

Pozzulo · Bennell · Forth



Forensic Psychology

Sixth Edition



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About This Course

We are excited about the continued interest in our textbook. We never expected that we would be going into our sixth edition when we first gathered in Adelle's office almost 17 years ago. We are pleased to have seen the field expand dramatically in this timeframe and we hope that this new edition captures the innovations and the diversity of research now being conducted by our colleagues around the world.

As in previous editions, we have taken a broad-based perspective that incorporates both experimental and clinical topics. The text covers topics that might otherwise be discussed in social and cognitive psychology courses—including eyewitness testimony, jury decision making, and police procedures—as well as topics that are clinical in nature and might otherwise be discussed in personality or mental health psychology courses—such as the meaning of being unfit to stand trial, offenders with mental disorders, and psychopathy. Our goal in this edition was to update important ideas, issues, and research in a way that students will understand and enjoy, and in some cases find useful in their professional careers. We hope that the academic community will find this text a valuable teaching tool that provides a comprehensive and current coverage of forensic psychology.

Content Highlights

New to the Sixth Edition

The sixth edition is now available in Revel, an interactive eText platform that is a fully mobile, interactive learning environment. Revel combines the text's narrative content with embedded media and interactive assessments, enabling students to read, practise, and study in one continuous experience. Revel is fully digital and responsive to any device and is available online and offline.

Revel was designed specifically to help get students to read and stay on top of their course work. The accessibility of Revel means that students can literally take their psychology text wherever they go and have the flexibility to do their reading and homework any time. And we believe this flexibility is what today's students are looking for.

This Revel eText includes the following interactive features:

- **Quizzes tied to learning objectives.** Research shows that students learn material better when they are tested frequently; thus, end-of-section quizzes, as well as the test questions at the end of every chapter in the Revel version of the text, should be helpful learning aids. Instructors have the option of assigning these quizzes and giving course credit for correct answers.

- **In the Media boxes.** This feature will be updated annually, highlighting “hot” topics in the news that have not yet been the subject of much psychological research.
- **Myths and Realities boxes.** In these interactive boxes, students will be presented with a set of common misconceptions related to the chapter's key topics. After carefully considering each myth, students can click to reveal the “reality” behind each misconception.
- **Research questions.** At the end of case boxes, a set of interactive writing prompts are provided to aid students' thinking about the material. These questions do not necessarily contain a “correct” answer but rather allow the student to consider alternative views of the issues.
- **Journal questions.** Several journal questions are integrated throughout each chapter. Students can use these self-paced writing opportunities to examine their comprehension and retention of the chapter material without breaking stride in their reading. We hope these questions will inspire critical thought in students.
- **Self-study interactives.** Drag-and-drop activities allow students to put their knowledge to the test as they learn new terms and concepts. Clickable timelines, images, and graphs encourage students to engage with data in exciting new ways.
- **“You Be the . . .” Shared Writing activities.** At the end of every chapter, students will be asked to consider a scenario from the perspective of a judge, juror, police officer, researcher, or forensic psychologist. Responses will be shared with the class, fostering peer discussion. Sample responses are included in the Instructor's Manual available for download.
- **Key Terms flashcards.** Throughout the chapters, keywords with which students in forensic psychology should be familiar appear in bold type and are defined in a pop-up window. Students can test their retention of the chapter's key terms by reviewing the flashcards at the end of the chapter. These key terms and their definitions are also provided in a glossary at the end of the book for easy reference.

Key Updates

- **Updated** court cases and current issues in the media in each chapter.
- **Expanded** number of tables and figures to illustrate concepts and research findings.

- **Updated**—all chapters have been updated to reflect the expanding field of forensic psychology, including recent changes to Canadian legislation and reference to the DSM-5.
- **New and updated profiles** of prominent Canadian researchers:

Dr. Leena Augimeri, Child Development Institute
 Dr. Eric Beauregard, Simon Fraser University
 Dr. Leanne ten Brinke, University of Denver
 Dr. Tara Burke, Ryerson University
 Dr. Mary Ann Campbell, University of New Brunswick
 Dr. Brian Cutler, Ontario Tech University
 Dr. Joseph Eastwood, Ontario Tech University
 Dr. Sandy Jung, MacEwan University
 Dr. Martin Lalumière, University of Ottawa
 Dr. Laura Melnyk Gribble, King's University College
 at the University of Western
 Dr. Stephen Wormith, University of Saskatchewan

Retained Features

The pedagogical aids are designed to promote student learning and assist instructors in presenting key material. Important features include the following:

- **Learning Objectives and End-of-Chapter Summaries.** Each chapter starts with a list of learning objectives to guide students' learning of the material and closes with a summary linked to the learning objectives.
- **Vignettes.** Chapter-opening vignettes provide students with a context for the key concepts they will encounter in each chapter. These engaging vignettes present real-world scenarios in which students, or people they know, could potentially find themselves.
- **Boxes.** Boxed features within the chapters provide interesting asides to the main text. Some detail current Canadian cases and legal rulings (**Cases in Forensic Psychology boxes**), while others highlight important events in the field of forensic psychology (**Forensic Psychology in the Spotlight boxes**). These boxes will develop students' consciousness of current issues and spark some research ideas.
- **Profiles of Canadian Researchers.** To expose students to the varied and excellent research in forensic psychology being conducted by Canadians, each chapter includes a profile of a key Canadian researcher whose work is relevant to the chapter topic. These profiles highlight educational background, current position, and research interests, along with a little about the researcher's personal life, so students realize the researchers featured are people too.
- **Research Methodology.** Research methodology specific to forensic topics is described in the relevant chapters, with the goal of helping students

understand how studies in forensic psychology are conducted.

- **Research Studies.** Data reported in original studies are cited throughout the text, often in graph or table form for easy interpretation. Diagrams of psychological models and flow charts demonstrate key processes that occur throughout the criminal justice system.
- **Theoretical Perspectives.** Theories that provide accounts for specific topic areas are discussed in each chapter. The discussion of the various theories emphasizes a multidisciplinary approach, showing the interplay among cognitive, biological, and social factors in understanding the different forensic psychology areas.
- **Law.** *Forensic Psychology* provides the student with information on current Canadian law relevant to the psychological issues discussed. At times, Canadian law is contrasted with U.S. and/or British law; however, it is important to remember that the emphasis is on Canadian case law, statutes, regulations, and so on. We do not provide full coverage of law that is not Canadian, so students who are interested in the laws of other countries should refer to other resources.

