SENSATION SEEKING: A CRIMINOGENIC RISK FACTOR FOR JUSTICE-INVOLVED VETERANS

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Joshua M Francis

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SENSATION SEEKING: A CRIMINOGENIC RISK FACTOR FOR JUSTICE-INVOLVED VETERANS

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Joshua M Francis

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APPROVED:

Jorge Varela, PhD
Dissertation Director

Jaime Anderson, PhD
Committee Member

Marc Boccaccini, PhD
Committee Member

Abbey Zink, PhD
Dean, College of Humanities and Social Sciences

DEDICATION

To those who have served in the defense of their country and been changed by their experiences in war.

ABSTRACT

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Justice Involved Veterans (JIV) represent a deceptively distinct subgroup of offenders in the criminal justice system. Although there is a substantial body of research concerning mental health and criminal justice system involvement, there remains a lack of effective programming tailored to the unique criminogenic needs of JIVs. Though pathological personality has been highlighted as a factor in the Risk-Need-Responsivity (RNR) model (Andrews et al., 2004), current interventions appear to fall short of addressing the underlying mental health issues of veterans that lead to criminal justice involvement. Sensation seeking is one such pathological personality trait of interest that has implications for criminal behavior. The current study examined the associations between sensation seeking and military experience with criminal justice involvement. This study discusses implications of unique criminogenic needs of military veterans on rates of recidivism provides new insights into the relationship between sensation seeking and criminogenic risk factors for recidivism while also filling a gap in the pathological personality literature.

KEY WORDS: Sensation seeking, Pathological personality, Veterans, Criminogenic risk, Offenders

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

Sensation Seeking as a Criminogenic Risk Factor in Justice-Involved Veterans

For over a decade, there has been an influx of combat veterans returning home from the protracted conflicts in the Middle East and Central Asia. With this increase in the number of individuals who have experienced combat comes the flawed perception that this has led to more veterans involved in the criminal justice system. In fact, military veterans constituted 25% of the total incarcerated U.S. population at the end of the previous extended U.S. conflict in Vietnam. Today, veterans comprise 9% of the total population in the United States, and they account for a similar proportion of the incarcerated population at 8% of the U.S. total (Bronson et al., 2015).

Despite media and pop culture depictions, military veterans discharged since the beginning of the wars in Afghanistan and Iraq only account for 25% of the total incarcerated veteran population in jails and 13% of those in prisons in the United States (Bronson et al., 2015). This means that 75% of incarcerated veterans in jails and 87% of those in prison are not veterans of the more recent conflicts in Iraq and Afghanistan. With the youngest Vietnam veterans being over 60 years of age, this illustrates that a substantial majority of the incarcerated veteran population served during peacetime. Nonetheless, in the years following the conclusion of their military service, many military veterans have found themselves involved in the criminal justice system. Many of these justice-involved veterans (JIV) suffer from a variety of mental health issues that are related to their military service experiences, regardless of whether they experienced combat.

In general, individuals that suffer from mental illness are overrepresented in the criminal justice system. It is estimated that approximately 20% of individuals incarcerated in jails suffer from serious mental illness (SMI; Steadman et al., 2009). These same estimates indicate that the number of individuals with SMI in jails and state prisons is tenfold that of individuals residing in state mental hospitals. Today, inmates with SMI are nearly five times more likely to attempt suicide than their counterparts in jail, and they are significantly more likely to be disciplined for institutional misconduct in correctional facilities.

JIVs represent a distinct subgroup of the offender population in the United States. They are nearly twice as likely to be high school graduates as their civilian offender counterparts, and they are four times more likely to have a college degree (Bronson et al., 2015). Though racial minorities are highly overrepresented in the overall incarcerated population, JIVs are closer to representative of a demographic cross-section of the U.S. racial and ethnic population (Bronson et al., 2015). However, African Americans are still highly overrepresented among incarcerated military veterans, constituting nearly double the amount that they make up of the overall U.S. population. In general, incarcerated military veterans have fewer prior arrests or incarcerations than civilian offenders (Bronson et al., 2015). Whereas 43% of JIVs were estimated to have been arrested four or more times, 55% of civilian offenders had been arrested at least four times. Similarly, 22% of JIVs had just one prior arrest as compared to 16% of civilian offenders, indicating a more extensive criminal history for those without a history of military service. Combat veterans are nearly twice as likely to have a prior mental health diagnosis as compared to incarcerated civilians (Bronson et al., 2015).

Much of the current research relating to military veterans concentrates on the topic of Posttraumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) and trauma symptoms that result from combat experience. PTSD symptoms have been associated with elevated rates of substance use, thrill seeking, aggression, risky sexual practices, and firearm possession among military veterans (Strom et al., 2012; James et al., 2014). In these studies, researchers also found that suicidal ideation and aggressive driving were among the most frequently reported behaviors. When combined with negative affect, PTSD diagnosis has also been found to be a risk factor for future involvement in the criminal justice system, irrespective of combat experience or traumatic brain injury (TBI; Elbogen et al., 2012). In fact, approximately 30% of military veterans in jail have been diagnosed with PTSD, which is double the rate of PTSD diagnosis found in civilian inmates (Bronson et al., 2015).

There are indications that changes in behavior may be most pronounced during the liminal period following military combat experience (Holbrook, 2010), or the transitional period between combat experience and reintegration into civilian society upon return home. One study found that veterans reported increased likelihood to engage in risky behaviors during this liminal period, but it was noted that this was only observed in personnel with a pre-deployment history of engaging in similar risky behaviors (Thomsen et al., 2010).

While there is a significant body of research concerning mental health and criminal justice system involvement, there is a lack of effective programming that has been developed to address the specific mental health needs of JIVs to reduce recidivism rates. Pathological personality is one particular factor that has been highlighted as a

criminogenic risk for criminal behavior, as described in the Risk-Need-Responsivity (RNR) model (Andrews et al. 2004). However, most of the interventions that have been developed do not adequately address the underlying mental health issues of veterans that lead to their involvement in the criminal justice system.

The Role of Offender Personality in The Risk-Need-Responsivity Model

The RNR model (Andrews et al., 2004) is a well-established and empirically supported criminological framework that is used for the evaluation of offender recidivism. It has been adapted for use in both correctional and community settings for the purposes of assessing an offender's level of recidivism risk. It is also designed to elucidate areas of need that are tied to the identified risks of the offender. The RNR model provides a useful structure from which to examine how pathological personality traits (i.e. antisocial cognitions or behaviors) may influence several of the criminogenic risk factors. Thus, it offers a framework to examine the influence of mental health factors upon future criminal behavior.

The RNR model was originally conceptualized within the context of the general personality and cognitive social learning (GPCSL) theory of criminal behavior (Andrews & Bonta, 2006). This concept holds that criminality reflects both a predisposed personality and learned behaviors that are driven by the individual's expectations and the consequences for their actual behavior. The GPCSL theory is rooted in the behaviorist school of personality, where punishment and reward, or the expectation thereof, influence the likelihood of future behavior. In this way, criminal behavior may be reinforced by experiences that demonstrate to an offender that costs and benefits of prosocial behavior do not measure up. Such rewards and punishments may be conceptualized as internally or

externally derived, and they may be immediate or indirect in their effect. In terms of the language of the GPCSL perspective, the RNR model represents an effort to reduce criminal recidivism by reconciling the costs and benefits of antisocial behavior with prosocial alternatives.

