between Ecologically-Based Family Therapy, Motivational Interviewing, and the Community-Reinforcement Approach. Likewise, Azrin et al. (2001) found that behavioral family therapy and CBT showed similar effects in decreasing substance use and conduct problems. Independent replications of MDFT have suggested that its outcomes are similar to CBT interventions, including Motivational Enhancement Therapy/CBT and the Adolescent-Community Reinforcement Approach (A-CRA) (Dennis et al., 2004; Hendriks et al., 2011). However, in Hendriks et al. (2011), MDFT was more effective in reducing substance use in more severely impaired youth, consistent with previous MDFT research (Henderson, Dakof, Greenbaum, & Liddle, 2010). The mixed findings from studies involving direct comparisons of research-supported treatments suggest a further need for research indicating under which circumstances family-based treatments are preferred over other research-supported interventions.

Another question regarding the treatment research literature to date is how family interventions compare against treatments regularly used in clinical practice. Group treatment remains the predominant treatment modality for treating adolescent substance use in regular treatment settings (Kaminer, 2005). However, note that more recent analyses of the Dennis et al. (2004) study through 30-month follow-ups have shown that the initial effectiveness of MET/CBT was not sustained (Dennis, 2005). Although the
group-based MET/CBT approach achieved outcomes similar to family interventions (Dennis, 2005; Dennis et al., 2004; S. H. Godley et al., 2010), family treatments generally outperform group interventions (Barrett et al., 2001; Dakof et al., submitted; Liddle & Hogue, 2001; Liddle, Rowe, Dakof, Henderson, & Greenbaum, 2009). In the studies that used an active group treatment comparison, (Barrett et al., 2001; Dennis et al., 2004; S. H. Godley et al., 2010; Liddle & Hogue, 2001; Liddle et al., 2009; Stanger, Budney, Kamon, & Thostensen, 2009), family treatments outperformed group treatments in four out of six studies (Barrett et al., 2001; Liddle & Hogue, 2001; Liddle et al., 2009; Stanger et al., 2009). Likewise, results from the Tanner-Smith et al. (2013) meta-analysis indicated that non-CBT group/mixed treatments and TAU fared poorly in comparison to family treatments and were not demonstrably superior to no-treatment control. But studies in real world settings do not always break in favor of the family therapy models. In the largest family therapy effectiveness study to date, (Robbins et al., 2011), a high profile and well-funded study, part of NIDA’s Clinical Trials Network, Robbins and colleagues found no differences between BSFT and TAU in substance abuse outcomes. Based on those and other outcomes (e.g., Valdez, Cepeda, Parrish, Horowitz, & Kaplan, 2013), an independent scientific evaluation (The Campbell Collection) of BSFT concluded that the research base for BSFT is modest, the available studies have methodological problems, and definitive conclusions about effectiveness are “difficult, if not impossible” to make (Lindstrom et al., 2013, p. 53). We now turn our attention to some of the more notable knowledge gaps in the family treatment studies conducted to date.

Mechanisms of action. First, although it is clear that family treatments work, our understanding of how they work is limited. Research on MST (Huey, Henggeler, Brondino, & Pickrel, 2000) and MDFT (Henderson, Rowe, Dakof, Hawes, & Liddle, 2009; Schmidt, Liddle, & Dakof, 1996), as examples, indicate that changes in family functioning—specifically parenting practices and parental monitoring—are related to changes in substance use. More research is needed, however, as mechanisms of change for most research-supported family treatments have not been tested, leaving the theoretical tenets of this specialty supported primarily by conjecture. Recent work by Deković, Asscher, Manders, Prins, and van der Laan (2012), however, points in a direction that could be replicated with other treatment models. To our knowledge, Deković et al. (2012) are the first to examine mediators of intervention effects directly during treatment. These researchers found that MST led to improvements in parental sense of competence, which led to more effective discipline strategies, and, in turn, to decreased externalizing problems. The use of observational data has a long history in family therapy and intervention research, and more work of this nature would be welcome.

Moderators of Treatment Effects. Closely aligned with mechanisms of change research is the need to identify groups of participants who appear to differentially benefit from or conversely, not respond to family-based treatments. Almost all previous reviews have identified the need to study this further, yet much work remains to be done in this area. Recent work with MDFT (Henderson et al., 2010; Hendriks et al., 2011; Rigter et al., 2013) suggests that family-based treatments may be differentially effective for more severely impaired adolescents. Ryan, Stanger, Thostenson, Whitmore, and Budney (2013) report a similar finding with an integrative MET+CM+Parent Training intervention that was more effective for adolescents with Disruptive Behavior Disorders than an MET+Parent Psychoed comparison.

A moderator of treatment that warrants further exploration is the benefit (or not) of ethnic matching between families and therapists. There is evidence that ethnic matching may improve outcomes for minority youth. For example, youth receiving Multi-systemic Therapy from therapists of the same ethnicity as their own had a greater decrease in symptoms, stayed in treatment longer, and were more likely to be discharged for meeting their therapeutic goals (Halliday-Boykins, Schoenwald, & Letourneau, 2005). In a separate study, Flicker, Waldron, Turner, Brody, and Hops (2008) found that the benefit of ethnic matching held up for Hispanic teenagers receiving Functional Family Therapy, when they were matched with Hispanic therapists. However, Anglo teenagers matched with Anglo therapists did not experience the same enhanced benefit. Chapman and Schoenwald (2011) examined ethnic matching and adherence in long term outcomes for 1,979 served by 429 therapists across 45 sites. They found that, if you take adherence into account, the only outcome that was independently related to ethnic matching, was the reduction of externalizing behaviors. Interestingly, adherence ratings were higher for therapists that
were ethnically matched to their clients, leading to slightly better outcomes for youth in internalizing and externalizing behaviors at 1 year post-treatment, and in youth criminal charges at 4 years post-treatment. Taking it a step further, when taking into account problem severity and adherence in the context of ethnic matching, the outcome varies depending on the youth’s ethnicity. For Caucasian and Hispanic youth receiving Multisystemic Therapy, levels of youth problem behaviors disrupted the therapeutic process, leading to decreased adherence, and, for Hispanic youth, decreased emotional bonding with the therapist. For African American youth, however, higher externalizing behaviors and drug use was associated with increased bonding between the youth and the therapist (Ryan, Cunningham, et al., 2013). Clearly, the issue of ethnic matching is a complex process, with ethnicity, therapist adherence, and severity of youth’s problems interacting to predict youth outcomes.

Independent Replications. There are few independent replications of RCTs testing evidence-based family treatments (Sprenkle 2012). Independent replications are needed to separate the potency of the treatments themselves from the well-functioning teams of investigators testing them. In addition to extending the generalizability of research-supported treatments to European samples, recent international studies are notable because they have been conducted by independent research teams, albeit training, certification, and supervision are provided by the treatment developers (Hendriks et al., 2011; Rigter et al., 2013; Sundell et al., 2008). The Rigter et al. (2013) study used individual therapy conducted by experienced therapists under well-defined, ongoing training and supervision (Rowe et al., 2013). An interesting paradox exists with respect to independent replications; although they are necessary to move the science forward, they may not be seen as innovative by review committees, leading to a situation in which such studies are not funded with the resources necessary to conduct the evaluations. Because international studies test treatments supported by research conducted in the United States with new populations, research conducted by independent international research teams offers the opportunity to combine tests of treatments’ generalizability while also mitigating the potential of investigator allegiance bias. Therefore, such collaborations may be perceived as having more potential significance and innovation than independent replications conducted in the United States. Along this line, studies conducted in non-European nations are needed in this specialty.

Research Synthesis across Studies and Outcomes. More work also remains on research synthesis. This issue has implications for outcome studies using multiple measures of the same construct as well as synthesizing research findings across multiple trials. While meta-analysis was once hailed as an analytic technique that would support the creation of a cumulative knowledge within the social sciences (Hunter & Schmidt, 1994), it rests on some clear limitations. Meta-analysis relies on the synthesis of summary statistics and is most useful when the original data are not available. However, given the numerous trials that have been conducted with family-based treatments, and greater expectations for data sharing and more effective options for data storage and retrieval, it is now possible to enjoy the advantages of synthesizing data provided by individual adolescents in a methodology Curran and Hussong (2009) have termed Integrative Data Analysis (IDA). IDA is the “the statistical analysis of a single data set that consists of two or more separate samples that have been pooled into one” (p. 82). Kan et al. (2012) have demonstrated that IDA, as compared to meta-analysis, resulted in more powerful intervention effects while avoiding the ecological fallacy inherent in traditional meta-analysis; that is, attributing relations observed in groups to the individuals comprising those groups (Cooper & Patall, 2009). Further, IDA using modern latent variable modeling methods has potential for combining multiple outcomes both within a given study as well as across studies that may not even use the same measures (Bauer & Hussong, 2009). Greenbaum et al. (Under Review) have applied IDA methods to MDFT trials and found that male, African American, and White, Non-Hispanic adolescents decrease their substance use (defined as a latent variable comprised of urinalysis results, TLFB, and self-report measures) more when receiving MDFT than active comparison treatments. Previous moderator analyses conducted in individual MDFT trials have been underpowered to discover these effects, and these results are among the first directly demonstrating ethnicity/gender subgroup differences with family-based treatments. Because several of the family treatments we have reviewed have been tested in multiple RCTs, it is quite feasible for the methods used by Greenbaum and colleagues to be extended to other family-based treatments examining
other potential moderators which may be underpowered in individual studies.

**Innovations and Future Directions in Family Intervention Research**

The number of RCTs testing family treatments for adolescent drug abuse has rapidly expanded since the earliest trials published in the 1980s. Using the metric of the number of studies included in the current review in comparison to the first meta-analysis on the topic (Stanton & Shadish, 1997) reveals a 414% increase, from 7 to 36 studies. This growth in research is resulting in more effective treatments. While family-based treatments have historically been, and currently are, among the most effective treatments available, treatments originating from other research strains have integrated well-specified family intervention modules into their treatments and have met the field’s standard for being either “well-established” (Dennis et al., 2004; Esposito-Smythers, Spirito, Kahler, Hunt, & Monti, 2011) or “probably efficacious” (Henggeler, McCart, Cunningham, & Chapman, 2012; Stanger et al., 2009) treatments. Such cross-fertilization works both ways, in that contingency management was successfully integrated with MST (Henggeler, Halliday-Boykins, et al., 2006; Henggeler et al., 2012).

These developments have led us to take a more comprehensive view of family interventions in this chapter. Family treatments continue to produce notable innovations. For instance, Robbins et al. (2011) have added another level of control for allegiance effects by randomly assigning therapists to treatment conditions, and greatly enhancing the external validity of the study by conducting it in 8 community substance abuse treatment agencies. But this study yielded poor outcomes for the BSFT model compared to some other BSFT studies, and this occurrence is consistent with Henggeler, Melton, Brondino, Scherer, and Hanley (1997) who found decreased effect sizes with therapists delivering MST in community settings, relative to the more carefully controlled settings of previous trials. Achieving strong effects in naturalistic settings remains a formidable challenge for family treatment researchers.

