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Leanne ten Brinke (Undergraduate Level: 2nd Runner-up)

Visit Our Website at: www.cpa.ca/cjs/CJS_Welcome.html

The views expressed within are those of the submission authors and do not necessarily reflect those of the Section collectively.
Regular Features …

Editors’ Note

Before introducing this Issue of Crime Scene, we just need to get this off our chests…..

Wow! What a conference! NACCJPC was exceptional – even if the reception was interrupted by torrential wind and rain! The driving force behind this success cannot be overlooked. Jeremy Mills, our then Section Chair and now Past Chair, demonstrated much leadership and initiative with this conference by liaising with U.S. partners to make it the first ever North American conference for Criminal Justice Psychology. Thank you, Jeremy – it can’t be said enough.

For those of you who are still reeling from this year’s conference, don’t forget the deadline for submissions (November 15th) for the next CPA conference in Halifax in June 2008. Perhaps the creation and success of the first ever NACCJPC, as well as this issue of Crime Scene, will stimulate your submission thoughts and how you can contribute to the 2008 conference.

And because NACCJPC was jam-packed with valuable content, this issue of Crime Scene has drawn on this. Think of this issue as an extension of the conference. Within these pages, you will find a Special Feature by Dr. Guy Bourgon, which suggests a redirection of efforts from “What Works” to “How To”. In addition, the research of the Student Poster Prize Winners is being presented at the Water Cooler. We suggest you linger over the Cooler as the topics are quite diverse and thought provoking.

For those of you who missed the Section Business Meeting while at the conference, the minutes of the meeting are provided. Among other things, you will find out from these minutes that there has been some movement within the Section’s Executive. So, we would like to take this opportunity to welcome aboard Dr. Jean Folsom as our new Section Chair, Dr. Mark Olver as Director-at-Large: Clinical and Training, and Natalie Jones as Membership Coordinator. Since the close of the conference, the Executive has voted in Dr. David Nussbaum and Dr. Garry Fisher as co-Directors-at-Large: Psychology in the Courts, and created a new position of Director-at-Large: Web Coordinator, filled by Joseph Camilleri. With these new additions come some departures; we would like to say thank you to Dr. Daryl Kroner, Dr. Joanna Pozzulo, Dr. Andrew Harris and Dr. Andrew Starzomski for their contributions to the Section and this Newsletter.

Our regularly featured columns, as always, are an interesting read and provide insight into the various criminal justice areas within our Section. From the trenches, Dr. Dorothy Cotton talks more of her experiences as a correctional psychologist, and this time she focuses on factitious disorders and malingering. Dr. Mark Olver, our new Director-at-Large: Clinical and Training writes on the need for more correctional psychologists and ideas for increasing the awareness and availability of criminal justice training opportunities in Canada. And in her article, The Super-Cop Reality Show, Dr. Cotton discusses how to measure good policing.

Besides being our largest issue to date, this Issue of Crime Scene is the first to contain an article in After Thoughts. In this submission, Dr. Vernon Quinsey shares an unfortunate anecdote of his friend, Dr. Grant Harris, to illustrate why we should not draw conclusions about individuals based on “group data”.

And last, but certainly not least, in this issue we have two other special features. Dr. Steven Stein continues the dialogue on terrorism and the role of psychology. For those of you who have been following this conversation stream in Crime Scene, this is our third article on terrorism and we anticipate the discussion on this very current topic to continue. Moreover, we are pleased that Crime Scene has been a forum for this debate. The other Special Feature is a Research Brief by Emma Gascoigne and Dr. Joanna Pozzulo (Joanna may have moved on from the Section’s Executive, but we are thrilled she is still a contributor!). In their brief entitled Faces, Shirts and Shoes: Multiple Identification in an Eyewitness Context, they examine whether witnesses who identify certain clothing items of a defendant, are more accurate with the facial identification of the same defendant.

As with every Issue of Crime Scene, we want to thank everyone who took the time to contribute to the September 2007 Newsletter. Although you may be getting a tad bored with this next line – we are leaving it in nonetheless! Because….we still want to encourage readers to get involved and provide us with submissions. It only takes a couple minutes to send us a quick email, if you know of a Section member who deserves recognition, have news to share about members or yourself, and/or regarding job opportunities. To be honest, it takes a few more minutes of commitment if you are interested in writing an article for the newsletter, but the investment of time is definitely worth the cause.

Welcome to All New Section Members!

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So, if you would like to get in touch with us, our email addresses are on the front page of Crime Scene. Submissions for the April 2008 Issue of Crime Scene will be accepted until February 29th, 2008 (yup, it’s a Leap Year!).

We sincerely hope you enjoy this Issue and that you all have a wonderful fall and winter. We'll chat with you again on the flip side of the next calendar year!

Cheers,
Chantal & Tanya

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**Know something that would be of interest to students? DROP US AN EMAIL!**

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**View from the Top**

The first thing that you notice when you are at the top of something is that it really is not nearly as high up as you may have originally thought. Being at the top of the Criminal Justice Section, however, should be an easy job because the Section is in such great shape and there is a strong Executive. All this makes things easier. Jeremy Mills will no doubt be a tough act to follow. Who else could have conceived of and carried out the enormous success of the North American Correctional and Criminal Justice Psychology Conference in coordination with CPA in Ottawa? Also our Section membership has hit an all time high of 321. Kudos as well to our Career Contribution Award winners, Dr. Grant Harris and Dr. Robert Hoge and our Significant Contribution Award winners, Dr. Kelley Blanchette and Dr. Shelley Brown.

Coming into office when the Section is on such a high note inspires one to keep the momentum going. In his inaugural comments in 2005, Jeremy identified a number of goals for his presidency. I think it would be appropriate to elevate these goals to enduring principles, and to continue to strive toward realizing them. These were essentially:

1. to ensure that the Executive continues to be vibrant, effective and responsive to the membership;
2. to increase membership by broadening our appeal to a wider criminal justice audience; and
3. to enhance continuing education opportunities through section activities.

What next then? Already we have expanded our Executive to include a new position - Director-at-Large, Web Coordinator. Congratulations and thank you to Joe Camilleri, who has agreed to take this on. This will increase our visibility and accessibility on the CPA Website. Also, the Police Psychology Special Interest group is planning a fall meeting. Other exciting initiatives that have been suggested by members are: an international conference in a few years; hosting criminal justice-specific workshops in the meantime; hosting workshops on topics related to criminal justice that are relevant for people working in other areas of psychology, etc. If you have an idea, a topic in mind or a speaker you’ve been dying to hear - do let us know!!

For those of you who don't know me, I am the Director of Psychology at a psychiatric facility that is also a federal correctional institution for male offenders. Prior to that, I have worked for a number of years at a male maximum security federal correctional facility and also at, what was at the time, the only federal correctional facility for women offenders in Canada. Before joining the Correctional Service of Canada, I worked for a number of years at a provincial psychiatric hospital. I also hold an adjunct position in the Psychology Department at Queen's University in Kingston and maintain a small private practice in the community.

I am honoured to chair this Section for the upcoming year and look forward to continuing to move our Section forward.

Jean Folsom

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**After Thoughts**

Welcome to our feedback centre, After Thoughts, which includes opinions received on Crime Scene in general, as well as commentary on specific articles.

**On Crime Scene April 2007 …**

Another fine issue.... I bet your efforts re: newsletter surpass other Sections productions in such things...

The reason I am a strong supporter [of Crime Scene] is because of the content, a source of pride in the Section and in my experience how often have I seen "newsletters" go down the tubes after a while. It’s amazing that it has lasted so long. Look around you and see the failures in this regard.

Once again, a very fine newsletter, Thank-you.

Thank you! And thank you to all those who submit and help make Crime Scene a success!

If you find an article particularly thought-provoking, we encourage you to write a response.
Old Saws and Modern Instances: On not making inferences based on “group data”

By Vernon L. Quinsey
Queen’s University, Kingston

I always wondered what, “Happy as a clam,” meant, especially because my empathic and theory of mind skills are insufficient to penetrate clamshells. When I discovered that the complete phrase is, “Happy as a clam at high-tide,” I got it. I’ve had a similar experience about the admonition not to make an inference or prediction about an individual from “group data.” It sounds sort of wise until you start thinking about what it could actually mean. I’ve puzzled about it off and on for years without ever really getting it – until now!

I’ll illustrate the problem with a parable provided to me by my friend, Grant Harris, a long-time, part-time resident of the Oak Ridge Division of the Mental Health Centre, Penetanguishene. He wrote asking for bail money on his Blackberry after an unfortunate incident with a car salesman.

Being an aspiring sporty guy, Grant was shopping for a Subaru Outback. The salesman told him about the repair record of these Outbacks, based on many cars of the same model. Grant said, “Not so fast; I only want to buy one particular car. How can I know whether this individual car was good?” The salesman replied that the odds were very high that this individual car was good. “But,” said Grant, looking smug, “Those odds are based on group data - group data are useless to me; I need to know about this individual vehicle, and all those group data say is that it’s not a certainty that this car is a lemon. Otherwise, I know essentially nothing about this car. It’s obvious that cars, even of the same model and the risk of lemonosity, are not homogeneous.” The salesman smiled warily and replied that the Outback was suitable for all lifestyles.

Grant couldn’t decide whether to give the salesman a cheque for $30K or not. A decision seemed impossible, given the absence of sufficiently precise probative data. Grant attempted to explain his reasoning at some length. The salesman looked less happy than any clam.

Obviously, the stakes were high – $30K is a big chunk of change, even on a bloated civil service salary. Grant decided to be really, really careful and think very hard. The salesman interrupted his reverie to ask what he wanted to do. Grant told him he had decided to buy the car, but also not to buy it – to hand over the cheque, but keep it too. The salesman told Grant to leave before he called the police. Grant couldn’t decide whether to stay or go, so did neither... hence, the call for help from his Blackberry. I then had to decide whether to advance him the bail, but all I had to go on were statistics on how many forensic psychologists overall actually showed up for trial having posted bail.

So, how did Grant get himself into all this trouble? Well, he didn’t rely on group data, thus depriving himself of the only relevant information available. Surely, the admonition not to make inferences from group data can’t mean what it seems to. The difficulty, I have concluded after an epiphanous experience, is that Grant, along with a great many other psychologists, had misinterpreted the phrase “group data.”

There is a sense in which one should not draw conclusions about individuals based on “group data” and that’s when the data are in fact collected about groups in the first place, not individuals. Strong relationships, for example, between poverty and crime discovered at the neighbourhood level (i.e., all we know is the level of crime and poverty in various particular neighbourhoods) do not allow us to make inferences about the relationship between poverty and criminality at the individual level. To do so is to commit the ecological fallacy. It turns out that poverty is a poor predictor of criminality among individuals, despite being a strong correlate at the group or neighbourhood level.

The data on Outbacks were collected on individual cars and were thus not “group data” (although there was a group of cars involved!). It is reasonable therefore to make an inference about one Outback from knowledge of how many similar Outbacks turned out to be lemons. The same thing is true of actuarial instruments designed to predict recidivism where an individual appraisal is based on the known outcome of a group of similar (i.e., obtaining the same actuarial score) offenders. Because the follow-up data upon which actuarial instruments are based were collected on individuals, they can reasonably.

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1 Written with the able assistance of Grant T. Harris who came up with the Subaru example but denies everything asserted about him here, with the exception of his institutional affiliation.
be applied to predicting the likelihood of recidivism of a new individual offender without fear of committing the ecological fallacy.

What do you think of the 3 Newest Sections
(After Thoughts, Information Reviews, and Research Briefs)
That have been added to Crime Scene?
~ Send us an After Thought to let us know what you think ~

Column: In The Trenches: The Practical Experience of Forensic and Correctional Psychology
By Dorothy Cotton, Ph.D.
Director-at-Large: Police Psychology

... Factitious Disorders ...

Unlike many readers, I came to forensic/correctional psychology rather late in my career, after 25+ years working in hospitals, colleges, universities and private practice. I like to think that I came with my eyes open - I knew there would be a learning curve and I knew there would be all sorts of stuff I would have to get up to speed on. But nevertheless, it always surprises me to find out what surprises me. And I was surprised to find that one of the areas I most needed to work on myself when I arrived was the area of factitious disorders and malingering. In decades of work with adult psychiatric patients, I think the possibility of a factitious disorder arose once - and even then we dismissed it fairly quickly. After all, who on earth would WANT to have a psychiatric illness or a brain injury? I could understand people faking diseases that got you a lot of public sympathy or attention, or money. But to acquire the facade of schizophrenia or a dementia when you don't have to? These are ailments that come with a huge amount of stigma and negative reaction, and not a lot of attention from the medical community. Indeed, the literature on factitious disorders pays little attention to feigning of psychiatric illness. Researchers readily acknowledge that it just does not happen very often compared to feigning of "medical" or "physical" problems.

Then, in the correctional system, I was asked to see a young man with a rather odd learning disability. He was a pleasant enough guy, who explained to me carefully the kinds of problems he had with written language. Unlike many of our offenders, he had received a great deal of assistance with his learning problems over the years--to the extent that one teacher had pretty well adopted him for a few years. Needless to say, his own family was pretty dysfunctional. I was asked to see him near his release from prison to assist in planning his vocational and educational future. He explained to me that he wrote from right to left rather than left to right, and often made letters upside down. That was a new one on me. I gave him a basic test of intelligence and he scored well below the first percentile across the board, a score that was quite at odds with his presentation. I was stymied and consulted with a variety of other people, gave a whole pile of tests, and the picture became even less clear. There was a glimmer in the back of my head somewhere...

A little while later I saw an older man who told me at great length that he was “retarded,” that he had always been slow, needed special education, could not recognize letters, could not even write his name. He had always been on a disability pension in the community but seemed to function quite well in the shops in his institution. I did an assessment and found that while his verbal skills were in fact borderline, his "performance" on visual spatial abilities were above average. Good news, I thought. Additional testing strongly suggested a learning disability, not mental retardation. I gave him some preliminary feedback to that effect, hoping that I was providing encouragement for him to try his best on the remaining tests. But instead, his scores plummeted, he scored extremely badly on all the rest of the measures - again, not consistent with his day to day appearances - and I ended up with a bunch of test results that made no sense at all.

It was at about this point that a little light bulb finally went off. I also thought of the guy who could not remember any of his life before age 15, and the several guys who claimed no memory of their crimes (and were not high or stoned at the time), the guy with the bizarre psychiatric symptoms that did not fit any disorder I had ever heard of, the guy whose scores on the SCL90 (a symptom checklist) were above the ceiling on ALL the scales, and - my personal favourite - the man who reported a head injury that had left him with no sense of smell or taste, but who left my office, sniffed, and said, "Someone is making popcorn".

I am always hard pressed to make a distinction between malingering as opposed to factitious disorder or some other somatization disorder, as I am always hard pressed to say whether these disorders are occurring in addition to or instead of another psychiatric disorder or cognitive impairment. The literature indeed suggests that just because you are malingering, does not mean that you do not have a legitimate problem as well.

I have made a lot of progress since my early days in the correctional system. I can now make, what I feel is a pretty
good assessment, of the motivations and legitimacy of symptoms. I do this by using a synthesis of assessing the scientific/medical plausibility of the symptoms, the cohesiveness of the history, the pattern of results within tests, and scores on specific measures that tend to reveal insufficient effort and "response bias," and the possible gain. It is probably in the latter case that the difference between an incarcerated population and the "outside world" is most obvious.

