

# **Patterns of source monitoring bias in incarcerated youths with and without conduct problems**

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## **Abstract**

*Introduction:* Antisocial individuals present behaviors that violate the social norms and the rights of others. In the present study, we examine whether biases in monitoring the self-generated cognitive material might be linked to antisocial manifestations during adolescence. We further examine the association with psychopathic traits and conduct problems (CP).

*Methods:* Sixty-five incarcerated adolescents (IA;  $M_{age}=15.85$ ,  $SD=1.30$ ) and 88 community adolescents (CA;  $M_{age}=15.78$ ,  $SD=1.60$ ) participated in our study. In the IA group, 28 adolescents presented CP ( $M_{age}=16.06$ ,  $SD=1.41$ ) and 19 did not meet the diagnostic criteria for CP ( $M_{age}=15.97$ ,  $SD=1.20$ ). Source monitoring was assessed through a speech-monitoring task, using items requiring different levels of cognitive effort; recognition and source-monitoring bias scores (internalizing and externalizing biases) were calculated.

*Results:* Between group comparisons indicate greater overall biases and different patterns of biases in the source monitoring. IA participants manifest a greater externalizing bias, whereas CA participants present a greater internalizing bias. In addition, IA with CP present different patterns of item recognition.

*Conclusions:* These results indicate that the two groups of adolescents present different types of source-monitoring bias for self-generated speech. Future studies may examine the developmental implications of self-monitoring biases in the perseverance of antisocial behaviors from adolescence to adulthood.

## 1 **Introduction**

2 Antisocial behavior entails a range of violations to the moral and physical integrity or the  
3 property of others, and more broadly to social norms. These manifestations lead to a variety  
4 of research topics targeting phenomena such as aggression, behavioral disorders, and  
5 delinquency. In the field of child and adolescent psychiatry, diagnoses such as conduct  
6 disorder or oppositional defiant disorder are employed to describe different types of antisocial  
7 behaviors (Moffitt, Caspi, Harrington, & Milne, 2002). Several authors group these  
8 psychiatric diagnoses under the concept of conduct problems (CP) (Hill, 2002; Schwenck et  
9 al., 2014), which are more prevalent among incarcerated youth (Köhler, Heinzen, Hinrichs, &  
10 Huchzermeier, 2009), and appear to be associated with the development of life-course  
11 persistent antisocial behavior (Moffitt, 1993; Sevecke, Kosson, & Krischer, 2009). In  
12 addition, personality researchers have demonstrated that psychopathy, defined as the lack of  
13 affectivity, deceitful interpersonal style and impulsive and irresponsible behavior, may sustain  
14 antisocial manifestations (Andershed, Kerr, Stattin, & Levander, 2002). The developmental  
15 trajectories of antisocial individuals are marked by serious personal, social, and educational  
16 difficulties, and the damage resulting from their behaviors result in important costs for the  
17 society (Morgado & Vale-Dias, 2013).

18 For this purpose, a large body of research focuses on the psychological processes that might  
19 underlie antisocial manifestations. Some authors propose that antisocial individuals present  
20 impairments in the monitoring of their own actions (Bernat, Nelson, Steele, Gehring, &  
21 Patrick, 2011; Brazil et al., 2009; Hall, Bernat, & Patrick, 2007; Vilà-Balló, Hdez-Lafuente,  
22 Rostan, Cunillera, & Rodriguez-Fornells, 2014). For example, a series of studies using  
23 electroencephalography methodologies indicate that antisocial individuals present lower  
24 activation of the error related negativity, an indicator of action monitoring and error detection  
25 processes (Bernat et al., 2011; Brazil et al., 2009; Hall et al., 2007; Vilà-Balló et al., 2014).

26 These results suggest impairments in matching the expected outcome of their own actions to  
27 the actual outcome, leading to impairments in monitoring their own behaviors (Vilà-Balló et  
28 al., 2014).