The GPCSL perspective describes how personality can be a fundamental element of criminal behavior (Andrews & Bonta, 2006). For instance, antisocial cognitions are rooted in procriminal (i.e. antisocial) values, attitudes, and beliefs that lead to deliberate criminal acts. It also explains how certain traits, such as self-centeredness, lack of empathy, or impulsivity can function as criminogenic risks. The GPCSL model also emphasizes the role of the social context in learned behavior. Criminogenic risks and needs are thus framed in terms of the costs and rewards associated with certain behaviors. For example, substance abuse may be weighed in terms of the costs of loss of employment or meaningful relationships and rewards of a short-term state of pleasurable intoxication.

The Central Eight Criminogenic Risk Factors

Within the framework of the RNR model, there are eight criminogenic risk factors that have been identified through empirical research to correlate with the overall assessed risk of recidivism in offenders (Andrews et al., 2004). Among these "Central Eight" criminogenic risks are the Big Four factors, which are considered to be the best predictors of criminal recidivism (Andrews et al., 2004; Gendreau et al., 1996). These Big Four factors include antisocial behaviors, antisocial personality, antisocial cognitions, and antisocial peers. The term antisocial was meant to highlight that such qualities are contrary to what is expected in society, as opposed to prosocial alternatives that are

socially acceptable and non-criminal in nature. The antisocial descriptor for these factors was not meant to allude to any diagnostic label or feature of a mental health disorder from the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorder, Fifth Edition (DSM-5), such as Antisocial Personality Disorder. To clarify this distinction, the Big Four factors have since been relabeled as Criminal History, Antisocial Personality Pattern, Procriminal Attitudes, and Criminal Companions.

Criminal History essentially equates to the offender's history of criminal offenses in this context, and it specifically pertains to exploitative, aggressive, or harmful actions towards others (Andrews et al., 2004). Clearly, an offender may have engaged in other maladaptive behaviors in their past, but there is often no evidence of such acts in the offender's records if they did not result in criminal justice system contact. Antisocial Personality Pattern reflects multiple indications of problematic personality, such as impulsivity, aggressiveness, or manipulativeness (Andrews et al., 2004). Procriminal Attitudes refers to the offender's values, beliefs, or attitudes towards others, authorities, or the community (Andrews et al., 2004). These attitudes may set conditions for the offender to recidivate if the individual views criminal acts as viable means to attain desired ends or resources. Finally, Criminal Companions, as a construct, involves the offender's preference to interact with criminal associates. This factor also includes the offender's rejection of prosocial relationships as well as any potentially isolative behaviors (Andrews et al., 2004).

The remaining four factors of the Central Eight criminogenic risk factors are comprised of other relevant considerations that may also predict criminal recidivism. These factors include family-related factors, employment or education, leisure and

recreation activities, and substance abuse (Andrews et al., 2004). The associations between criminal recidivism and these four criminogenic risk factors has been found to be weaker than the Big Four factors. Nonetheless, they are significant and worthy of consideration, as any one of them may present an individual risk for criminal recidivism.

Chaotic and non-supportive family or marital relationships may present substantial risk factors for offenders, especially in cases where other family members continue to engage in criminal activities in the presence of the offender (Andrews et al., 2004; Bonta, 2002). Lack of employment and education are fundamental factors that inform the offender's level of risk, as a failure to engage in such prosocial activities may result in dissatisfaction and avoidance of them. In this absence of a favorable outlook for employment or educational opportunities, the offender may be more inclined to engage in criminal activity. Leisure activities highlight the importance of idle hands and boredom. Limited involvement in prosocial activities serves as a risk factor for seeking out antisocial forms of entertainment or experiences. Lastly, use of illicit substances is a criminal act in and of itself. However, there are also consequences to substance abuse that may potentially damage an individual's functioning in their prosocial relationships, employment, or educational endeavors.

Criminogenic risks have both dynamic and static aspects (Campbell, French & Gendreau, 2007). Static components cannot be reduced through targeted intervention and are thus deemed impervious to treatment. Their presence in the offender's history represents an irreducible level of risk that can only increase if the offender reoffends. The only way in which an historical risk can be overridden is through a change to the condition of the offender. For example, the offender may develop a physical disability

that precludes their ability to engage in a certain type of crime. The relevance of these static factors to this discussion lies in the ways in which they may potentially amplify the severity of risk derived from the dynamic factors.

Targeting the dynamic aspects of criminogenic risks has been found to reduce offender recidivism (Andrews et al., 2004). It is not the Big Four, but often the other four factors, that are typically considered dynamic. Thus, they are often targeted with more tangible, measurable results in community supervision settings. Many of the instruments designed to assess an offender's level of criminogenic risk are concerned with addressing Substance Use, Criminal Companions, and Employment specifically because these factors have been discussed as easily targeted and monitored risk factors (Bonta, 2002). It should also be noted that offenders may have needs that are deserving of treatment that are not associated with their criminal behavior. While court-ordered therapy may be an option for addressing these types of criminogenic risk factors, it may not be available in certain correctional contexts. Perhaps the Big Four factors are more difficult to target with intervention, as there is a general lack of effective programs available to community supervision providers to adequately address issues related to the offender's problematic thoughts or behaviors.

While Antisocial Personality Pattern and Procriminal Attitudes may not appear to overtly be implicated as dynamic factors of criminogenic risk, they may affect the more easily targeted factors in critical ways. In fact, these two factors may serve as underlying elements of other criminogenic risk factors. Leaving antisocial personality and cognition related factors unaddressed may have implications to more subtle elements of recidivism

risk, such as treatment amenability, compliance in terms and conditions of community corrections, or overall motivation and effort.

As the RNR model is rooted in a conceptualization of criminality that incorporates the context of the offender's personality as a fundamental component, further discussion of personality factors related to criminal behavior is warranted. Specifically, it is important to consider if personality is a dynamic concept or if it is merely a constellation of static characteristics that remain generally unchanged once adulthood is achieved. Review of current literature indicates that the truth may lie somewhere in between these two extremes, where there are both static and dynamic components to personality. Dimensional conceptualization of pathological personality offers the opportunity to develop tailored programs that are responsive to the specific criminogenic needs of individual offenders with mental health issues.

Personality Psychopathology

Personality is conceptualized as a relatively stable property with respect to an individual's ability to adapt to their external environment (Harkness et al., 2014). Specifically, short term danger detection, long-term cost-benefit projection, and resource acquisition have all been identified as potential factors related to personality that may influence adaptability to one's environment. Individuals develop capabilities in response to external factors in order to function in their environment.

Among veterans, personality scores were found to remain generally stable while undergoing treatment for mental health problems (Munley, 2002). In this study, participants were administered the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory 2 (MMPI-2; Butcher et al., 1989) at a Veterans Administration facility and were retested

approximately 688 days later. Researchers found that, despite marginal score variations within subjects, the changes did not alter the overall pattern of elevated scores. Although personality has relatively stable components, there are indications that it does change over time as a reflection of the context in which it operates or exists.

There are aspects of personality that appear to be dynamic factors with influence upon risk for recidivism. However, it is clear that more research is needed to examine the dynamic nature of the pathological personality factors and how they may contribute to the risk of criminal recidivism. Pathological personality factors have frequently been cited for their significant role in many correctional and forensic settings, with far reaching implications to success in all treatment settings. For example, symptom severity has been established as an important factor in mental health court engagement (Canada et al., 2016). Similarly, noncompliance in drug treatment courts has been associated with elevated scores on pathological personality dimensions (Mattson et al., 2012). Specifically, completion of the course of the treatment court program was contingent on antisocial behaviors and aberrant experiences. Pathological personality factors have also been implicated in treatment noncompliance in incarcerated sex offender populations (Clegg et al., 2010). While having entered a not guilty plea was the only significant predictor of noncompliance in this study, treatment refusal and treatment noncompliance were both linked to pathological personality factors. Dimensional conceptualization of personality disorders offers an opportunity to inform programming to reduce institutional aggression and adverse treatment outcomes in inpatient settings (Anderson et al., 2018).