I have even reached the point where I can understand the motivation. Malingered or factitious psychiatric disorders are fairly unusual in the "real world" - unless there is a clear financial gain involved. This may be because whereas getting into a psychiatric hospital in the community is not a goal for most people, it does have some real advantages in the correctional population. And even if you don't actually end up in what might be perceived as a more hospitable institution, you do tend to get the benefit of some degree of attention from psychologists, counsellors, teachers, nurses and other well-meaning staff. Most (but not all) the guys I have seen who turn out to be performing below their optimal level on my tests either have horrendous personal histories in which the only positive attention they ever got was from health care providers or other professionals or they really do derive significant gain from being "disabled", like being on a pension or being eligible for specialized services. In the correctional system, I am not sure if desire for financial or material gains (which according to the DSM-IV makes it malingering) or the need to acquire the patient role (e.g., factitious disorder) is a bigger motivator. In any event, it probably does not make too much difference as I have never yet had anyone "fess up to me that they were deliberately performing at less than an optimal level.

The answer to the problem of feigned disorders is of course...errr...um...I have not quite gotten there yet. I can identify them, but I am not sure what you do with them once you label them. That's the rub.

(If you have a desire to learn more about feigned psychiatric disorders, check out the work of Marc Feldman, MD, who writes readable stuff both for the lay audience and for professionals. Try his book Playing Sick, published by Routledge in 2004 for a starter).

Column: Training in Criminal Justice Psychology
By Mark Olver, Ph.D., RD Psych (SK)
Director-at-Large: Clinical and Training

Increasing the Awareness of Criminal Justice Training Opportunities in Canada

This is my first column in the Criminal Justice newsletter as I take over for Dr. Andrew Starzomski as Director-At-Large for Clinical/Training. I am pleased to have this opportunity and cannot help but feel at least a little bit daunted by the big shoes left to fill. Andrew has done an excellent job articulating the needs and training issues of those entering the field and has formulated some great ideas to advance the agenda of criminal justice training in Canada.

To give you a quick overview of my background, I obtained my Ph.D. in clinical psychology from the University of Saskatchewan (U of S) in 2003. In my first post-grad school job, I worked for three years as a clinician on the Young Offender Team in the Saskatoon Health Region and was also employed on a causal basis doing risk assessments at the Regional Psychiatric Centre (RPC). After two years of provisional registration, I was registered with autonomous practice with the Saskatchewan College of Psychologists in early 2006. Over the past year, I have worked at Stony Mountain Institution (SMI) in Winnipeg primarily conducting assessments. I have recently begun a tenure track academic position in the Department of Psychology (Clinical Psychology Stream) at my alma mater, the U of S.

As those of you who work for CSC know, there has been an ongoing problem with retention and recruitment of psychologists in correctional settings. Some regions have probably been affected by this more than others. Certainly from my own experience at SMI, we were frequently understaffed and at times there was only a small handful of psychology staff to navigate the influx of intake and pre-release assessments, crisis consultations, mental health screens, and treatment referrals for a 600-bed institution! This is a puzzling predicament. On the one hand, the interest and demand for forensic training appears to be quite high, as evidenced by the growing number of forensic graduate students in clinical/applied psychology programs. Yet on the other hand, it seems many of these jobs are not being filled. What’s happening?

We can only speculate about what is contributing to the shortage of psychologists in criminal justice settings (and there are probably many reasons), but a lack of awareness about job or training opportunities is one likely culprit. This past summer I had the fortunate opportunity to supervise a clinical psychology practicum student from out of province. Resorting to her own devices, she tracked down and contacted the Acting Chief of the SMI psychology department on her own and basically asked if there was any possibility of
doing a summer practicum. This turned out to be a rewarding and productive training experience for her (and equally so for myself as a clinical supervisor), but I would argue that few students would have the initiative and pluck to search out and create such an opportunity on their own. (It turns out the student was originally from Winnipeg, interested in forensics, and was returning home for the summer).

At this past NACCJPC in Ottawa, Andrew, Steve Wormith and I discussed the matter of increasing the awareness and availability of criminal justice training opportunities in Canada. Andrew has also had some excellent ideas in my consultation with him for this column, and in my new role as Director-at-Large, I would like to continue Andrew’s lead in an effort to implement some of these ideas. One viable goal to work towards may be to develop a directory of practicum and internship criminal justice training opportunities in Canada. It would be our hope that such a directory would be an easy to access reference for students interested in pursuing such training, and perhaps even clinical psychology programs in general who are searching out practicum placements for their students.

As Bob Morgan et al.’s (2007) survey of clinical and counseling psychology programs in the United States revealed, at least south of the border, there is much interest among practicum students and interns in receiving correctional/forensic psychology training. (In fact, the survey revealed that roughly 27% of the 175 students surveyed had expressed an interest in possibly pursuing careers in correctional/forensic psychology and 17% reported plans to do so.) There is little reason not to extrapolate a similar level of interest in Canada for the reasons alluded to above. The idea is, if we make it easier for prospective interns and practicum students to find criminal justice training (e.g., via a directory), perhaps there might be an increase in those who take advantage of such opportunities and possibly even pursue careers within the forensic arena.

It seems an important step will be to get in touch with psychologists working in various criminal justice settings. This would be not only at the CSC level, but also in the Provincial and Youth Justice systems providing an opportunity to survey different programs and explore the diversity of training opportunities. Part of the process may also include developing and distributing a survey (perhaps web-based) to be completed by psychology staff at various sites at the federal/provincial/youth level. Specifically, I would be interested in learning what kinds of training opportunities (e.g., assessment and treatment) are available from different sites? What are the populations served? What is the amount of collaboration with training directors from local clinical psychology and internship programs? What are some of the barriers to increasing criminal justice training opportunities, and what needs to be done to remove them?

I would be pleased to hear any comments, feedback, or suggestions you may have on these ideas. Please feel free to contact me at mark.olver@usask.ca.

Reference

Don’t forget to let us know when you hear about:
- Employment Opportunities
- Members on the Move
- Recently Published Articles

Column: CCOPP’s* Stories
(*Canadian Committee of Police Psychologists)
By Dorothy Cotton, Ph.D.,
Director-at-Large: Police Psychology

The Super-Cop Reality Show
And, ladies and gentleman, WHO do YOU think should be the NEXT superstar…whatever?? The world of television seems to have been completely taken over by “superstar” programs. If it isn’t the “idol” shows, it is the competition for the best interior designer - or dancer - or handyman - or hairdresser - or chef - or …

I am waiting for the Super-Cop Show. Should have been aired by now actually, but they ran into problems deciding exactly what the challenges ought to be. How do you measure good policing? Is it the guy with the biggest gun? The most arrests? The fastest paperwork? Do you trail people around secretly filming them like on “What not to wear” and see who scares the most bad guys or makes the most small children smile? And how would you score it anyhow? Does the arrest of one serial killer outweigh 42 B&E’s? And what about the ethics? I am not sure you can get away with planting 10 bank robbers in the community and seeing which police-contestant captures one first. Do you stop after that or keep going until all 10 are captured?

Deciding on challenges ought to be a job for a police psychologist. After all, it is all about measurement, and that’s one of our fortes, isn’t it?

Many police services have already done a lot of the work here, and of course the government requires them to keep track of all kinds of stuff. It would be a pretty unusual police
service that does not have some measures in place for deciding whether they have done a good job or not. Common measures include things like:

- number of arrests,
- number of charges laid,
- number of complaints about officer misconduct,
- time to respond to calls,
- crime rate per population,
- clearance rate,
- reported versus unreported crime,
- number of presentations made to community groups,
- number of calls for service, and
- case load per officer.

The crucial question is how exactly you link all these various measures to the real overall goal – a safe community free from a fear of crime. It's a matter of looking at "outputs" (all that stuff listed above) versus "outcomes" (what we really wanted to achieve in the first place). And it is a matter of linking all those outcomes to some global overall goal. Hopefully that also has something to do with the organization's mission statement. Interestingly, it appears that not all police services are quite as good at linking those measures listed above to the overall goal as they are at just collecting the data itself. In other words, they might keep track of all this stuff but they are not using it to figure out if they are achieving the overall goal. (I am not sure that police organizations are any different from other organizations in this regard. I have worked for hospitals who collect reams of data about patient contact - then put it in boxes in a basement somewhere...)

But there is no doubt that measuring outcomes of policing is easier said than done.

It would be much easier if the goal of policing were something simple like arresting people or responding quickly. But does it really matter if you respond quickly? Do people care? Evidence suggests that generally people want police to respond really quickly in a real emergency and otherwise, they are happy if they just show up when they said they'd show up, whenever that is. So showing up fast when it is not necessary doesn't really impress anyone. And does it matter if they arrest a lot of people? If arresting a lot of people makes people feel safer (or if it actually makes them safer) then it matters. But if it doesn't, then it doesn't.

The struggle to figure out 'what the end point of policing is' is not getting any easier. I think in olden times, keeping track of outputs was probably OK. When a police "force" was a paramilitary and bureaucratic organization, a closed organization isolated from the community, outputs might have served the needs of the organization. They did allow for some degree of financial control, work load management, and provided good arguments for bigger budgets and more bodies. But today? That's not really what contemporary policing is all about.

As for the reality TV show, there are lots of challenges we can use. But in the end, I think the audience has to vote. (A friend of mine has just completed a MA thesis on this subject; let me know if you'd like to hear more about it.)

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**Interested in submitting an article for the April Issue of Crime Scene?**

Deadline is February 29th, 2008

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**Column: Beyond a Reasonable Doubt**

As you have heard, Dr. David Nussbaum and Dr. Garry Fisher are now sharing the Director-at-Large: Psychology in the Courts position. For this Issue, David has written an introduction and Garry has provided his bio and goal statement; the full column will resume in the next Issue.

**My New CPA CJS Role: Co-DAL: Psychology in the Courts**

By David Nussbaum, Ph.D.

Co-Director-at-Large: Psychology in the Courts

Over the last 15 years, I have come to increasingly value the necessity and importance of CPA for the health and growth of psychology as a science and discipline in Canada. Because of that and a belief that one should "give back" to one's profession, I volunteered to serve along with Dr. Garry Fisher as Co-Director-at-Large for Psychology in the Courts within the Criminal Justice Section of CPA. I previously served as Section Chair for the CJS and am currently the Chair of the Section on Psychopharmacology.

Unlike the majority of CJS members, my tie to the CJS is through forensic and not correctional psychology. I spent about 20 years doing assessments for the courts relating to Fitness to Stand Trial, Criminal Responsibility and Dangerous Offender Status pre and post the 1992 Swain decision (an old guy, eh?) I am currently at the University of Toronto and maintain a research position at the Whitby Mental Health Centre. My research interests centre on neuropsychological and neurobiological processes and mechanisms in violence, psychopathy and poor decision-making in general.

I see Criminal Justice Psychology existing at two (non-orthogonal) stages; pre and post-verdict. As most members are very familiar with post-verdict correctional psychology and this portfolio is primarily focused to pre-verdict issues, I
will limit this introduction to the latter. Forensic psychology in this scheme is very court-centric and its clinical basis is closely tied to the impingement of mental disorders on competence in the past, present and future. Specifically, previous decision-making on competence relates to the time of the criminal act (NCR status), current competence to the time of trial (Fitness), and future competence to what used to be called dangerousness and now risk of future violence. There are clear legal tests of Fitness and NCR and these can change periodically with new legislation, court decisions, or appeals of decisions. Ethical issues regarding cautions and informed consent are different. As well, the individual is still regarded as ‘an accused’ and not as ‘convicted’. There is a greater focus on traditional clinical skills (diagnosis, cognitive competence etc.) as these two issues must be established before one seeks to invoke a legal threshold. One must also appreciate the effect of a particular diagnosis on different aspects of competence such as attention, memory and reasoning ability because a diagnosis alone does not make a case for legal status.

Every report written has the potential to appear in front of a judge or jury and the forensic clinician must be prepared to defend his or her report in court. Lawyers are adept at picking potential weak or unsupported spots within reports, and their ethic unlike ours is not objective, empirically supported “truth”, but rather the strongest case that can be made to help their client be it the accused or society. Psychologists often have difficulty with this reality. I have testified in court many times, generally but not always successfully. One notable case where I changed my opinion on the stand was where a lawyer (and the client of course) neglected to mention that the defendant, supposedly inebriated at the time in question to the point of alcohol automatism, used a contrived and subtle subterfuge lasting a few minutes to convince the victim to unlock his door before assaulting him. Testifying can be stressful and lawyers often consult with colleagues to identify points for “dis-creditation”. Judges are well aware that our justice system is an adversarial forum and that lawyers are often trying to score points rather than enunciate objective truth. Nevertheless, expert witnesses often feel “beaten up” by adept lawyers.

Another area that is generally ignored by offender-involved psychologists at either stage of the legal process is a substantial social psychology literature on topics such as eye-witness testimony and social psychological approaches to aggression and violence. Academics working in these areas are occasionally called by defense attorneys to help lessen the inculpatory weight of eye-witness testimony or explain the victim’s role in a particular violent crime to lessen an imposed sanction.

Given these realities, I will endeavor to keep the Section updated on legal and psychological developments relevant to the broad spectrum of its membership. As a member of the Ontario Review Board, I have had the opportunity to examine issues from an impartial position after receiving arguments from the Crown and Accused perspectives. When appropriate, I hope to serve as a conduit between the profession, justice system and legislative bodies for the betterment of all concerned.

**My New Role as Co-DAL: Psychology in the Courts**

*By Garry Fisher, Ph.D.*

**Co-Director-at-Large: Psychology in the Courts**

I am a Clinical Psychologist who has worked in the corrections and forensic psychology areas for several years, initially in Southwestern Ontario, and for the last 16 years in Manitoba. I currently coordinate a program delivering clinical services for assessment, counselling, and consultation for youth involved in the criminal justice system in Manitoba, delivered in institutional and community settings. As well, I complete formal assessments ordered by the Court and risk assessments on a contractual basis for the Correctional Service of Canada. I have appeared as an expert witness to provide testimony across three provinces. Within a private practice environment, I prepare assessment reports to assist in issues related to Fitness to Stand Trial, and Fetal Alcohol Spectrum Disorder.

With respect to the Psychology and the Courts co-DAL position, I hope to provide opportunities for the review of current literature and trends, particularly related to Expert Witness testimony and assessment processes with adolescents within a criminal justice environment. Furthermore, I hope to be involved in creating a “resource bank” of Psychologists who would be prepared to offer information to individuals who raise questions or concerns about their involvement in Court related assessments and/or in providing testimony.