About the Authors

Joanna Pozzulo

Joanna Pozzulo, PhD, is a professor and chair of the Department of Psychology at Carleton University. Her research and teaching broadly falls under the domain of forensic psychology (borrowing from developmental, social, and cognitive psychology). Dr. Pozzulo is focused on understanding the development of face memory and the procedures that police can use to increase the reliability of face identification from lineups. Dr. Pozzulo has authored the book *Describing and Identifying Perpetrators: The Young Eyewitness*, as well as several others. She also has co-edited several books, including *Memory and Sexual Misconduct: Psychological Research for Criminal Justice*. Dr. Pozzulo is a child clinical psychologist registered with the Ontario College of Psychologists.

Dr. Pozzulo has received a number of awards for her teaching and research. In 2014, Dr. Pozzulo received the Carleton University Graduate Student Mentoring Award, recognizing her exceptional service to graduate students as a supervisor and mentor. In 2010, Dr. Pozzulo won the Carleton University Research Achievement Award that recognized her outstanding research achievements. In 2009, Dr. Pozzulo along with Dr. Bennell and Dr. Forth received the Significant Contribution Award from the Criminal Justice Section of the Canadian Psychological Association for their textbook, *Forensic Psychology* (Pozzulo, Bennell, & Forth, 2008, second edition). In 2008,

Dr. Pozzulo received the Carleton University Teaching Achievement Award. Also for her teaching, Dr. Pozzulo received the Capital Educators' Award in 2003 from the Ottawa Centre for Research and Innovation. In 2001, her work on child eyewitness memory received the President's New Researcher Award from the Canadian Psychological Association.

Craig Bennell

Craig Bennell, PhD, is a professor in the Department of Psychology at Carleton University, where he also serves as director of the Police Research Lab. He completed his PhD at the University of Liverpool, UK, under the supervision of Professor David Canter. Dr. Bennell's research focuses on evidence-based policing. He has particular interests in how research can be used to improve police use-of-force and de-escalation strategies and the quality of police investigations. He conducts most of his research in collaboration with policing organizations in Canada and abroad. In addition to publishing in peer-reviewed journals, he has co-authored numerous books, including *Criminal Behaviour: A Canadian Perspective*; *Crime Linkage: Theory, Research, and Practice*; *Police in Schools: An Evidence Based Look at the Use of School Resource Officers*; and *Criminal Investigations of Sexual Offences: Investigative Techniques and Operational Challenges* (in progress).

Dr. Bennell has won several awards for his teaching. These include a faculty teaching award in 2005, Carleton University's Graduate Student Mentoring Award in 2010, and the prestigious Capital Educators' Award in 2013. His research has also been recognized with several awards, including a Carleton University Research Achievement Award in 2013 and a Building Connections Award in 2015 for his collaborative research partnership with the Royal Canadian Mounted Police. Dr. Bennell is a past president of the Society for Police and Criminal Psychology and previous editor of the *Journal of Police and Criminal Psychology*. He also serves on the editorial boards of several leading forensic and police psychology journals and sits on the Research Advisory Committee for the Canadian Association of Chiefs of Police.

Adelle Forth

Adelle Forth, PhD, is an associate professor of forensic psychology at the Department of Psychology at Carleton University. She completed her PhD at the University of British Columbia, studying criminal psychopaths, where she worked with Dr. Robert Hare to develop the *Hare Psychopathy Checklist-Revised*; she is the senior author of the *Hare Psychopathy Checklist: Youth Version*. She is also the co-author on the *Structured Assessment of Violence Risk in Youth*, a risk scale for adolescent violence. In addition, with her forensic psychology colleagues at Carleton University, she has co-authored the textbook *Criminal Behaviour: A Canadian Perspective*.

Dr. Forth has been recognized for her commitment to teaching and graduate supervision by being awarded the Capital Educators' Award in 2008, the Carleton University Teaching Achievement Award in 2009, and the Graduate Student Mentoring award in 2015. Her current research centres on studying the early manifestations of psychopathy, investigating the cognitive and affective mechanisms underlying psychopathy, development of assessments to identify psychopaths, and most recently studying victims of psychopaths. She is actively involved in training mental health professionals on the assessment of psychopathy and risk assessment in North America, Asia, and Europe.

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*This book is dedicated to our many students who challenge our thinking and inspire us,
and to our dear colleagues Don Andrews, Grant Harris, and Marnie Rice,
who paved the way for us.*

Chapter 0

Professional and Post-Graduate Opportunities in Forensic Psychology

Careers in Psychology

Students often want to know, “What can I do with a degree in psychology?” Many options are available for students with a three- or four-year university undergraduate degree who majored in psychology and who have an interest in forensic psychology. A caveat is that an undergraduate psychology degree does not lead to any one specific job or position. Moreover, some jobs may require additional training or further education.

If you have an undergraduate degree in psychology, you have developed good research skills that include writing, critical thinking, and statistical analysis. In all likelihood, you are able to read large amounts of information, evaluate it, and synthesize it into something much briefer. You also may be able to design a research study to answer a specific question or issue. These types of skills would be an asset for employment in government, education, business, the health sector, sales, and human resources, to name a few.

You may have a particular interest in forensic psychology and may be interested in pursuing employment in a field that takes your skills from your undergraduate degree in psychology and combines them with issues relevant to forensics or the criminal justice system. Below are examples of this type of employment. Please keep in mind that “forensic” psychology is applied psychology that borrows from and combines the traditional subareas of psychology, including personality psychology, social psychology, cognitive psychology, and developmental psychology.

Employment Options

LAW ENFORCEMENT Being a police officer, or joining the Royal Canadian Mounted Police (RCMP) either as an officer or civilian member (i.e., non-officer), can be rewarding employment in which numerous issues covered in this text arise. Typically, additional training in police foundations is required through a community college, and any physical or other criteria police agencies may have must be passed or successfully completed. An undergraduate degree in psychology can be a beneficial starting point for the policing profession.