RCTs in recent years have also extended the boundaries of intervention impact by situating them in unique settings (e.g., drug courts; Dakof et al., submitted; Henggeler, Halliday-Boykins, et al., 2006) and bridging contexts such as detention and community treatment settings (Liddle, Dakof, Henderson, & Rowe, 2011). Other research has adapted treatments developed to address delinquency and substance abuse to other adolescent clinical problems such as Type I diabetes (Ellis et al., 2007), juvenile sex offending (Borduin, Schaeffer, & Heiblum, 2009), and HIV prevention (Marvel, Rowe, Colon-Perez, Diclemente, & Liddle, 2009; Prado et al., 2007).

A second example of innovative work that we hope spurs similar studies is Glisson et al. (2010) who integrated MST in the context of a broad-based implementation trial examining the impact of an organizational intervention (Availability, Responsiveness, Continuity, ARC) designed to integrate MST into community-based mental health centers. These researchers used two levels of randomization: (1) counties receiving ARC or not, and (2) delinquent youth receiving MST or usual services, and found that the MST+ARC intervention produced the best outcomes.

**Integrating Family Interventions in Routine Clinical Practice**

Despite the continual growth of the field of family interventions and their notable achievements, a remaining issue facing family interventions, as well as other evidence-based approaches, is their lack of wide-scale use by community agencies. The predominant model for integrating evidence-based treatments into clinical practice is the training and certification model in which expert trainers train teams or an entire clinical staff in an evidence-based treatment and provide ongoing monitoring, feedback, and coaching (Miller, Yahne, Moyers, Martinez, & Pirritano, 2004). The drawbacks to this model are clinician turnover (Garner, Hunter, Modisette, Ilhes, & Godley, 2012; Knudsen, Ducharme, & Roman, 2008) and economic barriers, as achieving a critical mass of expert clinicians in an agency requires considerable resources devoted to training. It seems that additional models for achieving high-quality family treatment in routine clinical practice are necessary. An alternate model that has not yet been fully examined is training clinicians in key family interventions responsible for good outcomes that span across evidence-based approaches. Indeed Stanger et al. (2009) demonstrated the feasibility of this model with respect to contingency management combined with parent training and in their integration of CM and MST. Henggeler et al. (2012) confine the MST interventions to engaging families in treatment. Further, as mentioned above, well-designed implementation studies (Glisson et al., 2010) hold promise in
integrating organizational and therapeutic change and thus may promote sustainability of research-supported interventions in routine clinical practice by effectively addressing organizational barriers to their existence. Therefore, it is likely that as the field of family treatment for adolescent substance abuse continues to mature, we will continue to see an expansion of such research, along with other innovations designed to impact routine clinical practice. It is our hope that future reviews will be able to highlight research expanding the reach of effective family interventions in clinical practice settings.

Conclusions.

Kazdin’s (1993) recommendations to devise and evaluate broadband and comprehensive interventions have been followed, as have the NIDA behavioral therapies development framework (Kazdin, 1993; Onken, Blaine, & Boren, 1993; Rounsaville, Carroll, & Onken, 2001). But articles have criticized the nature of the substance abuse treatment development research strategy (Morgenstern & McKay, 2007) and the limitations of what’s been called an FDA model in treatment research (Stiles, 1994; Stiles & Shapiro, 1989; Yeaton & Sechrest, 1981). The comprehensive treatments recommended by Kazdin and others’ have been referred to as “kitchen sink” approaches (Rohrbaugh, Shoham, & Racioppo, 2002). A variegated pushback is discernible against evidence-based family therapies (“acronym therapies” per Dattilio, Piercy, & Davis, 2014; Michenbaum, 2014) about their “business models” (i.e., dissemination practices) (Hogue et al., in press) and commercialization (Rowe, 2012). Others critique the field’s affection for brand names (Dattilio et al., 2014; Eisler, 2007) and “our sacred models” (vs. therapy principles, common factors) (Sprenkle & Blow, 2004). An alternative to whole evidence-based therapy models, the modular approach of Chorpita, Weisz, Daleiden and colleagues, has empirical support for some child and adolescent disorders (Chorpita et al., 2013) including anxiety and depression, but not for substance abuse disorders as far as we know.

Controversies have erupted about the correct conclusions to be drawn from family-based treatment research. The expansion and influence of independent scientific entities and the judgments contained in their reports have, on occasion, collided with the growth of dissemination organizations that conduct training in particular evidence-based therapies. For example, numerous other reviews have concluded otherwise, The Cochrane Collaboration (Littell, Popa, & Forsythe, 2005) concluded that MST is not consistently more effective than other alternatives for youth with social, emotional, or behavioral problems. The review challenged the “often-repeated conclusion that the effectiveness of MST is well established.” And Littell et al (2005) assert that the “decision to adopt MST” in real world settings must be made for reasons other than proven effects of MST compared to other services. The response of MST developer Henggeler and colleagues (Henggeler, Schoenwald, Borduin, & Swenson, 2006) was fierce and instructive in several ways. Other papers also notable for their candidness kept the discussion alive and broadened it as well (Gambrill & Littell, 2010; Henggeler, 2004; Littell, 2005, 2006).

In another report addressing evidence based practice dissemination The Campbell Collaboration report on BSFT, Lindstrom et al., 2013 conclude that “The current landscape of family therapy approaches for treatment of youth drug use shows that many initiatives have been tried. A certain inconsistency seems to be developing: while existing BSFT programs have not yet been evaluated properly, new BSFT interventions continue to surface. This is not only costly, it is also risky, as initiatives backed only by unclear research could ultimately be damaging” (Lindstrom et al., 2013, p. 53). On the basis of these reports alone, the conflict level within the referenced landscape has increased considerably. Whether or not the events and publications we refer to here will influence dissemination practices remains to be seen. As noted, there are now many national and international evidence based practice registries that are evaluating and creating lists of evidence based models. One bottom line is that future reviews will have additional content to cover in addition to the methodological strengths and weaknesses of available studies.
Table 1. Definitions of Methodological Attributes, adapted from Becker & Curry (2008)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attribute</th>
<th>Criteria</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Specific Hypotheses</td>
<td>Specific hypotheses are explicitly established.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Sample Description</td>
<td>Description of participants’ baseline demographics and clinical characteristics is given in sufficient detail that a determination regarding the generalization of the findings can be made, or the study could be replicated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Adequate Sample Size</td>
<td>Process for determining sample size is discussed, and the study is sufficiently powered to detect differences between treatment groups.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Active Comparison</td>
<td>Experimental condition is compared to at least one active evidence-based treatment or a comparison treatment with sufficient bases for determining it was active (e.g.: standardized treatment, clear supervision, and fidelity checks).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Random Sequence</td>
<td>Process for generating a random sequence is described with sufficient detail to confirm that each participant had an unpredictable, independent chance of receiving each intervention.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Allocation Concealed</td>
<td>Process of assigning participants to groups described with sufficient detail to confirm that investigators recruiting and conducting the initial assessment could not discern the participant’s treatment group.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Manual</td>
<td>At least one treatment condition was guided by a manual.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Treatment Ratings</td>
<td>Treatment adherence monitored with scales, checklists, or rating forms completed by therapist, supervisor, independent observer, and/or patient.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Collateral Report</td>
<td>At least one outcome is a collateral report (e.g., parent, caregiver, teacher).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Objective Measure</td>
<td>At least one outcome is an objective measure (e.g., urine, blood samples, paper records).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Intent-to-Treat</td>
<td>All subjects analyzed in groups to which they were assigned, even if they did not complete assessments or treatment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Blind Assessment</td>
<td>Follow-up assessments completed by treatment-blind evaluator.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Effect Sizes</td>
<td>Effect Sizes are reported.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Clinical Significance</td>
<td>Clinical Significance outcomes are reported.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Therapist Training</td>
<td>Description of therapist training procedures are provided.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Therapist Characteristics</td>
<td>Description of therapist characteristics is provided.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Independent Replication</td>
<td>Study is an independent replication not involving the treatment developer.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2.

Description of Treatment Models

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Treatment</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1. Adolescent-Community Reinforcement Approach (ACRA)</strong></td>
<td>ACRA is a 12-week behavioral intervention that seeks to increase positive prosocial activities in substance abusing adolescents. ACRA’s philosophy is to use the community to reward non-using behaviors and encourage prosocial behaviors. The program begins with rapport building and a functional analysis of substance abuse behaviors and social behaviors. Client self-assessments are used to develop and monitor treatment goals. Techniques used include prosocial priming and reinforcing. Skills taught include relapse prevention, problem-solving, and communication. Initially, caregivers and adolescents are seen separately and then join together. Optional modules include coping with relapse, anger management, and finding a job. Case management services are included in the ACC program (Goldey et al., 2001, 2002, 2007).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2. Assertive Continuing Care (ACC)</strong></td>
<td>Assertive Continuing Care (ACC) is a 12-14 week home-based continuing care program. It is often offered following residential treatment. ACC uses an operant reinforcement and skills training model to help adolescents and their families develop prosocial skills and access community services. ACC is a combination of ACRA and case management services (Godley et al., 2007, 2010).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2. Brief Strategic Family Therapy (BSFT)</strong></td>
<td>BSFT is a 12 week manual based intervention that integrates strategic and structural family therapy theory techniques. The goal is to reduce problematic adolescent behavior by improving relationships with the family and other important systems such as school and peers. BSFT is problem-focused, directive, practical, and follows a prescribed format delivered in treatment phases that have specific goals. Initial sessions are focused on establishing therapeutic alliance, identifying family strengths and weaknesses, and developing a treatment plan. Sessions then address negative family interaction and implement restructuring strategies that will improve family relations. (Robbins et al., 2011).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3. Contingency Management</strong></td>
<td>The abstinence-based contingency management program (duration may vary) is an intervention that uses classic behavioral theory. Contingency Management offers teenagers financial incentives for documented abstinence and participation in treatment. Parent participation and compliance is also rewarded via participation in a draw to win gift cards. Behaviors that are reinforced include attending therapy, attending urine testing appointments, implementing the Substance Monitoring Contract, completing homework, and administering breathalyzers.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**4. Culturally Informed and Flexible Family-based Treatment for Adolescents (CIFTA)**

CIFTAA is a 14-week program that has its foundations in structural family therapy and integrates themes relevant to Hispanic families. It is delivered using a modular and flexible approach that includes about half of the sessions alone with the adolescent, and the other half with the parent alone or the family together. The family work integrates individual interventions such as motivational interviewing and skills training along with psychoeducation modules that include parenting, drug education, risky sexual behavior, acculturation stress (Santisteban et al., 2011; Santisteban & Mena, 2009).

**5. Ecologically-Based Family Therapy (EBFT)**

EBFT is a 15 session treatment used for runaway substance abusing youth. It is based on crisis intervention theory, which postulates that families are most open to change when they are faced with a crisis, and their normal modes of coping no longer work. Individual sessions with the adolescent focus on engagement, HIV prevention and outlining clinical tasks. With the family, the focus is on preparing the parents to come together with the adolescent to develop a new kind of relationship. Finally, family members are brought together to work on specific dysfunctional interactions using training in communication and problem-solving skills.