**Recently Defended Dissertations & Theses**

**Delays in Attentional Processing When Viewing Sexual Imagery: The Development and Comparison of Two Measures**

*Carmen L. Z. Gress, Ph.D.*

*University of Victoria*

The purpose of this study was threefold: (a) develop, validate, and compare two measures, viewing time (VT) and choice reaction time (CRT), that sexual content induced delay (SCID; Geer & Bellard, 1996) among youth non-sexual offenders, university students, and adults who had sexually offended, (b) address some of the methodological weaknesses in prior research, and (c) examine the measures’ clinical utility by investigating their predictive
validity via estimates of sensitivity and specificity. VT assesses how long an individual takes to view an image of a single person while completing a task, and CRT measures how quickly and accurately an individual indicates to which category (there must be two or more from which the participant can choose) the presented stimulus belongs. There are five central results from this study. First, both the VT and CRT measures produced subtest scores with high reliability, via item and scale analysis, with all three samples. Second, there were significant differences between the adult sexual offenders and the youth non-sexual offenders when assessed with the VT measures, but not between the youth non-sexual offenders and the university students. This study, neither age nor education influenced these results. Third, there were significant differences between youth non-sexual offenders and the university sample when assessed with the CRT measure, but not between the adult sex offenders and either the youth non-sexual offenders or university students. Fourth, as evidenced by point two and three, the VT and CRT measures provided significantly different results. Finally, some of the VT subtests demonstrated good clinical utility in its ability to differentiate adult heterosexual sexual offenders from non-sexual offenders (for example, AUC = 0.87 female mature images, 0.88 male child images).

For further information, please contact Dr. Carmen Gress at carmen_gress@sfu.ca.

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The Role of Self-Concept and Narcissism in Aggression

Tarah Hook, Ph.D.
University of Saskatchewan

The self-esteem instability and emotional reactivity associated with narcissism was hypothesized to be related to possessing a relatively simple cognitive self-representation, also known as low self-complexity. The relationships between narcissism, self-concept, affect and violent behaviour were investigated in a sample of 96 federally sentenced violent and sexual offenders. Participants completed personality inventories (MCM-III and NPI), a measure of self-complexity, baseline measures of anger and self-esteem, and a measure of socially desirable responding (PDS). Experiences of positive and negative events and the resulting changes in affect and self-esteem were tracked over six weeks. It was expected that self-complexity would mediate reactivity to daily events such that individuals low in self-complexity and high in narcissistic personality traits would report the greatest shifts in self-esteem and emotion. When positive and negative self-complexity were considered separately, some support was found for the hypothesized buffering effect. Generally, higher positive self-complexity was associated with better coping while higher negative self-complexity was associated with less desirable reactions to events. Theoretical and clinical implications of this finding are discussed along with study limitations and suggestions for future research.

For further information, please contact Dr. Tarah Hook at Tarah.Hook@capitalhealth.ca.

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Treatment Readiness in a Sample of Antisocial Youth: Assessing Characteristics for Use in Decision-Making

Sylvie Lalonde, M.A.
Carleton University

The present study focused on examining the predictive ability of selected indicators of treatment readiness in antisocial youth, based on the models of antisocial behaviours developed by Loeber (1990) and Moffitt, Caspi, Dickson, Silva, and Stanton (1996). Several constructs of treatment readiness were examined, including the number of mental health problems, the onset of antisocial behaviours, the severity and persistence of antisocial behaviours, and aggression. Participants consisted of a sample of 115 behaviourally-challenged youth admitted to the Crisis unit at the Roberts/Smart Centre, an accredited residential mental health centre in the province of Ontario. The Treatment Readiness: Short Version (TR:SV) scale was used to obtain readiness scores. Results showed that an early onset of antisocial behaviours, the presence of a mental health disorder, gender, and past criminal behaviour were correlated with treatment readiness, but only an early onset significantly contributed to the prediction of treatment readiness scores. Implications and limitations are discussed.

For additional information, please contact Sylvie at sclalonde@rogers.com.

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The Influence of Offender and Victim Ethnicity on Perceptions of Crime Severity and Recommended Punishment

Carrie L. Tanasichuk, M.A.
University of Saskatchewan

Crime severity has been found to be one of the best predictors of sentencing decisions (Darley, Carlsmith, & Robinson, 2000). However, there is a dearth of research examining the effect of offender and victim ethnicity on perceptions of crime seriousness, and the few studies that do exist have had mixed results. Some studies find an effect of victim ethnicity (e.g., Cohen-Raz, Bozna, & Glicksohn, 1997), some studies find no significant effects of offender nor victim ethnicity (e.g., Benjamin, 1989), and some studies only find effects under certain conditions, such as when the crime is of low seriousness (e.g., Herzog, 2003a). The present study was conducted in an attempt to clarify these convoluted findings by using measures of modern and old-fashioned prejudice. Whereas old-fashioned prejudice refers to the belief that an out group is in someway inferior, modern
prejudice refers to the view that a minority group no longer faces discrimination or that the minority group is being “too pushy” when advocating for equal rights (McConahay, 1983). It was found that when the crime was perceived as being quite severe, harsher punishments were recommended for the offender. Further to this, participants scoring high in modern prejudice perceived crimes to be more severe and recommended longer sentences in certain offender-victim ethnicity conditions than participants scoring low in modern prejudice. However, contrary to the hypotheses, no significant differences were found between high and low old-fashioned prejudice participants. Perceived offender responsibility and stability were also found to affect perceptions of crime severity and recommended punishment. When an offence was described as being stable (i.e., the offender had committed similar crimes in the past), participants rated the crime as being more severe and recommended a harsher punishment than when it was the offender’s first offence. Additionally, when participants attributed responsibility for the crime to the offender, crime severity ratings were higher and recommended punishments were longer. The implications of these results are discussed and recommendations for future research are put forward.

For further information, please contact Carrie Tanasichuk at carrie.tanasichuk@usask.ca.

Examining the Effectiveness of Psychological Debriefing Following a Critical Incident: A Meta Analysis
Alyssa Taylor, M.A.
Carleton University

Psychological debriefing (PD) is a widespread and commonly relied upon crisis intervention used to minimize the adverse affects of those who have been involved in a critical incident. However, the acceptance of debriefing intervention strategies has outpaced the scientific research that supports its effectiveness. Empirical evidence on the effectiveness of PD remains mixed. Even previous attempts to summarize this literature have not managed to provide a clear understanding of whether or not PD is effective. The current thesis represents the most comprehensive empirical summary of literature examining the effectiveness of PD for individuals who have been exposed to critical incidents. A total of 24 research studies on PD were examined using a meta-analytic approach. Overall results indicated that there was a small effect supporting the use of PD, especially for reducing anger and improving general health and functioning. However, it was the moderator analysis that provided an understanding of the conditions under which debriefing is most effective. More specifically, PD appears to be most effective when using one specific model of PD (Mitchell’s CISD), when targeting occupational personnel (e.g., police officers, firefighters, etc.) in group settings who have been exposed to occupationally-related traumatic events (e.g., officer-involved shootings, death of a child, etc.), and when sessions are made mandatory. Given the limitations of this thesis, and until further research is conducted, the most appropriate suggestion at this point would be to use PD with extreme caution for the settings that have been identified as promoting the effectiveness of PD.

If you would like more information, please contact Alyssa Taylor at ataylor5@connect.carleton.ca.

Special Feature:
Terrorism: Difficult to Define But Worth the Effort
By Steven J. Stein, Ph.D., C.Psych.

The involvement of psychologists in the study of terrorism, especially forensic and criminal justice psychologists, is a welcome development. I believe that psychologists can make significant contributions in this area. I would like to commend Wagdy Loza for his article that provided the opening round for this discussion. Wagdy’s article argued for more involvement of psychologists (specifically forensic psychologists) in research on terrorism as most articles on the subject are currently by journalists, politicians, police, and military professionals. Secondly, he gave a historical summary of terrorism and stressed the importance of understanding the mindset of Islam in order to effectively deal with the problem.

In a more recent article, David Fischman challenges some of Wagdy’s assumptions as well as the direction that many of us conducting research in this area are following. David’s article basically makes three points in this regard. These can be summarized as follows: (1) “terrorism” is a messy, pejorative term and therefore cannot be defined or studied as such; (2) a psychology of terrorism would be of no use; and (3) understanding Islam is unlikely to be of any value in understanding terrorism.
I would like to respond to these three themes, and have therefore broken this article into three parts. Part I addresses issues around defining terrorism. Part II deals with psychology’s contribution to the study of terrorism and Part III discusses why understanding Islam is important in understanding modern-day terrorism.

I. Is “Terrorism” Too Messy or Pejorative To Define?

Defining Terrorism Is Slippery

One of the arguments in David’s article against defining terrorism is that “it is a slippery subject and no adequate definition has been arrived at”. I would think that that applies to most aspects of human behaviour. The discipline of psychology is filled with definitions, some more slippery than others. Are there definitions for intelligence, aggression, or altruism, to name a few, that are accepted by all psychologists? I think not.

Furthermore, the lack of a perfect definition for “intelligence” has not stopped the production of thousands of research studies that have increased our understanding of human behaviour. Think of some of the topics we study in criminal justice, forensic psychology or military psychology. Most of them could be criticized for having definitional problems.

We Can’t Define Politically Motivated Crimes, It’s Demeaning

In David’s article, the word terrorism is described as a “pejorative term for politically motivated violence”. Part of the point seems to be that politically motivated violence is somewhat different, or maybe even more understandable than ordinary violence. The second part seems to imply that it is insulting for politically motivated perpetrators to be confused with regular criminals.

Let’s look at how this plays out with robbers. The robber who robs banks to buy a new Porsche is okay being called a robber. But once he starts robbing banks to send money to the Green Party, we might have to stop calling him a “robber”. The term “robber” has now become too derogatory for him.

Maybe we should also be concerned about what we call other offenders. It may be inappropriate (or politically incorrect) to stigmatize some of our most dangerous criminals. Should we reconsider the labels we use for serial killers, mass murderers, or rapists because some of them might find the labels too offensive?

We Need Universal Rules That Have Been Consistent From the Beginning of Time

According to David the term “terrorism” exists only if certain rules exist. He goes on to explain, “in order for an action to be called terrorism as understood today, it needs to be identified as violating certain assumptions and expectations regarding warfare that are a consensual part of the culture of nations”.

Now this may be getting a bit complicated. If I understand it, he is suggesting that we need some sort of universally accepted Geneva Convention for terrorism before we can begin to define what a terrorist is. I suppose that means we will need to wait until the United Nations reaches a consensus on a definition before anyone else can. Using that as a standard we may be waiting a few generations before seeing any progress.

It is not quite clear why a definition of terrorism needs to be universal and acceptable to all cultures and countries. Terrorist acts are quite distinct from most kinds of political violence we are familiar with (i.e., wars, revolutions, rebellions, guerrilla warfare, coup d’état, etc.). Also, few of these political acts share assumptions or expectations that are consensual among nations.

In fact, most areas of study in criminal justice and forensic psychology lack a single, universally accepted definition. Should we stop conducting research on rapists, serial killers, stalkers, and various other types of offenders? To say that we cannot define sexual assault in a way that is universally acceptable does not negate the importance of its study. Also, the fact that what we define as rape may be seen as an acceptable religious practice in another culture does not mean that rape cannot be defined – or, more precisely, that “one woman’s rapist is another woman’s protector”.

David appears to suggest that the term “terrorism” exists only because certain rules exist in certain cultures. Well, isn’t that true for not only rape, but fraud, polygamy, armed robbery, summary executions, mass murder, genocide, and practically every other form of what we call criminal behavior or war crimes?

Definitions, “One man’s terrorist ………”

Another point David makes is that any “definition of terrorism is created by people or groups of people who may have differing beliefs and political ideologies”. In other words, this falls into the “one man’s terrorist is another man’s freedom fighter” argument.

Definitions of any kind are developed by people who have one sort of belief or political ideology or another. In criminal justice, laws are created based on definitions involving elected politicians, legislators and others of various beliefs and political ideologies. These people represent various points of view on many topics such as capital punishment, abortion, indeterminate sentencing, and so on. Yet this has not stopped politicians, legislators, and others from coming up with definitions that feed into the laws of this country.

Why we need a definition

There are a number of reasons why we need pragmatic definitions of terrorism. The first is to guide research in this area. As previously mentioned, many psychological
concepts, such as intelligence, aggression, and altruism, to name a few, lack a unitary definition within the field. There are a variety of definitions of intelligence, for example, that have led to research that has significantly increased our understanding of human behaviour.

Also, as David points out, the research done on “terrorism” to date has ruled out commonly accepted causes such as poverty, lack of education, and mental illness, among others. It is only because researchers have used specific operational definitions of terrorism in their work that we have the level of knowledge that exists. I am not sure I understand the claim being made that because we have ruled out so many factors from being the “cause” of terrorism, then terrorism may not be worth defining. It’s like saying that because autism is not caused by poor parenting, low social economic status, or poor diet, then perhaps we should give up on defining autism.

Finally, governments, judges, law enforcement and intelligence agencies need legally defensible definitions that are practical and enforceable in order to carry out their responsibilities. Without proper definitions we get caught in meaningless discussions of whether “one person’s terrorist is another person’s freedom fighter”. For example, imagine the implications of the following quote:

"I do think the Western world is getting too rich in relation to the poor world and necessarily, you know, we’re looked upon as being arrogant, self-satisfied, greedy and with no limits. And September 11 is an occasion for me to realize it even more."

In my presentations on terrorism I ask audiences to guess the source of this quote. I often get responses like Noam Chomsky, Ward Churchill, and other political commentators. Sadly, this quote came from former Canadian Prime Minister Jean Chrétien, speaking about September 11 on its first anniversary. If government strategies and initiatives towards terrorism were based on this perspective, we could not only be wasting expensive government resources, but may be enabling the deaths of many more innocent people because we failed to correctly define and understand the problem.

My point is not to lay blame on the former Prime Minister as he is not the only world leader who has been misinformed about “root causes” of terrorism. In fact, much of the blame for world leaders thinking this way belongs to those of us who do research in this area for not getting the facts out to governments, politicians, the media and the public.

Another example of the need for a clear definition can be found in a recent headline taken from Canada’s National Post newspaper (Humphreys, 2007), “One Official’s ‘Refugee’ is Another’s ‘Terrorist’: IRB Criticized for Dissimilar Rulings on Similar Cases”. In these two cases, according to Judge Michael Phelan of the federal court, two refugee applicants with similar circumstances were both applying for refugee status in Canada – one suspected of a terrorist background, and the other accepted as a refugee. According to the Judge, “the failure to explain the basis for the different conclusion undermines the integrity of [Immigration and Refugee Board] decisions and gives them an aura of arbitrariness which is no doubt not intended nor is it acceptable”. The article goes on to cite Carleton University Professor Martin Rudner, who said, “The notion of terrorism is fairly straightforward - it is ideologically or politically motivated violence directed against civilian targets. I'm surprised that there are disagreements among judges”.

It seems there are disagreements among psychologists as well.

Proposed definitions

There have been, to date, over 100 definitions of terrorism offered (Schmidt & Jongman, 1988). As David has suggested, they have come from a variety of disciplines, including religious studies, social sciences, political science, economics, and criminology. But psychiatry and psychology have also been major players in this area.

Most definitions of terrorism have been proposed by academics and the law enforcement community. For example, Jessica Stern, a terrorism researcher at Harvard University defines terrorism as “an act or threat of violence against noncombatants with the objective of exacting revenge, intimidating, or otherwise influencing an audience" (Stern, 2003). Reviewing the topic in American Psychologist, Fathali Moghaddam defines it as “politically motivated violence, perpetrated by individuals, groups, or state-sponsored agents, intended to instill feelings of terror and helplessness in a population in order to influence decision making and to change behavior” (Moghaddam, 2005).