Dimensional Personality Construct

There is strong empirical support for the dimensional conceptualization of personality (Eaton et al, 2010). The Personality Psychopathology Five (PSY-5; Harkness & McNulty, 1994) Scales of the MMPI-2 are an example of this dimensional model of personality and are of interest in the current research. The constructs of these five scales were initially proposed with the clinical diagnostic criteria of certain disorders in mind (Harkness et al., 1995; McNulty & Overstreet, 2013). The PSY-5 Scales represent five maladaptive pathological personality traits of Aggressiveness, Psychoticism, Disconstraint, Neuroticism, and Introversion on individual continua. Each scale spans from strong presence of the trait on one end to the presence of its correspondingly opposite trait the other end. In the middle of each scale is a zero that essentially equates to a nullification of the pathological aspects of either trait. For example, an individual may exhibit neither pathologically unrestrained nor seriously constrained behaviors on a self-report measure. This does not mean that the individual does not evidence aspects of either extreme, merely that they are not endorsing pathological presence of either extreme on the Disconstraint scale. The original PSY-5 scales have since been adapted in accordance with the refinements made with the restructured version of the MMPI-2, the MMPI-2-Restructured Form (MMPI-2-RF; Ben-Porath et al., 2008). There has been extensive research establishing convergent and discriminant validity of the individuals PSY-5 Scales with other self-report measures of related pathological personality traits (Ben-Porath, 2012; Anderson et. al, 2013; Finn et al., 2014; McNulty & Overstreet, 2013; Bagby et al., 2014).

Disconstraint is perhaps the most broad and unique of the PSY-5 dimensions, and it is of particular relevance to the discussion in the current study. It is a multifaceted concept that includes aspects of impulsivity and self-control, and it also includes elements related to aversion of harm (Ben-Porath, 2012). This scale is influenced by the individual's avoidance or adherence to traditionalistic behavior (Harkness et al, 2014). Higher scores in this scale are associated with a broad range of externalizing criteria. For example, Disconstraint has been linked to general difficulties with authority, substance abuse diagnosis, recurring arrest, antisocial behavior, narcissism, family problems, and poor impulse control. Problematic sensation seeking has also indicated by elevations on this scale (Lynne-Landsman et al., 2011). In a recent meta-analysis, the dimension of Disconstraint was found to be the single significant PSY-5 scale predictor of substance abuse in 89% of the archival data sets analyzed. (Bryant & McNulty, 2017). Impulsivity, as measured under the Disconstraint dimension of the PSY-5 scales, has been associated with parasuicidal and disruptive behavior, leading to adverse outcomes in outpatient therapy settings (Scholte et al., 2012). When combined with antisocial behavior, impulsivity reflected in an elevated Disconstraint scale has also been shown to lead to aggressive behavior in forensic inpatient settings (Green et al., 2015). Elevations on this scale have been associated with behavioral aspects of psychopathy (Wygant & Sellbom, 2012). Problematic patterns of Disconstraint have implications for both inpatient and outpatient settings, and the ramifications clearly extend into adverse outcomes for risk of recidivism in the correctional context.

Although many of the sensation seeking related terms (i.e. disinhibition, risky behavior, disconstraint) have been used interchangeably in much of the literature, it is

important to highlight the distinction between how disinhibition is conceptualized in personality models as opposed to how it has been framed in the sensation seeking literature. Much of the personality literature, such as that which is reflected in the PSY-5 discussion above, has viewed sensation seeking as a subcomponent of the Disinhibition domain. However, under the sensation seeking model proposed by Marvin Zuckerman (1978), Disconstraint is subsumed under the broader construct of sensation seeking.

Sensation Seeking

Sensation seeking has been defined as the need for "varied, novel, complex, and intense sensations and experiences, and the willingness to take physical, social, legal, and financial risks for the sake of such experiences" (Zuckerman, 2007). It is conceptualized to have four subcomponents that account for different permutations of the need for different types of sensations and experiences as well as the willingness to take risks in order to meet these varied needs. Thrill and adventure seeking (TAS) is perhaps the most prominent of these four subcomponents of sensation seeking. It includes activities like sky diving and other extreme sports. Experience seeking (ES) is a subtler aspect of sensation seeking, which may include activities such as exploring strange or foreign places alone. Under this model, Disinhibition (DIS) is a subcomponent that describes the degree of impulsivity and risk-taking involved in engaging in sensation seeking activities. Finally, boredom susceptibility (BS) describes an individual's propensity to seek out novel situations or unpredictable interpersonal relationships.

Sensation seeking is a relatively stable trait of personality across the lifespan, though it has dynamic features that can lead to problematic behaviors (Lynne-Landsman et al., 2011; Zuckerman, 2006). Within the broad construct of sensation seeking under the

model that was proposed by Zuckerman are subsumed aspects of both disinhibition and aggressiveness dimensions. An individual's tendency to engage in sensation seeking has been associated with proportionate levels of aggressive behavior, substance abuse, and delinquency (Lynne-Landsman et al., 2011). Stable low sensation seekers tended to remain less likely to engage in criminal or illicit behaviors into early adulthood, whereas stable high sensation seekers tended to remain more aggressive and delinquent and their reported substance use increased as they grew older. Moderate sensation seekers exhibited increasing levels of aggressiveness and substance use despite no prior history of engaging in risky behaviors. These types of problematic sensation seeking behaviors can clearly lead to increased interaction with the criminal justice system.

In general, sensation seeking is regarded as a relatively stable attribute across the lifespan (Lynn-Landsman et al., 2011; James et al., 2014). Individuals who were high sensation seekers during adolescence remained high sensation seekers into adulthood, whereas low sensation seekers in adolescence remained so into adulthood. Of note, individuals with sensation seeking scores in the medium range showed more variation in their scores over their lifetime. This may indicate a sensitivity to stressful environmental or experiential factors, such as exposure to combat or traumatic life situations.

Although it may not be directly affected by combat experience, it is possible that sensation-seeking behaviors are enabled by military service experiences. An increase in sensation-seeking behaviors during service experience may subsequently lead to an increased risk of criminal justice involvement upon redeployment or separation from military service. There have been mixed results regarding the finding of a link between sensation seeking and personality psychopathology (Ponce de Leon et al., 2018), but

there are indications that the type of stressful event and the extent of exposure may serve as moderators of this relationship. However, sensation seeking may mitigate the severity of trauma symptoms. For instance, veterans that exhibit more prominent sensation-seeking are less likely to suffer from war-related intrusion and avoidance symptoms of PTSD (Neria et al., 1999). This indicates that there is an inverse relation between sensation seeking and long-term adjustment post-combat experience.

It is unclear whether high sensation seekers potentially fail to identify threats or if they actually respond to threats by increasing risk-taking behaviors. In one study, a significant interaction was found between sensation seeking and mortality salience (Rosenbloom, 2003). As high sensation seekers were made increasingly aware of the possibility of imminent death related to a specific risky activity (i.e. speeding or risky driving), they were more likely to report interest in engaging in the activity than their low sensation seeking counterparts when head injuries were discounted as a factor.

Sensation seeking can be particularly problematic when other factors are present. When coupled with avoidant coping strategies, for example, they predict continued problem drinking and substance use by military veterans that are struggling to adjust to civilian life post-discharge (Norman et al., 2014). This combination of factors has been found to increase the propensity for aggressive behavior and driving while intoxicated in the military veteran population. Sensation seeking has also been found to negatively affect marital satisfaction and exacerbate symptoms of trauma in military veterans (Heshtami et al., 2010). Taken together, these findings demonstrate how sensation seeking can exacerbate negative outcomes in the lives of military veterans, and how this can increase the likelihood of contact with the criminal justice system.