**6. Family Behavior Therapy (FBT)**

FBT is a 15 session, multi-component program based on classic behavior therapy, which addresses cognitive, verbal, social, and familial factors, in addition to variables that influence drug use and antisocial behaviors. Techniques used include therapist modeling, rehearsal for each procedure, self-recording, homework assignments, and therapist praise at signs of progress. The primary interventions used are behavioral contracting, stimulus control, urge control, and communication training. Secondary procedures include anger prevention, positive request procedure, relationship enhancement and problem-solving training (Azrin et al, 2001).

**7. Family Empowerment Intervention (FEI)**

FEI is a 10 week home-based intervention which provides families with personal in-home visits from project field consultants to work on the following goals: restore the family hierarchy; restructure boundaries between parents and children; encourage parents to take greater responsibility for family functioning; increase family structure through implementation of rules and consequences; enhance parenting skills; have parents set limits, expectations, and rules that increase the likelihood the target youth’s behavior will improve; improve communication skills among all family members; improve problem-solving skills, particularly in the target youth; and where needed, connect the family to other systems—“system-fit”—(e.g., school, church, community activities) (Dembo et al., 2002).

**8. Family Support Network (FSN)**

FSN is a 12-session treatment that uses cognitive-behavioral treatment to provide adolescents with substance-abuse treatment. In addition, six parent education group meetings are offered to improve parent knowledge.
and skills relevant to adolescent problems and family functioning. Four therapeutic home visits are also provided along with referral to self-help support groups and case management services (Dennis et al., 2004).

| 9. Family Systems Therapy (FST) | FST is a 12-week treatment that integrates structural and strategic family therapy. The goal is to use the family system to influence change in the individual adolescent (Joanning et al., 1992). |
| 10. Functional Family Therapy (FFT) | FFT is a 24-week, systems-oriented, behaviorally based model of structured family therapy. The goal is to change dysfunctional family patterns that contribute to adolescent substance abuse. The first phase focuses on engaging families and motivating them for change. The second phase focuses on effecting behavioral changes in the family. Behavioral interventions such as contingency management, communication, problem-solving, and behavioral contracting are used (Waldron et al., 2001). |
| 11. Integrated Family and Cognitive-Behavioral Therapy (IFCBT) | IFCBT is a 16-week intervention comprised of 16 individual family therapy, based on structural family therapy, sessions and 32 peer group cognitive-behavioral sessions. The primary goal of the problem-focused family therapy component is to promote youth abstinence by fostering adaptive family communication, age-appropriate familial roles, and effective parenting skills. The cognitive-behavioral component initially introduces youth to rational-emotive (Ellis, 1962) and problem-solving (D'Zurilla, 1986) behavior change principles, the goal of which is to promote rational beliefs that are associated with psychiatric well-being and drug abstinence (Latimer et al., 2003). |
| 12. Integrated Cognitive-Behavioral Therapy | I-CBT is 12 months intervention grounded in social cognitive learning theory and integrates CBT techniques to remediate maladaptive cognitions and behaviors found to underlie both adolescent suicidality and substance use disorders. Problems targeted include cognitive distortions as well as poor coping, communication, and parenting skills. In the acute (6 months) treatment phase, adolescents attended weekly sessions and parents attended weekly to biweekly sessions. In the continuation (3 months) treatment phase, adolescents attended biweekly sessions and parents attended biweekly to monthly sessions. In the maintenance treatment phase (3 months), adolescents attended monthly sessions and parents attended monthly sessions as needed. |
| 13. Multidimensional Family Therapy (MDFT) | MDFT is a 4-5 month treatment system. MDFT focuses on four interdependent treatment domains: the adolescent domain, the parent domain, the interactional domain, and the extrafamilial domain. The adolescent domain helps youths communicate effectively with parents and other adults; develop coping, emotion regulation and problem solving skills; improve social competence and school or work functioning; and establish alternatives to substance use and delinquency. The parent domain increases behavioral and emotional involvement with the adolescents; improves parenting skills, especially monitoring, clarifying adolescent expectations, limit setting and |
Family-Based Treatments

consequences; and addresses their individual psychosocial functioning. The interactional domain focuses upon decreasing family conflict, and improving emotional attachments, communication and problem-solving skills. The extrafamilial domain fosters family competency within all social systems in which the youth participates (e.g. school, juvenile justice, recreational) (Liddle et al., 2008).

14. Multidimensional Treatment Foster Care
MTFC is 6-9 months intensive intervention, based on social learning theory. MTFC is an alternative to group home treatment or State training facilities for youths who have been removed from their home due to conduct and delinquency problems, substance use, and/or involvement with the juvenile justice system. MTFC places youth with highly trained foster parents, while also preparing their family to provide effective parenting and support that will facilitate a positive reunification. Four key elements are targeted: Providing a consistent reinforcing environment where they are mentored and encouraged to develop academic and positive living skills; providing daily structure with clear expectations, limits and consequences; providing close supervision; and helping youth to avoid deviant peer associations while providing them with the support and assistance needed to establish prosocial peer relationships.

15. Multisystemic Therapy (MST)
MST is a 16-week treatment based on pragmatic, problem-focused treatments such as strategic family therapy, structural family therapy, behavioral parent training, and cognitive behavioral therapies. MST addresses the multiple determinants of youth and family problems by targeting factors at the individual, family, peer, school, and community levels. The MST therapist identifies the strengths and weaknesses of these systems to establish treatment goals in collaboration with the family. Families are encouraged to produce changes in the problem behaviors and in the adolescent’s social ecology – such as the peer network – to promote long-term therapeutic gains. Intervention modalities are based on (Henggeler et al., 1999).

16. Parent Skills Training (PST)
PST is an 8-session coping skills parent training program. The first session focuses on general parenting principles, stress and coping, general problem-solving skills, and the “do’s” and “don’ts” of parenting. The 2nd through 8th sessions focus on individualized problem-solving, modeling and rehearsal, and a specific skill trainings such as replacing negative thoughts with positive thoughts, psychoeducation about drugs and alcohol, communication skills, using positive and negative consequences, establishing and maintaining house rules, and issues related to adolescent’s treatment and post-treatment planning (McGillicuddy et al., 2001).

17. Purdue Brief Family Therapy Model
PBFT is a 12 session program that combines evidence-based components of structural, strategic, functional and behavioral family therapies. The goal is to establish rapport with the family and assist in modifying family dynamics so that adolescent will reduce substance abuse by: decreasing resistance, redefining drug use as a
family problem, reestablishing appropriate parental influence, interrupting dysfunctional family behavior, implementing change strategies, and providing assertion skills training for the adolescent (Lewis et al., 1990).

18. **Strengths-Oriented Family Therapy (SOFT)**

SOFT is a 15-session treatment that uses solution-focused language and techniques to enhance parent-adolescent communication skills. The first session focuses on a family-based assessment and motivational feedback. Then, the therapist works with individual families followed by multifamily groups. Finally case management is provided as needed. (Smith & Hall, 2007).
### Table 3.

**Study Details and Outcomes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Family-based Treatment details</th>
<th>Comparison Treatment details</th>
<th>Follow-up</th>
<th>Treatment Outcomes &amp; Effect Sizes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Assertive Continuing Care</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No group differences in number of sessions attended</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Godley et al., 2002</td>
<td>N=114, 76.3% male, ages 15-18, 16.6% African American</td>
<td>Usual continuing care (UCC): variable duration and locations +</td>
<td>Usual continuing care (UCC)</td>
<td>2 TOTAL: Baseline and post-tx (3 months)</td>
<td>Median days to marijuana use 90 days vs 31 days. - 64% decrease for ACC and - 18% UCC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efficacy Trial</td>
<td>American, 73.7% Caucasian, 57.1% alcohol dependence, 90.3% marijuana dependence, 77.2% prior substance use treatment, 52.6% prior mental health treatment 82% juvenile justice system</td>
<td>Assertive continuing care (ACC): 90 days, home-based</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Median days to marijuana use significantly longer for ACC (90 days vs. 31 days, <em>d</em> = .39)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Attribute score: 33%</td>
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<td></td>
<td>ACC more likely to be abstinent from marijuana (52% vs. 31%, <em>d</em> = .43)</td>
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<td>ACC more likely than UCC to receive continuing care services (92% vs. 59%, <em>d</em> = .86)</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ACC more continuing care sessions (M= 14.4 vs. M= 7.6, <em>d</em> = .48)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dennis et al., 2004</td>
<td>Trial 2 only: N=300, 81% male, ages 12-17, 49% White, 47% African American, 82% juvenile justice system, 76% weekly or daily substance use</td>
<td>Adolescent Community Reinforcement Approach (ACRA): 12-14 weeks, location not specified</td>
<td><em>ACTIVE</em> Motivational Enhancement Treatment/ Cognitive Behavior Therapy 5 session (MET/CBT5): 6-7 weeks, location not specified AND Multidimensional Family Therapy (MDFT): 12-41</td>
<td>5 TOTAL: Baseline, 3 months, 6 months, 9 months, 12 months follow-ups</td>
<td>Total days of abstinence not significantly different by site or treatment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hybrid Trial</td>
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<td>Percent in recovery not significantly different by condition across sites, but small trend (<em>Cohen’s f</em> = 0.16) for ACRA (34%) higher percent of participants in recovery than MET/CBT5 (23%) and MDFT (19%).</td>
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<td>Attribute score: 94%</td>
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<td>Drug use reduced similarly across treatment conditions. (<em>f</em> = 0.06).</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Trend for ACRA participants higher percent in recovery (34%) compared to MET/CBT5 (23%) and MDFT (19%) with moderate</td>
</tr>
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</table>
## Family-Based Treatments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Family-based Treatment details</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Godley et al., 2007</strong></td>
<td>N=183, 71% male, mean age 16.2, 73% Caucasian, 18% African American, 100% substance use dependence, 82% juvenile justice system</td>
<td>Assertive Continuing Care (incl ACRA): 12 weeks, home-based</td>
<td>Usual Continuing Care: duration not specified, outpatient clinic</td>
<td>4 TOTAL: Baseline, 3, 6, and 9 months follow-ups</td>
<td>▪ No significant between-group differences in overall alcohol and other drugs abstinence (19% to 28% UCC and 28% to 38% ACC), and alcohol abstinence (26% to 44% UCC and 31% to 50% ACC) ▪ ACC more effective linking clients to continuing care ($d = 1.07$) ▪ ACC clients received more days of continuing care ($d = 0.64$) ▪ ACC more likely to meet with parents (72% vs. 49%) and follow-up on referrals (89% vs. 68%) ▪ ACC resulted in significantly greater marijuana abstinence at 9 months ($d = 0.32$)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Hybrid Trial</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Attribute score:</strong> 56%</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Godley et al., 2010</strong></td>
<td>N=320, 76% male, mean age 15.9, 73% Caucasian, 13% African American, 75% cannabis abuse or dependence, 49% alcohol abuse or dependence, 35% both cannabis and alcohol disorders, 56% co-occurring psychological</td>
<td>CBOP with Assertive Continuing Care (ACC): duration &amp; location not specified; therapists: 12.5% bachelors, 87.5% masters. 87.5% Caucasian, 12.5%</td>
<td>ACTIVE: Chestnut’s Bloomington Outpatient Treatment (CBOP) without ACC – AND - MET/CBT 17 without ACC vs MET/CBT 17 with ACC: 12-14 weeks,</td>
<td>5 TOTAL: Baseline, 3, 6, 9, and 12 months follow-ups</td>
<td>▪ No statistical differences in urine test results or recovery status across conditions ▪ Percent of days abstinent from alcohol or other drugs increased from 74.4% to 81% across groups ▪ Percent of days abstinent from alcohol decreased from 95.2% to 94.1% across groups ▪ Percent of days abstinent higher for both CBOP conditions (10.6 and 10.9%) than</td>
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### Family-Based Treatments