In David’s article, he cites Boaz Ganor whose article “Defining Terrorism” proposes the following definition, “terrorism is the intentional use of, or threat to use violence against civilians or against civilian targets, in order to attain political aims” (Ganor, no date).

Finally, a simpler definition proposed by Ayla Schbley (2003) designed to meet the needs of policymakers, legislators, academics, intelligence, soldiers and law enforcement officers is “terrorism is any violent act upon symbolic civilians and their properties”. I would recommend modifying the definition slightly by adding the word intentional. For a discussion of the development of this definition the reader is referred to Schbley (2003).

As can be seen, there is a lot of similarity among these definitions. In fact, most definitions include at least two factors. First, terrorism is an act of aggression against non-combatants. Second, terrorist action is not expected by its perpetrator to accomplish a political goal, but rather to
influence a target audience and change that audience’s behaviour in a way that benefits the terrorists.

II. Can Psychology Contribute To The Understanding of Terrorism?

According to David not only have psychologists not contributed to solving the problem of terrorism, but he states that "a psychology of terrorism is likely to contribute little to our understanding of the phenomenon". Alternately, I believe that psychology’s role in this area has not only been important, but will prove to be increasingly significant in the future.

Even though there have been very few psychologists working in the area, their impact has been noticeable (two of whom were cited in David’s article: psychiatrist Jerrold Post and psychologist Ariel Merari). Other psychologists and psychiatrists who have contributed to our understanding of terrorism include Rona Fields, Fathali Moghaddam, Marc Sageman, Anthony Marsella, and Reid Maloy, among others. Even non-psychologists who are well known in this area, such as Jessica Stern, credit psychologists in their work (Stern, 2003).

As David reports, there has, in fact, been a great deal of progress made in this area – some which has been due to psychological research – such as the ruling out of a number of commonly believed “roots” of terrorism.

Duplex Theory of Hate

Psychologists have played a role in developing theories for understanding terrorism as well. Probably one of the more useful theories helping us better understand terrorism was proposed by Robert Sternberg at Yale University and former President of the American Psychological Association.

His duplex theory of hate involves two major components. The first he calls structural and involves three characteristics: (1) disgust (selecting a target group and dehumanizing them); (2) passion (a call to action through fight or flight response); and (3) commitment (a belief system supporting hate that includes propaganda, education, and incitement). The second component involves ‘stories’, the creation of a narrative that keeps the hate alive over time through schools, media, places of worship, and government agencies (Sternberg, 2003a, 2003b).

Using the Tools of Criminal Justice

Reviewing the current research in terrorism reminds me of the state of the art of criminal justice (or corrections as we knew it) in the 1960’s and 1970’s. One similarity is the time and effort that was spent on searching for “root causes” of criminal behaviour (deprived childhood, poor social-economic status, broken family, mental illness, genetic predisposition, etc.). However, the field was significantly changed by a few Canadian psychologists who shifted the focus of study towards key offender characteristics, risk factors, and case management. Examples include the works of Robert Hare, Don Andrews, and Jim Bonta, among others.

Perhaps some of this work could be useful in the current effort to better understand terrorism. For example, Robert Hare’s work in identification and consequences of psychopathic behaviour among forensic, offender, and community populations provides a model for understanding some violent behavior. The Hare Psychopathy Checklist-Revised (PCL-R), which has proven itself with a variety of types of offenders, is widely regarded a standard in forensic psychology and psychiatry (Hare, 2003). The PCL-R and its derivatives are powerful predictors of recidivism and violence on their own or as part of other tools for risk assessment (Seagrave & Grisso, 2002).

One of the main challenges facing us today is with home-grown terrorists and their risk of engaging in terrorist acts. Hare, together with Hugues Hervé, developed a tool called the P-SCAN, which consists of a rating scale that can be completed on suspects or other target individuals by non-professionals who know the individual well (Hare & Hervé, 2001). Data has been collected with this tool on community samples, probationers, and incarcerated offenders. Rather than a diagnostic assessment, the P-SCAN provides possible hypotheses about an individual’s behaviours and their likely risk for offending. Recently data has also been collected on mid-level Palestinian terrorists.

There are practical issues for law enforcement and intelligence officers in identifying people at risk for violence. Often, simply being alerted to the possibility that a suspect may be dangerous could change the way in which one approaches the individual. For example, strategies generally used to interview and investigate most suspects are unlikely to work with targets high in psychopathic traits. These individuals tend to con, manipulate, play “head games”, and control in interpersonal relationships (Hare, 1998).

III. Why Understanding Islam Is Important For Terrorism Research

Another point of David’s where I disagree is, “an understanding of Islam, even political or radical Islam, has very limited potential for giving us an understanding of terrorism”. We have learned a great deal about the terrorist threat we face today through Jihadists in captivity, their writings, their behaviours, their organizations, and through testimony of ex- or former Jihadists.

The importance and the role of religion, especially Islam, in today’s terrorist enterprise have been well established. To start with, we can look at which groups perpetrate the most terrorism in the world today. Statistics on incidents of terrorism occurring around the world each year are tracked by the non-profit group National Memorial Institute for the
Prevention of Terrorism (see Terrorism Knowledge Base www.TKB.org).

According to the TKB summary, the ten most active terrorist groups in the world (based on the number of terrorist attacks committed) in 2005 were responsible for 907 attacks. Six of the ten groups are Islamic (or Jihadist). The Jihadists carried out 66% (602) of these acts. The ten most deadly attacks in the world accounted for 774 deaths. All ten were the work of Jihadists - six by al-Qaeda, and four by other Islamic groups in Iraq.

Similar results have been reported by the National Counterterrorism Center (www.nctc.gov) of the United States. Terrorist acts include airline hijacking, beheading, kidnapping, assassination, roadside bombing, suicide bombing, and occasionally rape.

Does the fact that Muslims carry out so many terror attacks make it a Muslim problem? Not necessarily. One could argue that the vast majority of rapes in Canada are carried out by Christians. Is rape a Christian problem? No evidence suggests that it is.

However, there is a good deal of evidence linking Jihadist imams and their followers to terrorism. Islamist terrorist activity is usually referred to as jihad (struggle). Threats, including death threats, are often issued as fatwas (Islamic legal judgments). Both Muslims and non-Muslims have been among the targets and victims. Threats against Muslims are often issued as takfir (a declaration that someone considered Muslim is in fact an unbeliever). This is an implicit death threat as the punishment for apostasy in Islam is death, under traditional interpretations of Sharia law.

There is insufficient space here to fully explore the religious and specifically, the Islamic/Jihadist role in terrorism. However, Jessica Stern (2003), the Harvard researcher who has studied religious terrorism and interviewed numerous terrorists has concluded that it is not grievances that motivate terrorist crimes. Rather, the following are more important:

1. Terrorists believe they are creating a more perfect world;
2. Most people who join religious terrorist groups do so partly to transform themselves and simplify life;
3. Starting out feeling humiliated, they take on new identities as martyrs;
4. They perceive the world as divided between good and evil; and
5. They persuade themselves that any action, even a heinous crime, is justified for their cause.

Stern goes on to point out why the Islamic world is particularly vulnerable to recruiting terrorists. The Muslim world, and especially Muslim-majority states such as Egypt, Pakistan, Palestinian territories, the Persian Gulf, Syria, Iran, Iraq, Indonesia, and growing areas of Africa are breeding grounds for anti-Americanism and anti-Western values. The mullahs and their masters have an easy scapegoat for their problems.

In conclusion, I believe that what is important in all this is that there is a serious worldwide problem that can be well-defined as terrorism. Overall, I believe that the threats from terrorism are increasing and are primarily due to three reasons. These are (1) globalization of commerce, travel, and information; (2) the ascent of religious fundamentalism as an aggrieved competitor to market-economic, democratic and secular modernity; and (3) the privatization of weapons of mass destruction.

While the problem of terrorism is being studied by various experts in politics, sociology, criminal justice, and other areas, psychology, and in particular forensic psychology can play a major role in this field. Many of the findings of experts in allied fields seem to come back to unanswered questions that fall within the realm of psychology – Who are these terrorists? Why does someone join a terrorist group? What makes these people tick? How can we predict which religious believers will become violent? How can we counter the propaganda that these people get from Imams in their mosques? All of these questions have important psychological components and will require the attention of psychologists for answers. I hope we are up to the challenge.

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I want to congratulate Jeremy, Bob and all the others who contributed to the North American Correctional and Criminal Justice Psychology Conference. It was excellent. For me, it was exciting to have so many psychologists in one place at one time. There were the “fathers” who have been making our field what it is today, building the foundation and making the inroads to today’s effective correctional practices. There were also those of us (I include myself in this group) who “grew up” under their influence and tutelage, hopefully getting ready to continue their great progress. And of course, there was the next generation, the students and recent graduates. Three generations if you will, listening, learning and contributing to our profession and to a more effective and humane criminal justice system worldwide. As the conference wound down, I began to reflect on the past, the present, and the future of our profession’s place in the criminal justice system.

We have made such significant contributions to the field and have had great influence on the operation of many correctional systems. In spite of various political and economic pressures, I would argue that rehabilitation now plays an important role in most correctional practices and policies. Empirically based risk assessment is now, for the most part, common practice. In my opinion, it is more common for front line staff to be educated in the knowledge of “what works”. On the one hand, I am proud to be part of our profession because of the strides we have made over such a short period of time. Many of us can remember when there were no risk/need tools. Correctional officers, parole board members, and community agencies that work with offenders are now familiar with the notion of risk assessment. They provide many cognitive-behavioural programs and services that target criminogenic needs.

During the course of my career, I have had the opportunity to work with many front line staff and see the influence of ‘what works’ on policies, procedures and in the general knowledge and skill base. I was pleased to see how front line individuals are attempting to translate knowledge to practice. At the same time, I observed some of the challenges that are still faced by the correctional systems and by the individuals who are attempting to apply what we know to work. Watching them first hand, I could not help but notice that our profession still has a lot more work to do.

I rarely worry about our efforts regarding knowledge accumulation. We continue to make strides in expanding our knowledge base about the predictive factors of criminal behaviour and how to change these factors. Just look at the research activities taking place. We, as a profession, are founded in empirical work and we continue to explore factors and influences with scientific methods. However, we must be careful. Our profession must be able to demonstrate that this knowledge can effectively be transferred to the practical business of the criminal justice system. This is one of our greatest challenges, bringing this information to the real world.

This year I have had the opportunity to spend a lot of time with many probation officers across Canada as part of an exciting research project that will evaluate the transfer of ‘What Works’ knowledge to the ‘real world’ work of community supervision. During this time, I have listened to them describe how they do their work, the policies and procedures of community corrections, how they translate risk assessment information into treatment plans and how they attempt to address various needs and foster change. I have even been fortunate enough to listen to the work that actually goes on in their offices “behind closed doors”. I could not help but notice a gap between what empirical knowledge tells us and ‘real world work’. I could see how much they have struggled trying to translate an individual’s risk assessment into an integrated and comprehensive treatment/service plan. Yes, their methods help them identify various risk factors but not always reliably. At times, some of the non-criminogenic needs were considered as ‘the underlying causes of criminal behaviour and should be the primary focus of services’.

It was apparent to me that all too often, a risk assessment, in the ‘real world’ results in a ‘shopping list’ of referrals to programs and/or services for the client. There appeared to
be little understanding or curiosity regarding how these factors interact, which need or needs are a priority, or how criminal attitudes, values, and associates permeate and influence many (I would argue all) of the other criminogenic needs.

In the community, services and programs are limited and those that do exist typically target substance abuse, domestic violence, and/or sexual aggression. Referrals to various social services and agencies are assumed to ‘address’ the basic living and employment needs. As a result, front line staff tend to view these needs as the primary and principle areas to be considered and the key criminogenic needs of pro-criminal attitudes, values, and associates are minimized, ignored or worse, missed.

It is apparent that Canada’s corrections and criminal justice system are striving to employ empirically based principles and practices. These personal observations reflect to me the struggles that the ‘real world’ faces. Empirically, we know there is much more to ‘What Works’ than just getting individuals into and engaged with programs. I look to our profession to provide practical knowledge, a means to transfer this knowledge to the real world, and to evaluate and monitor its effectiveness.

Recognizing that risk reduction and change is a process with individuals who have many needs, our profession needs to assist the ‘real world’ in transferring the empirical knowledge and principles to answer real world everyday questions and guide real world everyday practices. For example, what criminogenic needs should be targeted first, second or third? Although a list of an individual’s needs can be comprehensive, how does one develop an integrated and holistic treatment and supervision plan? Empirically, we have identified a number of responsibility factors that help influence and facilitate offender change in specific behaviours (e.g., motivational interviewing), but we have not provided specific directions regarding changing pro-criminal attitudes, values, beliefs, and associates. Empirically we know that cognitive-behavioural interventions work best with offenders but in the real world, what exactly is a cognitive-behavioural intervention? What do I need to do behind closed doors with the offenders to facilitate learning, enhance motivation, and change behaviour? How do I encourage offenders to practice skills and promote changes in attitudes, values, and beliefs?

Fundamentally, the business of corrections is about change; facilitating change of an offender so that the likelihood of engaging in criminal behaviour is reduced. We have taken large steps regarding the predictors of criminal behaviour and these have helped guide intervention efforts. As for the ‘How To’ of facilitating change, our profession has helped but there is still too much disconnect between what we know and what is being done. I would suggest that we have missed the mark in providing actual step-by-step practical translations of the ‘What Works’ principles to everyday behaviour and practices.

The present research project I am involved in is an example of psychology and psychologists helping translate empirical knowledge to concrete real world practices. The project, called STICS (yes it is a cool acronym and refers to Strategic Training Initiative in Community Supervision) developed a training program for probation officers. The idea is to train probation officers on how to practically conduct community supervision following ‘What Works’ principles and knowledge. Not only are we providing the training and ongoing coaching, we are also conducting research on the training by evaluating its impact on the behaviour of offenders and on the behaviour of probation officers.

STICS offers a few examples of practically translating empirical knowledge to real world practices. For example, empirically we know that the therapeutic relationship is a predictor of change. Many of the established responsibility factors and characteristics of effective change agents provide much insight about developing this type of relationship with offenders. The intent of our training is to help probation officers know how to develop this relationship and facilitate their learning of the skills necessary to do so.

Empirically, it has been shown that cognitive-behavioural interventions are effective with the criminal justice population. Cognitive-behavioural is the right “lingo” to describe services or programs, implying that it is evidence-based and is/will be effective. Our training program provides practical knowledge of what cognitive-behavioural interventions mean, and how a cognitive-behavioural approach means more than just a set of interventions. It is a view and model of the change process; it explains the responsibilities of the change agent and the responsibilities of the person who changes. STICS attempts to train the probation officer how to practically use this model to facilitate change. Empirically, we know that attitudes, values, beliefs, and cognitions are one of the most important criminogenic needs. STICS attempts to show a probation officer how to target and facilitate change in this need area. This project is, I hope, illustrative of the evolution of our professional efforts to improve the real world practices of corrections and criminal justice psychology.