CHAPTER II

Present Study

This study examined the associations among sensation seeking, military experience, and personality psychopathology with criminogenic risk factors of recidivism. Sensation seeking is a behavior that can manifest problematically and lead to involvement in the criminal justice system. It was anticipated that examination of sensation seeking scores of JIVs would elucidate differences that distinguish them from civilian offender counterparts. Despite an anticipated pattern of elevated sensation seeking scores in the offender population in general, it was hypothesized that there would be differences between JIVs and other offenders.

Research Questions

1. Are there differences among the sensation seeking scores of JIVs and civilian offenders? Given the noted demographic and criminal history differences between JIVs and their civilian counterparts, it is anticipated that their sensation seeking profiles will differ at the subscale score level on the SSS-V.

2. Do elevations in sensation seeking scales correspond with elevated scores on specific criminogenic risk factors of the LS/CMI? Sensation seeking has been associated with increased likelihood to engage in illegal activities. Impulsivity related factors, such as disconstraint and disinhibition, have been linked to problematic behaviors that often lead to law violations.

CHAPTER III

Method

Participants

The study sample of 150 participants was comprised of justice-involved military veterans (JIVs) and civilian offenders (CIVs) who were incarcerated or under community correctional supervision. Participants were recruited from county jails and Veterans Treatment Court (VTC) sites in Harris, Montgomery, and Brazos counties. Participants were between the ages of 19 and 71 (M=40.7, SD =11.5). See Table 1 for additional detailed demographic information.

Measures

Participant Demographic Form. This is a researcher designed form that was designed for participants to record their basic demographic data as well as pertinent military specific information. (See Appendix A.)

Level of Service - Case Management Interview (LS-CMI; Andrews et al., 2004). The LS-CMI is a 30 to 45-minute semi-structured interview that measures level of risk for recidivism and identifies need areas in offenders. It includes questions that ask the participants to report information about their criminal offense history, including a timeline of prior offenses. With internal consistency estimates ranging between .86 to .92, the LS/CMI demonstrates excellent internal consistency (Andrews et al., 2004). In a recent metanalysis (Olver et al., 2014), the LS/CMI was found to have predictive validity for general recidivism (r = .32).

Sensation Seeking Survey - Form Five (SSS-V; Zuckerman, 1978). The SSS-V is a 40-item, forced choice self-report measure of sensation seeking behaviors and

Table 1

Sample Demographics

Variables	JIVs (*n* = 81)	CIVs (*n* = 67)
Gender	91% Male (*n* = 74*)*	76% Male (*n* = 51)
Age	40.7 (SD = 11.5)	33.9 (SD = 10.1)
Ethnicity		
White	56 (69.1%)	39 (58.2%)
AA	10 (12.3%)	15 (22.4%)
Latinx	6 (7.4%)	7 (10.4%)
Other	8 (9.8%)	5 (7.5%)
Education		
Did Not Grad	0 (00.0%)	20 (29.0%)
HS Grad	25 (30.9%)	25 (36.2%)
Some College	47 (58.0%)	20 (29.0%)
College Grad+	8 (9.9%)	2 (2.9%)

attitudes that is comprised of four subscales, which include thrill/adventure seeking, disinhibition, boredom, and experience seeking (see Appendix B). The SSS-V has good internal consistency, with estimates ranging from α = .83 to .86 for Total Score in previous SSS-V meta analytic studies and has been used with a variety of populations (Zuckerman & Aluja, 2015). The four subscales of the measure have been found to have moderate correlations, with αs ranging between .60 and .80. The SSS-V has demonstrated significant predictive validity (r = .45; Zuckerman, 2007).

Procedures

Individuals who express preliminary interest in participating in this study were shown to a conference room adjacent to court room or the common area in the jail facility. These individuals were verbally offered the chance to participate in the study immediately prior to a consolidated VTC court session or subsequent to a brief presentation in the common area in the county jail facility. Recruited participants were reminded that participation in this study will not affect their ongoing or future legal proceedings.

To the greatest extent possible, the study was executed in single engagements with participants. Participants were contacted for follow up questions or interviews that were not completed due to time running out or administrative facility requirements (i.e. scheduled staff activities, lock down). Data collection consisted of two parts. After discussing the limits of confidentiality and subsequently signing consent forms, there was a consolidated group portion where demographic forms and self-report surveys were filled out. This portion was administered in a designated classroom or conference room in the facility. Additionally, there was a semi-structured individual interview portion, where the participants were administered the LS-CMI. The two parts were conducted concurrently, with the individualized portion in separate interview rooms to protect confidentiality of responses.

Average completion time for these questionnaires and the interview was between two to three hours, but completion times largely depended upon a variety of factors (i.e. participant motivation, individual reading abilities, facility time constraints,). Response data of all participants was immediately de-identified. Data was subsequently coded and

maintained separately from any personal identifying information. All measures were completed on paper and were handed directly to the researcher upon completion. The researcher maintained a locked case in which all returned/completed surveys were secured. Completed packets were stored in a secure, locked room that met standards of confidentiality in accordance with relevant statutes and policies.

CHAPTER IV

Results

Missing Data

Missing data across variables was examined using the SPSS Missing data function. 10 participants were removed from the initial sample (n=150) because they were missing scores on multiple measures of interest. With regard to the SSS-V, mean values were subsequently substituted for missing items in cases where there were 4 missing items or less (10% of values or less), resulting in a pool of 134 participants with SSS-V scores. Additionally, there were a total of 24 cases missing LS/CMI data, resulting in a sample of 126 for the purposes of analyzing the question relating to criminogenic risk factors. All continuous variables were within acceptable range for parametric procedures in terms of skew, kurtosis, and homoscedasticity.

Research Question 1: Comparing Sensation Seeking between JIVs and CIVs

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare sensation seeking scores of JIVs (n = 73) and CIVs (n = 61) in order to determine if the two groups could be distinguished based on total score or by any of the subscale scores. Results indicated that thrill and adventure seeking was the only individual factor of statistical significance, with a moderate effect size. Justice-involved veterans (M = 7.40, SD = 2.50) scored higher on TAS than civilian inmates (M = 6.39, SD = 2.77), $t(132) = 2.201$, $p = .029$, $d = .38$. There were no other individual predictors that were significant in the model (See Table 2).

Table 2

Results of Independent Samples T-test Comparing SSS-V Scores of JIVs and CIVs

	Mean & SD					95% C.I.	
Scale	Veteran	Nonveteran	*t**	*p*	*d*	Lower	Upper
Thrill and Adventure Seeking	7.40 (2.50)	6.39 (2.77)	2.201	.029	.38	.03	.72
Experience Seeking	5.89 (1.64)	5.84 (1.99)	.174	.082	.05	-.29	.39
Disinhibition	4.92 (2.60)	5.05 (2.56)	-.295	.768	-.05	-.39	.29
Boredom Susceptibility	2.90 (2.08)	3.00 (2.25)	-.256	.798	-.04	-.38	.30
Total	21.11 (5.80)	20.28 (6.32)	.793	.429	.14	-.20	.48

*Note. *df = 132*

Research Question 2: The Association between Sensation Seeking and Criminogenic Risk

Prior to conducting the multivariate analyses for hypothesis testing to examine the predicted associations, bivariate correlations were run among the variables of interest. Results of this analysis indicated significant relationships between TAS and Education/Employment ($r = -.219$, $p = .05$) and between TAS and Leisure/Recreation ($r = -.242$, $p = .01$). Similarly, significant correlations were found between ES and Procriminal Attitudes ($r = .237$, $p = .01$), Antisocial Personality Pattern ($r = .338$, $p = .01$), and with LS/CMI Total Risk score ($r = -.195$, $p = .01$). BS was correlated with Procriminal Attitudes ($r = .192$, $p = .05$) and Antisocial Personality Pattern ($r = .290$, $p = .01$). Lastly, SSS-V Total score was also significantly related to Procriminal Attitudes ($r = .228$, $p = .05$) and Antisocial Personality Pattern ($r = .292$, $p = .01$). Associations between other relevant variables were also examined, with no significant correlations noted among variables across measures (see Table 3).