29 A key cognitive process involved in the monitoring of one's behaviors is the ability to  
30 discriminate between different sources of information, traditionally studied within the source-  
31 monitoring framework (Johnson, Hashtroudi, & Lindsay, 1993). Different types of source  
32 monitoring processes have previously been described: internal-external source monitoring,  
33 which enables one to distinguish between information generated by oneself from information  
34 generated by another person; external source monitoring, which refers to the ability to  
35 distinguish between two external sources; and internal source monitoring –distinguishing  
36 between what one imagined doing or saying from what one actually did or said (Johnson et  
37 al., 1993). Biases in the self-monitoring can arise as a result of several factors. The source-  
38 monitoring framework postulates that the amount and the clarity of sensorial signals  
39 (sensorial precision) biases towards an external attribution of the source. On the other hand,  
40 the amount and clarity of cognitive signals, such as thoughts, internal speech, imagination  
41 (cognitive precision) biases towards an internal attribution of the source of the material  
42 (Johnson et al., 1993).

43 The source monitoring framework can be informed by the forward model of motor control  
44 proposed by Miall and Wolpert, (1996). This model was initially developed to conceptualize  
45 the monitoring of actions, however, recent studies adapted it for the monitoring of thought  
46 content, such as internal speech (Frith, Blakemore, & Wolpert, 2000; Jones & Fernyhough,  
47 2006). The forward model postulates that the correct attribution of the source results from a  
48 match between the predicted and the actual sensorial consequences of the action. On the other  
49 hand, a mismatch leads to biases in the attribution of the source. This mismatch might result  
50 due to interferences at different levels: in generating the prediction of the sensorial outcome

51 of the action or in the processing of the actual sensorial feedback of the action (Blakemore,  
52 Oakley, & Frith, 2003). Based on these two approaches, the source monitoring framework  
53 and the forward model, we can hypothesize that the impairments in the monitoring of  
54 behaviors presented by antisocial individuals might be explained by impairments in the  
55 source attribution. Considering the studies presented above describing impairments in  
56 processing the outcome of the action, we can hypothesize that the impairments in the source  
57 monitoring in antisocial individuals might be due to impairment in processing the sensorial  
58 feedback of their actions. This hypothesis comes in the continuity of several studies indicating  
59 impairments in sensorial integration in antisocial individuals (Assadi et al., 2007; Faruk,  
60 Demirel, Tayyib, & Emül, 2016; Lindberg, Tani, Stenberg, & Appelberg, 2004; Wang et al.,  
61 2016).

62 To the best of our knowledge, no study investigated the source monitoring of thought content  
63 in antisocial individuals. Thus, the present study focuses on self-generated speech monitoring,  
64 which represents a key component of internal source monitoring. We seek to explore the  
65 potential associations between the monitoring of self-generated speech and two crucial  
66 characteristics of antisocial individuals, CP and psychopathic traits. We focus on adolescence  
67 as a critical period for the development of antisocial tendencies (Frick & White, 2008). In  
68 addition, the investigation of source monitoring in a group of incarcerated adolescents may  
69 help identify early factors sustaining these maladaptive behaviors, and could further inform  
70 early prevention and intervention strategies.

71 For this purpose, we employ a task that examines the participant's capacity to discriminate  
72 between one's silently- and overtly produced speech. Previous studies indicate that the  
73 cognitive effort of the stimuli might play an important role in the monitoring of the source of  
74 the material (Debbané, Van der Linden, Glaser, & Eliez, 2010; Larøi, Van Der Linden, &  
75 Marczewski, 2004; Sugimori & Tanno, 2010). Thus, we manipulated the cognitive effort by

76 presenting different types of stimuli, words and non-words (Debbané et al., 2010). This task  
77 differentiates between two types of monitoring biases; the externalizing bias, which consists  
78 in reporting silently generated speech as overtly produced; and the internalizing bias, which  
79 consists in reporting overtly generated speech as silently produced. Based on previous studies  
80 investigating the monitoring of behaviors in antisocial individuals and on the postulates of the  
81 source-monitoring framework, we hypothesize that the incarcerated group will present a  
82 greater biases in the self-generated speech monitoring and that the bias will be greater for the  
83 items that require greater cognitive effort, the non-words. Furthermore, we aim to explore the  
84 relationship between source-monitoring of self-generated speech and psychopathic traits in  
85 both groups. In addition, we propose to investigate the differences in source monitoring,  
86 between the incarcerated adolescents with and without CP.