In summary, our profession has made great progress in assisting the business of corrections. The field “fathers” have provided us with a great foundation of empirical knowledge and have influenced many correctional and criminal justice systems. The individuals who lead and work in our correctional systems are listening to us. They are trying to learn and apply the knowledge to the real world and they are struggling. We must make efforts to assist them in the

2 Also involved in the STICS Project are James Bonta, Tanya Rugge, Terri Scott, and Annie Yessine, along with an army of hard-working students.
application of our knowledge at all levels, in a practical manner. At the systemic level, it is our responsibility to ensure that policies and procedures employed actually adhere to evidence. At the front line staff level, it is our responsibility to ensure that the everyday behaviours of group leaders, probation and parole officers, correctional officers, program managers, supervisors, and others who deal with offenders on a day to day basis engage in evidence based behaviours. It is our task to provide the evidence of "What Works" as well as to provide the "How To" of this knowledge. It is critical, I believe, that we demonstrate and teach practical utilization of the knowledge base to assist and shape the behaviour of individuals and systems in their efforts to reduce re-offending.

Have a publication that’s just been released? Let us know.

Research Briefs
Faces, Shirts and Shoes: Multiple Identification in an Eyewitness Context
By M. Emma Gascoigne and Joanna D. Pozzulo
Carleton University

In making decisions regarding the accuracy of an eyewitness' identification of the defendant, the courts rely on a number of postdictors (variables that predict the level of decision accuracy), such as witness confidence, response latency, and judgement strategy (relative vs. absolute; Wells, Memon, & Penrod, 2006). Relying on current methods of postdiction it is possible to correctly determine the accuracy of only 75% of witnesses (Smith, Lindsay, & Pryke, 2000).

Multiple independent identifications of various features of the same individual may offer a more precise method of postdicting accuracy (Pryke, Lindsay, Dysart, & Dupuis, 2004). The more often someone is selected from multiple lineups, the more likely that person is the criminal. Clothing could be used as an independent identifier as witnesses often provide detailed descriptions of the criminal's clothing (Lindsay, Martin, & Webber, 1994). It would be possible to use clothing identification as a secondary piece of evidence to corroborate facial identification, if the suspect's clothing was embedded in a lineup with other clothes of similar style and colour (Pryke et al., 2004). Lindsay, Wallbridge and Drennan (1987) found that eyewitnesses who selected the criminal's sweatshirt from a clothing lineup were significantly more accurate in their facial identifications of the person. These results were replicated by Pryke et al. (2004) who included a clothing lineup in a set of multiple independent identifiers and found those eyewitnesses who identified the criminal's clothes also correctly identified the criminal's face 68% of the time.

The current study was designed to further test the utility of clothing lineups as postdictors of facial identification.

Predictions of the Present Study
The following predictions were tested: (1) the more correct identifications from independent clothing lineups a witness could make, the more accurate their facial identification would be; and (2) facial identifications would be central to all positive identifications (i.e., it would be unlikely witnesses would make a correct clothing identification without also making a correct facial identification).

Method
Undergraduate students (N = 55, mean age = 21.7 years) were recruited from first year psychology and third year criminology classes. Participants were randomly assigned to either the target-present or target-absent condition and were then shown a video of a staged theft. Using the elimination lineup procedure participants were shown a series of three lineups (face, sweatshirt, and shoe). In the target-present condition all three lineups contained the target. In the target-absent condition all three lineups contained a replacement foil. All foils were matched to the culprit/object's general appearance. The order of lineup presentation was held constant.

Results
Table 1 shows diagnosticity ratios, the proportion of correct identifications in the target-present condition divided by the proportion of the most commonly made false identification in the target-absent condition, of all possible lineup combinations. A higher diagnosticity ratio indicates increased probative value. While identification of the face alone was highly diagnostic of guilt, identification of either the sweatshirt or the shoe alone had poor probative value. All combinations of identifiers were either not diagnostic of guilt or could not be calculated due to frequencies in either the target-present or absent condition being zero.

Table 2 shows diagnosticity ratios of number of identifications made, regardless of specific lineup. Correctly identifying any two lineup's member/items was much more diagnostic of guilt than identifying either a single lineup member/item or all three member/items.

Table 3 shows diagnosticity ratios of lineup combinations with face as the central identification. Identifying the face plus two additional items was poorly diagnostic of guilt. Just under half the participants in the target-present condition correctly identified the face plus one feature. Unfortunately, diagnosticity was unable to be calculated in the target-absent...
condition as no participants falsely identified the innocent suspects with either the sweatshirt or the shoe.

Table 1  
Diagnostics Ratios (DRs) of all Possible Lineup Selection Combinations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suspect Choice</th>
<th>Proportions (n)</th>
<th>DR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Target-present</td>
<td>Target-Absent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Face only</td>
<td>.37 (10)</td>
<td>.04 (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweatshirt only</td>
<td>.04 (1)</td>
<td>.25 (7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shoe only</td>
<td>.04 (1)</td>
<td>.07 (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Face and sweatshirt</td>
<td>.26 (7)</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Face and shoe</td>
<td>.19 (5)</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweatshirt and shoe</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>.04 (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Face, sweatshirt, and shoe</td>
<td>.04 (1)</td>
<td>.18 (5)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2  
Diagnostics Ratios (DRs) of Pooled Multiple Identifiers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Absent</th>
<th>DR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.44 (12)</td>
<td>.44 (12)</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.54 (15)</td>
<td>.04 (1)</td>
<td>11.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DR</td>
<td>.04 (1)</td>
<td>.18 (5)</td>
<td>0.22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3  
Diagnostics Ratios (DRs) with Face as the Central Identification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Condition</th>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Absent</th>
<th>DR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.37 (10)</td>
<td>.44 (12)</td>
<td>9.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.04 (1)</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>0.22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

Are multiple identification decisions better than a single identification? The present study found that facial identifications were central to all other correct identifications. The face lineup was more diagnostic of guilt than either the sweatshirt or shoe lineups. Few witnesses correctly identified either the sweatshirt or the shoe without also making a correct facial identification. These findings support the conclusion that it would be inadvisable to use clothing as part of criminal identification, as this practice would most likely lead to a higher number of innocent suspects being falsely identified (Pryke et al., 2004).

Identifying any two lineup member/items was highly diagnostic of guilt, most importantly it was more diagnostic than identifying the face alone. However, due to an extremely high rate of correct facial identification and correct facial rejection, many diagnostics ratios of interest could not be calculated. Witnesses were just as likely to make a correct facial identification regardless of whether they correctly identified either the sweatshirt or the shoe. These findings are inconsistent with previous research on clothing identifications.

The use of the elimination lineup may have influenced results. Less than half of participants who initially chose the confederate’s sweatshirt during Judgement 1 (relative judgement) went on to correctly identify their selection in Judgement 2 (absolute judgement). The same pattern was observed across shoe identifications. These lowered correct identification rates for both the clothing lineups negatively impacted their diagnosticity. It seems possible that witnesses were making correct selections in the sweatshirt and shoe lineups at Judgement 1 but merely lacked enough confidence to positively identify their selection during Judgement 2. Although identifications were not made, decisions at Judgement 1 may be indicative of guilt, albeit not as strong as identification evidence.

Further replications of this study are needed to clarify the inconsistencies in this area of research and future research should explore the probative value of Judgement 1 decisions when using the elimination lineup.

References


Please direct all correspondence to M. Emma Gascoigne at egascoig@connect.carleton.ca.
Report on the National Associations Active in Criminal Justice (NAACJ) 2006-2007
By J. Stephen Wormith, Ph.D.
Director-at-Large & CPA Representative to NAACJ

During the 2006-2007 year, the undersigned continued to represent the Canadian Psychological Association on the National Associations Active in Criminal Justice (NAACJ), which is an ‘umbrella’ organization for various voluntary sector and professional organizations that are national in scope and have a particular interest in Canada’s justice system. NAACJ is funded by an operating grant from federal ministry of Public Safety Canada and currently consists of 18 organizations.

Over the past year, I attended two NAACJ-sponsored events, both of which were consultation meetings with the Correctional Service of Canada (CSC). A similar forum, traditionally held annually with the federal Department of Justice (DOJ) has now been cancelled for the second year in a row, setting a disturbing trend suggesting that the DOJ is withdrawing from these kinds of public consultation with its criminal justice partners from the voluntary sector.

The meetings with CSC covered a wide range of topics of interest to both government and the voluntary agencies. The first meeting focused on CSC’s announced plans to develop more thorough services for (federal) mentally disordered offenders in the community. Funds have been sought, and later received as per the 2007 budget of the federal government. The Mental Health Strategy includes increased services and a mental health screening assessment tool, which is now being piloted in BC. The community mental health initiative calls for increased staffing (social workers and psychiatric nurses), increased contracted professional services, a mental health training package to be delivered nationally, and a public education and citizen engagement component. This is a multi-year endeavour, with the expectation that augmented services will be in evidence by the end of 2007.

A second consultation was attended by numerous senior civil servants including Commissioner Keith Coulter. The agenda covered a wide range of topics including the use of tasers, CSC smoking policy, managing the changing offender profile, and the pending CSC Report on Plans and Priorities to Treasury Board. Dr. Larry Motiuk also attended and spoke of both the research initiatives undertaken by the Branch for which he was formerly responsible and the numerous programs that CSC has undertaken lately. The meeting also included a discussion led by Elizabeth White of St Leonard’s Society on the need for a broad-based community corrections strategy developed collaboratively by correctional agencies in the public service and the voluntary sector as well as local municipalities.

In response to three bills under review by parliament, NAACJ prepared a Crime Information Sheet in 2006, which is available from me upon request. A research Brief entitled “Bill C-27, Reverse Onus and Dangerous Offenders” was prepared in March 2007. The bill was defeated in Parliament. An annotated bibliography on legal publications pertaining to youth justice in Canada, Youth Justice Sources, was also prepared. Both are available as well.

The Annual General Meeting of NAACJ was held on March 27, 2007. Much of the concern among member agencies revolved around the question of receiving sustaining funds for Fiscal Year 2007/08. The terms of reference for the NAACJ/CSC consultations appear to be an ongoing issue of some confusion.

Minutes of the Section Business Meeting
June 7, 2007, Ottawa, ON
By Tanya Rugge, Ph.D., A/Secretary/Treasurer (at the time)

The Annual Section Business Meeting (SBM) was held on Thursday June 7, 2007. Attendance was lower than it has been in the past (less than 20 people). The Chair (Jeremy Mills) began the SBM with discussion of the conference - the first Northern American Correctional and Criminal Justice Psychology Conference (NACCJPC) - quite an achievement and very well received. Many kudos were given to Jeremy and the conference planning team!

The Membership Coordinator (Leslie Helmus) reported that current membership is 316 (an increase of 33 since this time last year): 213 regular, 98 students, and 5 non-CPA Section members. Non-CPA members can join the Section by sending the membership fee to the Secretary/Treasurer (Karl Hanson). We have $6504.02 in the bank, though the accounts will be adjusted with incoming membership fees and conference expenses.

Tanya Rugge reported on behalf of her and Chantal Langevin (Crime Scene Editors) informing the group on the progress of Crime Scene. All were encouraged to
solicit submissions. Kind praise was given to the Editors for their work on Crime Scene.

Steve Wormith’s annual report on the National Associations Active in Criminal Justice (NAACJ) was submitted (and can be found in this Issue). Also, it was noted that the NAACJ is very concerned about the CSC ‘blue ribbon’ panel; meetings will be held over the next few months to address this.

The Director-at-Large for Police Psychology (Dorothy Cotton) reported on the last year and announced an idea for a forum on police psychology to take place this fall. The forum was fully supported in principle, but the Section’s current financial situation was too fluid (settling up the conference costs) to assist financially. Overall, police psychology was well represented in the NACCJPC program, the regular column in Crime Scene was being written and read, and more than 80 names were participating in a listserve.

Andrew Starzomski (Director-at-Large for Clinical and Training) has been working with Robert Morgan of Texas Tech, Steve Wormith from the University of Saskatchewan and Phil Magaletta of the U.S. Federal Bureau of Prisons to assemble a symposium on clinical training in forensic and correctional psychology for the NACCJPC. After two years in this post, Andrew stepped down, but will continue to actively advance clinical training in criminal justice settings as an Executive Member at Large with the Canadian Council of Professional Psychology Programs.

Guy Bourgon (Director-at-Large for Conference Programme) added to Jeremy’s comments on the conference planning and indicated that the conference proceedings would be published in the fall.

No report from the Director-at-Large for Psychology in the Courts or the Director-at-Large for Continuing Education was offered. Unfortunately, both Joanna Pozzulo and Andrew Harris resigned from their respective posts, and their positions were not filled for the upcoming year.

There was other movement within the Executive, with 7 individuals leaving their positions. Jeremy Mills stepped down as Chair, replaced by Jean Folsom. Consequently, Jeremy replaced Daryl Kroner in the Past Chair position. Joe Camerilli passed the student torch to Leslie Helmus, which required the Membership Coordinator position to be filled – done so by Natalie Jones. Andrew Starzomski passed the Director-at-Large for Clinical and Training to Mark Olver.

There was discussion about Joe becoming a Director-at-Large for website services, but nothing was finalized (a decision was made in July to carry forth this motion; Joe was voted in). Five positions remained stable: Karl Hanson, Secretary/Treasurer; Steve Wormith, Director-at-Large: NAACJ; Dorothy Cotton as Director-at-Large: Police Psychology; and Tanya Rugge and Chantal Langevin (Crime Scene Editors).

Many thanks were given to those who left the Executive for all the work they have done, and an encouraging welcome was given to those who jumped on board.

After all this movement, the SBM broke – it was time for celebration! And I must say, having the SBM in the evening rather than at 8 a.m., makes for an efficient and lively meeting!

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**Crime Scene Section Awards**

It’s Award Nomination Time! Descriptions of the two Section Awards can be found below. If you would like to nominate a colleague for either award, please submit a nomination package to Dr. Jean Folsom by September 30th, 2007 (contact information indicated below).

**The Significant Contribution Award**

The Significant Contribution Award recognizes a specific work that has been recently completed (within the last year or two) that makes a significant contribution to the application of psychology to criminal behaviour, criminal justice, and/or law. The work could be theoretical, empirical or applied. For the theoretical and empirical works, the award would typically be based on a paper published during the previous year in an academic or professional journal. The applied contributions would address the creation and implementation of psychological services to offenders or to the courts. The effective promotion and administration of psychologists and psychological services would also qualify as a significant contribution (e.g., setting up a treatment center, hiring 10 new psychologists). If a member of the section makes exceptional contributions on different years, then it is possible for the same individual to receive this award more than once.

**The Career Contribution Award**

This award recognizes a corpus of work accrued over a period of at least 10 years that makes a significant contribution to the application of psychology to criminal behaviour, criminal justice, and/or law. The work could be theoretical, empirical or applied. For the theoretical and empirical works, the award would typically concern a series of published works that have had an important influence on the field. Signs of this influence could include changes in practices (widespread use of treatment or assessment methods; changes in the law) as well as recognition by the academic community (e.g., citations). The applied contributions would recognize leaders in the criminal justice field who have demonstrated excellence in
one of the following areas: the creation and implementation of psychological services to offenders or to the courts, the teaching and mentoring of new psychologists, and management and administration.