Multiple regression was selected to examine if sensation seeking scores predicted criminogenic risk. To this end, LS/CMI Total Score was regressed on to the Thrills and Adventure Seeking, Experience Seeking, Disinhibition, and Boredom Susceptibility scales of the SSS-V (see Table 4). In this multiple regression model, Experience Seeking (ES) significantly predicted Total LS/CMI score, $F(4, 120) = 2.537$, $p < .05$, adj. $r2 = .049$. No other significant results were found in this model. Regression coefficients and standard errors can be found in Table 4.

Table 3

Intercorrelations among Study Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Thrill & Adventure Seeking														
2. Experience Seeking	34**													
3. Disinhibition	28**	34**												
4. Boredom Susceptibility	0.10	23**	37**											
5. SSS-V Total Score	63**	67**	78**	54**										
6. LS/CMI Total Risk	.10	20*	10	16	11									

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
7. Criminal History	.09	07	02	.02	.02	61**								
8. Education/ Employment	.22*	05	06	17	00	51**	18*							
9. Family/Marital	03	06	.09	08	02	44**	.01	13						
10. Leisure/ Recreation	.24**	02	03	06	.07	49**	20*	30**	17					
11. Companions	.02	16	07	.03	06	66**	26**	23**	23*	31**				
12. Alcohol/ Drug Problems	.00	09	04	09	07	60**	33**	.01	23**	16	33**			
13. Procriminal Attitudes	05	24**	17	19*	23*	55**	19*	08	19	16	35**	19*		

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
14. Antisocial Pattern	04	34**	18	29**	29**	69**	31**	25**	39**	37**	44**	17	64**	

Note. * $p \leq .05$
** $p \leq .01$

A second multiple regression was conducted with participants' score on the "Big Four" criminogenic risk factors as the dependent variable. Scores on the Procriminal Attitudes, Criminal History, Criminal Companions, and Antisocial Pattern were summed to create a composite score (Big Four), which was regressed on to the SSS-V scales. As in the previous

model discussed, Experience Seeking (ES) significantly predicted Total LS/CMI score in this multiple regression model, $F(4, 120) = 2.550$, $p < .05$, adj. $r2 = .049$. No other significant results were found in this model. See Table 4 for regression coefficients and standard errors.

Table 4

Multiple Regressions: Criminogenic Risk and Sensation Seeking Variables

Variable	B	S.E.	*t*	*p*	r_{sp}
Dependent Variable: LS/CMI Total Score					
Thrill & Adventure Seeking	-.498	.263	-1.891	.061	-.168
Experience Seeking	.885	.390	2.267	.025	.202
Disinhibition	.138	.284	.488	.626	.043
Boredom Susceptibility	.232	.326	.712	.478	.063
Dependent Variable: "Big Four" Score					
Thrill & Adventure Seeking	-.206	.155	-1.325	.188	-.118
Experience Seeking	.613	.230	2.663	.009	.237
Disinhibition	.118	.167	.708	.480	.063
Boredom Susceptibility	.031	.192	.162	.872	.014

CHAPTER V

Discussion

The current study explored the role of sensation seeking in criminogenic risk in a sample of justice-involved individuals. It expands upon research exploring the veteran-specific risk factors for criminal justice involvement (Bronson et al., 2015, Thomsen et al, 2010). The current findings highlight several areas for consideration for future research endeavors. Examination of associations between the variables of interest demonstrated several interesting associations. These findings supported the existing body of literature concerning indicators of criminogenic risk factors (Andrews et al., 2004, Skeem et al., 2011).

Are There Differences between Sensation Seeking Scores of JIVs and Civilians?

The first question concerned whether JIVs sensation seeking scores are different from those of civilians. Among the sensation seeking subcomponents, only thrill and adventure seeking was significantly different between the two groups. These results indicate Thrill and Adventure Seeking may present more pronouncedly in veterans than in the general offender population. This may be partially explained by the nature of voluntary military service. That is, many of the type of activities typically associated with Thrill and Adventure Seeking, such as skydiving and other extreme sports (Andrews et al., 2006), are synonymous with military service. Given that all members who have served in the U.S. military since the end of Vietnam volunteered to serve, it can be inferred that service members, and by extension, JIVs, are more likely to engage in these types of thrilling and adventurous activities than civilians.

However, mean scores in Experience Seeking, Boredom Susceptibility, and Disinhibition were not significantly different among the two groups. The tendency to engage in certain sensation seeking behaviors, such as those associated with Disinhibition, has been associated with a variety of factors that lead to increased contact with the criminal justice system (Lynne-Landsman et al., 2011). The results may reflect homogeneity of the sample, as the vast majority of the participants were recruited from the incarcerated population.

Is Sensation Seeking Predictive of Criminogenic Risk?

Regarding sensation seeking as a predictor of criminogenic risk, the results partially supported the anticipated association. Thrill and Adventure Seeking was inversely associated with education and employment related factors as well as prosocial leisure/recreational activities. This suggests individuals with a greater tendency to engage in thrill seeking behaviors are more likely to lack stable employment. Similarly, it indicates that Thrill and Adventure Seeking is positively associated with a lack of prosocial leisure activities. This is in keeping with previous findings (Andrews et al., 2004), where both factors have been associated with increased contact with the criminal justice system.

Experience Seeking and Boredom Susceptibility were positively associated with antisocial personality pattern. Among the eight criminogenic risk factors of recidivism, Antisocial Personality Pattern has been identified as one of the most powerful predictors of violent and other criminal behavior for those with serious mental illness (Skeem et al., 2011). The results of the current study support the previous literature, and they highlight a link between aspects of sensation seeking and criminogenic risk factors.

Positive associations were also found between multiple sensation seeking variables (e.g., Experience Seeking, Boredom Susceptibility, and Total SSS-V score) and Procriminal Attitudes. These results are supported by the existing literature, as high sensation seekers have been found to be more likely to report interest to engage in illicit activities, such as speeding or risky driving, that lead to criminal justice system involvement (Rosenbloom, 2003). Experience seeking, Boredom Susceptibility, and Total SSS-V score were all associated with Procriminal Attitudes at a univariate level, such that increases in each sensation seeking variable corresponded with an elevated score in Procriminal Attitudes. Taken together, these results indicate certain underlying aspects of the sensation seeking construct may be associated with multiple, prominent criminogenic risk factors.

That Disinhibition was not indicated as a predictor of criminogenic risk factors was surprising, in light of the existing literature on sensation seeking. Disinhibition, in particular, has been implicated in maladaptive, aggressive, and impulsive behaviors associated with crime (Lynne-Landsman et al., 2011). Given that the majority of the participants in this study were inmates, they may have sought to downplay their risk-taking and impulsivity related behaviors that are overtly related to criminal behavior.