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>problems, 73% involved in criminal justice</td>
<td>African American. 62.5% females</td>
<td>home based; therapists: 25% bachelors, 75% masters, 100% Caucasian, 75% females</td>
<td>Follow-up</td>
<td>MET/CBT7 conditions (5% and 6.1%), ( f = .08 ). ACC did not add incremental benefits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• CBOP with ACC received significantly more treatment than MET/CBT7 with ACC</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>• Most cost-effective intervention was MET/CBT7 without ACC.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Brief Strategic Family Therapy (BSFT)

**Szapocznik et al., 1986**  
N=35 families, 100% Hispanic, middle to lower class, 21% arrested.  
**Efficacy Trial**  
Attribute score: 11%  
Conjoint Family Therapy (CFT): duration and location not specified; 1 doctoral level, over 15 years’ experience  
One-person family therapy (OPFT); duration and location not specified  
3 TOTAL: Baseline, discharge, and 6 to 12 months follow-up  
- There was a main effect for time, with improved psychiatric symptoms, behavior problems, and observational ratings of family functioning.  
- OPFT was marginally more effective in improving psychiatric symptoms.

**Santisteban et al., 2003**  
N=126, 75% male, mean age 15.6, 100% Hispanic, 94% two or more behavior problems, 52% alcohol or drug use in past month  
**Efficacy Trial**  
Attribute score: 61%  
Brief strategic family therapy (BSFT): 4 to 20 weeks at clinic or research center; 1 child psychiatric trainee and 6 clinical psychologists  
Group Control (GC): 6 to 16 sessions, school-based; 2 child psychiatric trainee, one clinical psychologist, and 1 masters-level counselor  
2 TOTAL: Pre & Post.  
- No group differences on behavior, family, age, gender, nationality  
- BSFT resulted in greater behavioral improvements than GGT, \( \eta^2 = .10 \)  
- BSFT resulted in greater reductions in marijuana use than GGT \( \eta^2 = .09 \)  
- Substantially larger proportion of family therapy cases demonstrated clinically significant improvement in behavior problems (43% vs. 11%) and marijuana use (60% vs. 17%).  
- Family cohesion improved to a greater extent with BSF, \( \eta^2 = .08 \).  

**Robbins et al., 2008**  
N=190, 78% male, mean age: 15.57, 59%  
Structural Ecosystems Therapy  
**ACTIVE - Family process-only**  
5 TOTAL:  
- There was a main effect for ethnicity
### Family-Based Treatments

#### Study Details

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Efficacy Trial** | Hispanic, 41% African American, Mean days marijuana use in past month: 6.49; 86% co-occurring psychiatric disorder, 80% Juvenile Justice, 41% annual household income below $15,000 | (SET): 24 sessions, in multiple locations; therapists 2 females, 1 male. From Colombia, Cuba (Afro-Cuban), and African American. 0-7 years experience. 1 post-doctoral psychologist and 2 masters psychologists | (FAM): 12-16 sessions, location not specified AND Community Services Control (CS): duration and location not specified | Baseline, 3, 6, 12, and 18 months follow-ups | • More ecosystemic therapy sessions were provided in SET than in FAM $\eta^2 = .41$
• CS received more services at community agencies than FAM and SET $\eta^2 = .07$
• SET focused more on changing ecosystemic interactions than FAM therapists $\eta^2 = .05$
• FAM therapists focused more on changing within family interactions than SET $\eta^2 = .04$
• No main effects for treatment conditions in reducing drug use.
• SET reduced substance use more than CS and FAM among Hispanic adolescents only, $p = 0.32$.
• SET was more efficacious at producing a linear decline in drug use over 18 months follow-up than FAM and CS.
• **No effect sizes reported for treatment outcomes** |
| Robbins et al., 2011 | N = 480, 79% male, Mean age: 15.5, 44% Hispanic, 30%White, and 22.9% Black; 67% marijuana abuse, 25.9% marijuana dependence, 6.7% other drug abuse, 14.6% other drug dependence, 72% Juvenile Justice; 60% family income below 30K | Brief strategic family therapy (BSFT): 12-16 weeks, flexible location: home, clinic, school, work or other Both conditions: 49 therapists at community agencies, randomly assigned to treatment conditions. | Treatment as Usual: duration varied, community-based | 4 TOTAL: Baseline, 4, 8, 12 months follow-ups | • No overall differences between conditions were observed in the trajectories of self-reports of adolescent drug use.
• Median number of days of self-reported drug use was significantly higher in TAU than BSFT at 12 months following randomization ($Mdn = 3.5$ vs. 2 occasions of use).
• BSFT was significantly more effective than TAU in engaging (Risk Ratio = 0.43) and retaining adolescents (Risk Ratio = 0.71) and in improving parent reports of family functioning. |
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</table>
| Valdez et al., 2013   | N=200, 49% Male; Mean age: 15.25; 100% Hispanic (Mexican-American); 55% alcohol use (40% 5+ drinks), 76.5% marijuana use, 22% crack cocaine, 13.5% heroin, 10.5% barbiturates; 55% single parent household, 39.4% public housing; 80% family member in a gang | Brief strategic family therapy (BSFT): 16 weeks standard BSFT+ gang diversion training 3 sessions for youth, 1 session for parents + 1 HIV/STD prevention session; flexible location: home, clinic, school, work or other; 2 licensed trained therapists | Control: referral to substance abuse counseling, duration varied, community-based                    | 3 TOTAL: Baseline, treatment exit at 16 weeks, and 6 months follow-up | - At 6 months following randomization, BSFT more effective in reducing days of alcohol use \( d=0.50 \).  
- At 6 month follow-up, BFST parents report fewer conduct problems, \( d=0.57 \).  
- No treatment differences in marijuana use, other illicit drugs, gang identification, family functioning or other parent reports. |

**Contingency Management (CM)**

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</table>
| Stanger et al., 2009  | N=69; 82.5% Male; Mean age: 16; 91.5% Caucasian, 6% African American, 3% Hispanic; 45% marijuana dependence, 44.5% marijuana abuse, 21.5% alcohol abuse, 52% mental health services in past year; 31.5% Juvenile Justice; 7.0 mean SES (9-step scale) | Motivational Enhancement/Cognitive Behavioral Therapy + abstinence CM + family management: 14 weeks, clinic-based | ACTIVE MET/CBT + attendance CM + parent psychoeducation: 14 weeks, clinic-based                | 5 TOTAL: Baseline + tx exit, 3, 6, and 9 months follow-ups | - No group differences in attendance and provision of urine samples  
- Results of urine testing indicated that youth receiving MET/CBT+CM+Parent Training (EXP) had more weeks of continuous marijuana abstinence during treatment than youth receiving MET/CBT+Parent Psychoeducation (CON) \( (7.6 \ vs. \ 5.1, \ d=.48) \).  
- No treatment x time interaction significant abstinence post-tx  
- Both groups show decreased thc and alcohol use during tx, increase post-tx, and stabilization to lower than pre-tx levels  
- EXP youth more likely to achieve \( \geq 8 \) weeks of continuous abstinence \( (53\% \ vs. \ 30\%) \).
## Family-Based Treatments

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<tr>
<td>Henggeler et al., 2012</td>
<td>N = 104; 83% male; Mean age: 15.4; 57% White, 40% African American, 3% biracial; 80% cannabis abuse, 24% cannabis dependence, 38% alcohol abuse, 25% alcohol dependence, 16% abuse and 8% dependence of other drugs; 65% co-occurring psychiatric disorder; 70% single parent family; Median annual household income: 20K-30K; 47% of families on financial assistance</td>
<td>Juvenile Drug Court with Contingency Management and Family Engagement strategies (CM-FAM): 4 months, office-based</td>
<td>Juvenile Drug Court as Usual AND Usual Services (US) (4 months, office-based)</td>
<td>4 TOTAL: Baseline, 3, 6, 9 months follow-ups</td>
<td>▪ Both groups reported improved parenting (positive involvement, monitoring) ▪ Parents of EXP youth reported less negative discipline ($d = 0.25$), and youth reported less externalizing behavior than CON ($d = 0.30$)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Effectiveness Trial</strong></td>
<td><strong>Attribute score: 61%</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>Both conditions: community based therapists, 76% male, 61% white, 39% African American. Mean age 41.7. 29% bachelors, 69% masters, 2% doctorate. Average 11 years clinical experience, 44% certified addiction counselors</td>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Rapid decrease in marijuana use and delinquency throughout tx for both groups, significant differences between groups did not emerge until final assessment. ▪ At final assessment, the odds of a positive marijuana result per drug screen for US youths increased 94% ($\text{odds ratio} = 1.94$), and decreased for CM-FAM youths 18% ($\text{odds ratio} = 0.82$). ▪ At final assessment, general delinquency a increased 14% for US youths ($\text{event rate ratio} = 1.14$) and decreased 53% for CM-FAM youths ($\text{event rate ratio} = 0.47$). ▪ At final assessment, person offense decreased 34% for US youths ($\text{event rate ratio} = 0.66$) and decreased significantly more for CM-FAM youth: 85% ($\text{event rate ratio} = 0.15$). ▪ At final assessment, property offense increased 91% for US youths ($\text{event rate ratio} = 0.48$) and decreased for CM-FAM youth: 52% ($\text{event rate ratio} = 0.34$). ▪ Significant moderators not observed</td>
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<tr>
<td>Santisteban et al., 2011</td>
<td>N = 28; Ages 14-17 (gender and mean age not specified); 100%</td>
<td>The Culturally Informed and Flexible Family-based Treatment for Adolescents (TFT):</td>
<td>Traditional Family Therapy. Youth and families (TFT):</td>
<td>2 TOTAL: Baseline &amp; 8</td>
<td>▪ At baseline, TFT significantly more externalizing problems (added as covariate)</td>
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## Family-Based Treatments

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</table>
| **Efficacy Trial** | Hispanic; Referred by a local Juvenile Justice. (Clinical and SES information not provided) | Based Treatment for Adolescents (CIFFTA): 16 weeks, location not specified; therapists experienced in structural family therapy and adolescent drug abuse treatment | 16 weeks, location not specified; therapists experienced in structural family therapy and adolescent drug abuse treatment | months follow up | - No treatment differences in parent reports of adolescent behavior problems, but large time effect on child-reported externalizing behaviors over time for both groups ($\eta^2=.27$)
- CIFTA reduced substance use ($\eta^2=.33$) and improved parenting practices ($\eta^2=.29$, teen report and $\eta^2=.10$, parent report) more |