Award recipients must be members of the CPA Criminal Justice Psychology Section during the year that the award is given.

**Award Procedure**

Nominations received by the Criminal Justice Section Executive must include a cover letter outlining how the nominee qualifies for the award, a Curriculum Vitae of the nominee and other supporting documentation. This documentation could include, for example, a copy of the research article nominated as the "Significant Achievement", a description of a treatment program/facility, numbers of citations in the Social Citation Index, or letters/testimonials from clients and coworkers. The decision as to whether to give the award would be based on a vote of the full Criminal Justice Executive (including student members). Either, both or neither of (1) the Significant Contribution Award and (2) the Career Contribution Award could be given each year.

The award would be announced in *Crime Scene* and *Psynopsis*. The Awards will be presented at the Canadian Psychological Association conference in June 2008 in Halifax, Nova Scotia.

If you would like to nominate a colleague for either award, please forward the nomination package by email or to the address below under Private and Confidential cover.

**Nominations must be received by September 30th, 2007.**

Send packages to: Dr. Jean Folsom  
Psychology Department  
Regional Treatment Centre  
555 King Street West, PO Box 22  
Kingston, Ontario  
K7L 4V7  
Email: folsomjn@csc-scc.gc.ca

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**Recent Publications**

Do you have a recent publication? List it here.


This document introduces a set of guidelines for identifying the strengths and weaknesses of treatment outcome studies with sexual offenders. The 20 (21) items concern the extent to which the study’s features introduce bias in the estimation of the treatment effect, or influence the confidence that can be placed in the study’s findings. These guidelines were intended to be used when reviewing existing studies, evaluating existing programs, and designing new studies of treatment effectiveness. Reliability studies found acceptable agreement for the individual items. For the global ratings of study quality, however, agreement was found among naïve raters, but not among experts. Although created for studies of sexual offenders, they could also be used (with minor modifications) to evaluate studies of treatments for other offender groups (e.g., drug courts, male batterer treatment programs).


The prediction of recidivism of female offenders has lagged behind that of their male counterparts. The present study was designed to extend the work of previous research on the Level of Service Inventory–Revised (LSI-R) and to examine the utility of another measure—the Childhood and Adolescent Taxon Scale (CAT)—in the prediction of recidivism among female offenders. Participants, 100 female offenders serving sentences of more than 2 years in Canada, completed a self-report version of both instruments. Results indicated acceptable reliability and predictive validity for both measures, and both measures distinguished recidivists from nonrecidivists. Results are discussed in light of previous research and future directions for the examination of the prediction of recidivism among female offenders.

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**Have an After Thought?**

We want to hear from you!

Prediction effect sizes such as ROC area are important for demonstrating a risk assessment’s generalizability and utility. How a study defines recidivism might affect predictive accuracy. Nonrecidivism is problematic when predicting specialized violence (e.g., domestic violence). The present study cross-validated the ability of the Ontario Domestic Assault Risk Assessment (ODARA) to distinguish subsequent recidivists and nonrecidivists among 391 new cases with less extensive criminal records than previous cross-validation samples, base rate = 27%, ROC area = .67. Excluding ambiguous nonrecidivists increased the base rate to 33%, ROC area = .74. Random samples of 50 recidivists and 50 unambiguous nonrecidivists yielded ROC areas from .71 to .80. Published norms significantly underestimated official recidivism. Ambiguous nonrecidivism is prevalent and leads to underestimating base rates and predictive accuracy.


An actuarial tool, the Ontario Domestic Assault Risk Assessment (ODARA), predicts recidivism using only variables readily obtained by frontline police officers. Correctional settings permit more comprehensive assessments. In a subset of ODARA construction and cross-validation cases, 303 men with a police record for wife assault and a correctional system file, the VRAG, SARA, Danger Assessment, and DVSI also predicted recidivism, but the Hare Psychopathy Checklist (PCL-R) best improved prediction of recidivism, occurrence, frequency, severity, injury, and charges. In 346 new cases, ODARA and PCL-R independently predicted recidivism. An algorithm was derived for a combined instrument, the Domestic Violence Risk Appraisal Guide (DVRAG), and an experience table is presented (N = 649). Results indicated the importance of antisociality in wife assault.


Three empirical investigations of forensic decision-making were conducted: a study of 104 hearings by a forensic tribunal; an evaluation of which aspects of forensic patients’ clinical presentation were empirical predictors of violence; and a survey of forensic clinicians to determine which factors they said they used to assess risk of violent recidivism and which they actually used. Results showed a significant correlation between actuarial risk and clinical advice to the tribunal, and a nonsignificant trend for patients higher in actuarial risk to receive more restrictive dispositions. Psychotic diagnoses and symptoms were not indicators of increased risk of violent recidivism. Clinicians endorsed some empirically valid indicators of risk, but also relied on some invalid indicators. There was also inconsistency between factors clinicians said they used and factors actually related to their hypothetical decision-making. An automated system is presented as an illustration of how the consistency and validity of forensic decisions could be enhanced.

**Information Reviews**

Have you read a book, article or research on which you would like to provide commentary – good, bad, provocative, or humorous? If so, write us and we will include it in this new Information Reviews section.

**Kudo Korner**

Want to give kudos to a Section Member? **Contact us.**

Congratulations to Grant Harris who was awarded the Career Contribution Award at this year’s annual convention! This award recognizes Grant’s significant contribution to the application of psychology to criminal behaviour over the course of his career. Well done!

Kelley Blanchette and Shelley Brown received the Significant Contribution Award for their recent book on female offenders. Congratulations to you both!

Congratulations to Dorothy Cotton who is the first Canadian Psychologist to be awarded “Diplomate Certification in Police Psychology” from the Society for Police and Criminal Psychology. Being a Diplomate indicates that she is recognized by her peers as capable and accomplished in police psychology. To earn this distinction, she had to pass both a written and an oral exam covering the history, theory, principles, practices, techniques and ethics of police psychology. It is great to have such a knowledgeable psychologist in our Section!

CONGRATULATIONS Dorothy!
CONGRATULATIONS TO ALL THE STUDENT POSTER PRIZE WINNERS!!!

Graduate Posters
Winner: Celeste Lefebvre
1st Runner-up: Sarah Manchak
2nd Runner-up: Erin Ross

Undergraduate Posters
Winner: Diana Grech
1st Runner-up: Leigh Greiner
2nd Runner-up: Leanne ten Brinke

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MEMBERS ON THE MOVE

Dr. Janine Culter has left the Whitby Mental Health Centre and is now Chief Psychologist at the Ontario Correctional Institute.

Dr. Franca Cortoni has left Correctional Services Canada and is now at the School of Criminology at the University of Montreal.

Terri Scott, who has been actively involved behind the scenes of banquet planning and Crime Scene consultation, is expecting a baby! Congratulations Terri!

Any more news? Contact us.

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EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES

Pending Forensic-Clinical Job Availability
If work in a progressive forensic psychiatric hospital interests you, a psychology position will be coming available in spring-summer 2008 in Nova Scotia. The East Coast Forensic Hospital in Halifax-Dartmouth is a new 75-bed facility characterized by interdisciplinary teamwork and dynamic interplay between risk management and psychosocial rehabilitation. One of the three psychologists on staff will be retiring next year and we are eager to replace him with a person who is passionate about forensics and the profession of psychology. There are plentiful opportunities for training of students and research. Please contact Dr. Andrew Starzomski (andrew.starzomski@cdha.nshealth.ca) if you want to hear more or wish to be updated when the posting officially comes up next year.

Advertisement for Positions in
The Institute of Criminology and Criminal Justice – 2008

Subject to budgetary approval, the Institute of Criminology and Criminal Justice, Carleton University wishes to make 3 tenure-track appointments at the level of Assistant Professor in the area of Psychology, Sociology, or Law to begin July 1, 2008. The Institute of Criminology and Criminal Justice is a multidisciplinary program comprised of courses in Psychology, Sociology, and Law. A Ph.D. and significant evidence of teaching ability and research are required. The successful candidate will be expected to teach in the undergraduate program within the Institute, supervise honours’ students, develop a program of research leading to significant peer-reviewed publications, and to contribute effectively to academic life in the University. The opportunity for graduate supervision is possible through future cross-appointment in the Departments of Psychology, Sociology, and Law. Further information can be obtained from our website at http://www.carleton.ca/criminology or by contacting Dr. Joanna Pozzulo, at the address below or by email at Joanna_pozzulo@carleton.ca.

Applicants should send their curriculum vitae, teaching dossier including teaching experience and interests, copies of representative publications, and a summary of research objectives. At the same time, candidates should arrange to have three referees forward supporting letters to the following address:

Dr. Joanna Pozzulo, Director
Institute of Criminology and Criminal Justice
Carleton University
1125 Colonel By Drive
Ottawa, Ontario, K1S 5B6

Applications will be reviewed beginning November 15, 2007, and the process will continue until the positions have been filled.

Carleton University is strongly committed to fostering diversity within its community as a source of excellence, cultural enrichment and social strength. We welcome those who would contribute to the further diversification of our faculty and its scholarship, including but not limited to women, visible minorities, Aboriginal peoples and person with disabilities. All qualified candidates are encouraged to apply. The applications of Canadians and Permanent Residents will be given priority.

If you know of any employment opportunities, contact us!
Clearance Number: N/A

Competition Number: CS 7043-07 (Job ID #2889)

Applications are invited for the position of: Psychologist
(Temporary position for 5.5 months with possible extension)

Classification: Psychologist 1 (OPSEU – IHC)

Salary: $1,353.05 – 1,684.37 per week

Hours of Work: Schedule 3.7 (36.25 hours per week)

Location: Ontario Correctional Institute
109 McLaughlin Road South, Brampton, ON

Area Of Search: Open

Duties And Responsibilities: The Ministry of Community Safety and Correctional Services requires the services of a Psychologist to provide clinical services to Ontario Correctional Institute. Reporting to the Chief Psychologist and as part of a multidisciplinary team, you will provide psychological assessment and treatment services to offenders, conduct individual and/or group treatment, provide consultation/recommendations to both management and line staff concerning offenders, and evaluate institutional program effectiveness. You will provide assessment, treatment services and conduct/evaluate programs at the institution.

Qualifications: Current registration as a psychologist in Ontario, demonstrate knowledge of and experience in psychological assessment including psychometric tools, psychological treatment methods, and facility with research design and statistical analysis. Evaluation and treatment services; experience in directly related areas – psychological assessment, research/program evaluation and treatment pertaining to a male population. Excellent communication and interpersonal skills required. Applications from Ph.D. Psychologists currently seeking registration in Ontario will be considered.

Candidates to be interviewed will be selected on the basis of information contained in their covering letter and resume.

Qualified individuals must submit their application/resume quoting competition file/Job ID number by the end of the closing date by mail or fax to:

Re: COMPETITION # CS 7043-07 (Job ID #2889)
Brad Tamcsu, Deputy Superintendent, Programs
Ontario Correctional Institute
109 McLaughlin Road South
Brampton, ON L6Y 2C8
Or Fax: 905-874-4051

Please note: It is the applicant’s responsibility to print a confirmation of successful fax transmission, please do not call to ensure receipt). OPS employees please quote your WIN ID number on your covering letter.

Thank you for your interest in this position however; we will only contact the applicants who will be proceeding through the competition process.

POSTING DATE: August 31, 2007
CLOSING DATE: September 17, 2007

“The Ontario Public Service is an equal opportunity employer.”

Upcoming Conferences

First Annual Canadian Police Psychology Forum
September 10-11, 2007 Toronto, Ontario
For information, contact: donna.scantlebury@torontopolice.on.ca

What Works with Women Offenders Conference
September 10-12, 2007 Prato, Tuscany, Italy
For information, contact: Katy.symmons@med.monash.edu.au

British Society of Criminology Annual Conference
September 18-20, 2007 London, England
www.britsoccrim.org

The 7th Annual Conference of the European Society of Criminology
“Crime, Crime Prevention and Communities in Europe”
September 26-29, 2007 Bologna, Italy
www.eurocrim2007.org
Right Around the Corner …

First Annual Canadian Police Psychology Forum
September 10-11, 2007
The Courtyard Marriott, Toronto, Ontario

The goal of this forum is to provide police psychologists with the opportunity to talk about the pre-employment screening process and brainstorm solutions to common problems.

Agenda to include presentations and facilitated discussions led by subject experts and colleagues in the field.

Welcome dinner featuring our guest speaker, Dr. Michael Aamodt, Radford University. Dr. Aamodt is the author of the seminal work "Research in Law Enforcement Selection".

Topics to include:

- **Suitability: Where are the Psychologist Guidelines?**
- **The Problem of Test (In)Validity**
- **Work in Progress: New Approaches to Assessment**
- **Employment Law and the Psychological Evaluation**
- **Reports: Who Says What to Whom?**

Conference registration of $212 (GST included) includes the welcome dinner, as well as a continental breakfast and two breaks during the day-long event.

Hosted by the Toronto Police Service with sponsorship from Multi-Health Systems Inc., distributor of the MMPI-2

For more information, please contact Donna Scantlebury at:
Phone (416) 808-7198
Fax (416) 808-7172
E-mail: donna.scantlebury@torontopolice.on.ca
or
To register electronically: Visit www.torontopolice.on.ca

Don’t Forget the Submission Deadline for the Next CPA Conference: November 15, 2007
Welcome from the Section’s New Student Representative
Leslie Helmus. B.A.(Hons)
Carleton University

Hi everyone!
As the new student representative for the Criminal Justice Section, I wanted to take this opportunity to introduce myself. My name is Leslie Helmus and I am a graduate student at Carleton University. My job in the Criminal Justice Section mainly consists of representing student issues to the Section Executive and ensuring that every Crime Scene issue has an article in the Students’ Water Cooler column. As your student rep, I invite you to contact me if you have any questions/concerns or if there is something you would like to discuss. Furthermore, I want to make sure the Students’ Water Cooler always has exciting content for students, so if there is anything you would like to write for the column, please contact me. Also, if there is any topic you would like to see covered (such as advice or information), please contact me and I will do my best to solicit that content myself.

Best of luck to everybody in the upcoming school year!
Sincerely,
Leslie Helmus
lesliehelmus@yahoo.ca

Assessing the Use of Brainwaves (ERPs) as a Tool to Determine Eyewitness Identification Accuracy across Various Time Delays
Celeste Lefebvre, Yannick Marchand, Steven Smith & John Connolly
Dalhousie University

There is little doubt that mistaken eyewitness identifications are the major contributing factor leading to wrongful convictions (Connors et al., 1996; Huff et al., 1986; Loftus, 1979; Scheck et al., 2000; Wells et al., 1998). While acknowledging these errors, eyewitness testimony of criminal events remains the most commonly used and highly regarded evidence in the judicial system (Brigham & WolfsKeil, 1983; Cutler, Penrod, & Stuve, 1988). Eyewitness testimony is considered crucial because it is one of the only types of evidence that provides a direct link that the suspect did in fact commit the crime (Wells & Loftus, 2002; Wells et al., 2000). Therefore, despite the risk of misidentifications, disregarding this form of evidence could lead to increased difficulty convicting serious and dangerous offenders. Overall, there is a general consensus within the justice system that, rather than dismissing this form of evidence, efforts should go toward increasing the reliability and accuracy of eyewitness identifications.

