

FORENSIC PSYCHOLOGY

Joanna Pozzulo

Craig Bennell

Adelle Forth



 Pearson

FIFTH EDITION

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PRODUCTION SERVICES: Cengage® Publisher Services, Inc.

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ART DIRECTOR: Cengage Publisher Services, Inc.
COVER DESIGNER: Cengage Publisher Services, Inc.
COVER IMAGE: Adrian Niederhäuser/Fotolia
VICE-PRESIDENT, CROSS MEDIA AND PUBLISHING SERVICES: Gary Bennett

Pearson Canada Inc., 26 Prince Andrew Place, Don Mills, Ontario M3C 2T8.

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ISBN 978-0-13-430806-7

10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

Library and Archives Canada Cataloguing in Publication

Pozzulo, Joanna, author

Forensic psychology / Joanna Pozzulo, Craig Bennell, Adelle Forth. — Fifth edition.

Includes bibliographical references and index.

ISBN 978-0-13-430806-7 (hardback)

I. Forensic psychology—Textbooks. I. Bennell, Craig, author
I. Forth, Adelle Elizabeth, 1961-, author III. Title.

RA1148.P68 2016

614'.15

C2016-904437-8



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

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Preface

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

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

NEW TO THE FIFTH EDITION

- **Increased coverage** on Aboriginal issues.
- Each chapter now includes a box on myths and realities related to forensic psychology.
- Updated relevant court cases in each chapter.
- **Reorganization** of chapters to allow for easier delivery of course material and to decrease the overlap between chapters.
- **Updated**—All chapters have been updated to reflect the expanding field of forensic psychology, including recent changes to Canadian legislation and reference to the *DSM-5*.
- **New profiles** of prominent Canadian researchers:

Dr. Tara Burke, Ryerson University

Dr. Mary Ann Campbell, University of New Brunswick

Dr. Leanne ten Brinke, University of Denver

Dr. Laura Melnyk Gribble, King's University College at the University of Western

Dr. Leena Augimeri, Child Development Institute

Dr. Karl Hanson, Public Safety Canada

Dr. Joseph Eastwood, University of Ontario Institute of Technology

Dr. Eric Beauregard, Simon Fraser University

RETAINED FEATURES

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

- **Learning Objectives and End-of-Chapter Summaries.** Each chapter starts with a list of learning objectives to guide students' learning of the material and closes with a summary linked to the learning objectives.
- **Vignettes.** Chapter-opening vignettes provide students with a context for the key concepts they will encounter in each chapter. These engaging vignettes present real-world scenarios in which students, or people they know, could potentially find themselves.
- **Boxes.** Boxed features within the chapters provide interesting asides to the main text. Some detail current Canadian cases and legal rulings (**Cases in Forensic Psychology boxes**), while others highlight “hot” topics in the news (**In the Media boxes**) that have not yet been the subject of much psychological research. These boxes will develop students' consciousness of current issues and spark some research ideas.
- **Profiles of Canadian Researchers.** To expose students to the varied and excellent research in forensic psychology being conducted by Canadians, each chapter includes a profile of a key Canadian researcher whose work is relevant to the chapter topic. These profiles highlight educational background, current position, and research interests, along with a little about the researcher's personal life, so students realize the researchers featured are people too.
- **Research Methodology.** Research methodology specific to forensic topics is described in the relevant chapters, with the goal of helping students understand how studies in forensic psychology are conducted.
- **Research Studies.** Data reported in original studies are cited throughout the textbook, often in graph or table form for easy interpretation. Diagrams of psychological models and flow charts demonstrate key processes that occur through the criminal justice system.
- **Theoretical Perspectives.** Theories that provide accounts for specific topic areas are discussed in each chapter. The discussion of the various theories emphasizes a multidisciplinary approach, showing the interplay among cognitive, biological, and social factors in understanding the different forensic psychology areas.
- **Law.** *Forensic Psychology* provides the student with information on current Canadian law relevant to the psychological issues discussed. At times, Canadian law is contrasted with U.S. and/or British law; however, it is important to remember that the emphasis is on Canadian case law, statutes, regulations, and so on. We do not provide full coverage of law that is not Canadian, so students who are interested in the laws of other countries should refer to other resources.
- **Research Questions.** At the end of case boxes, a set of questions are provided to aid students' thinking about the material. These questions do not necessarily contain a “correct” answer but rather allow the student to consider alternative views of the issues.

- **Discussion Questions.** Several discussion questions are offered at the end of each chapter. Instructors can assign these questions for group discussion, or students can use the questions to examine their comprehension and retention of the chapter material. We hope these questions will inspire critical thought in students.
- **Key Terms and Glossary.** Throughout the chapters, keywords with which students in forensic psychology should be familiar appear in bold type and are defined in marginal notes. These key terms and their definitions are also provided in a glossary at the end of the book for easy reference.