## 87 **Method**

### 88 *Participants*

89 Sixty-five adolescents incarcerated (IA) in an observation and detention center for youths in  
90 Geneva, Switzerland, took part in the study ( $M_{age}=15.85$ ,  $SD=1.30$ ; 20 females). Eighty-eight  
91 community adolescents (CA) with no previous criminal convictions formed the comparison  
92 group ( $M_{age}=15.78$ ,  $SD=1.60$ ; 30 females). The CA were recruited via advertising leaflets  
93 and by word of mouth and were tested at our research unit. The IA were individually tested at  
94 the center facility in a private room.

95 The inclusion criteria were age (12–18 years) and fluency in French. In addition, the subjects  
96 with a history of psychotic disorders and intellectual deficiency were not included in the  
97 study. For administrative reasons, information about the reason for incarceration was  
98 available for 60 of the IA; the majority committed more than one criminal offense, including  
99 physical and verbal aggression (16.7%), drug-related crimes (35%), theft and robbery (45%),  
100 runaways and risky behaviors (33.3%), conduct difficulties (20%) and driving violations

101 (8.3%). In relation to availability of the detained adolescents, forty-seven IA could be  
102 screened for psychiatric problems according to DSM-IV criteria using the Kiddie-SADS  
103 Present and Lifetime Version (K-SADS-PL) semi-structured interview (Kaufman et al.,  
104 1997). Trained clinical psychologists from our team conducted the interview under the  
105 supervision of MD. Diagnostic information is reported in Table 1. On the basis of the clinical  
106 interview, two IA subgroups were created: conduct problems (CP) group, which includes the  
107 twenty-eight IA who met the criteria for CD or ODD (7 females,  $M_{age}=15.97$ ,  $SD=1.20$ ), and  
108 non-CP group, which includes the nineteen IA who did not meet any of the conduct problems  
109 diagnostic criteria (7 females,  $M_{age}=16.06$ ,  $SD=1.41$ ).

110 All the participants completed the full protocol, except for one participant from the IA group  
111 who didn't complete the Youth Self-Report. Written informed consent was obtained from all  
112 the participants and, for participants under 18 years old, also from their legal guardians. The  
113 protocol was approved by the Institutional Review Board of the Department of Psychiatry of  
114 the University of Geneva Medical School. The adolescents in both groups received monetary  
115 compensation for their participation in the study.

## 116 ***Instruments***

### 117 *Source-monitoring task*

118 Source-monitoring was investigated using a self-generated speech-monitoring task, the  
119 word/non-word task (Debbané et al., 2010). The task consisted of two parts: a reading  
120 procedure, followed by an incidental recognition and source monitoring procedure. In the first  
121 part of the task was presented as a reading and pronunciation exercise. The participants were  
122 required to read, either aloud or silently, a series of words (low cognitive effort items) or non-  
123 words (high cognitive effort items) presented on a computer screen. They were instructed to  
124 pay special attention to their pronunciation, even when reading the items silently; they were  
125 not informed that a recognition and source monitoring procedure would follow. After two

126 exercise trials, making sure that the subjects understood the task, six blocks (six silent, six  
127 aloud) of eight items (eight words, eight non-words) were randomly presented. In total, each  
128 condition contained 12 items, for a total of 48 items (12 words, 12 non-words read aloud and  
129 12 words, 12 non-words silently read). After a 10–15 minutes visuospatial filler task, the  
130 second part of the task was introduced. A recognition sheet was then handed out, containing  
131 72 items (the 48 items read in the first part of the task, plus 12 new word and 12 new non-  
132 word items). The participants were instructed that they have to indicate which items from the  
133 recognition list had appeared in the reading phase (yes/no- recognition test), and to attribute  
134 them to a reading condition (read silently or aloud- monitoring test). By using two types of  
135 items, the task aimed to differentiate the monitoring of self-generated speech in two different  
136 cognitive effort levels, high cognitive effort (non-words) and low cognitive load (words).