Currently, outside of controlled laboratory settings, it is very difficult to determine if an eyewitness’ identification is accurate or not. One new avenue is to investigate eyewitness accuracy by looking at a person’s brainwaves (event-related brain potentials, ERPs) with the goal of providing a reliable neurophysiological index of an eyewitness’ recognition of the culprit. Specifically, the objective was to determine whether the presentation of a photograph of the culprit, compared to the photographs of other lineup members, would elicit a specific brainwave response (e.g., P300) in participants that were able to accurately identify the culprit.

In real-world criminal cases, the time interval between viewing a crime and the identification procedure is highly variable and, believed to impact accuracy (Kassin et al., 2001). Therefore, this study also investigated if brainwave
patterns are affected by time delay. Three time delay intervals were examined: (1) no delay, (2) 1-hour delay and (3) 1-week delay. It was hypothesized that if participants recognized the culprit, then a P300 would distinguish the culprit from each of the fillers, at each of the three delay periods. On the other hand, if participants failed to remember or distinguish the culprit from the fillers, then it was hypothesized that the P300 would diminish or be absent.

Method

Twenty-four undergraduate students (16 females) took part in this study. Each participant completed all three delay conditions. Each condition was completed before the next commenced. For all three conditions, participants watched a 60 second crime video, followed by an ERP-lineup task (i.e.: brainwaves were recorded during the lineup task). The crime scenario (theft of a laptop) was the same for all three videos, however, the identity of the culprit and victim were different in each. All the ERP-lineups were non-biased and consisted of seven digitized photographs: five fillers (F1, F2, F3, F4 and F5), the culprit and the victim. Each of the seven photographs was randomly and sequentially presented 40 times for 1200 ms. Participants were asked to classify each photograph as culprit, victim or an innocent individual (i.e., filler) based on a button press response. The photograph of the victim was included to maintain attention and alertness to the task. Each ERP-lineup took approximately 11 minutes to complete. Additionally participants were asked to provide certainty ratings for each photograph on a scale of 0 to 10 (0 = certain it was not the culprit and 10 = certain it was the culprit).

Results

A 3-way repeated measures ANOVA with DELAY (no-delay, 1-hour delay and 1-week delay), PHOTO (F1, F2, F3, F4, F5 and culprit) and ELECTRODE SITE (Cp3, Cpz, Cp4, P3, Pz and P4) as factors was conducted. Overall, the group ANOVA results, followed by post-hoc comparisons demonstrated that, at all six electrode sites, the P300 elicited to the culprit was significantly larger compared to each of the fillers at each of the time delay conditions (p > 0.001). Interestingly, the P300 effect to the culprit was equally as strong at all three time delay conditions. See Figure 1 below.

A procedure analogous to a deviation contrast set analysis using mean z-scores was conducted to determine which of the lineup members, if any, were significantly differentiated from the others on an individual level basis. The rates of correct identifications, misidentifications and false rejections based on the ERP mean z-scores, certainty ratings and button press responses are presented in Table 1. Overall, the individual results demonstrated that correct identifications decreased and misidentifications increased as the delay period increased from 1-hour to 1-week.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Certainty Ratings</th>
<th>Button Press</th>
<th>Brainwaves</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>NO DELAY</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correct Identifications</td>
<td>18 (75%)</td>
<td>12 (50%)</td>
<td>19 (79%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Misidentifications</td>
<td>2 (8%)</td>
<td>1 (4%)</td>
<td>2 (8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>False Rejections</td>
<td>4 (17%)</td>
<td>11 (46%)</td>
<td>3 (13%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1-HOUR DELAY</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correct Identifications</td>
<td>22 (92%)</td>
<td>20 (83%)</td>
<td>20 (83%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Misidentifications</td>
<td>1 (4%)</td>
<td>1 (4%)</td>
<td>1 (4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>False Rejections</td>
<td>1 (4%)</td>
<td>3 (13%)</td>
<td>3 (13%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1-WEEK DELAY</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correct Identifications</td>
<td>14 (58%)</td>
<td>12 (50%)</td>
<td>14 (58%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Misidentifications</td>
<td>8 (33%)</td>
<td>5 (21%)</td>
<td>7 (29%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>False Rejections</td>
<td>2 (8%)</td>
<td>7 (29%)</td>
<td>3 (13%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When examining participants that selected the correct culprit according to both their certainty ratings and button press accuracy, it was found that 96% of them demonstrated P300 differentiation between the culprit and each of the fillers. More specifically, 92% (11/12), 95% (19/20) and 100% (12/12) of participants had correct identifications based on P300 patterns, for each of the three delay conditions respectively. Therefore, ERPs were able to provide a reliable neurophysiological index of correct identifications when there was a high degree of consistency in participants' identification decisions.

3 Note: this study was part of a larger study that contained additional conditions, however, for the purpose of this report, only the aspects of the study that apply to the three delay conditions will be described. The reader is referred to Lefebvre et al. (in press) for information about the full study.

4 For brevity, the technical details of the brainwave recordings will not be described here; the interested reader is referred to Lefebvre et al. (in press) for more details.

5 The technical details of the individual analysis will not be described here; the interested reader is referred to Lefebvre et al. (in press) for more details.
Discussion
The purpose of the present study was to investigate the feasibility of using ERPs as a neurophysiological indicator of eyewitness lineup identification accuracy. Moreover, this study examined the impact of time delay between witnessing a crime video and viewing a lineup. The major finding was that a P300 (maximal between 400 and 600 ms post-photograph onset) was elicited to the presentation of the culprit compared to each of the fillers at all three delay conditions.

Based on the individual ERP patterns, the overall pattern that emerged demonstrated a decrease in identification accuracy at the 1-week time delay. This result was attributed to increased difficulty in explicitly remembering the identity of the culprit following the 1-week delay. However, the P300 patterns remained very strong, even after the 1-week time delay in participants that were able to accurately remember the culprit’s identity.

Investigating participants that selected the correct culprit based on both certainty ratings and button press accuracy, it was found that 96% demonstrated P300 differentiation between the culprit and each of the fillers. More specifically, 92% (11/12), 95% (19/20) and 100% (12/12) of participants had correct identifications based on P300 patterns, for each of the three delay conditions respectively. These findings suggest that when participants demonstrate a high degree of consistency in their accurate identification, there is a very strong likelihood of P300 differentiation of the culprit compared to the other lineup members.

A neurophysiological marker of accuracy is of importance because, with standard lineup procedures, it is very difficult, if not impossible, to determine if an eyewitness’ identification of a suspect is accurate or not. In this manner, the results from this study suggest that the use of ERPs can provide a reliable adjunct indicator of accuracy. Although more research is needed before an ERP-lineup task should be applied to real-world cases, the results are promising and warrant continued research in this area.

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References

For further information, please contact Celeste Lefebvre at: clefebvr@dal.ca.

**Graduate Level: 1st Runner-Up**
**Congratulations to Sarah Manchak from the University of California - Irving!**

**Care, Control, and Mental Disorder:**
**Comparing Practices and Outcomes in Prototypic Specialty vs. Traditional Probation**
Sarah M. Manchak, Jennifer L. Skeem, & Sarah Vidal
University of California - Irving

Individuals with a mental disorder are disproportionately represented in the criminal justice system (Lurigio, 2001; James & Glaze, 2006). The majority of these offenders are supervised in the community on probation (Glaze & Palla, 2005). Traditional models of supervision may be insufficiently responsive to the pronounced needs and unusual risk factors of probationers with mental disorder (PMDs), as evidenced by their increased rates of probation revocation compared to their non-mentally disordered counterparts (Dauphinot, 1999). In response to this problem, many agencies across the United States have implemented specialty caseloads that are reduced in size and supervised by officers with interests and training...
in mental health. Relative to traditional programs, specialty programs aim to integrate internal and external services, balance care and control in probation officer (PO)-probationer relationships, and emphasize treatment adherence (Skeem, Emke-Francis, & Eno Louden, 2006).

Despite efforts to initiate and maintain these specialty programs, little is known about whether (a) the differences believed to distinguish specialty from traditional supervision are implemented in practice, and (b) specialty supervision improves PMDs’ clinical and criminal outcomes, relative to traditional supervision. The current study seeks to describe how traditional and specialty caseloads differ in their supervision strategies and resource coordination, and how this affects PMDs’ outcomes.

Method
Participants. 182 PMDs on specialty probation were matched with 176 PMDs on traditional probation. Results indicate a successful match on age, gender, ethnicity, index offense (person/violent versus property/non-violent and felony versus misdemeanor), and time spent on probation up to the baseline interview. Our total sample (n=358) is approximately 60% male, predominantly Caucasian (38%) and African American (50%), and about 12% of Hispanic ethnicity. Over half are aged 35-65 (57%), and one third (34%) had a violent/person index offense (e.g., assault, robbery). At the time of the baseline interview, approximately 64% had been on probation less than one year, 21% for one to two years, and 14% for over two years.

Procedures. Once consented, all participants completed a baseline, six month, and twelve month interview. The probationers’ supervising PO also completed a survey on the probationer at each of the time points. The present analysis examined the differences between specialty and traditional probation supervision on: (a) baseline compliance strategies (techniques used by POs to obtain compliance from their probationers), (b) PO boundary spanning (how well the PO steps outside his/her traditional supervisory role to coordinate services and care for probationers), and (c) PO/Probationer relationship quality. Preliminary outcome data included: probationers’ perceptions of the effects of probation (as a proximal outcome), probationers’ access to services, and probation compliance outcomes between baseline and six months. These results represented all of our baseline data (n=358) and about three quarters of our six month data (n=264). Data collection for the remaining six month interviews is ongoing. We will also eventually have twelve and eighteen month outcome data to report.

Data Analysis: Propensity Scores. Some analyses presented below control for propensity scores, or the likelihood of being on traditional probation given certain criminal (e.g., most serious crime ever and total number of past arrests), clinical (Global Assessment of Functioning score), and personality features (anxiety scale of the Personality Assessment Inventory). Because the present study represents a matched design rather than random assignment to specialty or traditional probation conditions, this statistical technique helps to balance potentially non-equivalent groups to obtain more valid estimates of the effects of traditional vs. specialty supervision on PMDs (Luellen, Shadish, & Clark, 2005).

Results
Preliminary analyses examining differences between sites on supervision practices demonstrated that specialty POs see their probationers slightly more often per month (2.2 times/month vs. 1.5 times/month) and for a longer amount of time (26 minutes vs. 18 minutes) than traditional POs (t = 6.0, p < .001, t = 5.4, p < .001, respectively). Factor analyses of supervision strategies yielded three primary factors: problem solving, threats, and sanctions. The sites differed significantly from one another in terms of supervision techniques. Specifically, specialty POs used significantly more problem solving strategies (t = 6.5, p < .001) and significantly less threats (t = -3.6, p < .001) and less sanctions (t = -2.1, p < .05) than their counterparts in traditional probation agencies. These differences remained significant after controlling for propensity scores.

Next, we examined differences in PO boundary spanning. Factor analyses in this realm yielded four primary factors: PO knowledge (e.g., of other systems), PO helpfulness, PO advocacy, and PO direct/“hands on” involvement (e.g., attends treatment with the probationer on his first visit). Specialty POs were perceived by their probationers as more knowledgeable (t = 4.8, p < .001), more helpful (t = 6.5, p < .001), and more like an advocate (t = 4.6, p < .001). Specialty POs were less likely to be perceived as using a more direct “hands on” approach, but this difference is not significant. Only the knowledge factor remained significant after controlling for propensity scores.

The final set of baseline site comparisons involved the quality of the PO-probationer relationship (PPR). Factor analyses on items assessing the PPR elicited a three factor solution: fairness/caring, trust, and toughness. Probationers on specialty caseloads perceived their relationship with their PO to be more fair and caring (t = 7.9, p < .001) and more trusting (t = 5.5, p < .001), but less tough (t = -6.0, p < .001) than traditional probationers’ perceptions of the PPR. The fairness/caring and trust factors remained significant after controlling for propensity scores.

Our next sets of analyses examined probationers’ perceptions of probation’s effect on their lives. Probationers on specialty supervision were significantly
more likely to feel that probation has helped them keep treatment appointments and take prescribed medications ($t = 5.0, p < .001$), get and stay well ($t = 5.1, p < .001$), gain more control over their lives ($t = 4.7, p < .001$), and stay out of trouble with the law ($t = 5.4, p < .001$).

Using available six month outcome data, we then examined the amount and quality of services accessed between the baseline and six month interviews. Probationers on specialty supervision were more likely to get mental health treatment ($\chi^2 = 41.2, p < .001$) and medication ($\chi^2 = 14.0, p < .01$). The two sites did not differ significantly in terms of substance abuse or physical health treatment. Only the differences between sites on mental health treatment remained significant after controlling for propensity scores. Factor analysis on items ascertaining the nature of help provided by mental health treatment providers produced four factors: mental health, legal/drug problems, daily life, and housing. There were significant differences between the two sites on help with daily life ($t = -2.4, p < .05$).

Our final set of analyses examined preliminary probation compliance outcomes. Results indicated no significant differences between the sites on probationers’ substance abuse for both self report and official records. There was a significant difference between the two sites on the likelihood for technical violations ($\chi^2 = 33.3, p < .001$). Specifically, probationers on specialty probation were significantly more likely to be violated for treatment non-compliance ($\chi^2 = 54.3, p < .001$), and not reporting to probation ($\chi^2 = 25.9, p < .001$). These differences remained significant after controlling for propensity scores.

Discussion
This study is the first to suggest that specialty and traditional supervision officers adhere, in practice, to the supervision philosophies that define them. Moreover, it appears that mental health treatment plays an integral role in specialty probation; PMDs on specialty probation are more likely to receive mental health treatment and be violated for treatment non-compliance than PMDs on traditional probation. These results also suggest that there may be more differences between the two supervision approaches than just strategy. There appears to be better PO-probationer rapport and more probationer satisfaction with specialty probation than with traditional probation, but the current state of our data did not allow for analyses to tease apart the predictive effects of a number of variables on future criminal justice and mental health outcomes. This is an ongoing study, and future analyses on a complete data set will help solidify our understanding of the individual and systemic causal mechanisms contributing to probationers’ success and non-success on probation.

References

Graduate Level: 2nd Runner-Up Congratulations to Erin Ross from the University of Western Ontario!

What’s Not Working within ‘What Works’: Executive Cognitive Functioning Capacity of First Time Offenders, Return Offenders, and Controls
Erin H. Ross, Jenny Neil, & Peter N.S. Hoaken
University of Western Ontario

There is now a compelling literature demonstrating that imprisonment alone is insufficient to deter offenders from future criminal activities. Accordingly, Correctional Services Canada has, over the past several decades, implemented various remediation programs in an attempt to reduce recidivism rates. Reports of recidivism reduction in relation to remediation programs have, unfortunately, been somewhat inconsistent, with some studies reporting that remediation programs had no effect, but with others reporting reductions in recidivism as high as 58%. A variety of reasons have been presented to account for this variability, such as the type of offender sub-groups studied (e.g., sexual offenders, property offenders), and motivation level of the offender in question. However, one factor that may be related to propensity for re-offending that has received little attention is the constellation of cognitive abilities referred to as the “executive cognitive functions” (ECF). Executive function refers to higher order cognitive abilities involved in goal-directed behaviour, including cognitive flexibility, strategy formation, response monitoring, working memory, and...
inhibition. Generally speaking, these abilities represent behaviours relevant to effective problem-solving and decision-making. Extant research has consistently shown various ECF deficits in incarcerated offenders, both adult and adolescent, with some researchers linking these deficits to recidivism. Unfortunately, little is known about whether existing remediation programs have any impact on ameliorating executive dysfunction, and none appear designed specifically to do so.