SUPPLEMENTS FOR INSTRUCTORS

The following supplements specific to *Forensic Psychology*, Fifth Edition, can be downloaded by instructors from a password-protected location on Pearson Education Canada's online catalogue. Contact your local sales representative for further information.

- **Instructor's Manual.** The instructor's manual is a comprehensive resource that provides chapter outlines, class activities, and summaries of select cases cited. We hope our colleagues will use the textbook and instructor's manual as foundations that they can build on in the classroom lecture.
- **Test Item File.** This test bank, offered in Microsoft Word format, contains multiple-choice and short-answer questions. Each question is classified according to difficulty level and is keyed to the appropriate page number in the textbook.
- **MyTest.** The new edition test bank comes with MyTest, a powerful assessment generation program that helps instructors easily create and print quizzes, tests, and exams, as well as homework or practice handouts. Questions and tests can all be authored online, allowing instructors ultimate flexibility and the ability to efficiently manage assessments at any time, from anywhere.
- **PowerPoint Presentations.** PowerPoint slides highlight the key concepts in each chapter of the text.

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This book would never have come to fruition had we not been mentored by outstanding forensic researchers. Joanna Pozzulo is indebted to Rod Lindsay at Queen's University for his unfailing support, his rich insights, and his commitment to academic excellence that she aspires to achieve. Craig Bennell is grateful to David Canter at the University of Liverpool for providing a stimulating intellectual environment in which to study and for teaching him how to think critically. Adelle Forth wishes to express her admiration, respect, and gratitude to Robert Hare at the University of British Columbia, who nurtured her interest in the area of psychopathy and who has provided consistent support and guidance.

We would like to acknowledge that the forensic program at Carleton University, of which we are part, would not exist without our colleagues Julie Blais, Shelley Brown, Kevin Nunes, Ralph Serin, and Evelyn Maeder.

We are thankful to the exceptional researchers we profiled in this textbook for giving us their time and insight into their lives, specifically: Stephen Wormith, Dorothy Cotton, Joseph Eastwood, Leanne ten Brinke, Rod Lindsay, Laura Melynk Gribble, Tara Burke, Mary Ann Campbell, Ralph Serin, Karl Hanson, Robert Hare, Leena Augimeri, Don Dutton, Martin Lalumière, and Eric Beauregard. All have made significant contributions to the field of forensic psychology.

We thank our many undergraduate and graduate students who over the years have challenged our thinking and who have influenced the ideas expressed in this book. In particular, we wish to thank the following students for their help in researching the book: Emily Pica, Andrei Mesesan, Chelsea Sheahan, Mary Ritchie, Becky Grace, and Kristopher Brazil.

We would like to thank the great staff at Pearson Education Canada. Madhu Ranadive and Cheryl Finch (developmental editor) deserve special mention—this book would not exist without their enthusiasm, expertise, and dedication. Susan Johnson, Darcey Pepper, and Lisa Gillis also played important roles in making *Forensic Psychology*, Fifth Edition, become a reality.

Finally on a personal note, Joanna Pozzulo would like to thank her partner David for his patience and support during the writing process. She also would like to thank Craig and Adelle for being great collaborators and dear friends. Craig Bennell would like to thank his wife, Cindy, for her love, patience, and support during the long hours of writing, and his sons, Noah and Elijah, for making him always remember what is most important. Adelle Forth would like to thank her partner, colleague, and friend, John Logan, for his insights, suggestions, and feedback that improved the book, as well as his understanding and support while preparing the book. She would also like to acknowledge the contribution of her numerous four-legged furry friends for keeping her sane.

Chapter 1

An Introduction to Forensic Psychology

Learning Objectives

- Identify some of the major milestones in the history of forensic psychology.
- Provide a narrow and a broad definition of forensic psychology.
- Describe the differences between clinical and experimental forensic psychology.
- List the three ways in which psychology and the law can interact.
- List the criteria used in Canada to decide when expert testimony is admissible.

Sarah Henderson has just finished watching her favourite television show, *Criminal Minds*. She has her heart set on a career that will allow her to do what the characters in her favourite show do for a living—profiling serial arsonists, rapists, and killers. Sarah thinks that becoming a forensic psychologist is the right path for her. Fortunately, Sarah’s neighbour works as a probation officer and has regular contact with forensic psychologists. This neighbour has repeatedly told Sarah that forensic psychology isn’t necessarily what she sees on the television. Sarah finally decides to find out for herself what forensic psychology is all about and enrolls in a course at her local university, much like the one you are currently taking.

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

Like all psychologists, forensic psychologists are interested in understanding the mechanisms that underlie people’s thoughts, feelings, and actions. However, as you will

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

The Reality of Reality TV

Crime has always been a popular topic for television shows, and researchers are interested in understanding the role that television plays in shaping the attitudes of viewers towards crime-related matters. With the introduction of crime-based reality television, even more attention is being paid to this issue (Doyle, 2003).