SUBSTANCE ABUSE COUNSELLOR Various addiction treatment facilities may hire substance abuse counsellors who have an undergraduate degree in psychology. Often counsellors may require additional training or experience. If a “field placement”

(e.g., working eight hours a week at an approved setting for credit toward your degree) is possible at your university, you may be able to choose a placement in a facility such as a nonprofit agency that offers addictions treatment to gain hands-on experience. Alternatively, you may be able to volunteer at hospitals or shelters that offer addiction treatment. Some community colleges also may offer diplomas or certificates in addictions or substance abuse treatment.

PAROLE/PROBATION OFFICER Parole and probation officers are individuals who supervise offenders to ensure they are compliant with the restrictions imposed on them by the court. In addition, they may be responsible for assessing any “risk” the offender may possess. Additional training may be required through the provincial or federal agency that employs the officer.

VICTIM SERVICES SPECIALIST Victim services is an emerging field of study. Increasingly, the criminal justice system is employing individuals who can offer support to victims and provide an educational component informing victims of their rights and the various roles and responsibilities of those involved in the justice system. Community colleges are beginning to offer one- to two-year programs focused on this type of employment. An undergraduate degree then may be combined with a college program for those seeking employment working with victims. It is important to note that working with victims may *not* necessarily require an undergraduate degree in psychology. For example, some police agencies may have a “victims’ unit” where police officers offer support to victims (that is not to say that these police officers don’t have undergraduate degrees in psychology).

PARALEGAL You may have an interest in the law (in addition to psychology) but not wish to pursue a law degree. You may gain employment at law offices helping lawyers prepare documents and witnesses for testifying, and so on. Additional training may be required through a community college.

SECURITY OFFICER (AIRPORT, HOSPITAL, UNIVERSITY CAMPUS) A number of agencies hire security officers to aid in maintaining order and adhering to institutional policy. For example, airports hire individuals in security. As well, hospitals and university campuses have security departments that employ individuals as security officers. A psychology degree may be beneficial to this type of employment.

COMMUNITY OUTREACH WORKER Some nonprofit agencies may employ a community outreach worker who is a frontline worker involved in developing, implementing, and delivering programs to those disenfranchised members in the community. Some programs may be educational in nature, practical (e.g., how to get a job), or more mentor focused. Community outreach workers also may be a liaison between various organizations and the community.

GROUP-HOME WORKER Group-home workers are focused on working with the residents living in a group-type setting, such as a halfway house or a residential facility for delinquent youth. Group-home workers may help residents with hygiene, housekeeping, arranging appointments, and developing employment skills. These workers also may transport residents to their appointments and generally help with their day-to-day activities.

CHILD WELFARE CASEWORKER These workers are focused on providing services to children in need. For example, children who are abused, living in foster homes, or are disabled may need assistance in terms of locating relevant services or identifying appropriate treatment. Child welfare workers may provide initial screening of children who may be in need, and once a child is deemed in need, work with that child and their family to provide the best plan of action for the child. Agencies that hire child welfare workers are often tied to government, such as the Children’s Aid Society.

ANIMAL CRUELTY INVESTIGATOR Animal cruelty investigators may have worked in animal shelters and may have a policing background. Some colleges offer certificates dealing with animal cruelty and welfare. Alternatively, shelters/animal agencies may offer courses to train as an animal cruelty investigator. Provincial/territorial animal shelters may employ animal cruelty investigators.

MEDIATOR A mediator is not a lawyer and does not represent a particular party but rather is a neutral, nonbiased negotiator for both parties involved in a dispute. Mediation courses and certificates may be offered through universities or colleges. A degree in psychology may be beneficial for the additional skills obtained that can then be combined with mediation courses.

BORDER PATROL OFFICER A border patrol officer is a law enforcement officer who controls individuals and goods that come into Canada. These officers check citizenship and the lawfulness of crossing into another country. A degree in psychology may be useful. However, there may be a number of government requirements (e.g., Canadian citizenship).

PRIVATE INVESTIGATOR A private investigator is hired to work undercover to collect evidence of a particular behaviour. A policing background in addition to a psychology degree may be helpful.

FORENSIC SCIENCE TECHNICIAN A technician works with physical evidence, collecting, identifying, and analyzing samples related to criminal investigations. Some universities allow for a “psychological science” undergraduate degree. Having a science background is often helpful and may be necessary for these types of positions.

FRONTLINE DISTRESS CALL CENTRE WORKER A number of major cities will have nonprofit organizations that offer a phone-in service for those in distress. Members from the community have a toll-free number to call if they are in crisis. These centres will often provide training on how to respond to callers in distress. In addition, there may be other requirements to qualify for these types of positions.

Other Employment Options

Other positions for which an undergraduate degree in psychology may be beneficial are listed below (note that additional training may be required):

- Loss prevention specialist (insurance agent)
- Policy analyst
- Employment equity officer (human resources agent)
- Fraud investigator

The agencies listed below are employers of some of the positions listed above. You may want to consider these agencies broadly and consider the employment they may have to offer:

- Correctional institutions
- Counselling agencies
- Hospitals
- Banks and financial institutions
- Courts
- Nonprofit agencies
- Government (provincial and federal)
- Insurance companies

More Education in Psychology: Doing Graduate Work

Some students may desire to continue their studies in psychology following their undergraduate psychology degree. Please note that each university offering a graduate program in psychology will have its own requirements. Below we outline some of the more common steps to further your education in psychology. Note that graduate training in forensic psychology often has the same entry requirements as graduate training in other areas of psychology.

Choosing a Graduate School

GETTING IN Typically, students who go on to graduate studies in psychology will have achieved good grades in their undergraduate degree (in the B+ or higher range) and will have completed an honours thesis (i.e., a research project for credit toward their undergraduate degree supervised by a professor at their university). The undergraduate degree is usually a four-year honours degree with a major in psychology.