The purpose of the current study was to investigate the ECF abilities of incarcerated males from two medium security federal institutions within Canada, in comparison to non-incarcerated male community controls. More specifically, the study sought to elucidate to what extent ECF abilities differentiated repeat offenders (offenders with at least one prior federal prison sentence) from both first time offenders (offenders completing their first federal sentence) and controls. As previous research from our lab has demonstrated a link between ECF and criminality (Hoaken, 2006; Hoaken, Allaby, & Earle, 2007), it was hypothesized that both offender groups would display ECF performance inferior to that of controls. It was also hypothesized that repeat offenders would display more ECF impairments than first time offenders. Additionally, the current study also investigated whether a relationship existed between exposure to correctional programming and ECF. It was hypothesized that the number of remediation programs completed by offenders, most notably those including a ‘problem-solving’ skills training component, would have contributed positively to ECF abilities.

Of the 140 male participants, 95 were offenders incarcerated at either Springhill Institution (Springhill, Nova Scotia) or Fenbrook Institution (Gravenhurst, Ontario). Controls consisted of 45 males recruited from the community of London, Ontario. Participants completed four behavioural measures of ECF, including the Conditioned Nonspatial-Association Task, the Iowa Gambling Task, the Wisconsin Card Sorting Task, and Go/No-Go Task. In combination, these tests were thought to effectively and holistically assess the various elements of executive function. Offenders were recruited by posters, individual invitation (sent through institutional mailing system), and recruitment events. ECF measures were completed on a laptop computer in a private testing area within the institution. Demographic information and self-report of remediation program involvement was also obtained during the testing session. A review of institutional records provided additional information regarding prior offences, demographics, and program involvement. In order to avoid bias, file reviews were completed subsequent to testing. Controls, who responded to a local advertisement, completed the same measures, including assessment of community program involvement (e.g., substance abuse programs) at the University of Western Ontario.

A multivariate analysis of variance, with post-hoc tests, revealed that return offenders performed significantly worse than both first time offenders and controls in the areas of strategy formation, working memory, response monitoring, and impulsivity. Surprisingly, first time offenders were not statistically different than controls on any of these variables. With respect to programming, as expected, return offenders had completed more programs than first time offenders, who in turn had completed more programs than controls. However, contrary to the hypothesis, number of completed programs was positively correlated with poor performance on some ECF measures, indicating that being engaged in more programming was actually associated with poorer executive functioning.

Poorer performance by return offenders in areas of strategy formation, working memory, response monitoring, and impulsivity likely reflects a global problem-solving impairment in these individuals. These findings are quite relevant to recidivism. If an offender is not equipped with appropriate problem-solving abilities, navigating through situations with potential criminal components (e.g., solving financial strain; interpreting ambiguous social situations) will inevitably be more problematic, and could lead to further poorly-planned and impulsive, and indeed potentially criminal, activities. The public policy implications of these findings are numerous. For example, understanding the distinctions between first time offenders and return offenders may further counsel against a ‘one size fits all’ approach to remediation; instead, program reformers could capitalize on the unique strengths evidenced by first time offenders. In addition, understanding the distinctions in executive functioning abilities between subgroups of offenders may aid in more accurate classification for risk of recidivism. Furthermore, the results suggest that correctional remediation programming may be lacking a specialized element of ECF training. Other types of remediation which focus on attenuating executive dysfunction, such as those involved in rehabilitating individuals with head injury or schizophrenia, may inform future research.

References
Hoaken, P. N. S. (2006). Investigations of social information processing and executive cognitive function in adult male offenders and community controls. In Österman, K., &
As the need for research on female offenders is being recognized, there continues to be a significant gap between what is known about male offenders in comparison to females. Traditionally, girls have received little attention within criminology as they have been viewed as less of a concern than boys (Hubbard & Pratt, 2002; Simourd & Andrews, 1994) and in comparison to males, they only represent a small percentage of the juvenile justice population (Funk, 1999). This gap is most evident in the field of risk assessment. The level of risk an offender poses establishes not only the probability of future criminal behaviour, but also assists in determining the level of intervention and the intensity of services provided to manage that risk (Hoge, 2002). Existing assessment approaches were developed on males but are nonetheless being applied to females. Although there is some evidence that males and females have similar risk factors, little research has examined whether or not instruments developed on samples of males are valid for females. Notably, there is little research examining the reliability and validity of criminal attitude measures used with female offender samples.

Consequently, the primary objective of this study was to assess the reliability, and the convergent and predictive validity of four gender-neutral criminal attitude measures in a sample of youthful female offenders (n = 134) and male offenders (n = 133). The measures included the: (1) Criminal Sentiments Scale (CSS; Andrews & Wormith, 1984), (2) Pride in Delinquency Scale (PID; Shields & Whitehall, 1991), (3) Neutralization Scale (Shields & Whitehall, 1994), and the (4) criminal attitude component of the Young Offender Level of Service Inventory (YO-LSI; Shields & Simourd, 1991). Each of these instruments measures one of the variables (i.e., criminal sentiments, neutralization) that together form attitudes, values and beliefs that are supportive of crime. The Young Children’s Social Desirability Scale Revised (YCSDS; Ford & Rubin, 1970) was also included to determine if socially desirable responding needed to be factored into the analyses.

**Method**

Participants were youthful offenders who took part in the programming offered at the Eastern Ontario Youth Justice Agency (EOYJA) in Ottawa, Ontario between 1989 and 2005. The original sample was comprised of 134 females and 133 males however the sample size fluctuated for each of the instruments as a result of missing data. The females ranged in age from 13 to 18 ($M = 15.11$, $SD = .94$) and had an average of 9.28 years of education. The males ranged in age from 12 to 19 ($M = 14.95$, $SD = 1.12$) and had an average of 9.10 years of education. A t-test yielded no significant differences in age between genders. All data were retrieved from archival files, electronic or hard copy.

**Results/Discussion**

The psychometric properties of the instruments were assessed including their reliability, and convergent and predictive validity. To establish reliability, a series of Cronbach’s alpha were calculated. All of the criminal attitude measures showed high reliability (see Table 1) when used on both female and male young offenders.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1</th>
<th>Reliability: Cronbach’s alpha ($\alpha$) based on initial assessment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YOLSI</td>
<td>.85 / (134)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YO-LSI: Att.</td>
<td>.53 / (134)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSS</td>
<td>.93 / (91)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEUT</td>
<td>.92 / (106)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PID</td>
<td>.78 / (104)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YCSDS</td>
<td>.69 / (79)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: n fluctuates as a result of missing data; ' YO-LSI 3-item criminal attitude component comprised of item 69 (supportive of delinquency), item 70 (poor attitude towards sentence) and item 73 (intends to continue crime).

To establish convergent validity, a series of Pearson product-moment correlations were calculated among the total scores for each instrument. It was found that all four criminal attitude measures were highly correlated with one another for both female and male youthful offenders (see Table 2).

Lastly, the predictive validity of these instruments was assessed in terms of their ability to predict re-offending and program completion (see Table 3). Overall in terms of program completion, the predictive validity is sound for females in four of the five criminal attitude measures.
including the YO-LSI, Neutralization scale, Pride in Delinquency scale, and the YO-LSI criminal attitude component. Interestingly, none of the instruments were significant predictors of either program completion or re-offending for the male subset.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2</th>
<th>Inter-scale correlations (r) among predictor variables</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PID</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutralization</td>
<td>.37**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PID</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YO-LSI</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSS</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutralization</td>
<td>.34**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PID</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YO-LSI</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSS</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. The n varies by instrument, see table 1; ¹ YO-LSI 3-item criminal attitude component; No significant correlations were found between the Young Children’s Social Desirability Scale and any other scale; * p < .01.  ** p < .001.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3</th>
<th>Predictive validity in terms of program outcomes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Re-offended (n = 13)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YO-LSI</td>
<td>.18*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YO-LSI/Att¹</td>
<td>- .01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSS</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEUT</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PID</td>
<td>.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YCSDS</td>
<td>-.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YO-LSI</td>
<td>.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YO-LSI/Att¹</td>
<td>-.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSS</td>
<td>-.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEUT</td>
<td>-.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PID</td>
<td>-.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YCSDS</td>
<td>.18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. ¹ YO-LSI 3-item criminal attitude component; * p < .05.  ** p < .01.

One limitation of this study was the low base rate of re-offending for both girls and boys. Due to this factor, the true predictive abilities of these instruments may have been underestimated. A follow-up study would be beneficial to determine the long-term predictive ability of the assessment battery.

In conclusion, the study found strong support for the reliability and convergent validity of these instruments in both genders. Interestingly, while none of the measures predicted re-offending or program completion among the males, the majority of the measures did predict program completion among the females. More research is needed to investigate the predictive ability of these measures in both genders.

References

Undergraduate Level: 2nd Runner-Up Congratulations to Leanne ten Brinke from Dalhousie University!

Unmasking Deceit: An Investigation of Concealed and Falsified Emotional Facial Expressions
Leanne ten Brinke, B.Sc. (Hons.) & Stephen Porter, Ph.D. Dalhousie University

Deception is an important and common aspect of human social interaction. For example, Hancock (2007) found that people lied in 14% of emails, 27% of face-to-face interactions, and 37% of phone calls. Despite its prevalence, deception is notoriously difficult to detect; when asked to judge whether another person is lying, most people tend to “guess”, performing at or only slightly better than the level of chance (e.g., Bond & DePaulo, 2006; Vrij, 2000). Even experienced professionals who frequently engage in the task have problems identifying deceptive targets (Ekman & O’Sullivan, 1991). Porter, Woodworth, and Birt (2000) found that Canadian federal parole officers performed below chance at detecting
deception in videotaped speakers, suggesting that they were actively attending to misleading cues and making mistakes.

Concealment and Falsification in Emotional Facial Expressions

The face is a main tool with which we communicate our own emotions and from which we quickly infer the emotional experiences and even trait characteristics of others. But how accurate is the process of evaluating facial expressions? Sometimes, a person’s emotion is “written all over his/her face”; we quickly recognize if someone is enraged when they approach exhibiting the contraction of certain facial muscles such as the corrugator supercilii and procerus, frontalis (to lower the brows and produce horizontal wrinkles on the nose), levator labii superioris (to flare the nostrils), the orbicularis oculi and frontalis pars medialis (to produce flashing eyes), and the orbicularis oris and masseter (to clench the jaw). Often, however, facial expressions are much more difficult to interpret than such a display of anger. Facial expressions can be much more subtle, in accordance with a less powerful affective state (e.g., hostility versus rage). Further, people frequently attempt to deceive by changing or inhibiting a facial expression normally accompanying an emotional state (e.g., Ekman, 1992).

The consequences of the failed identification of concealed and falsified emotional information are enormous in many contexts, including suspect interrogations, customs agencies, airport security, and the courtroom. In terms of airport security, for example, the ability to read the intentions of passengers through their faces and behaviour can literally have life-and-death consequences. The 9/11 terrorists, for example, may not have been successful in their mission if not for their ability to conceal their intentions and emotions before and during boarding the doomed airplanes. In fact, the 9/11 attacks and other terrorist plots inspired security officials to develop training aimed at helping staff identify threats by recognizing concealed emotions in the faces of passengers. The U.S. transportation agency has embarked on a training program with hundreds of “behaviour detection” officers and plans to deploy them at all major American airports by 2008 (Lipton, 2006). However, major unresolved issues include the validity of this behavioural approach, the type of non-verbal information that is actually communicated in the face during emotional deception, and the effectiveness of training (Porter & ten Brinke, 2007). We had 41 participants view 17 highly emotional (happy, sad, disgusting, fearful) or neutral photographs (counterbalanced) from the International Affective Picture System (Lang, Bradley, & Cuthbert, 1999) and respond to each with a 5-second genuine or false emotional expression while being videotaped. The images ranged from a severed hand, a distressed premature baby in an incubator, and a funeral scene within the negative images to puppies playing and children laughing in the happy images. Naive observers judged the veracity of each real time expression. Each 1/30th second frame of the videotaped clips then was coded (697 expressions for a total of 104,550 coded frames) by extensively trained raters for the presence and duration of universal emotional expressions in the upper and lower halves of the face.

Our findings, partly supporting Darwin’s inhibition hypothesis, indicated that emotional expressions inconsistent with the intended display occurred significantly more frequently in masked than in genuine or simulated expressions. Additionally, inconsistent expressions were more frequent and longer in falsified negative (fear, disgust, and sadness) than happiness expressions. However, participants generally were successful in neutralizing their expressions for all emotion types. These results suggest that the inhibition hypothesis
is related to the complexity of the task at hand, such that masking (involving concealment of the felt emotion and simulation of a falsified one) results in greater leakage than neutralizing emotion where only concealment must take place. Further, displays of inconsistent emotion were of varying frequency according to the falsified emotion suggesting that certain emotions are harder to falsify than others. Specifically, inconsistencies were more common in each of the three negative emotional expressions (sadness, fear, disgust) than in happiness (see Porter & ten Brinke, 2007).

Although this study lends support to the hypothesis that emotional leakage occurs during emotional falsification, they rarely occur so briefly to be classified as micro-expressions. In fact, no micro-expressions involving the complete face were observed. However, nine participants exhibited 14 partial micro-expressions involving either the upper or lower facial region and were distributed throughout all expression veracities. However, partial micro-expressions were a reliable indicator of the concealed emotion in masked and neutralized expressions. Nonetheless, given the infrequency of these partial micro-expressions and their occurrence in genuine expressions, their usefulness as a cue to deception needs to be carefully considered.

The consequences of the failed identification of concealed and falsified emotional information are enormous in many contexts, resulting in training programs to identify concealed emotions and intentions. The findings of Porter and ten Brinke (2007) are among the first that bear directly on what should and should not be incorporated in this training approach. The results of the current research call for further research in the area of emotional deception and open an important avenue to increase effectiveness of credibility assessment training.

References


For further information, please contact Leanne ten Brinke at lbrinke@dal.ca.
**Coming Soon….**

As always, our goal is to deliver another exciting Issue of *Crime Scene* in April, and for this to happen, we need you! We continue to encourage you to add “submit to *Crime Scene*” on your list of things to do! Become involved, communicate your thoughts, opinions, and/or research to your colleagues! Fall can be seen as a season for reflection, so we hope that you can reflect on the content of this Issue and are inspired to write a submission for the next Newsletter!

Have a productive fall and winter. Just think, when the next Issue comes out, summer will almost be here again!

*Tanya & Chantal*

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**Hope that your fall is filled with reflection, intrigue and joy!**