137 For the recognition phase, signal detection theory (Stanislaw & Todorov, 1999) was used to  
138 assess the sensibility for each type of items (word and non-words) for both reading conditions  
139 (aloud and silently). The estimation of d-prime scores were calculated by subtracting the  $z$   
140 score corresponding to the false alarms from the  $z$  score corresponding to hit rate. False  
141 recognition scores were calculated as the number of words that were not presented in the  
142 reading phase of the task (distractors), misrecognized as belonging to the reading phase.  
143 Higher d-prime scores indicate a better recognition accuracy.

144 In order to assess the monitoring bias, externalizing and internalizing bias scores were  
145 calculated. The externalizing bias was calculated by dividing the total score for items read  
146 silently, but identified as read aloud in the monitoring test, out of the total score of items  
147 correctly recognized as read silently. In the same way, the internalizing bias score was  
148 calculated by dividing the total score of items read overtly but identified as read silently out  
149 of the total score of items correctly recognized as read overtly. Externalizing and internalizing



150 bias scores were calculated overall, as well as for each item type (word and non-word)  
151 separately.

### 152 *Self-report questionnaires*

153 Externalizing (including aggressive behaviors and rule-breaking behaviors) and internalizing  
154 (including withdrawal, anxiety, depression, and somatic complaints) problems in participants  
155 aged <18 years were assessed using the Youth Self-Report (YSR; Achenbach,  
156 1991).(Achenbach, 1991) For the participants aged  $\geq 18$  but < 19 years, the Adult Self-Report  
157 (ASR; Achenbach and Rescorla, 2003)(Achenbach & Rescorla, 2003) was used. Each of the  
158 119 items in these instruments is evaluated on a 3-point scale, with 0 corresponding to “not  
159 true”, 1 to “sometimes true” and 2 to “very or often true”.

160 Psychopathic traits were assessed using the French version of the Youth Psychopathic  
161 Inventory (YPI; Andershed *et al.*, 2002). The YPI evaluates three dimensions of psychopathy,  
162 each consisting of several subscales: an interpersonal dimension assessing grandiose,  
163 manipulative behaviors, an affective dimension assessing callous-unemotional traits, and a  
164 dimension assessing impulsive, irresponsible behavior. The 50 items of the YPI are scored on  
165 4-point scale, from 1 corresponding to “does not apply at all” to 4 corresponding to “applies  
166 very well”.

167 In order to assess the cognitive functioning, we used the French versions of two subtests,  
168 Vocabulary and Digit Span, of the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children–Fourth edition  
169 (WISC; Wechsler, 2003) (Wechsler, 2003) and, for participants  $\geq 18$  years old, the Wechsler  
170 Adult Intelligence Scale–Third edition (WAIS; Wechsler, 1997).(Wechsler, 1997) The  
171 Vocabulary subtest measures word knowledge, language development, and concept  
172 understanding, whereas the Digit Span subtest investigates the short-term memory  
173 performances.

174 ***Statistical analysis***

175 *T*-test analyses were conducted for sample characteristics, such as the age, WISC/ WAIS  
176 subscales, and YPI scores. Because the groups differ on WISC/WAIS subscales scores, and to  
177 control for the potential effect of gender, both variables were entered as covariates in the  
178 following analysis. For the self-monitoring task, mixed analysis of covariance (ANCOVA)  
179 was conducted on the *d*-prime scores for each type of stimuli (words vs. non-words) on each  
180 reading condition (aloud vs. silently), with group (IA vs. CA) as between factor. Mixed  
181 ANCOVAs were conducted on the monitoring bias scores (externalizing vs. internalizing), for  
182 each type of stimuli (word vs. non-word) and overall, with group (IA vs. CA) as between  
183 factor. Partial correlation analysis was used to investigate the relationships between the  
184 dependent variables and the sample characteristics, using gender as covariate.