### Ecologically-Based Family Therapy

| Slesnick & Prestopnik, 2005 | N = 124; 41% male; Mean age = 14.8; 44% Hispanic, 37% Anglo, 7% African America, 4% Native American. IV drug use 10.6%. Use of baseline alcohol or drugs 50%. Mean lifetime runs = 3.1., 52% in school, 31% sexually abused, 55% physically abused, 37% attempted suicide | Ecologically Based Family Therapy (EBFT): 15 sessions, home-based; Master’s level licensed counselors with 2-5 years experienced and trained in substance abuse treatment using cognitive-behavioral and behavioral family systems approaches | Services as Usual (SAU): Mean # sessions: 4, office-based | 4 TOTAL: Baseline, 3, 6, 12 months follow-ups | - No treatment differences with intent-to-treat analyses.
- Among adolescents who completed 4 or more sessions, substance use was reduced for both groups ($\eta^2 = .10$)
- Significant time main effects for HIV knowledge, psychological functioning and family functioning
- Among youth who had experienced sexual abuse, EBFT decreased substance use more than SAU |

| Slesnick & Prestopnik, 2009 | N = 119; Mean age: 15.1; 45% Males; 44% Hispanic, 29% Anglo, 11% Native American, 5% African American; 45% alcohol and drug abuse. Runaway shelters with alcohol problems. Mean runs = | Ecologically Based Family Therapy (ACTIVE): mean 6.51 sessions, office-based) AND Services as Usual: duration not | Functional Family Therapy (ACTIVE): mean 6.51 sessions, office-based) AND Services as Usual: duration not | 4 TOTAL: Baseline, 3, 9 and 15 months follow-ups | - Significant time main effects for substance use measures, for number of psychiatric diagnoses, externalizing behaviors, delinquent behaviors, verbal aggression, family cohesion, family conflict.
- EBFT and FFT reduced substance use more than SAU (EBFT: $\eta^2=.20$; FFT: $\eta^2=.25$). |

<p>| <strong>Hybrid Trial</strong> |  |  |  |  |  |</p>
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<tr>
<td>Slesnick et al., 2013</td>
<td>N=179; 47.5% male; Mean age: 15.4; 65.9% African American, 26% Caucasian; 3.2 mean number of runs</td>
<td>Ecologically-Based Family Therapy: home-based, average 6.5 sessions. All conditions: therapists are 7 females, 1 male. 4 masters-level counselors, or social workers, 4 graduate students in couple and family therapy.</td>
<td>ACTIVE Motivational Intervention: home-based, average 1.6 sessions AND Community Reinforcement Approach: home-based, average 5.3 sessions</td>
<td>7 TOTAL: Baseline, 3, 6, 9, 12, 18, and 24 months follow-ups.</td>
<td>▪ All groups significantly decreased substance use over time, with increase at follow-up; no between treatment differences ▪ Teens in EBFT more likely to receive intervention than CRA and MI condition, ChiSquare(2) = 7.50, p &lt; .05 ▪ No between group differences in treatment attendance or attrition ▪ LTPA identified 3 classes (Decreasing, Fluctuating High, U Shaped). In the decreasing use class, MI produced more rapid changes but faster relapse than EBFT. ▪ <strong>No effect sizes reported</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Family Behavior Therapy (FBT)</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Azrin et al., 2001</td>
<td>N = 56; 82% male; Mean age: 15.4; 21% ethnic minority; 40% special education, 76% dual diagnosis of conduct disorder and substance dependence, 100% marijuana use history, most had also used alcohol or other “hard” drugs; 71% externally mandated to</td>
<td>Family Behavioral Therapy (FBT): 15 sessions, location not specified</td>
<td>Individual-Cognitive Problem-Solving Therapy: 15 sessions, location not specified</td>
<td>3 TOTAL: Baseline, treatment exit (approx. 3 months), 6 months follow-up.</td>
<td>▪ Significant time main effects indicate reductions in substance use and conduct problems in both treatments through 6-month follow-up. ▪ No between-treatment differences on any measures ▪ <strong>No effect sizes reported</strong></td>
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| **Family Empowerment Intervention (FEI)** | Dembo et al., 2002                  | N = 278; 56% male; Mean age: 14.5; 56% Anglo, 41% African American; 26% Hispanic; 44% special Ed, 50% repeated a grade. Prior mental health treatment (16%) or substance use treatment (4%); 100% Juvenile Justice | Family Empowerment Intervention (FEI) (10 weeks, home-based); field consultants not trained as therapists | 5 TOTAL: Baseline, 12 months, 24 months, 36, 48 months follow-ups | ▪ ITT analyses showed no differences between FEI and ESI on getting very high or drunk on alcohol.  
▪ Treatment completer analyses showed FEI reduced getting very high or drunk more than ESI [critical ratio: -1.56; .10>p>.05]  
▪ No effect sizes reported |
| **Family Support Network (FSN)**        | Dennis et al., 2004                  | (Trial 1) N = 300; 84% male, ages 12-17; 84% African American; 6% Hispanic; 84% juvenile justice system; 75% weekly or daily substance use; 83% started using drugs or alcohol before the age of 15, 27% past substance abuse treatment, 28% past mental health treatment; 57% from single parent families | Family Support Network (FSN) (12 group sessions + 6 parent education + 4 home visits, mixed location, including home-based) | 5 TOTAL: Baseline, 3 months, 6 months, 9 months, 12 months follow-ups | ▪ Total days of abstinence not significantly different by site or treatment.  
▪ % in recovery at the end of the study highest in MET/CBT5 (27%) followed by FSN (22%) and MET/CBT12 (17%), Cohen’s \( f=0.12 \)  
▪ Cost per day of abstinence significantly differed by condition with MET/CBT5=$4.91, MET/CBT12=$6.15, and FSN=$15.13, \( f=0.48 \). |
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<td><strong>Family Systems Therapy (FST)</strong></td>
<td>Joanning et al., 1992</td>
<td>N = 134; Mean age = 15.4; 68% White, 29% Mexican American, Black 2% (mothers ethnicity); Substance use and delinquency</td>
<td>Family systems therapy (FST): 12 weeks, clinic-base); 3 male advanced graduate students, 28-33 years, with prior experience in marriage and family therapy, 5 years’ experience.</td>
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<td>Location not specified</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Efficacy Trial</td>
<td>N = 135; 60.5% male, Mean age = 17.9, 89% White; Low SES; 33% arrested.</td>
<td>Parent group (PG): 24 weeks, location not specified; 4-17 years in family therapy</td>
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<td>2 TOTAL: Pretest, posttest (12 weeks)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Parent group (PG): 24 weeks, location not specified</td>
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<td>At post-test, 54% of FGT not using, 28% of FDE not using, 16% of GT not using</td>
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<td>Adolescent Group Therapy (AGT) (12 weeks, hospitals and mental health centers) AND Family Drug Education (FDE): biweekly for 6 sessions, location not specified). Clinic-based; male and 1 female advanced graduate students ages 26-43, with prior work experience, with the senior therapist (age 43) having 10 years prior experience</td>
<td></td>
<td>Adolescent drug use at post-test was significantly different between FST and AGT and between FST and FDE. No differences between AGT and FDE.</td>
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<td>More FST adolescents reported abstaining from drugs at post-test than AGT and FDE.</td>
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<td>Family functioning improved for all groups, no significant differences.</td>
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<td></td>
<td><strong>No effect sizes reported</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Functional Family Therapy (FFT)</strong></td>
<td>Friedman et al., 1989</td>
<td>N = 135; 60.5% male, Mean age = 17.9, 89% White; Low SES; 33% arrested.</td>
<td>Family therapy (FT): 24 weeks, location not specified; 4-17 years in family therapy</td>
<td>Parent group (PG): 24 weeks, location not specified</td>
<td>3 TOTAL: Baseline, Post-tx (approx. 6 months), and 9-</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Efficacy Trial</td>
<td></td>
<td>Parent group (PG): 24 weeks, location not specified</td>
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<td>Similar significant decreases over time in substance use in both treatment groups: 50% reduction on drug severity index score.</td>
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<td>Similar significant within-treatment improvements in youth psychiatric symptoms and family functioning.</td>
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<td>Both groups satisfied with treatment</td>
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### Family-Based Treatments