Generally speaking there are four elements that comprise your application to graduate school in psychology:

1. **Transcripts.** Graduate schools will request that the applicant submit an official transcript from their undergraduate institution. This official record will show graduate schools the courses you have taken and the grades you have received.
2. **Reference letters.** Most graduate schools will ask for two or three letters of reference from professors who know you. Think about the professors who taught courses in which you did well and who may know your ability to write, think critically, and do research. Professors often write many reference letters each year, and deadlines are often at the same time, so ensure that you give your professors plenty of time to write your letters (at a minimum you should allow for two to three weeks prior to the deadline date).
3. **Graduate Record Exam (GRE).** The GRE is a standardized test consisting of two separate exams: general and specific (i.e., psychology). The dates and times when these exams can be written are fixed and students are required to register to write these exams. (Note: Specific GRE tests may or may not be offered at your institution.) There is a fee associated with writing these exams. Consult the GRE website (www.ets.org/gre) for more information and dates. Allow one to two months prior to the deadline date of your graduate application to write the exams.
4. **Statement of interest.** Many graduate schools will ask for a one-page description of what you are interested in researching and which faculty member you would like to supervise your research. This statement is also an opportunity to give a bit of information about the research you conducted as an undergraduate student. For example, you may choose to briefly describe the research you did for your honours thesis. You could also include any research experience you gained by volunteering in, for example, a research lab at your university.

When selecting a professor you would like to supervise your graduate studies, you should choose a professor who researches something you are interested in. Review faculty research interests before you indicate who you want to supervise you; this can be done by examining the websites of the universities you are interested in attending. Also, it is a good idea to make sure the professor you choose is actually taking on new graduate students when you plan on starting the program. University department websites may list the faculty members who are taking on new students. It is also possible to email a professor you may be interested in working with directly and asking if they are taking on any new graduate students. Please keep in mind that

even if a professor is taking on new graduate students for supervision, this does not guarantee you will be admitted into the program. Most likely, additional requirements and criteria are necessary, in addition to vetting and approval by graduate committees and departments.

Not only must you decide on a university for graduate school, and decide on a faculty member to supervise your graduate studies (your master's thesis and your dissertation), you also need to decide whether you will go through an experimental program or a clinical program.

An **experimental program** (i.e., a program that is focused on preparing you for a career as a researcher) for graduate studies typically will prepare you for a career as a researcher. You will hone your skills in conducting experiments in your chosen area of study, analyzing your data, and writing up your work for publication. Experimental psychologists often find employment as professors in universities or as researchers in an applied setting, such as in the government or at a research hospital.

A **clinical program** (i.e., a program that is focused on preparing you for a career as a clinician) for graduate studies typically will prepare you for a career as a clinical psychologist. You will develop skills to assess clients, diagnose, and provide treatment. Your focus as a clinical psychologist is understanding abnormal behaviour. Clinical psychologists may find employment through hospitals, treatment centres, or in private practice.

You can conduct your graduate studies in an experimental or clinical program with a focus on "forensic issues." It is important to keep in mind that not many universities in Canada have graduate programs in forensic psychology. It is more typical to have one or two faculty members at each university who research forensic psychological issues. If you are interested in forensic psychology, you may choose one of these faculty members to supervise your graduate studies rather than trying to find a "forensic psychology" graduate program.

TYPICAL LENGTH OF PROGRAM Generally speaking, following an undergraduate degree in psychology, you will be admitted into a master's program leading to a Master of Arts (MA) degree. Your MA is usually a two-year degree. Following your MA, you will need to apply for your PhD (i.e., Doctorate of Philosophy). Your PhD is usually a four-year degree. If you are in a clinical program, it is not uncommon for it to take five years instead of four, given the number of hours of supervised practice (where you work with clients while being supervised by a clinical psychologist) you may need to accumulate for your degree. Also note that there may be additional requirements following a PhD clinical degree before you are officially a psychologist. See below.

Several universities in Canada do have forensic psychology programs at the graduate level. For example, Carleton University, Simon Fraser University, the University of British Columbia—Okanagan, and Ontario Tech University have comprehensive programs that focus on forensic psychology/psychology and law. These universities have a number of faculty members who research issues that are within the forensic psychology domain. Other universities such as St. Mary's University offer graduate training at the master's level with a number of faculty studying forensic psychology topics.

Here is a profile of research areas studied at Carleton University:

- Eyewitness evidence
- Police psychology
- Psychopathy
- Female offenders
- Sex offenders
- Correctional psychology
- Juror decision making

Experimental program

A program that is focused on preparing you for a career as a researcher

Clinical program

A program that is focused on preparing you for a career as a clinician

Here is a profile of research areas studied at Simon Fraser University:

- Children and youth at risk
- Domestic assault
- Children’s and adults’ memory
- Clinical forensic assessment
- Mental health and the criminal justice system
- Violence and risk assessment
- Young offenders

A number of other universities in Canada have outstanding scholars that study forensic psychology topics, but the university may not have a comprehensive program in forensic psychology either at the undergraduate or graduate level. Some universities with faculty researching forensic psychology topics include (but are not restricted to):

- Algoma University
- Brock University
- Concordia University
- Ontario Tech University
- MacEwan University
- Memorial University of Newfoundland
- Queen’s University
- Ryerson University
- St. Mary’s University
- University of British Columbia—Okanagan
- University of Montreal
- University of New Brunswick
- University of Ottawa
- University of Regina
- University of Saskatchewan
- University of Toronto
- University of Victoria
- Western University
- Wilfrid Laurier University
- York University

Not all psychology graduate schools offer clinical and experimental programs. Also, not all universities offer MA and PhD programs. To learn more about graduate programs in Canada (and the United States), the American Psychological Association publishes *Graduate Study in Psychology* (2019 Edition), which provides information on 600 psychology graduate programs in the United States and Canada.

What Can You Do Once You Have a PhD?

Once you have a PhD in psychology, a number of employment opportunities may be possible.

PSYCHOLOGIST As we mentioned above, there are two types of psychologists: clinical and experimental. Becoming a registered clinical psychologist requires some additional work following your PhD degree. You cannot be a practising clinical psychologist without being registered. Each province and territory in Canada has its own criteria that must be met before you are able to call yourself a clinical psychologist.