185 In order to further explore the effects of the CP on the monitoring bias, we conducted the  
186 same analyses to compare the subgroups of IA with without CP. Because the two subgroups  
187 did not differ in the scores of the WISC/WAIS subscales, only gender was used as covariate.  
188 Statistical analyses were carried out in SPSS, version 23 for Mac (SPSS Inc.,USA).

189 **Results**

190 ***IA vs. CA groups***

191 *Sample characteristics*

192 Table 2 presents the results for the *t*-test analyses of the sample characteristics. In comparison  
193 with the CA group, the IA group had significantly lower scores for the Vocabulary  
194 ( $t(151)=5.71, p<0.001, d=0.92$ ) and Digit Span ( $t(151)=2.21, p=0.020, d=0.36$ ) subtests,  
195 significantly higher scores for the externalizing subscale in the YSR/ASR ( $t(150)= -8.10,$   
196  $p<0.001, d=1.32$ ), and significantly higher scores for the impulsive, irresponsible behavior  
197 subscale of the YPI ( $t(146)=-6.14, p<0.001, d=1.01$ ) and the callous-unemotional subscale

198  $(t(146)=-2.34, p=0.020, d=0.38)$ . The groups did not differ in the mean age  $(t(151)=-0.27,$   
199  $p=0.780, d=0.04)$ , in the mean of the internalizing subscale of the YSR/ASR  $(t(151)=0.90,$   
200  $p=0.360, d=0.14)$ .

### 201 *Source-monitoring task results*

202 Results of mixed ANCOVA conducted on the d-prime scores, with group (IA vs. CA) as  
203 between factor, and gender and both WISC/WAIS subscales scores as covariates, reveal a  
204 main effect of reading condition  $(F(1, 148)=15.802, p<0.001, \text{partial } \eta^2=0.096)$  and a  
205 significant effect of the item type  $(F(1, 148)=6.046, p=0.015, \text{partial } \eta^2=0.039)$  suggesting  
206 that, independently of the group, silently read items and non-words are less accurately  
207 recognized. The results indicate no interaction effect and no group effect  $(p>0.05)$ . Table 3  
208 presents the means and the standard deviations for the d-prime scores, for each type of item in  
209 both reading conditions.

210 The results of mixed ANCOVA conducted on the monitoring bias scores for each type of  
211 item, with group (IA vs. CA) as between factor, revealed a main effect of item type  $(F(1,$   
212  $148)= 5.003, p=0.027, \text{partial } \eta^2=0.033)$ , indicating that the monitoring bias is greater for the  
213 non-words. In addition, the results demonstrate a significant interaction effect between the  
214 monitoring bias and the type of item  $(F(1, 148)= 4.85, p=0.029, \text{partial } \eta^2=0.032)$ , suggesting  
215 that, independently of the group, the monitoring bias affects differently the type of items. To  
216 follow up this interaction effect, simple effects were analyzed, revealing that, independently  
217 of group, there was a greater internalization bias for non-words than for words  $(F(1,$   
218  $148)=12.628, p=0.001, \text{partial } \eta^2=0.064)$ , and greater internalization bias than externalization  
219 bias for non-words  $(F(1, 148)=5.211, p=0.024, \text{partial } \eta^2=0.034)$ . The results also indicate a  
220 main effect of the group  $(F(1, 148)=5.356, p=0.026, \text{partial } \eta^2=0.026)$ , suggesting that the IA  
221 group present more monitoring bias independently of the item type and bias.