No crime-based reality show has been more popular than the award-winning *Cops*, which has been on the air since 1989. If shows like *Cops* are influencing the attitudes of viewers (e.g., their attitudes towards the police), one obvious question to ask is whether this is problematic. Perhaps it isn't if *Cops* presents an accurate portrayal of crime and our legal system's response to it. But, what if these shows are biased and present a distorted view of policing (or of crime)?

A colleague of ours at Carleton University, Dr. Aaron Doyle, explored these types of issues in his 2003 book *Arresting Images: Crime and Policing in Front of the Television Camera*. Some of what he found in his research might surprise you. For example, despite the fact that its producers have referred to the show as "unfiltered television," Doyle's analysis of *Cops* indicates quite the opposite. In contrast to how the show is pitched to viewers, Doyle argued that *Cops* "offers a very particular and select vision of policing" (p. 34). Rather than reality television, Doyle suggests the show is reality fiction, a "constructed version of reality with its own biases, rather than a neutral record" (p. 35). Once one understands how shows such as *Cops* are actually produced, Doyle's argument becomes more convincing.

Consider the following examples, which were highlighted by Doyle (2003):

- While the producers of *Cops* state that the show allows viewers to share a cop's point of view in "real time," this is not actually true. As Doyle showed, while each of the seven- to eight-minute vignettes that make up a *Cops* episode does tend to unfold in a linear fashion, the sequence of events is not typically presented in real time. Instead, the various parts of the vignette that are ultimately aired have often taken place over many hours, only to be edited together later. In fact, according to Doyle, each hour

of *Cops* airtime is typically edited down from between 50 and 60 hours of actual footage.

- Clever techniques for giving the illusion of real-time flow are also regularly used by the editors of *Cops*. For example, as Doyle revealed, although it appears as if the visual and sound elements of *Cops* are both captured simultaneously, this is often not the case. Rather, "sound is edited to overlap cuts in the visuals . . . [with the continuing sound suggesting] continuity in time, as if the viewer has simply looked in a different direction during continuous action . . . although in fact an hour's worth of action and dialogue could have been omitted between the cuts" (p. 36).
- *Cops* is also made more realistic by ensuring that the camera crew is never seen, even during those segments of the episode when police officers are driving the camera crew to and from incidents. As Doyle says, this involves considerable editing (e.g., of civilians reacting to the cameras) and ensures that viewers are never left with the impression that what they are watching could ever have been affected by television cameras.
- Unsurprisingly, the stories selected for airing on a *Cops* episode are also delivered in a way that ensures certain audience reactions. As pointed out by Doyle, various storytelling techniques are used to encourage viewers to identify with the police, but not with suspects. For example, most *Cops* vignettes are hosted by a particular officer whom we get to know. Suspects in all vignettes remain nameless; they are criminals who have given their consent to be shown, but otherwise remain anonymous.

As you proceed through this course, take some time to think about the television shows that you watch. Think also about how these shows may have an impact on your attitudes towards the topics we cover in this textbook and whether this is a good thing. Of course, reality fiction can make for great television, but perhaps it should not shape our attitudes about crime-related matters as much as it sometimes does.



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

Collection Christophell/Alamy Stock Photo

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

A BRIEF HISTORY OF FORENSIC PSYCHOLOGY

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

Early Research on Testimony and Suggestibility

The field of forensic psychology arguably began with research taking place in both the United States and Europe that had serious implications for the legal system. Some of the first experiments were those of James Cattell at Columbia University in

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

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

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

Court Cases in Europe

Around the same time that this research was being conducted, psychologists also started to appear as experts in court. This was particularly the case in Europe. Unsurprisingly, given the research being conducted at the time, some of the testimony that these experts provided dealt with issues involving the accuracy of testimony.

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

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

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

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

Advocates for Forensic Psychology in North America

Similar sorts of legal issues were also being debated in courts throughout the United States in the early 1900s. Most notably, Hugo Munsterberg, another student of Wilhelm Wundt who came from Germany to Harvard University in 1892, was involved in several criminal cases, but not as an expert witness. One case, in 1906, concerned a young intellectually disabled man from Chicago, Richard Ivens, who had confessed to raping and murdering a woman. On the request of the man's lawyer, Munsterberg (along with fellow Harvard psychologist William James) reviewed the interrogation records. Based on his analysis, Munsterberg concluded that "the so-called confessions of Ivens are untrue, and that he had nothing to do with the crime" (Golan, 2004, p. 217). Another case, one year later, involved a confession by Harry Orchard that he had killed the former

governor of Idaho and, on the orders of a well-known union boss, had killed several others. On the request of the prosecution in the trial of the union boss, Munsterberg tested Orchard and found that what he was saying was true. In both cases, the courts appeared to pay little attention to Munsterberg's findings, evidenced by the fact that Ivens was found guilty and executed, and the union boss in the second trial was acquitted.