Additional criteria may include completing a certain number of supervised practice hours (known as an internship), during which you see clients under the supervision of a registered clinical psychologist, as well as passing written and oral registration exams. The College of Psychologists of Ontario, for example, is the governing body for psychologists in Ontario (www.cpo.on.ca). You can examine the criteria for your province or territory by visiting the College of Psychologists website in your province (e.g., <https://collegeofpsychologists.bc.ca>).

Psychologists can be found in private practice, hospitals, correctional facilities, governmental agencies, and in education.

PROFESSOR An individual with a PhD in psychology may want to go on to be a professor at a university. As a professor, typically you will have three main responsibilities: to conduct research, to teach, and to do administrative work (e.g., being part of committees).

RESEARCHER Various governmental agencies may hire experimental psychologists to help with their research mandates and compile statistical information. It also may be possible to work at a hospital helping physicians with their research.

FORENSIC–CLINICAL PSYCHOLOGISTS—WHAT CAN THEY DO? These types of psychologists are clinical psychologists, but they deal with clients or populations that come into contact with the criminal justice system. For example, a forensic–clinical psychologist may be involved with child custody evaluations or investigations of child abuse, conduct risk assessments, and help with the mental health issues of defendants. They may work in prison settings providing assessment and treatment to offenders.

FORENSIC–EXPERIMENTAL PSYCHOLOGIST—WHAT CAN THEY DO? These types of psychologists are experimental psychologists who research issues relevant to the criminal justice system. The main focus of a forensic–experimental psychologist is to conduct research. Forensic–experimental psychologists can be professors at universities or may work in government, hospitals, or nonprofit agencies researching various forensic issues.

Additional Reading

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- American Psychology—Law Society
www.ap-ls.org
- Educational Testing Service Canada
www.ets.org/gre
- European Association of Psychology and Law Student Society
www.eaplstudent.com



Criminal profiling is a task that some forensic psychologists are involved in. However, much of what is seen in the show *Criminal Minds* is an exaggeration of what actually occurs and is possible in the field of criminal profiling.

Although you may not appreciate it yet, **forensic psychology** is all around you. Every time you pick up the newspaper, there are stories that relate directly to the field of forensic psychology. Hollywood has also gotten in on the act. Many television shows and blockbuster movies focus on issues that are related to the field of forensic psychology—profiling serial killers, selecting jury members, or determining someone’s sanity. Unfortunately, the way in which the media portrays forensic psychology is frequently inaccurate. Although forensic psychologists often carry out the sorts of tasks depicted in the media, the way in which they carry them out is typically very different from the typical Hollywood image. One of our primary goals throughout this book is to provide you with a more accurate description of what forensic psychology is and to encourage you to think more critically about the things you see and hear in the media.

Like all psychologists, forensic psychologists are interested in understanding the mechanisms that underlie people’s thoughts, feelings, and actions. However, as you will see throughout this book, forensic psychologists get involved in activities that other psychologists rarely do. This is because forensic psychologists are interested in understanding how people function within a particular context—a legal context. In this first chapter, we will introduce you to the exciting field of forensic psychology. We will provide a more formal definition of what forensic psychology is, try to paint an accurate picture of what forensic psychologists do, and discuss some of the challenges that forensic psychologists face. But, before we do all these things, we will examine the history of this field to determine where it came from and where it might be heading.

A Brief History of Forensic Psychology

LO 1 Identify some of the major milestones in the history of forensic psychology.

Compared with some other areas of psychology, forensic psychology has a relatively short history, dating back roughly to the late nineteenth century. In the early days of the field, this type of psychology was actually not even referred to as *forensic psychology*, and most of the psychologists conducting research in the area or carrying out applied work did not identify themselves formally as forensic psychologists. However, their contributions formed the building blocks of an emerging field of forensic psychology that continues to be strong today.

Forensic psychology

A field of psychology that deals with all aspects of human behaviour as it relates to the law or legal system

Early Research on Testimony and Suggestibility

The field of forensic psychology arguably began with research taking place in both the United States and Europe that had serious implications for the legal system. Some of the first experiments were those of James Cattell at Columbia University in New York (Bartol & Bartol, 2013). After developing an expertise in the study of human cognitive processes while working with Wilhelm Wundt in Leipzig, Germany, Cattell conducted experiments looking at what would later be called the psychology of eyewitness testimony. For example, in a paper entitled “Measurements of the Accuracy of Recollection,” Cattell (1895) asked 56 university students in psychology to recall things they had witnessed in their everyday lives (e.g., “What was the weather a week ago today?”). Cattell found not only that his students’ answers were often inaccurate, but also that the relationship between participants’ accuracy and their confidence (i.e., that their recollection was accurate) was far from perfect. In Cattell’s view, these findings had the potential to assist in “courts of justice” (p. 765).

Around the same time, a number of other psychologists began studying testimony and suggestibility (see Ceci & Bruck, 1993, for a review). For example, in his classic work, *La Suggestibilité* (1900), the famous French psychologist Alfred Binet presented numerous studies in which he showed that the testimony provided by children was highly susceptible to suggestive questioning techniques. In one study discussed by Ceci and Bruck (1993), Binet presented children with a series of objects for a short period of time (e.g., a button glued to poster board). After viewing an object, some of the children were told to write down everything they saw while others were asked questions. Some of these questions were direct (e.g., “How was the button attached to the board?”), others were mildly leading (e.g., “Wasn’t the button attached by a thread?”), and still others were highly misleading (e.g., “What was the color of the thread that attached the button to the board?”). As found in numerous studies since this experiment, Binet demonstrated that asking children to report everything they saw (i.e., free recall) resulted in the most accurate answers. Highly misleading questions resulted in the least accurate answers.