At the multivariate level, only Experience Seeking was a significant predictor of criminogenic risk in a model that accounted for 4.9% of the variability in Total Risk score from the LS/CMI. In order to examine the noted predictive value of the Big Four factors (Andrews et al., 2004; Gendreau et al., 1996), the multivariate analysis was rerun with a composite score derived from the summation of the Big Four factors. The Big Four composite variable was generated in order to isolate the factors that had been

identified as most predictive of criminogenic risk (Andrews et al. 2004) to see if this would elucidate a stronger association with sensation seeking that was anticipated. The amount of variance explained in the model was unchanged (adj r2=.049), and Experience Seeking remained the only significant predictor.

Implications

The present study supplements the growing body of literature concerning veteran involvement in the criminal justice system. It provides new insights into the relationship between sensation seeking and criminogenic risk factors for recidivism. The results were largely consistent with previous findings, reinforcing the existing literature concerning the association of sensation seeking and problematic behaviors that lead to increased contact with the criminal justice system (Lynne-Landsman et al., 2011). These findings are relevant to the work of facility administrators, case managers, and mental health professionals in both correctional and community treatment settings. Further, these findings offer additional insight into targeting veteran-specific criminogenic risk or recidivism.

Limitations

This study had several specific and general limitations. For instance, the data used for this study was collected in conjunction with data being used for several other studies exploring justice-involved veterans. In light of the array of measures being administered, participants were subjected to a battery of measures that took between 1.5 to 3 hours to complete. Often, this led to the study being administered with participants over multiple iterations in order to complete all of the surveys. As a result, the consistency of their responses and participant level of engagement may be at question.

The current sample was comprised exclusively of justice-involved participants, most of whom were incarcerated, which may have confounded the results. Further, all of the participants from the community corrections portion of the study sample were veterans, which may have reduced the mean scores of the veteran sample pool. That is, the VTC participants, who were individuals on probation in the community, may have diluted the criminogenic risk scores of the veteran portion of the sample.

Additionally, this study was comprised entirely of self-report measures. Thus, the item endorsement may not accurately represent the participant's true attitudes and beliefs. In particular, the inmates who made up the vast majority of the sample may have sought to downplay their risk-taking and impulsivity related behaviors despite the reassurances of confidentiality of their responses. In this way, the results may reflect an underestimate of sensation seeking items that are overtly related to criminal behavior, such as those reflective of disinhibited behavior.

Further, there was no comparison group to determine if sensation seeking scores differ between justice-involved individuals and those in the community who are not involved in the criminal justice system. The mean scores may be consistently elevated in all justice-involved individuals, regardless of veteran status. Thus, there may have been insufficient heterogeneity in the sample to elucidate the true effect of sensation seeking-related factors.

Future Research

The findings in the current study highlight several areas of future inquiry. There were multiple significant associations found at the univariate level despite the noted limitations of this study. These results indicate that the ability to predict criminogenic risk

from sensations seeking constructs may be best understood in terms of the subsumed constructs of sensation seeking and specific criminogenic risks. Future studies may wish to further explore the predictive value of certain aspects of sensation seeking on individual criminogenic risk factors.

In efforts to further examine the extent to which sensation seeking may lead to criminal justice system involvement, future studies may wish to compare justice-involved samples to those where non-problematic behaviors are anticipated, (i.e. non-justice-involved veterans and non-justice-involved civilians.) Certain sensation seeking behaviors, such as those subsumed under the construct of Thrill and Adventure Seeking (Zuckerman, 1978), may be enabled by military service. Future research should examine the dynamic aspects of this construct to determine the extent to which veterans are at increased risk of criminal justice system involvement when they return to civilian life with elevated levels sensation seeking.

Additionally, expanded demographic variables may permit a more in-depth study of sensation seeking and criminogenic risk, including other variables that may affect the associations found in this study. Specifically, types of stressful experiences and extent of exposure have been implicated as potential moderating variables in the link between sensation seeking and maladaptive behavior and personality psychopathology (Ponce de Leon et al., 2018; Neria et al., 1999). Additional screening measures that examine offender timelines with deployment and dates of military service may also permit further exploration of those liminal periods following combat experience (Holbrook, 2010) where there may be increased risk for criminal justice involvement.

Conclusions

The current study highlights the link between sensation seeking and criminogenic risk factors. Although not all hypotheses were confirmed, the results of this study provide evidence that problematic sensation seeking behavior may exacerbate risk for contact with the legal system. Future research should proceed with the acknowledgment of the unique importance of the link between sensation seeking and criminogenic risk factors. In turn, this may inform tailored treatment for justice-involved individuals, particularly those veterans who did not have a history of criminal justice involvement prior to their term of military service.

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APPENDIX A

Employed at time of arrest? Yes No **Occupation:** _____

Employment after release? Yes No Unsure **Occupation:** _____

Mental health treatment? Yes NO **Setting:** Outpatient Inpatient

How long? _____ **Type of treatment:** Counseling/Therapy Medication Substance Abuse

Have you ever suffered a head injury or head trauma? Yes No **If YES, how many times?** _____

Military Veteran: Yes No ***If NO, please skip to next page. If <u>YES</u>, please continue to questions below.***

Dates of Service: _____ _____ **Highest Pay Grade (e.g., E-3, W-3, O-3)** _____

From (Month/Year) ***To (Month/Year)***

Service Branch: Air Force Army Coast Guard Marines Navy **Component:** Active Duty Reserve National Guard

Article 15 / NJP / Captain's Mast? Yes No **How many times?** _____

Court-Martial? Yes No **Convicted?** Yes No **Offense:** _____

Number of deployments: _____ **Total months deployed:** _____ **Combat exposure:** Yes No

Conflict/Era: Vietnam Gulf War OEF/OIF Other: _____

Mental health treatment in military? Yes NO **Setting:** Outpatient Inpatient

How long? _____ **Type of treatment:** Counseling/Therapy Medication Substance Abuse

Discharge Status: Honorable General Other than Honorable Dishonorable Bad Conduct Entry-Level Separation

Medical discharge?	Yes	No	**Service-Connected Disability?**	Yes	No	**Percent:**	_____

Reason for Medical Discharge: (***Circle all that apply***)	Combat Medical/Injury	Combat Mental Health	Non-Combat Medical/Injury	Non-Combat Mental Health

APPENDIX B

SSS

Directions: Each of the items below contains two choices, A and B. Please circle the letter of the choice which most describes your likes or the way you feel. In some cases you may find items in which both choices describe your likes or feelings. Please choose the one which better describes your likes or feelings. In some cases you may find items in which you do not like either choice. In these cases mark the choice you dislike least. Do not leave any items blank.

It is important you respond to all items with only one choice, A or B. We are interested only in your likes or feelings, not in how others feel about these things or how one is supposed to feel. There are not right or wrong answers as in other kinds of tests. Be frank and give your honest appraisal of yourself.