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

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

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



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

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

Perhaps because of Wigmore's comprehensive attack on Munsterberg's work, little progress was made by psychologists working in areas of relevance to the law in the very early 1900s. However, the field of forensic psychology in the United States would soon catch up to what was happening in Europe. Indeed, psychological research gradually began to be practically applied in a wide range of criminal justice settings across America. For example, according to Bartol and Bartol (2013), psychologists were instrumental in opening the first clinic for juvenile delinquents in 1909, in developing laboratories to conduct pretrial assessments in 1916, and in establishing psychological testing for law enforcement selection purposes in 1917.

Psychologists also began to focus on theory development. New theories of crime were being proposed by psychologists (and researchers from other fields) at a rapid rate, especially around the mid-1900s (see Box 1.1).

Box 1.1 Forensic Psychology in the Spotlight

Biological, Sociological, and Psychological Theories of Crime

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

Biological Theories of Crime

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

impulsive control. Such deficits may increase the probability that one exhibits anti-social behaviour.

Sociological Theories of Crime

- *Merton's (1938) strain theory.* Merton proposed that crime is largely a product of the strain felt by certain individuals in society, typically the lower class, who have restricted access to legitimate means (e.g., education) of achieving valued goals of success (e.g., status). Merton argued that while some of these individuals will be happy with lesser goals that are achievable, others will turn to illegitimate means (e.g., crime) in an attempt to achieve these valued goals.
- *Sutherland's (1939) differential association theory.* Sutherland proposed that criminal behaviour is learned through social interactions in which people are exposed to values that can be either favourable or unfavourable to violations of the law. More specifically, Sutherland maintained that people are likely to become involved in criminal activity when they learn more values (i.e., attitudes) that are favourable to violations of the law than values that are unfavourable to it.
- *Becker's (1963) labelling theory.* Becker proposed that deviance (e.g., antisocial behaviour) is not inherent to an act but a label attached to an act by society. Thus, a "criminal" results primarily from a process of society labelling an individual as a criminal. This labelling process is thought to promote the individual's deviant behaviour through a self-fulfilling prophecy.

Psychological Theories of Crime

- *Eysenck's (1964) biosocial theory of crime.* Eysenck believed that some individuals (e.g., extraverts and neurotics) are born with nervous systems that influence their ability to learn from the consequences of their behaviour, especially the negative consequences experienced in childhood as part of the socialization and conscience-building process. Because of their poor

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“conditionability,” it is assumed that individuals who exhibit high levels of extraversion and neuroticism will develop strong antisocial inclinations.

■ *Akers's (1973) social learning theory.* Akers suggested that crime is learned in the same way that noncriminal behaviour is learned. According to Akers, the likelihood of becoming a criminal increases when one interacts with individuals who favour antisocial attitudes; when one is exposed to role models, either in person or symbolically,

who disproportionately exhibit antisocial behaviour; when one defines antisocial behaviour as justified in a particular situation; and when one has received (and expects to receive) a greater degree of rewards versus punishments for antisocial behaviour.

■ *Gottfredson and Hirschi's (1990) general theory of crime.* Gottfredson and Hirschi argued that low self-control, internalized early in life, in the presence of criminal opportunities explains an individual's propensity to commit crimes.

Landmark Court Cases in the United States

In the early to mid-1900s, psychologists in the United States began to be more heavily involved in the judicial system as expert witnesses. The first time this happened was in the case of *State v. Driver* in 1921. According to Bartol and Bartol (2013), the *Driver* case was only a partial victory for forensic psychology in America. The West Virginia case involved the attempted rape of a young girl and the court accepted expert evidence from a psychologist in the area of juvenile delinquency. However, the court rejected the psychologist's testimony that the young girl was a “moron” and, therefore, could not be believed. In its ruling the court stated, “It is yet to be determined that psychological and medical tests are practical, and will detect the lie on the witness stand” (quoted in Bartol & Bartol, 2013, p. 14).

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

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

Currently in the United States, it is common for psychologists to testify on matters such as fitness to stand trial and criminal responsibility (Viljoen et al., 2003), in addition to a wide range of other issues, including risk assessment, treatment

of traumatic brain injury, factors affecting eyewitness memory and jury decision making, the impact of hostile work environments, etc. (Cutler & Kovera, 2011).

Progress in Canada

Although it is difficult to pinpoint exactly when the field of forensic psychology began in Canada, it has been growing since at least the mid-1900s. Indeed, since that time, Canadian psychologists have made many important contributions to this field. Some examples of major developments are listed in Figure 1.1. As you can see from

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Figure 1.1 The History of Forensic Psychology in Canada