Shortly after Binet’s study, a German psychologist named William Stern also began conducting studies examining the suggestibility of witnesses (Ceci & Bruck, 1993). The “reality experiment” that is now commonly used by eyewitness researchers to study eyewitness recall and recognition can in fact be attributed to Stern. Using this research paradigm, participants are exposed to staged events and are then asked to provide information about the event. In one of Stern’s first experiments, which he conducted with the famous German criminologist Franz von Liszt in 1901, participants in a law class were exposed to a scenario that involved two students arguing in a classroom (Stern, 1939). The scenario ended with one of the students drawing a revolver; the observers were then asked questions about the event. Consistent with the findings of Cattell and Binet, Stern found that the testimony of participants was often incorrect. In addition, he found that recall was the worst for portions of the event that were particularly exciting (i.e., when the revolver was drawn). This led him to conclude that emotional arousal can have a negative impact on the accuracy of a person’s testimony.

Court Cases in Europe

Around the same time that this research was being conducted, psychologists also started to appear as experts in court. This was particularly the case in Europe. Unsurprisingly, given the research being conducted at the time, some of the testimony that these experts provided dealt with issues involving the accuracy of testimony. Albert von Schrenck-Notzing, a German physician, was probably one of the first

expert witnesses to provide testimony in court about the effect of pretrial publicity on memory (Bartol & Bartol, 2013). The date was 1896 and the case involved a series of three sexual murders. The crimes attracted a great deal of attention from the press at the time, and Schrenck-Notzing testified that this extensive pretrial press coverage could influence the testimony of people by causing what he called *retroactive memory falsification*. According to Bartol and Bartol (2013), this term was used to refer to a process whereby people confused actual memories of events with the events described by the media. Schrenck-Notzing supported his expert testimony with laboratory research, which revealed findings that are in line with more contemporary research on the topic (e.g., Ogloff & Vidmar, 1994).

Following this case, Julian Varendonck, a Belgian psychologist, was called on to be an expert witness in a 1911 case involving the murder of a young girl, Cecile. Ceci and Bruck (1993) described the case:

Two of Cecile's friends who had played with her on the day of her murder were awakened that night by Cecile's mother to ask of her whereabouts. One of the children replied that she did not know. Later that night, she led the police to the spot where the children had played, not far from where Cecile's body was found. In the next month, the two children were repeatedly interviewed by authorities who asked many suggestive questions. The children quickly changed their original testimony of not knowing about Cecile's actions on the day of her murder. They provided details of the appearance of the murderer as well as his name. Because of an anonymous letter, the police arrested the father of one of the playmates for the murder of Cecile. On the basis of the details of the case, Varendonck was convinced of the defendant's innocence. He quickly conducted a series of studies with the specific intent of demonstrating the unreliability of children's testimony. (p. 406)

According to Ceci and Bruck (1993), in one of his studies Varendonck (1911) asked a group of children to describe a person who had supposedly approached him in front of the children earlier that morning. Although this person did not exist, Varendonck was able to demonstrate that many of the children were easily led by suggestive questioning. Based on these findings, the conclusion Varendonck offered to the court was that the testimony provided by the children in this case was likely inaccurate and that children were prone to suggestion.

Advocates for Forensic Psychology in North America

Similar sorts of legal issues were also being debated in courts throughout the United States in the early 1900s. Most notably, Hugo Münsterberg, another student of Wilhelm Wundt who came from Germany to Harvard University in 1892, was involved in several criminal cases, but not as an expert witness. One case, in 1906, concerned a young intellectually disabled man from Chicago, Richard Ivens, who had confessed to raping and murdering a woman. On the request of the man's lawyer, Münsterberg (along with fellow Harvard psychologist William James) reviewed the interrogation records. Based on his analysis, Münsterberg concluded that "the so-called confessions of Ivens are untrue, and that he had nothing to do with the crime" (Golan, 2004, p. 217). Another case, one year later, involved a confession by Harry Orchard that he had killed the former governor of Idaho and, on the orders of a well-known union boss, had killed several others. On the request of the prosecution in the trial of the union boss, Münsterberg tested Orchard and found that what he was saying was true. In both cases, the courts appeared to pay little attention to Münsterberg's findings, evidenced by the fact that Ivens was found guilty and executed and the union boss in the second trial was acquitted.

Münsterberg's contributions to these cases were not ignored by all, however. The press strongly objected to his involvement. For example, one news story presented psychology as the "new scientific fad for 'cheating justice'" (Golan, 2004, p. 217). In another story about the Ivens case, the contributions by Münsterberg and James were said to "have no effect except to make themselves and their science ridiculous" (Golan, 2004, p. 217). The legal community also took a stance against Münsterberg.

Perhaps in response to these strong negative reactions, Hugo Münsterberg published his classic book, *On the Witness Stand* (Münsterberg, 1908). In this book, he argued that psychology had much to offer the legal system. Through a collection of his essays, he discussed how psychology could assist with issues involving eyewitness testimony, crime detection, false confessions, suggestibility, hypnotism, and even crime prevention. Unfortunately, Münsterberg presented his ideas in a way that led to even more criticism, especially from the legal profession. This is perhaps unsurprising given his writing style. Consider the following quotation from the introduction of his book:

The lawyer and the judge and the jurymen are sure that they do not need the experimental psychologist. They do not wish to see that in this field pre-eminently applied experimental psychology has made strong strides.... They go on thinking that their legal instinct and their common sense supplies them with all that is needed and somewhat more... if the time is ever to come when even the jurist is to show some concession to the spirit of modern psychology, public opinion will have to exert some pressure. (Münsterberg, 1908, pp. 10–11)

Considered by many to be the father of forensic psychology, Hugo Münsterberg is best known for his controversial book *On the Witness Stand*, which helped push North American psychologists into the legal arena.



Response to Münsterberg's book from the legal community was swift. One of Münsterberg's biggest critics was John Henry Wigmore, a well-respected law professor at Northwestern University in Chicago. Through a series of fabricated "transcripts," Wigmore (1909) put Münsterberg on "trial," where he was "sued" and found guilty of "claiming more than he could offer" (Brigham, 1999, p. 276). Poking fun at Münsterberg, Wigmore declared that the case was tried by the "Supreme Court of Wundt County" on "April Fool's Day" (Golan, 2004, p. 237). In the trial, Wigmore criticized Münsterberg for the lack of relevant research publications to back up his claims and, more generally, for the lack of applied research in the field of forensic psychology as a whole.