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<td><strong>Attribute score: 22%</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td>months follow-up.</td>
<td>▪ No effect sizes reported</td>
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<tr>
<td>Barrett et al., 2001</td>
<td>N = 114; 80% male; Mean age = 15.6 years; 49% Hispanic, 40% White; 29.7% anxious/depressed, 27.3% attention difficulties, 47.7% externalizing behaviors, 45.3% internalizing behaviors; 43% referred by juvenile justice; Mean annual income 38.5K</td>
<td>Functional Family Therapy: FFT; 8 to 12 weeks, clinic and office based</td>
<td>ACTIVE Joint family and individual therapy (Joint): 24 sessions AND Group Counseling (GC): 8 to 12 weeks AND Cognitive behavioral therapy (CBT): 8 to 12 weeks.</td>
<td>3 TOTAL: Baseline, 4, 7 months follow-up.</td>
<td>▪ Non-significant main effect for treatment condition ▪ Significant main effect for time ($\eta^2 = .101$), significant for FFT ($\eta^2 = .226$), for joint ($\eta^2 = .183$), and for group ($\eta^2 = .176$), but not for CBT ($\eta^2 = .001$) ▪ Significant interaction between time and condition $\eta^2 = .072$ ▪ From pre to 4 months, youth in FFT ($\eta^2 = .422$) and joint ($\eta^2 = .229$) significantly reduced marijuana use, but not CBT or group. ▪ From pre to 7 months, youth in joint maintained reduced marijuana use ($\eta^2 = .243$), but not FFT ($\eta^2 = .102$). Youth in group reduced from pre to 7 months ($\eta^2 = .216$), but not CBT ($\eta^2 = .001$)</td>
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<td><strong>Hybrid Trial</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Attribute score: 61%</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Latimer et al., 2003</td>
<td>N = 43; 76.7% male; Mean age = 16.07; 86% White, 7% Native American, 4.6% Hispanic; 97.7% Marijuana Use; 86% Alcohol Use; 85% diagnosed with Substance Use disorder</td>
<td>Integrated Family and Cognitive-Behavioral Therapy (IFCBT): 16, family therapy sessions and 32 cognitive-behavioral group session</td>
<td>Drugs Harm Psychoeducation curriculum (DHPE): 16 group sessions, location not specified</td>
<td>4 TOTAL: Baseline, 3, and 6 months follow-ups</td>
<td>▪ 50% of youth receiving IFCBT provided clean urine samples at and 6 months follow-ups ▪ FCBT attended more sessions – added as a control variable ▪ IFCBT reduced alcohol ($d=.56$) and drug use ($d=.79$) more than DHPE ▪ IFCBT improved rational problem solving ($d=.59$) and learning strategy skills ($d=.58$) more than DHPE.</td>
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| Esposito-Smythers et al., 2011 | N = 40; 33.3% male; mean age = 15; 89% White; 13.9% Hispanic. | Integrated outpatient cognitive–behavioral intervention for co-occurring AOD and suicidality (I-CBT); 3 PhD, 8 post-doc trainees, 1 masters-level clinician with prior training and experience using CBT | Enhanced treatment as usual; Community agency therapists | 5 TOTAL: Baseline, 3, 6, 12, and 18 months follow-ups. | ▪ I-CBT attended more sessions than E-TAU  
▪ No group differences on number of youth prescribed medication  
▪ I-CBT resulted in lower rates of substance use disorders than E-TAU (27% vs. 77%, Cohen’s $h=1.10$).  
▪ I-CBT associated with lower rates of mood disorder (7% vs. 31%, $h=0.65$) and disruptive behavior disorders (0% vs. 40%, $h=1.31$).  
▪ ICBT had fewer suicide attempts ($h=0.82$), inpatient hospital visits ($h=0.81$), and arrests ($h=0.94$). |
| **Efficacy Trial** | **Attribute score: 72%** | | | | |
| **Multidimensional Family Therapy (MDFT)** | | | | | |
| Liddle et al., 2001 | N = 182; 80% Male; mean age: 16; 51% white, non-Hispanic; 18% African American; 15% Hispanic; 6% Asian; 10% other; 61% juvenile justice involved | Multidimensional family therapy (MDFT): 16 weeks, home & office-based All conditions: experienced community clinicians trained to competence and supervised. 80% White, non-Hispanic. 50% female. 80% | ACTIVE Adolescent Group Therapy (AGT): (14 to 16 weeks, office-based AND Multifamily Educational Intervention (MEI): 16 weeks, office-based | 4 TOTAL: Baseline, Discharge (approx. 4 months), 6 months and 12 months follow-ups | ▪ Significant effect for time on drug use ($\eta^2 = .36$) and acting out behaviors ($\eta^2 = .12$), but not for family competence or GPA  
▪ Significant time x condition interaction for drug use ($\eta^2 = .12$) and family competence ($\eta^2 = .11$), not for acting out or GPA  
▪ MDFT decreased substance use more than AGT and MEI ($\eta^2 = 0.12$).  
▪ MDFT improved family competence more, ($\eta^2 = 0.11$).  
▪ 45% of MDFT youth reported clinically significant change at 12 month follow-up compared to 32% in AGT and 26% in MEI. |
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| Dennis et al., 2004          | Trial 2 only: N=300, 81% male, ages 12-17, 49% White, 47% | Multidimensional Family Therapy (MDFT): 12-41 weeks, location not specified                    | ACTIVE Motivational Enhancement Treatment/Cognitive Behavior Therapy 5 session (MET/CBT5): 6-7 weeks, location not specified | 5 TOTAL: Baseline, 3 months, 6 months, 9 months, 12 months follow-ups    | ▪ MDFT resulted in better school outcomes with 76% of youth MDFT reported GPAs of 2.0 or more vs.60% AGT and 40% MEI.  
▪ Total days of abstinence not significantly different by site or treatment.  
▪ Percent in recovery not significantly different by condition across sites, but small trend (Cohen's $f = 0.16$) for ACRA (34%) higher percent of participants in recovery than MET/CBT5 (23%) and MDFT (19%).  
▪ Drug use reduced similarly across treatment conditions. ($f=0.06$).  
▪ Trend for ACRA participants higher percent in recovery (34%) compared to MET/CBT5 (23%) and MDFT (19%) with moderate effects ($f = 0.16$), but no statistically significant differences.  
▪ Cost-effectiveness of treatments significantly differed ($f = 0.22$) with A-CRA being the most cost-effective for cost per day abstinent (ACRA=$6.62, MET/CBT5=$9.00, MDF=$10.38) |
<p>| Hybrid Trial Attribute score: 83% | African American, 82% juvenile justice system, 76% weekly or daily substance use | All conditions (both trials): 20% doctorates, 30% bachelors, 50% masters. Average 7 years of experience. First time using manual-guided therapy | AND Adolescent Community Reinforcement Approach (ACRA): (12-14 weeks, location not specified |                                                                        |                                                                                                    |
| Liddle et al., 2008          | $N = 224$; mean age, 15 (range: 12–17.5); 81% male; 72% African | MDFT (4-6 months office-based); 4 | ACTIVE Individual cognitive- | 4 TOTAL: Baseline, termination | ▪ Both treatments reduced substance use severity and 30 day frequency of cannabis use |</p>
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| **Efficacy Trial** | American, 18% white, non-Hispanic, 10% Hispanic; All drug users: 75% cannabis dependence, 13% cannabis abuse; 58% Single parent home, 13k family income | Masters, 2 Doctoral level therapists Both conditions: 12 therapists, 6 in each condition. 50% White non-Hispanic, 50% African American, ages 29-54 (M=40). | behavioral therapy (4-6 months, office-based); 3 masters, 3 doctoral therapists | on (approx. 4 months), 6 and 12 months post termination | ▪ MDFT resulted in greater reductions in substance use problem severity between intake and 6 months (d = 0.39) and intake to 12-months (d = 0.59) than CBT  
▪ No treatment effects for 30 day frequency of cannabis use  
▪ MDFT resulted in greater decreases in hard drug use (d = 0.32)  
▪ MDFT led to greater proportion of youth reporting abstinence from substance use at 12 month follow-up. |
| **Liddle et al., 2009** | N = 83; mean age: 13.73 (range: 11–15); 74% male; 42% Hispanic, 38% African American; 47% juvenile justice, 47% substance abuse; 16% substance dependence, 38% conduct disorder, 29% ADHD. 47% juvenile justice involved. 53% single parent homes, median family income: 19K, 47% juvenile justice involved | MDFT: 12 to 16 weeks, home-based, twice per week for 90 mins. Both conditions: Masters in counseling, social work, or family therapy. Mean 2 years experience. Ages 26-47 (mean=33). 71% female. 57% Hispanic, 29% Black, 14% White non-Hispanic. | Adolescent Group Therapy* (12 to 16 weeks, clinic-based, twice per week for 90 mins) | 5 TOTAL: Baseline, 6 weeks after Baseline, Discharge, 6-months, 12-months follow-ups | ▪ MDFT better treatment completion rates  
▪ Both groups showed reductions in substance use at 1 year (pseudo z = -4.29) and substance use related problems (pseudo z = -8.3.5)  
▪ Among those reporting at least some substance use, MDFT resulted in greater decreases in: substance use (d = 0.77); substance use problems (d = 0.74), and delinquency (d = 0.31)  
▪ MDFT less internalized distress (d = 0.54) and greater improvements in family, peer, and school domains (d = 0.27, 0.67, and 0.35). |
| **Effectiveness Trial** | N=450; 85% male; mean age: 16.3; Youth from European countries: Belgium, Germany, France, | Multidimensional Family Therapy (MDFT): 5-7 months, office and clinic based | Individual Psychotherapy (IP): 5-7 months, duration not specified | 5 TOTAL: Baseline, 3 month, 6 months, | ▪ At baseline 66% to 97% of MDFT youth and 69% to 97% of IP youth cannabis dependence |
## Study Details

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<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Family-based Treatment details</th>
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<th>Follow-up</th>
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| **Effectiveness Trial**   | Netherlands, Switzerland but 40% of foreign descent.                   | Both conditions: 41 therapists. 3-20 years experience, average 39.6 years old, 66% female, advanced degrees in psychology, psychiatry, counseling, or social work. |                                              | 9 months, and 12 months follow-ups | - At 12 months, 29% to 44% of MDFT youth and 38% to 71% of IP youth cannabis dependence  
| **Attribute score: 83%**  | 40% alcohol use disorder; 33% arrested in past 3 months. 84% dependent on cannabis. |                                                                                                  |                                              |                           | - MDFT youth retained in treatment more effectively than IP (Odds Ratio=9.8)  
|                           |                                                                        |                                                                                                  |                                              |                           | - MDFT resulted in greater decreases in proportion of youth with cannabis use disorders (d = 0.65) and cannabis dependence symptoms (d = 1.27) than IP.  
|                           |                                                                        |                                                                                                  |                                              |                           | - No treatment differences in frequency of cannabis use overall, but in a subgroup of adolescents reporting more use, MDFT had more decreased substance use (d = 0.60). No treatment differences in youth reporting less frequent use.  |
| Liddle et al., 2012       | *N* = 113; mean age, 15; 75% male; 68% Hispanic;                        | MDFT (home-Multidimensional Family Therapy (MDFT): 4 months, weekly, clinic and home-based       | Residential Treatment (RT) (6-9 months, inpatient) | 7 TOTAL: Baseline, 4, 12, 18, 24, 36, and 48 months | - EARLY OUTCOMES: Both treatment decreased substance use. No significant treatment differences in frequency or severity of substance use, or externalizing problems.  
|                           | 81% juvenile justice Involved; 100% cannabis use disorder,             |                                                                                                  |                                              |                           | - MDFT youth decreased internalizing more than RT (d=0.42).  
| Efficacy Trial            | 71% alcohol use disorder, 33% other substance use disorder; Mean family income: 19K |                                                                                                  |                                              |                           | - 18 MONTHS OUTCOMES: MDFT maintained treatment gains while RT increased substance use problem severity (d=0.51).  
| **Attribute score: 89%**  | Mean family income: 19K                                              |                                                                                                  |                                              |                           | - Among youth remaining in community, RT youth increased substance use and delinquency more than MDFT (Substance Use: d=1.18; Delinquency: d=0.42).  |
| Dakof et al., in press    | *N* = 112; 89% male; Mean age: 16; 59% Hispanic, 36% African         | Multidimensional family therapy (MDFT) (2-3 times)                                             | Adolescent group therapy (AGT). (office-based, 3 | 5 TOTAL: Baseline, 6 , 12, | - Both treatments significant improvement across all outcomes from baseline to 6 months  |
### Family-Based Treatments

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| Hybrid Trial           | American; Alcohol: 24%; cannabis abuse 61%; cannabis dependence 30%; Conduct disorder: 52%; Anxiety disorder: 41%; Lifetime arrests: 2.89. 51% single parent family homes. Median family income: 19.5K. | weekly for 4-6 months, home based) | Both conditions: Masters degrees in counseling, social work or related fields. Similar experience and educational backgrounds. | 18, & 24 months | ▪ From 6 months – 24 months: increase in substance use for both treatments (lower than baseline), with slightly less increase for MDFT: $d = .54$ (non-significant)  
▪ From 6 months – 24 months, both treatments reduced externalizing problems, with MDFT reporting more reductions than AGT on externalizing symptoms ($d = .39$), serious crimes ($d = .38$), and felony arrests ($d = .96$). |

#### Multidimensional Treatment Foster Care (MTFC)

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</table>
| Smith et al., 2010     | N=79; 100% male; Mean age: 14.9; 85% Caucasian, 6% African American, 3% Native American; Average 13.5 criminal referrals, more than 4 felonies; Average 76 days in detention in past year; 56% single parent homes, 70% have 1 parent convicted of a crime | Multidimensional Treatment Foster Care (MTFC): inpatient placement with a family, 6-9 months | Group Care (GC): outpatient, duration not specified | 3 TOTAL: Pre & Post (approx. 4 months) | ▪ At 12 month follow-up, MTFC reduced substance use more than GC (largest effect: $\beta = -0.26$ for drugs other than alcohol and marijuana).  
▪ At 18 month follow-up, MTFC also reduced substance use more than GC (largest effect: $\beta = -0.31$ for marijuana use). |