1.	A	I like "wild" uninhibited parties.
	B	I prefer quiet parties with good conversation.
2.	A	There are some movies I enjoy seeing a second or even a third time.
	B	I can't stand watching a movie I've seen before.
3.	A	I often wish I could be a mountain climber.
	B	I can't understand people who risk their necks climbing mountains.
4.	A	I dislike all body odors.
	B	I like some of the earthy body smells.
5.	A	I get bored seeing the same old faces.
	B	I like the comfortable familiarity of everyday friends.
6.	A	I like to explore a strange city or section of town by myself, even if it means getting lost.
	B	I prefer a guide when I am in a place I don't know well.
7.	A	I dislike people who do or say things just to shock or upset other people.
	B	When you can predict almost everything a person will do and say he or she must be a bore.
8.	A	I usually don't enjoy a movie or a play where I can predict what will happen in advance.
	B	I don't mind watching a movie or play where I can predict what will happen in advance.
9.	A	I have tried marijuana or would like to.
	B	I would never smoke marijuana.
10.	A	I would not like to try any drug which might produce strange and dangerous effects on me.
	B	I would like to try some of the new drugs that produce hallucinations.
11.	A	A sensible person avoids activities that are dangerous.
	B	I sometimes like to do things that are a little frightening.
12.	A	I dislike "swingers" (people who are uninhibited and free about sex).
	B	I enjoy the company of real "swingers."
13.	A	I find that stimulants make me uncomfortable.
	B	I often like to get high (drinking liquor or smoking marijuana).
14.	A	I like to try new foods that I have never tasted before.
	B	I order the dishes with which I am familiar, so as to avoid disappointment and unpleasantness.
15.	A	I enjoy looking at home movies, travel slides, or home videos.
	B	Looking at someone's home movies, travel slides, or home videos bores me tremendously.
16.	A	I would like to take up the sport of water-skiing.
	B	I would not like to take up water-skiing.
17.	A	I would like to try surf-board riding.
	B	I would not like to try surf-board riding.
18.	A	I would like to take off on a trip with no pre-planned or definite routes, or timetable.
	B	When I go on a trip I like to plan my route and timetable fairly carefully.

19.	A	I prefer the "down-to-earth" kinds of people as friends.
	B	I would like to make friends in some of the "far-out" groups like artists or "punks."
20.	A	I would not like to learn to fly an airplane.
	B	I would like to learn to fly an airplane.
21.	A	I prefer the surface of the water to the depths.
	B	I would like to go scuba diving.
22.	A	I would like to meet some persons who are homosexual (men or women).
	B	I stay away from anyone I suspect of being "gay" or "lesbian."
23.	A	I would like to try parachute jumping.
	B	I would never want to try jumping out of a plane with or without a parachute.
24.	A	I prefer friends who are excitingly unpredictable.
	B	I prefer friends who are reliable and predictable.
25.	A	I am not interested in experience for its own sake.
	B	I like to have new and exciting experiences and sensations even if they are a little frightening, unconventional, or illegal.
26.	A	The essence of good art is in its clarity, symmetry of form and harmony of colors.
	B	I often find beauty in the "clashing" colors and irregular forms of modern paintings.
27.	A	I enjoy spending time in the familiar surroundings of home.
	B	I get very restless if I have to stay around home for any length of time.
28.	A	I like to dive off the high board.
	B	I don't like the feeling I get standing on the high board (or I don't go near it at all).
29.	A	I like to date members of the opposite sex who are physically exciting.
	B	I like to date members of the opposite sex who share my values.
30.	A	Heavy drinking usually ruins a party because some people get loud and boisterous.
	B	Keeping the drinks full is the key to a good party.
31.	A	The worst social sin is to be rude.
	B	The worst social sin is to be a bore.
32.	A	A person should have considerable sexual experience before marriage.
	B	It's better if two married persons begin their sexual experience with each other.
33.	A	Even if I had the money I would not care to associate with flighty rich persons in the "jet set."
	B	I could conceive of myself seeking pleasures around the world with the "jet set."
34.	A	I like people who are sharp and witty even if they do sometimes insult others.
	B	I dislike people who have their fun at the expense of hurting the feelings of others.
35.	A	There is altogether too much portrayal of sex in movies.
	B	I enjoy watching many of the "sexy" scenes in the movies.
36.	A	I feel best after taking a couple of drinks.
	B	Something is wrong with people who need liquor to feel good.
37.	A	People should dress according to some standards of taste, neatness, and style.
	B	People should dress in individual ways even if the effects are sometimes strange.
38.	A	Sailing long distances in small sailing crafts is foolhardy.
	B	I would like to sail a long distance in a small but seaworthy sailing craft.

39.	A	I have no patience with dull or boring persons.
	B	I find something interesting in almost every person I talk with.
40.	A	Skiing fast down a high mountain slope is a good way to end up on crutches.
	B	I think I would enjoy the sensations of skiing very fast down a high mountain slope.

VITA

JOSHUA M. FRANCIS, M.A.

EDUCATION

Sam Houston State University, Huntsville, TX — In Progress
Clinical Psychology Doctoral Student

University of Denver, Denver, CO — 2017
M.A. in Forensic Psychology

Texas A&M University, College Station, TX — 2015
Graduate Certificate in Advanced International Affairs
Areas of Concentration: Counterterrorism and Foreign Policy

Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Institute, Monterey, CA — 2012
A.A. in Arabic Studies
Areas of Concentration: Modern Standard Arabic and Middle Eastern Culture

University of Southern California, Los Angeles, CA — 2002
B.A. in Social Sciences/ Psychology

CLINICAL EXPERIENCE

PRACTICUM STUDENT| THE INSTITUTE FOR REHABILITATION AND RESEARCH (TIRR) MEMORIAL HERMANN| AUGUST 2019-PRESENT

Administered psychological testing in an inpatient setting to assess and evaluate individuals who overtly displayed symptoms of brain injuries or who were suspected of having abnormal brain functioning.

STUDENT CLINICIAN| SAM HOUSTON STATE UNIVERSITY PSYCHOLOGICAL SERVICES CENTER| SEPTEMBER 2018-PRESENT

Conducted individual therapy employing empirically supported treatments including cognitive behavioral therapy and dialectical behavior therapy. Completed intake interviews and treatment plans for clients.

ASSISTANT FORENSIC EVALUATOR| SAM HOUSTON STATE UNIVERSITY PSYCHOLOGICAL SERVICES CENTER| SEPTEMBER 2018-PRESENT

Conducted court-ordered, pre-trial evaluations with adults (e.g., competency to stand trial, mental state at the time of the offense) and authored forensic evaluation reports.

MENTAL HEALTH INTERN| CORRECTIONAL PSYCHOLOGY ASSOCIATES| JUN 2016-JUNE 2017

Conducted mental health assessments of inmates in Arapahoe County Detention Facility. Provided education to inmates of effective coping skills. Screened inmates for referral to staff psychiatrist for medication evaluations.

STUDENT THERAPIST| DENVER FIRST COMPETENCY RESTORATION PROGRAM| NOV 2015-JUNE 2017

Provided court-ordered outpatient competency restoration services to improve client's ability to consult with their lawyer, testify relevantly, and communicate effectively in a courtroom setting. Improved client capability to think clearly and understand the legal and criminal process in order to assist them in making rational decisions in court.

DEPUTY PROBATION OFFICER | ARAPAHOE COUNTY VETERAN TREATMENT COURT | NOV 2015-JUN 2016

Conducted monthly group sessions and supervise a caseload of high-risk, high-need adult clients that are under supervised probation who suffer from mental health-related diagnoses associated with their military service, including Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder, Substance Use Disorders, and Traumatic Brain Injury.

DEPUTY PROBATION OFFICER | 18TH JUDICIAL DISTRICT ADULT PROBATION | OCT 2015-JUN 2016

Supervised a caseload of adult individuals who had been granted probation supervision to ensure court ordered compliance. Conducted monthly sessions with adult offenders with periodic administration of Level of Supervision Inventory (LSI) tests.

RESEARCH EXPERIENCE

GRADUATE RESEARCH ASSISTANT | SAM HOUSTON STATE UNIVERSITY| AUG 2017-PRESENT

Collected data in the form of self-report surveys and semi-structured interviews from military veteran and civilian offenders in Harris County and contiguous county veterans treatment courts (VTC), drug courts, and county jails.

GRADUATE RESEARCH ASSISTANT | SAM HOUSTON STATE UNIVERSITY| AUG-DEC 2017

Entered and managed data for a study involving comparisons of graduate student performance in written and computer-administered intelligence testing with the WAIS-IV.