Perhaps because of Wigmore's comprehensive attack on Münsterberg's work, little progress was made by psychologists working in areas of relevance to the law in the very early 1900s. However, the field of forensic psychology in the United States would soon catch up to what was happening in Europe. Indeed, psychological research gradually began to be practically applied in a wide range of criminal justice settings across America. For example, according to Bartol and Bartol (2013), psychologists were instrumental in opening the first clinic for juvenile delinquents in 1909, in developing laboratories to conduct pretrial assessments in 1916, and in establishing psychological testing for law enforcement selection purposes in 1917. Psychologists also began to focus on theory development. New theories of crime were being proposed by psychologists (and researchers from other fields) at a rapid rate, especially around the mid-1900s (see Box 1.1).

Landmark Court Cases in the United States

In the early to mid-1900s, psychologists in the United States began to be more heavily involved in the judicial system as expert witnesses. The first time this happened was in the case of *State v. Driver* in 1921. According to Bartol and Bartol (2013), the *Driver* case was only a partial victory for forensic psychology in America. The West Virginia case involved the attempted rape of a young girl, and the court accepted expert evidence from a psychologist in the area of juvenile delinquency. However, the court rejected the psychologist's testimony that the young girl was a "moron" and, therefore, could

BOX 1.1 FORENSIC PSYCHOLOGY IN THE SPOTLIGHT

Biological, Sociological, and Psychological Theories of Crime

While an in-depth discussion of crime theories is beyond the scope of this book, efforts to develop such theories are clearly an important part of the history of forensic psychology. Over the last century, a variety of biological, sociological, and psychological theories of crime have been proposed and tested. Many have been used to develop intervention or management programs for offenders. Below are brief descriptions of some of the most popular theories.

Biological Theories of Crime

- *Sheldon's (1949) constitutional theory.* Sheldon proposed that crime is largely a product of an individual's body build, or somatotype, which is assumed to be linked to an individual's temperament. According to Sheldon, endomorphs (obese) are jolly, ectomorphs (thin) are introverted, and mesomorphs (muscular) are bold. Sheldon's studies indicated that, because of their aggressive nature, mesomorphs were most likely to become involved with crime.
- *Jacobs, Brunton, Melville, Brittain, and McClellmont's (1965) chromosomal theory.* Jacobs and her colleagues proposed that chromosomal irregularity is linked to criminal behaviour. A normal female has two X chromosomes, whereas a normal male has one X and one Y chromosome. However, it was discovered that there were men with two Y chromosomes, which, it was proposed, made them more masculine and, therefore, more aggressive. According to Jacobs and colleagues, this enhanced aggressiveness would result in an increased chance that these men would commit violent crimes.
- *Nevin's (2000) theory of lead exposure.* Nevin was one of the first researchers to propose a link between childhood lead exposure (e.g., from paint and gasoline) and criminal behaviour. Although it was unclear *why* lead exposure and crime were related in his early research, more recent studies using neuroimaging technology suggest that lead exposure may impact brain development, including regions that are responsible for emotional regulation and impulse control. Such deficits may increase the probability that one exhibits antisocial behaviour.

Sociological Theories of Crime

- *Merton's (1938) strain theory.* Merton proposed that crime is largely a product of the strain felt by certain individuals in society, typically the lower class, who have restricted access

to legitimate means (e.g., education) of achieving valued goals of success (e.g., status). Merton argued that while some of these individuals will be happy with lesser goals that are achievable, others will turn to illegitimate means (e.g., crime) in an attempt to achieve these valued goals.

- *Sutherland's (1939) differential association theory.* Sutherland proposed that criminal behaviour is learned through social interactions in which people are exposed to values that can be either favourable or unfavourable to violations of the law. More specifically, Sutherland maintained that people are likely to become involved in criminal activity when they learn more values (i.e., attitudes) that are favourable to violations of the law than values that are unfavourable to it.
- *Becker's (1963) labelling theory.* Becker proposed that deviance (e.g., antisocial behaviour) is not inherent to an act but a label attached to an act by society. Thus, a "criminal" results primarily from a process of society labelling them as a criminal. This labelling process is thought to promote the individual's deviant behaviour through a self-fulfilling prophecy.

Psychological Theories of Crime

- *Eysenck's (1964) biosocial theory of crime.* Eysenck believed that some individuals (e.g., extraverts and neurotics) are born with nervous systems that influence their ability to learn from the consequences of their behaviour, especially the negative consequences experienced in childhood as part of the socialization and conscience-building process. Because of their poor "conditionability," it is assumed that individuals who exhibit high levels of extraversion and neuroticism will develop strong antisocial inclinations.
- *Akers's (1973) social learning theory.* Akers suggested that crime is learned in the same way that noncriminal behaviour is learned. According to Akers, the likelihood of becoming a criminal increases when one interacts with individuals who favour antisocial attitudes; when one is exposed to role models, either in person or symbolically, who disproportionately exhibit antisocial behaviour; when one defines antisocial behaviour as justified in a particular situation; and when one has received (and expects to receive) a greater degree of rewards versus punishments for antisocial behaviour.
- *Gottfredson and Hirschi's (1990) general theory of crime.* Gottfredson and Hirschi argued that low self-control, internalized early in life, in the presence of criminal opportunities explains an individual's propensity to commit crimes.

not be believed. In its ruling the court stated, "It is yet to be determined that psychological and medical tests are practical, and will detect the lie on the witness stand" (quoted in Bartol & Bartol, 2013, p. 14).

Other important cases in the United States expanded the role of psychologists in court, with rulings that allowed psychologists to provide opinions on matters

that were traditionally reserved for physicians. In *People v. Hawthorne* (1940), for example, a psychologist was permitted, on appeal, to provide an opinion about the mental state of the defendant at the time of his offence (Viljoen, Roesch, Ogloff, & Zapf, 2003). The view that psychologists could provide an admissible opinion regarding a defendant's mental health was strongly reinforced in *Jenkins v. United States* (1962).