#### Multisystemic Therapy (MST)

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<tr>
<th>Study</th>
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</table>
| Henggeler et al., 1991 | MDP: Multisystemic therapy (MST) (16 weeks, home or community-based); 6 graduate students in clinical | MDP: Individual Counseling (IC) (duration and location not specified); 6 masters-level | 2 TOTAL: Pre & Post (approx. 4 months) | MDP: MST youths had fewer drug-related arrests than IC (4% vs 16%)  
▪ MST reduced alcohol and marijuana use more than UC  
▪ No effect sizes reported |
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Attribute score: 22%</strong></td>
<td>number of arrests: 4.2; 65% low SES</td>
<td>psychology, mean age: 26, 50% female.</td>
<td>therapists, mean age: 28, 50% female.</td>
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<td><strong>FANS</strong></td>
<td>N=47; 72% male; Mean age: 15.1; 74% African American, 26% White; 71% Low SES (Strata IV or V of Hollingshead); 33% of household heads unemployed</td>
<td>FANS: Multisystemic therapy (MST) (16 weeks, home or community-based); 3 community-based professionals, masters degrees in education, 2 females, 1.5 years experience</td>
<td>FANS: Usual Services (US) (duration and location not specified – court orders monitored by probation officer)</td>
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</table>
| **Henggeler et al., 2002** | N = 118; Mean Age: 15.7, 79% male; 50% African American, 47% White. 56% abuse, 44% dependence, 50% polysubstance abuse, 87% alcohol abuse, 67% marijuana abuse. Median annual income 15K-20K | Multisystemic therapy (MST): 4-6 months, home-based; masters-level therapists | Usual Community Services (UCS) (weekly – duration not specified, office-based). | 4 TOTAL: Baseline, post-tx (approx. 4 months), 6 months, and 4 year follow-ups | ▪ Results from urine testing indicated that MST increased abstinence from marijuana more than UCS at four-year follow-up (55% MDFT and 28% UCS). 
▪ No group differences in cocaine abstinence at 4 year follow-up (53% MDFT and 40% UCS) 
▪ MST reduced aggressive crimes more than UCS at 4 years. No treatment differences in property crimes 
▪ No treatment differences in psychiatric symptoms at 4 years 
▪ No significant moderators 
▪ **No effect sizes reported** |
<p>| <strong>Hybrid Trial</strong> | N = 161; Mean age: 15.2, 83% male. 67% African American, 31% White. 35% prior | Drug court with multisystemic therapy (DC/MST): | Family court with usual community services (FC); 12 | 3 TOTAL: Baseline, 4 months, | ▪ Simple linear time effects or all groups on marijuana use |</p>
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</table>
| Attribute score: 50% | mental health or substance abuse treatment. 52% live with single parent, family income 10-15k | 12 months drug court based Drug court with multisystemic therapy enhanced with contingency management (DC/MST/CM); 6 masters-level therapists with degrees in social work, psychology or education. Ages 25-50. 3 African American, 3 European American. All females. Average 5 years post-Masters experience. 2 of the 6 had previous MST experience. | months drug court based | 12 months | ▪ DC+MST+CM and DC+MST decreased substance use more than FC (effect sizes range from 0.38 to 2.48).  
▪ DC+MST+CM (\(d = 0.82\) to \(2.05\)), and DC+MST (\(d = 1.2\) to \(1.8\)) had fewer positive urine screens than DC alone.  
▪ DC+MST+CM and DC decreased status offenses and crimes against person more than FC. |
| Sundell et al., 2008 | N = 156; Mean age: 15, 61% male. 47% not of Swedish heritage. 67% arrested at least once. 67% single parent home, 61% living on social welfare. | Multisystemic Therapy (MST) Vs (home-based, mean length 212 days); 20 therapists with education equivalent to masters or bachelors level in social work, | Treatment as Usual (TAU) (office-based, mean length 212 days); variety of services, therapist info not provided | 2 TOTAL: Baseline, 7 months follow-ups | ▪ Youths in both treatments decreased their alcohol and drug use, but no treatment differences (30% decrease for MST, 36% for TAU).  
▪ Youths in both treatments decreased their delinquent behaviors, increased their social skills, improved school attendance, and decreased their psychiatric symptoms.  
▪ Parents reported similar between-treatment improvements in parenting skills |
<table>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Parent Skills Training (PST)</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>McGillicuddy et al., 2001</td>
<td>N = 22 families 71% male; Mean age = 16; 86% current alcohol problems, 79% current drug problems; 86% single parent households.</td>
<td>Parent Skills training (8 sessions, 2 hours per week)</td>
<td>Waitlist control</td>
<td>2 TOTAL: Baseline and post-tx (approx. 4 months)</td>
<td>PST more improvement in parent coping skills than control ($\eta^2 = .34$). PST more improvement in parent depression than control ($\eta^2 = .18$). PST more improvement in family functioning than control ($\eta^2 = .17$). Effect sizes of parent report teen's thc use favored PST ($\eta^2 = .08$).</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Purdue Brief Family Therapy (PBFT)</strong></td>
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<td>Lewis et al., 1990</td>
<td>N = 84; 81% Male; Mean age: 16; 96% White; 51.2% juvenile justice; 35.5% single families</td>
<td>Purdue brief family therapy (PBFT) (12 weeks, office-based)</td>
<td>Training in Parenting Skills – (TIPS) (12 weeks, office-based)</td>
<td>2 TOTAL: Baseline &amp; Post tx (approx. 3 months)</td>
<td>PBFT resulted in a greater proportion of youth reducing their drug use to a clinically reliable extent than TIPS (55% vs. 38%). 44% of “hard drug” users in PBFT moved to no drug use compared to 25% in TIPS. No effect sizes reported</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Strengths Oriented Family Therapy (SOFT)</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Smith et al., 2006</td>
<td>N = 98; 71% male; Mean age = 15.8; 24% minority; 39% single families; 71% juvenile</td>
<td>Strengths Oriented Family Therapy (SOFT) (15 sessions over 3 months, ACTIVE The Seven Challenges (7C) (15 sessions over 3 months)</td>
<td></td>
<td>5 TOTAL: Baseline, 3, 6, 9, 12</td>
<td>54% of PBFT and 37.5% of TIPS youth report improvement in drug use. 13.6% of PBFT and 27.5% of TIPS youth report drug use is the same</td>
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</table>
**Family-Based Treatments**

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<tr>
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</table>
| **Efficacy Trial** | justice system; 90% substance abuse, 47% substance dependence, 68% history of abuse. 80% 3 or more past year substance related problems. | office-based); 3 masters-level, 1 male, 2 females, 1 therapist 6 years experience, other 2 no adolescent substance abuse tx experience | months, office-based); 4 therapists. 2 masters-level, 2 bachelors-level. 1 male, 3 females. Average 2 years experience with substance abusing teens. | months follow-ups | - 31.8% of PBFT and 35% of TIPS youth report worsened drug use
- Both treatments increased abstinence from substance use, but no treatment differences (at 6 months SOFT: 31%, 7C: 39%).
- Both treatments resulted in high percentages of symptom free youth at 6 months but no treatment differences (SOFT: 60%, 7C: 61%).
- Both treatments reduced frequency of substance use at 6 months, but no treatment differences.
- Baseline to 6 months both treatments significantly decrease substance use frequency \(7C: \beta = -2.97, \text{SOFT: } \beta = -3.06\) and substance use problems \(7C: \beta = -1.16, \text{SOFT: } \beta = 1.44\) |

*Notes.* *Study Reference is most recent publication for that study. *Attribute score refers to percentage of methodological attributes (Table 1) fulfilled
Table 4.

Conclusions from Major Reviews/Meta-Analyses on the Effectiveness of Family-Based Therapies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Review</th>
<th>Conclusions</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Baldwin et al. (2012), JMFT</td>
<td>1. Family therapy—specifically BSFT, FFT, MDFT, and MST—appear to modestly exceed effects of TAU and alternative therapies.</td>
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<td>2. Literature is not yet sufficiently large to answer questions pertaining to whether one treatment is more effective than the others and on what outcomes the family therapies have the biggest effect.</td>
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<td>3. On average, families and their troubled adolescents get better when treated with one of the four approaches above than if treated using TAU or alternative therapy such as group therapy or psychoeducation.</td>
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<td>4. These findings provide reliable evidence for the value of family-based treatments over individual-only therapy approaches.</td>
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<td>5. The four models above have been tested and found to be effective across various levels of delinquency severity and in relation to a number of specific behavior problems (e.g., sexual offenses, serious drug use, bullying).</td>
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<td>6. All the models have been examined for application to populations of color and some international samples so they can be viewed as generalizable beyond the white, European American majority.</td>
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<td>7. There is not a clear answer to the question of how the models will perform when implemented outside the direct supervision of program developers.</td>
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<td>8. The most significant limitation (of these treatments) is that training in these models is not readily accessible for most practicing clinicians and interested trainees.</td>
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<td>• The models are not easily transportable to typical clinical settings.</td>
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<td>• Access to these and other ESTs is hampered by significant dissemination difficulties.</td>
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<td>• Training programs currently have little incentive to train students in these approaches because the majority of their graduating students will not be working for agencies that use these modalities.</td>
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Huey & Polo (2008)
1. EBTs exist for ethnic minority youth with diverse mental health problems. These treatments produced treatment effects of medium magnitude.
2. MDFT only probably efficacious treatment for substance use with ethnic minority populations. MST also possibly efficacious with substance abusing African American adolescents.

Stanton & Shadish (1997)
1. Studies that compared family-couples therapy with non-family modalities showed superior results for family therapy.
2. Comparisons of family therapy with other forms of family intervention give an edge to family therapy over family education.
3. As with the field of family-couples therapy as a whole, comparisons between different schools of family therapy are not conclusive.
4. Compared with other studies and approaches to psychotherapy with drug abusers, family therapy conditions have attained relatively high rates of engagement and retention in treatment.

Austin, Macgowan, & Wagner (2005)
1. MST, MDFT, FFT, and BSFT had adequate power.
2. Only MST, MDFT, and FFT included ethnically heterogeneous samples.
3. The primary target of intervention was substance use, but all studies assessed multiple areas of adolescent and family functioning.
4. The clinical significance of changes in substance use differed substantially across the studies. MDFT is the only intervention that demonstrated substance use changes that were clinically significant according to Kendall and Flannery-Schroeder’s (1998) criterion of 1.5 SD from the baseline DV value.
5. MDFT and BSFT met Chambless’ criteria for probably efficacious. However, only the MDFT study reported follow-up assessments.
6. Overall, MDFT emerges as the only family-based intervention with empirical support for changes in substance use behaviors that are both statistically significant and clinically significant immediately following treatment and at 1 year posttreatment.

