Is the law of evidence ready for the aging population?

ABSTRACT:

With the proportion of people aged over 65 expected to double in the next twenty years, this paper asks the question: is the law of evidence prepared to meet this demographic shift? Currently, the laws of evidence assume that the best evidence comes from witnesses who are able to deliver live testimony in the courtroom. However, aging introduces physical and cognitive changes that can interfere with the ability of elder witnesses to meet these basic requirements, especially with trial dates that are set months or even years into the future. This paper looks at four physical and cognitive issues that increase in prevalence with age that can interfere with the ability to testify in person. It then reviews the promise and the limitations of the current rules of evidence in meeting these challenges. The laws of evidence have various tools that can help accommodate individuals who experience limitations that become more prevalent with age. However, a review of cases involving seniors suggests that they are under used, which could signal that seniors face barriers to accessing justice.
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Introduction

Within the next twenty years, the number of senior citizens who are aged over 65 in Canada is expected to double.¹ As the population ages, it is projected that there will be more seniors involved with the justice system.² At the same time, studies in the social and cognitive sciences suggest that there are conditions that become more prevalent with age that can interfere with the ability to attend court and present accurate testimony as a witness.³ In an adversarial system that puts a premium on having witnesses testify in person in a courtroom,⁴ this paper asks: Is the law of evidence ready to meet this demographic shift?

Whether the laws of evidence are ready to respond to the needs of an aging population is ultimately a case study on how the adversarial emphasis of our legal system can be at odds with the social and practical objectives of the trial. Socially, an objective of the trial is to enable

² Lisa Ha & Ruth Code, An Empirical Examination of Elder Abuse: A Review of files from the Elder Abuse Section of the Ottawa Police Service (Ottawa: Department of Justice, 2013) at 1 <http://www.justice.gc.ca/eng/rp-pr/cj-jp/fv-vf/rr13_1/rr13_1.pdf> accessed October 11, 2016 and Howard Eglit, Elders on Trial: Age and Ageism in the American Legal System (Gainesville, Florida: University Press, 2004) at 62 project an increase in seniors accessing the justice system. On the other hand, there are studies that suggest that as far as the criminal justice system is concerned there may be a decrease in participation of seniors because seniors are much likely to commit crimes or be the victims of crimes (Statistics Canada, Canadian Centre for Justice Statistics, Seniors as Victims of Crime 2004 – 2005 by Lucie Ogrodnik, (Ottawa: Statistics Canada, 2007) at 6 <http://www.statcan.gc.ca/pub/85f0033m/85f0033m2007014-eng.htm> accessed October 11, 2016 where seniors were three times less likely than younger adults to experience a victimization of crime). However, this rate may be higher for aboriginal Canadians aged over 55 (Stephanie Hayman, “Older People in Canada: Their Victimization and Fear of Crime, (2011) 30:3 Can J Aging 423 at 431).
³ Michael Toglia et al, eds, The Elderly Eyewitness in Court (New York: The Psychology Press, 2014) contains chapters written by leading cognitive and social scientists that detail the myriad ways aging interferes with the ability to attend court and provide accurate testimony.
⁴ R v Khelawon, 2006 SCC 57 at para 35.
individuals to access justice through the courts. Practically, a trial objective is to discover the truth. By reviewing studies on how aging affects the ability to provide accurate testimony in a courtroom and highlighting key legal barriers that prevent the best practices suggested in the social sciences from being adopted in practice, this paper shows how these goals can be defeated by the philosophical and logistical constraints of common law trials.

To explore this tension between the traditional method of testing evidence in the adversarial system and the fact that aging can interfere with the ability to meet this standard, this article proceeds in three parts. Part I provides a brief survey of four physiological and cognitive conditions that are more prevalent with advanced age in order to introduce how aging can interfere with a person’s ability to participate in a trial: (1) increased chance of dying (attrition); (2) changes to the sensory organs and the brain; (3) mobility issues; and (4) strokes and dementia. Part II casts these physiological conditions within the context of the adversarial trials by first describing the rationales underlying the adversarial system’s methods of testing evidence and then setting out two of the key legal barriers met by individuals who experience age-based limitations: the rule

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5 As Madam Justice L’Hereux Dube sets out in R. v. Levogiannis, [1993] 4 S.C.R. 475 at 483 “[t]he goal of the court process is truth seeking and, to that end, the evidence of all those involved in judicial proceedings must be given in a way that is most favourable to eliciting the truth.”