GRADUATE RESEARCH ASSISTANT | UNIVERSITY OF DENVER | MAR 2017-JUN 2017

Conducted preliminary analysis and review of Animal Abuse Risk Assessment Tool (AARAT). Drafted vignettes of criminal offenders and supervised filming of role players to be used for standardizing measure.

GRADUATE RESEARCH ASSISTANT | UNIVERSITY OF DENVER | OCT 2015-APR 2017

Managed data collected from neuropsychological functioning screenings of prison inmates identified with a history of traumatic brain injury as part of a grant-funded research study conducted by Health Resources and Services Administration & Office of Behavioral Health Grant- Traumatic Brain Injury at the University of Denver.

STUDENT RESEARCHER | FOSTERING HEALTHY FUTURES FOR TEENS | MAY 2016-SEP 2016; MAR 2017-JULY 2017

Conducted semi-structured, in home interviews with caregivers and teens that have open child welfare cases with Department of Human Services offices in Denver area counties. Administered cognitive and intelligence assessment measures to teens.

RESEARCH ASSISTANT | THE RESILIENCY CODE | MAY 2016-NOV 2016

Entered and managed data collected from neuropsychological and medical screenings that affects healing rates of individuals who have undergone spinal fusion surgery. Assisted in the establishment a database of psychological data related to comprehensive fitness of individuals.

OTHER RELEVANT WORK EXPERIENCE

CLINIC ASSISTANT| STURM CENTER UNIVERSITY OF DENVER| SEP 2016-JUN 2017

Conducted phone screens for potential clients at a clinic that provides tailored therapeutic services to veterans, active duty military, and their family members. Performed clerical tasks associated with billing, scheduling, and data management.

CLINIC ASSISTANT| PROFESSIONAL PSYCHOLOGY CLINIC AT THE UNIVERSITY OF DENVER| JUN 2016-SEP 2016

Performed clerical tasks associated with billing, scheduling, and data management. Conducted phone screens for potential clients.

MILITARY EXPERIENCE

FOREIGN AREA OFFICER | UNITED STATES ARMY | JAN 2012-MAY 2015

Conducted extensive study of Middle Eastern culture and Arabic language, including overseas assignment to Amman, Jordan with concurrent travel throughout the region to visit US Embassies and foreign military counterparts. Drafted policy papers for senior Department of Defense officials and State Department personnel in Jordan. Coordinated projects with foreign military counterparts.

INTELLIGENCE OFFICER | UNITED STATES ARMY| MAY 2006-DEC 2011

Served as Company Commander of B Co, 201st MI Battalion, a Human Intelligence (HUMINT) Company deployed to the Detention Facility in Parwan (DFIP),

Afghanistan. Responsible for collection, analysis and dissemination of intelligence from interrogations to tactical units and national policy makers.

Served in a variety of staff positions, including Aide de Camp to the Commanding General of US Army South, Battalion Logistics Officer (S-4), Assistant Brigade Operations Officer (S-3), and Plans Officer in the G-2 (Intelligence) Division Staff for US Army South.

Intelligence Advisor for 1-2-1 Iraqi National Police Battalion in Baghdad, Iraq. Trained Iraqi National Police unit in Detainee Operations and Intelligence collection operations. Observed interrogation of detainees and provided quality control of warrant issue process. Established first identification card system for Iraqi National Police that integrated biometric data.

ARMOR OFFICER | 1-8 CAVALRY BATTALION | OCT 2003-APR 2006

Served as Company Executive Officer, responsible for support operations in largest company in battalion.

Served as Scout Platoon Leader of reconnaissance and surveillance assets of a heavy armored cavalry battalion. Deployed to New Orleans in support of Hurricane Katrina humanitarian relief efforts.

Served as Tank Platoon Leader in Baghdad, Iraq, conducting daily reconnaissance and combat foot patrols. Established a neighborhood watch program to deter crime against citizens. Daily interactions with community and religious leaders.

TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Sam Houston State University, Huntsville, Texas 2019
Teaching Assistant – Beginning Doctoral Practicum
Supervised two fellow graduate students in clinical work, graded assignments.
Sam Houston State University, Huntsville, Texas 2018 - 2019
Course Instructor – Abnormal Psychology
Developed syllabus and overall course structure for an online course, including assignments and exams.

AWARDS AND ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

University of Denver Graduate Commencement profile student 2017
Sturm Foundation Military Scholarship 2016
University of Denver Dean's Scholarship 2016
Bush School of Government and Public Service Scholarship 2014
Defense Language Institute Linguist Certification (Modern Standard Arabic) 2013
Assoc. of the U.S. Army (AUSA) General Omar Bradley Scholarship 2002
Army Reserve Officer Training Corps Full Tuition Scholarship 1998-2002

PROFESSIONAL TRAINING & MEMBERSHIPS

Sam Houston State University Clinical Psychology Program Diversity Committee 2018 - Present
Society for Military Psychology (APA Division 19) – Campus Representative 2018 – Present
International Critical Incident Stress Foundation – Assisting individuals in Crisis 2018
International Critical Incident Stress Foundation – Group Crisis Intervention 2018
Univ. of Denver Student Veterans Association – Director of Alumni Relations 2016 - 2017
Pawsitive Therapeutic Interventions - Animal Assisted Therapy 2016
American Psychological Association (APA) – Student Affiliate 2015 - Present
American Psychology - Law Society (AP-LS) – Student Affiliate 2015 - Present
Military Order of the Purple Heart (MOPH) 2015 – Present

COMMUNITY SERVICE

Texas Commission on Law Enforcement – (Fall 2018) served as role player for law enforcement training involving crisis intervention with military veteran offenders.

Freedom Service Dogs – (Fall 2015-Spring 2017) Serve as volunteer at facility that provides rescued dogs that are trained to be service animals for wounded military veterans and disabled civilians. Assisted with reinforcement of animal training and general operations in the facility.

Language Tutoring – (Spring 2013) Tutored a fellow student at Defense Language Institute while enrolled as a student there in order to assist a fellow military officer in achieving success in Modern Standard Arabic language program.

Habitat for Humanity – (Summer 2011) Participated in roofing and construction of walls on two houses in west San Antonio housing development. Led a team of over 25 Soldiers and family members on the project.

Bastrop Wildfire Relief – (Fall 2011) Led group of approximately 20 volunteers to provide assistance at wildfire relief centers in city of Bastrop. Our team organized/stocked supply materials at donation centers.

Orphanage Program Coordinator – (1995-1997) Organized and directed a high school orphanage program that involved weekly visits to one of two locations where students provided assistance to orphanage staff in Moscow, Russia.

PUBLICATIONS AND PRESENTATIONS

Camins, J., Francis J., & Varela, J. (2019). Juror perception of risk factors for violence in veteran criminal defendants: What matters in an experimental paradigm. Poster presented at the Annual American Psychological Association Convention, Chicago, IL.

Long, T., Galicia, B., & Francis, J. (2019). *Cultural plunges: A holistic discussion on implementing cultural training.* Workshop presented at the 15th Annual Diversity Leadership Conference, Huntsville, TX.

Ridge, B., Camins, J., Francis, J., & Brooks, C. (2019). *Service Members Among Us: Military Culture In & Out the Classroom.* Workshop presented at the 15th Annual Diversity Leadership Conference, Huntsville, TX.

Noland, R., Schiafo, M., & Francis, J. (2018). *Training impact of learning WAIS-IV administration by Q-Interactive versus traditional methods*. Poster presented at the American Psychological Association annual conference, San Francisco, CA.