222 Finally, a significant triple interaction effect between the group, the monitoring bias, and the  
223 item type ( $F(1, 148)= 8.50, p=0.004, \text{partial } \eta^2=0.054$ ) has been found, suggesting that the  
224 interaction between the monitoring bias and the type of items was different in the two groups  
225 of participants. Simple interaction effects were analyzed, indicating that, relative to the CA  
226 group, the IA presented a significantly greater externalizing bias for non-words ( $F(1,$   
227  $148)=10.120, p=0.002, \text{partial } \eta^2=0.064$ ), and significantly greater internalizing bias for the  
228 words ( $F(1, 148)=5.088, p=0.026, \text{partial } \eta^2=0.033$ ). In addition, the results suggested that the  
229 CA presented greater internalizing bias for non-words than for words ( $F(1, 148)=16.017,$   
230  $p<0.001, \text{partial } \eta^2=0.098$ ). These results are presented in the Figure 1.

### 231 *Correlation analysis*

232 We conducted partial correlations on the source monitoring results and YPI subscales, with  
233 gender as covariate. For the d-prime scores in the recognition phase, no result exceeded the  
234 significance level ( $p>0.65$ ). For the monitoring bias scores, in the CA group, the results did  
235 not show any significant result ( $p>0.196$ ). In the IA group, the results reveal that the  
236 internalizing bias for non-words was negatively correlated with interpersonal problems  
237 subscale of the YPI ( $r= -0.277, p= 0.030$ ). After the Bonferroni correction, no correlation  
238 reached the significance level ( $p=0.004$ ).

### 239 ***CP vs. non-CP groups***

#### 240 *Sample characteristics*

241 The results of *t*-test analysis indicated that, relative to the non-CP group, the CP group  
242 presented higher scores for the externalizing subscale of YSR/ASR ( $t(44)=3.214, p=0.002,$   
243  $d=0.96$ ). The two groups did not differ in the mean age ( $t(45)=-0.237, p=0.813, d=0.07$ ), nor  
244 in mean scores for the Vocabulary ( $t(45)=-0.698, p=0.489, d=0.20$ ) and for the Digit Span

245 ( $t(45)=0.507, p=0.615, d=0.15$ ) subtests. In addition, there was no difference between the  
246 groups in the subscales of the YPI ( $p>0.375$ ).

#### 247 *Source-monitoring task results*

248 The mixed ANCOVA conducted on the d-prime scores, with group (CP vs. non-CP) as  
249 between group factor and gender as covariate, revealed a significant effect of the reading  
250 condition ( $F(1, 44)= 9.959, p=0.004, \text{partial } \eta^2=0.178$ ), suggesting that independently of the  
251 group, items read silently were less accurately recognized. In addition, the results suggested a  
252 triple interaction effect between the group, the reading condition, and the type of item ( $F(1,$   
253  $44)= 2.294, p=0.031, \text{partial } \eta^2=0.104$ ), suggesting that the relation between the reading  
254 condition and the item type differs across the groups. To follow up the interaction effect,  
255 simple effects were analyzed, revealing that the non-CP group showed a less accurate  
256 recognition for the words read silently in comparison with the words read overly ( $F(1, 44)=$   
257  $16.036, p<0.001, \text{partial } \eta^2=0.272$ ). The same pattern was observed for the CP group ( $F(1,$   
258  $44)=4.981, p=0.031, \text{partial } \eta^2=0.104$ ). The CP group also showed a less accurate recognition  
259 for the non-words read silently, compared to the non-words read overly ( $F(1, 44)=13.373,$   
260  $p=0.001, \text{partial } \eta^2=0.237$ ). These results are presented in the Figure 2.

261 The results of mixed ANCOVA conducted on the monitoring bias scores for each type of  
262 item, with group (CP vs. non-CP group) as between factor and gender as covariate, did not  
263 reveal any significant effect ( $p>0.145$ ).