Becker and Curry (2008)
1. 9 of 14 methodological attributes were reported in fewer than 50% of studies:
   - Techniques utilized to ensure random sequence
   - Techniques used to conceal allocation schedule
   - Sample sizes small and rarely justified
   - Studies rarely established a priori hypotheses or primary outcomes
   - Studies didn’t report blinding of outcome assessment
2. Models that had evidence of immediate treatment superiority in two or more methodologically stronger studies included ecological family therapy, brief motivational intervention, and CBT.
3. Family therapy models were the most frequently tested, yet ecological family therapy was the only family approach tested in two or more studies using methodologically stronger designs.
4. Higher levels of methodological quality were not necessarily associated with stronger evidence in support of an intervention.

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| Catalano, Hawkins, Wells, and Miller (1990) | 1. Some treatment is better than no treatment,  
2. Post-treatment relapse is high.  
3. No clear superiority of specific treatment techniques.  
4. Worse results were obtained for marijuana and alcohol use.  
5. More controlled studies of adolescent drug treatment are needed. |
| Waldron and Tuner (2008)          | 1. MDFT, FFT and CBT-Group produced significantly greater reductions in marijuana use than minimal treatment controls. CBT-Individual did not.  
2. Studies with higher proportions of Hispanic adolescents had smaller effect sizes. |
| Weinberg et al. (1998)            | 1. Little research done on natural course of substance use disorders.  
2. Epidemiology of adolescent substance use has increased in the early 1990s.  
3. Biological factors and family environment are being studied as etiological factors.  
4. More research is needed on psychiatric comorbidity.  
5. Family-based interventions have received the most study and have shown superior outcomes, while patient-centered approaches have received less research attention.  
6. Science-based prevention programs have been developed but have yet to be disseminated and implemented. |
| Williams and Chang (2000)         | 1. Because treatment appears preferable to no treatment, programs should strive to be readily accessible and able to provide treatment for large numbers of people.  
2. Programs should develop procedures to minimize treatment dropout and to maximize treatment completion.  
3. Programs should attempt to provide or arrange for posttreatment aftercare. |
4. Programs should attempt to provide comprehensive services in areas other than just substance abuse.
5. Family therapy should be a component of treatment.
6. Programs should encourage and develop parent and peer support, especially regarding nonuse of substances.
7. Adolescent conduct problems: Family therapy appears particularly effective

Deas & Thomas (2001)

1. Family systems-based treatments have been reported more extensively in the literature than other treatments, and for the most part, findings suggest that family-based therapies may be effective for the treatment of adolescent SUD.
2. Few of these studies utilize validated measures of substance use.
3. Most of these studies report findings from early post-treatment.
4. Most of these studies fail to include measures other than self-reported frequency of use and/or urinalysis.
5. Family-based treatment studies would benefit by including assessment instruments that assess multiple domains as well as instruments that guard against a respondent “faking good.”
6. The most progress [since Catalano et al.’s (1990) review] has been made in the area of family therapy interventions, although sufficient inclusion of substance use outcome measures other than collateral or self-reported frequency of use and/or urinalysis remains a major limitation.
Diamond & Josephson (2005)

1. Family treatments have proven effective with externalizing disorders, particularly conduct and substance abuse disorders. In the past decade four treatment models have received the most programmatic attention: FFT, MDFT, MST, and SFT.
   - MDFT is the most systematically developed family treatment specifically for substance abuse.
2. With the exception of MST and MDFT, few family based treatments qualify as empirically supported treatment.
3. The field needs more investigations that match treatment approach to clinical condition. For a child with a given disorder, different types of durations of family interventions may be necessary. Studies need to investigate which treatment type is most effective at a given stage of a disorder for a patient with given characteristics.
4. Children with psychiatric impairment often interact with multiple social systems and agencies. Given the underlying systemic perspective, family treatments lend themselves to multisystem-level intervention.
5. Our brief review of family risk factors suggest that some negative family processes may be common across disorders.
6. Dissemination of empirically supported treatments is one of the greatest challenges facing family treatment researchers. The process of exporting empirically validated treatments to real world clinical settings has proven far more complicated than anticipated.
7. Incorporating findings from family developmental psychopathology and family intervention research can only improve the theory, research and treatment of mental disorders in children and adolescents.

Galanter, Glickman, & Singer (2007)

1. Family-based and particularly multisystem therapy, adapted for substance using adolescents, show great promise and appear to be the future direction for the most effective treatment of adolescents.

Hawkins (2009)

2. Co-occurring disorders are highly prevalent and are to be expected in every adolescent service setting.
3. Youth with co-occurring disorders tend to have severe symptoms, multiple psychosocial and family issues, and are often engaged in numerous systems such as specialized education services, child welfare, and juvenile justice.
4. Co-occurring disorders among adolescents are associated with difficulties in treatment engagement and retention, poor treatment outcomes, high relapse rates, and a chronic and persistent course that often continues into adulthood.

5. Comprehensive integrated treatment programs appear to be the most effective method of treating co-occurring disorders in adolescents.

1. Critical clinical, administrative, financial, and policy changes are necessary to support effective systems of care for youth with co-occurring disorders and improve their outcomes.

Hogue & Liddle (2009)

2. Assessment designs should extend beyond substance use patterns, psychiatric problems, and behavioral coping skills to routinely include indicators of positive youth development that provide a fuller picture of developmental functioning and adult role-taking.

3. FBT research should renew its early intentions to examine processes of family change during the course of treatment.
   - The research area known as implementation science offers a world of exciting new challenges and opportunities. Indeed, given the lack of widespread use of family-based therapies in regular clinical practice settings, this research area has more urgency than it might have if such dissemination were widespread.

Liddle (2004)

1. Family-based interventions have provided a developmentally and contextually oriented conceptual framework and corresponding set of therapies. Family-based therapies are the most-tested approach for adolescent drug misuse.

2. Family-based therapies can reduce drug abuse and correlated problem behaviors and can change multiple areas of functioning related to the genesis and continuation of drug problems, including connection to deviant peers, school-related difficulties and dysfunctional family environments.

3. Process studies have found evidence for particular theory-based aspects of family-oriented treatment, such as the mechanism that links changes in family environment to changes in drug problems...Process studies are also illuminating therapy’s interior and pointing to probable in-session and in-treatment processes that associate with desired short- and longer-term outcomes.

4. Yet, we are far from realizing the benefits of these many positive developments. Barriers to widespread dissemination and adoption of effective family-based treatments are in no short supply.
Most clinicians have no access to training in empirically supported [family-based] therapies

Although the interventions themselves may not be optimally constructed for transportation, current data on existing services for adolescents present a gloomy picture.

In the most comprehensive study of contemporary drug treatment, Grella (2004) notes that the greatest gap in needed and received services occurs in the family intervention area.

Clinician work-force development remains a fundamental but virtually neglected area.

Although studies are emerging and templates are being produced that can guide our actions, we know to little about training methods and circumstances that are optimal to helping therapists learn and practice empirically supported treatments.

Powerful systemic factors, most notably reimbursement schemes that effectively block clinicians from conducting family-based interventions, must also be changed for progress to be made.

Liddle & Dakof (1995)

1. In controlled clinical trials, family therapy has been found to be more effective than other treatments in engaging and retaining adolescents in treatment and reducing their drug use.

2. Although a blanket endorsement of family treatment of drug abuse cannot be offered, on the basis of studies to date, the adolescent treatment specialty evidences considerable potential for major breakthroughs.

3. Overall, though, considering the adolescent and adult areas together, there is promising but not definitive efficacy evidence.

4. Eight issues or limitations are given detailed discussion because of their importance to the scientific evaluation of family-based intervention.
   - Incomplete or unclear reporting of experimental procedures and sample characteristics.
   - Co-morbidity and diagnosis.
   - Follow-up data
   - Therapist factors, treatment manuals, and treatment integrity
   - Forms of bias (inadequate comparison treatments, investigator bias)
Family-Based Treatments

- Moderators of treatment outcome
- Assessment of family interaction patterns

1. Processes of change in family therapy

Muck et al. (2001) 2. Although many questions still remain, it is clear that much progress has been made to identify effective models of adolescent substance abuse treatment.

3. As communities begin to adopt best practices and develop systems of care for adolescents in need of substance abuse treatment, they are likely to converge in some localities with ongoing restorative justice programs. Given the preponderance of justice-involved youth in the treatment system, it is extremely important that these two fields communicate and maximize their service delivery.

1. Community-based treatment that involves establishing or supplementing a continuum of seamless care is a natural nexus for application of adolescent substance abuse treatment and restorative justice practices.

Ozechowski & Liddle (2000) 2. Known Outcomes of Treatment:
- Engagement in treatment
- Retention in treatment
- Significant reductions in drug use
- Significant reductions in behavioral problems associated with drug use
- Decreases in psychiatric comorbidity
- Improvements in school attendance and performance
- Improvements in family functioning
- In session processes associated with change

3. Unknown Outcomes of Treatment:
- Risky sexual behavior
- Association with drug using and delinquent peers
- Long-term outcomes
- Clinical significance of treatment effects
- Mechanisms of change
- Moderators
  - Gender
  - Ethnicity
  - Psychiatric comorbidity
  - Motivation for treatment
• Parental and sibling substance use
• Transportability
• Cost effectiveness


5. Empirical support has been obtained for hypothesized mechanisms of change; process studies have illuminated ingredients of intervention effectiveness within key stages of treatment.

6. Dismantling and constructive research designs are needed to compare the effectiveness of different versions of family-based therapy and pinpoint the effects of specific treatment components.

7. Parametric strategies are needed to identify the amount, frequency, duration, and intensity of family-based therapy necessary for producing particular outcomes.

8. Therapist variables merit more focused attention...In particular, factors related to the quality of the therapist-adolescent/family relationship and its association with treatment retention and outcome...In addition, levels of therapist adherence and competence should be studied as mechanisms of treatment effectiveness and of outcomes in their own right.

9. Family-based therapy development for adolescent drug abuse can be advanced by returning to a foundational measurement and research in family-based research—observation-based details about changes in family functioning.

Rowe (2012)

1. Reviews of both adolescent and adult drug abuse now consistently include family-based models among the most highly regarded and most strongly supported approaches.

2. In the adolescent field, there has been consistent focus on validating these models and examining therapy processes with racial and ethnic minority groups.

3. Adolescent-focused, family-based treatment research has also made strides during the last decade in examining mechanisms of change, long-term effects, and dissemination of models into practice settings.

4. There are limitations inherent in much of the research despite considerable methodological advances.
• Small sample sizes still plague the field
• Most studies examine change up to 12 to 18 months at the most, yet drug abuse is now considered a chronic relapsing condition...thus, examining long-term outcomes and continuing care models are important areas of focus for research on family-based drug treatments.
• Additionally, much more work is needed to close the research-practice gap by elucidating the active ingredients of these models and their mechanisms of change, and to identify moderators of treatment effects so that clinicians may be better informed about which moderators are most effective for specific client populations.
• Perhaps the area of most consistent and urgent concern is in the dissemination of evidence-based approaches into practice. Dissemination itself needs to be an individualized, iterative and adaptive process considering many factors in integrating EBTs in usual care settings.
References


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[http://dx.doi.org/10.1542/peds.2007-2243B](http://dx.doi.org/10.1542/peds.2007-2243B)