The *Jenkins* trial involved charges of breaking and entering, assault, and intent to rape. The defendant, Jenkins, pleaded not guilty by reason of insanity. Three psychologists supported this defence on the basis that the defendant was suffering from schizophrenia at the time of the crimes. However, the trial judge instructed the jury to disregard the testimony from the psychologists because "psychologists were not qualified to give expert testimony on the issue of mental disease" (American Psychological Association [APA], 2016). The case was appealed. As part of the appeal, the APA provided a report to the court stating their view that psychologists are competent to provide opinions concerning the existence of mental illness (APA, 1962). The court reversed the conviction and ordered a new trial, stating that "some psychologists are qualified to render expert testimony on mental disorders" (APA, 2016).

Currently in the United States, it is common for psychologists to testify on matters such as fitness to stand trial and criminal responsibility (Viljoen et al., 2003), in addition to a wide range of other issues, including risk assessment, treatment of traumatic brain injury, factors affecting eyewitness memory and jury decision making, the impact of hostile work environments, and so on (Cutler & Kovera, 2011).

Progress in Canada

Although it is difficult to pinpoint exactly when the field of forensic psychology began in Canada, it has been growing since at least the mid-1900s. Indeed, since that time, Canadian psychologists have made many important contributions to this field. Some examples of major developments are listed in Figure 1.1. As you can see from this figure, some of the significant advances in this country, much like in the United States, have emerged from research on eyewitness testimony and jury decision making. However, the most significant contributions by psychologists in Canada have arguably been in the area of corrections (e.g., constructing better risk-assessment tools and developing effective treatment approaches). One person who has played a particularly important role in developing this area of research and practice is Dr. Stephen Wormith, who is profiled in Box 1.2.

Despite the rapid growth of forensic psychology in Canada since the 1940s, Canadian courts have arguably been slower than courts in the United States to open their doors to psychologists (at least when it comes to certain topics). For example, compared to the United States, where psychologists have been permitted to conduct assessments of fitness to stand trial and criminal responsibility since the mid-1900s, Canadian courts have tended to rely on physicians (primarily psychiatrists) for this purpose (Viljoen et al., 2003). Why the difference? There may be multiple explanations, but part of the answer probably relates to educational standards (Viljoen et al., 2003). As you will see below, while the majority of the U.S. states require doctoral-level training before one can become a licensed psychologist, several Canadian provinces and territories still require only a master's degree. Canadian courts may perceive this to be an inadequate level of training to qualify as an expert in some circumstances, especially when compared to the medical degree held by forensic psychiatrists. That being said, Canadian courts have allowed forensic psychologists to provide testimony on a wide range of other issues. As forensic psychology continues to develop in Canada, it is likely that the value of this field for the courts will continue to increase.

Figure 1.1 The History of Forensic Psychology in Canada

1940s—Inmate classification officers begin to be employed in federal correctional facilities in Canada, many of whom have training in the social sciences (often psychology).

1955—The first federal correctional psychologist is hired at St. Vincent de Paul Penitentiary (later renamed Laval Institution) in the province of Quebec.

1970s—Vernon Quinsey helps establish phallometry as a tool for assessing sex offenders in Canada.

Late 1970s—Significant advances are made in the area of sex offender treatment by Bill Marshall and his colleagues, including approaches to eliminate arousal to sexually deviant stimuli.

1980—Robert Hare publishes the first version of the Psychopathy Checklist. The revised version of this checklist, published in 2003, has become the gold standard for assessing psychopathy.

1980s—Under the direction of psychologist Robert Loo, the Royal Canadian Mounted Police's (RCMP) first manager of psychological services, the RCMP develops its own in-house health services to prevent psychological distress in its officers and provide them with treatment.

1985—The Criminal Justice Section of the Canadian Psychological Association (CPA) is formed.

1990—Don Andrews and his colleagues publish a meta-analysis in *Criminology* that describes several principles of effective correctional intervention. These principles are now being incorporated into treatment programs around the world.

1990s—Canadian psychologists develop important new risk-assessment tools, including the Violent Risk Appraisal Guide, the Level of Service Inventory, the Spousal Assault Risk Assessment Guide, the Historical/Clinical/Risk Management 20 Scale, and the Static-99.

1994—In *R. v. Mohan*, the Canadian Supreme Court defines criteria for determining when the testimony of expert witnesses, including psychologists, will be admitted in court.

1996—Jury researcher Regina Schuller and her colleague publish a study on battered women syndrome, which examines how expert testimony on the issue can influence jury verdicts.

1999—Psychologists Rod Lindsay and John Turtle co-author, with several American colleagues, an important report that provides recommendations for how best to collect eyewitness evidence.

2001—Regina Schuller and James Ogloff publish the first Canadian textbook on psychology and law.

2001—Paul Gendreau and his colleagues publish work that demonstrates the ineffectiveness of several get-tough-on-crime strategies, including long terms of imprisonment.

2001—The American Psychological Association (APA) recognizes forensic psychology as a specialty discipline, which has an impact on the status of the field in both the United States and Canada.

2004—Don Andrews, Jim Bonta, and Stephen Wormith introduce the Level of Service/Case Management Inventory, an assessment tool that moves beyond traditional risk assessment to integrate the assessment of risk with a case management plan.

2009–2011—A framework for structuring parole decisions developed by Ralph Serin and his colleagues is formally incorporated into policy at the Parole Board of Canada.

2015—Julia Shaw and Stephen Porter show that innocent adult research participants can be convinced, over a relatively short time period, that they have perpetrated serious crimes.

A Legitimate Field of Psychology

Although the field of forensic psychology has perhaps not come as far as some forensic psychologists would have hoped in its relatively short history, it has now become a recognized and legitimate field of study within psychology. Indeed, forensic psychology now appears to have many of the markings of an established discipline. As highlighted by Schuller and Ogloff (2001), this is reflected in numerous ways.

First, a growing number of high-quality textbooks in the area provide the opportunity to teach students about forensic psychology. The availability of textbooks is particularly evident in the United States, but several also exist in Canada. Second, numerous academic journals are now dedicated to various aspects of the field, and more mainstream psychology journals publish research from the forensic domain at a regular rate. This speaks to the large number of psychologists currently conducting research in this area. Third, a number of professional associations have been