#### 264 **Discussion**

265 The present study investigated self-monitoring performances in a group of incarcerated  
266 adolescents (IA), in comparison to a group of community adolescents (CA). We employed a  
267 task assessing source monitoring of self-generated speech, which included stimuli of different  
268 levels of cognitive effort (words-low effort; non-words-high effort). The task yields a

269 recognition score ( $d'$ ) and two self-monitoring bias scores, internalizing bias score,  
270 defined as the tendency to identify overtly read items as silently read, and externalizing bias  
271 score, defined as the tendency to identify silently read items as overtly read. In light of the  
272 relevant literature, the results will be discussed in relation to the psychological and clinical  
273 characteristics of each group.

#### 274 ***IA vs. CA groups***

275 Firstly, no group differences were found for the  $d'$  scores, suggesting that IA  
276 participants conserve intact recognition capacities. Regarding the source monitoring bias  
277 scores, the IA presented more overall biases in comparison to the CA group. Biases in the  
278 source monitoring might be explained by impairments in the integration of contextual  
279 information into a coherent whole and impairments in the integration of sensory information  
280 previously reported in antisocial individuals (Assadi et al., 2007; Faruk et al., 2016; Hamilton,  
281 Racer, & Newman, 2015; Lindberg et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2016).

282 Interestingly, the results suggest that the two adolescent groups present different patterns of  
283 monitoring bias, depending on the cognitive effort required by the material. Firstly, the IA  
284 group shows a greater externalizing bias for non-words, compared to the CA group. The  
285 source monitoring framework states that external attributions are more probable for stimuli  
286 with increased sensorial precision (Johnson et al., 1993). We may hypothesize that, during the  
287 reading phase, the IA used more sensorimotor information such as subvocalizations and failed  
288 to generate the kind of cognitive information that controls generated while reading the non-  
289 words. For instance, upon reading a non-word item like “TEVU”, the CA group may have  
290 generated idiosyncratic cognitive information (for example, one may think, “*that is like T-*  
291 *View*”). In addition, accordingly to the forward model, we might explain the externalizing  
292 bias for non-words as a mismatch between the predicted and the actual sensors feedback  
293 (Blakemore et al., 2003). This mismatch could be due to impairments in the processing of the

294 actual feedback of an action (here the silently reading of the non-words). This explanation is  
295 in line with previous studies which indicate that antisocial individuals present impairments in  
296 processing the sensory feedback of their actions (Hall et al., 2007; Vilà-Balló et al., 2014),  
297 especially internally generated feedback (Bernat et al., 2012).

298 Contrary to non-words, word items were associated to a greater internalizing bias in the IA  
299 group. We believe that the words represented items that were familiar to participants, and in  
300 the IA group, familiarity may have reduced the encoding of sensory-perceptual properties of  
301 the material. The source monitoring framework suggests that weak sensory-perceptual  
302 precision engenders uncertainty about the “realness” of the items, which will therefore more  
303 likely be attributed to an internal source (Johnson et al., 1993).

304 Contrary to the IA group, the effect of cognitive load leads to a greater tendency to internalize  
305 overtly read non-words in the CA group. We may hypothesize that the CA group generated  
306 more cognitive operations to encode the overtly read non-words, to the detriment of  
307 sensorimotor evidence (production and sound of speech) that would have assisted in correct  
308 source monitoring.

309 Regarding the relationship between psychopathic traits and source monitoring capacities, our  
310 results did not reveal any association in either of the groups. This could be to the lack of  
311 discriminative power of the self-report measures investigating the psychopathic dimensions,  
312 which may be more thoroughly assessed through semi-structured interviews.

313 ***Within group analysis of the impact of conduct problems (CP) in IA group on the source***  
314 ***monitoring abilities***

315 The results indicate that recognition scores differed between CP and non-CP groups,  
316 depending on the item type and reading condition, the CP group showing a better recognition  
317 for the non-words read aloud than for the non-words read silently. These results may suggest  
318 that the CP group encodes items by favoring sensorimotor and perceptual information, which

319 may yield a recognition advantage (Johnson et al., 1993). The fact that the IA with CP  
320 recognize better the non-words read aloud than those read silently might indicate that they  
321 rely more on perceptual information in the processing of the items requiring a greater amount  
322 of cognitive effort. This result may have important implications for clinical practice, in that  
323 the source monitoring profile may divulge information to be considered within the assessment  
324 procedure and treatment plan for IA presenting CP. However, the results did not indicate any  
325 difference between the groups in monitoring bias ( $p>0.168$ ).

### 326 ***Limitations***

327 Some limitations of the present study should be taken into consideration. First, the assessment  
328 of psychopathic traits was performed using a self-report questionnaire, which should be  
329 complemented with a semi-structured interview measure to fully assess the links between  
330 psychopathy and source monitoring. Another limitation is that not all the adolescents  
331 completed clinical interview, thus we could not compare the two groups regarding their  
332 clinical characteristics.

### 333 ***Conclusion***

334 To the best of our knowledge, this study is the first to investigate source monitoring in  
335 delinquent adolescents. Using a self-generated speech monitoring paradigm, we observe  
336 preserved recognition performances, but impairments in the source-monitoring in the IA  
337 group. More precisely, the IA showed an increased externalizing bias when monitoring  
338 cognitively effortful items, as well as increased internal biases when monitoring familiar  
339 items. In addition, we observe that conduct problems in IA individuals may worsen their  
340 recognition performances.

341 We propose that impairments in the source-monitoring abilities might contribute to limited  
342 self-awareness, but also to limit insight about one's own actions and their consequences.

343 These impairments might lead to an inability to learn from their experiences and to correct



344 their behaviors (Vilà-Balló et al., 2014). In addition, these impairments might contribute to a  
345 more general tendency of the antisocial individual to experience their thoughts as real,  
346 manifesting an equivalence between internal and external reality (Bateman & Fonagy, 2016).  
347 These characteristics might interfere with the motivation to change and hinder psychosocial  
348 and therapeutic strategies. The present results warrant future research among IA, exploring  
349 the relations between impairments in the monitoring of self-generated material and the lack of  
350 insight about their behaviors, as well as the lack of responsibility for their actions.

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486 Table 1. Diagnostic information for the incarcerated group of adolescents.

<b>K-SADS-PL diagnostics</b>	<b>% of the group</b>
Substance abuse	10.6 %
Conduct disorder	14.8 %
Conduct disorder and substance abuse	34 %
Anxiety disorder	8.5 %
Conduct disorder, substance abuse and other diagnosis (MDD, ADHD)	10.6 %
No diagnosis	21.2 %

488 K-SADS-PL- Kiddie-SADS Present and Lifetime Version; ADHD- Attention-  
489 deficit/hyperactivity disorder, MDD- Major depressive disorder

490

491 Table 2. Sample characteristics result

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493 *WISC* Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children, *WAIS* Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale,

	<i>Community adolescents</i>		<i>Incarcerated adolescents</i>	
	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
Age (years)	15.78	1.60	15.85	1.30
WISC/WAIS (Vocabulary)	10.90 **	3.53	7.78**	3.06
WISC/ WAIS (Digit Span)	9.04 *	2.76	8.09*	2.44
YSR (externalizing)	56.70 **	9.57	68.54 **	7.87
YSR (internalizing)	54.12	10.22	52.60	10.06
YPI (impulsive-irresponsible subscale)	23.83**	5.38	29.25**	5.19
YPI (CU subscale)	29.48*	5.56	32.07*	7.93
YPI (interpersonal problems subscale)	28.12	8.74	31.09	10.27

494 *YSR* Youth Self Report; *YPI* Youth psychopathic Inventory

495 \*\*p<0.01

496 \*p<0.05

497

498 Table 3. Means and standard deviations for the d prime scores in the recognition phase, of  
499 both groups of adolescents

<i>Reading condition</i>	<i>Item Type</i>	<i>Community adolescents</i>		<i>Incarcerated adolescents</i>	
		<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
Overtly	Words	2.06	0.65	1.78	0.70
	Non-Words	1.77	0.71	1.55	0.63
Silently	Words	1.27	0.63	1.22	0.53
	Non-Words	1.42	0.74	1.16	0.65