6 Of course, whether there is a conflict naturally depends on how you define the social and practical objectives of the trial. I adopt a rationalist purpose of the trial - the discovery of the truth (to the extent possible) (William Twining, *Theories of Evidence: Bentham and Wigmore* (London: Weidenfeld and Nicolson, 1985) at p 16). Arguably a more realistic objective is that put forth by Sir Richard Egglestone – where a trial’s objective is to reach a decision that is justifiable based on the material presented in court (Evidence, Proof, and Probability 2nd ed (London: Weidenfeld & Nicolson, 1983) at p. 32), or even more cynically put by Kenneth W. Graham, Jr., as “a kind of political theatre” in “‘There’ll Always Be an England’: The Instrumental Ideology of Evidence” (1987) 85 Mich L R 1204, at 1232. Julia Simon Kerr have convincingly argues that the adversarial trial has a “complicated” relationship with the truth, that it “frequently privileges policy goals over information-gathering, and it tolerates obvious falsehoods in certain circumstances. Truth in legal proceedings not only competes with other priorities, such as fairness and efficiency, but under the American legal system, it may be sought through deception, half-truths, misleading statements, and, at times, outright falsehoods” (Julia Simon Kerr, “Credibility by Proxy” (2017) 85:1 George Washington L R 152 at 153).

7 Though there a number of other chronic conditions that are also prevalent with advanced age, the discussion in this paper is limited to those physical conditions that were the most frequently mentioned to cause a witness to be unable to testify in person in a case law review of 420 civil disputes where the age of the party was mentioned (Helene Love, “The Impact of Age on the Assessment of Witnesses” SJD dissertation, University of Toronto Faculty of Law (unpublished, in progress)).
against hearsay and the assessment of witnesses in court through the testimonial factors. In Part III, the available solutions provided for in the rules of evidence and procedure are discussed including: the ability to expedite trial dates, preserve pre-trial testimony for use in a later trial, minimize in-court appearances, use of third party evidence to assist with in-court assessments, and the principled approach to hearsay. Part III also reviews cases where these accommodations were used, and finds a striking absence of cases involving seniors. Identifying the reasons why these legal tools are infrequently used will be critical to ensuring that the laws of evidence respond appropriately to the projected increase of seniors using the courts in the future.

**Part I: Risks Associated with Aging**

Before reviewing how attrition, changes to the brain and sensory organs, mobility issues, strokes, or dementia can interfere with the ability to participate in courtroom proceedings, it is important to underscore that aging does not happen uniformly. The physical and cognitive issues mentioned in this paper do not happen to all people once they turn 65, nor does any condition progress in the same way and to the same extent in all aging adults. There is a great deal of variation between adults and factors such as genetics, social integration, diet, exercise, and education all affect the rate of aging in the brain and the senses. For some adults, old age impacts the ability to participate in a trial, for others, it does not. It is imperative that individual witnesses are assessed based on their unique abilities.

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(a) Attrition

Perhaps the most obvious difference between older and younger people is the most important one: seniors are more likely to die before a matter makes its way to trial.\textsuperscript{10} In Canada, the mortality rate is quite flat until age 65, at which point it increases markedly with age. For example, for males between the ages of 25 and 35, the mortality rate moves from 0.8/1,000 to 1/1,000. However, by age 65 the mortality rate is 15.7/1,000 and jumps to 41.6/1,000 by age 75. At age 80, the frequency of dying increases to 70/1,000.\textsuperscript{11} Depending on the complexity of a case, it can take months or even years to have a trial date set. In light of the heightened risk that testimony from senior witnesses will be unavailable with advancing age, these wait times are especially problematic for witnesses as they get older.\textsuperscript{12}

(b) Changes to the sensory organs and the brain with age

A second aspect of aging that can interfere with the ability to participate in a trial is the biological changes to the sensory organs and the brain which can result in a decrease in perceptual acuity and gaps in memory.\textsuperscript{13} With natural aging, there is cell loss and a stiffening of the muscles around the lens of the eye that causes the visual field to shrink and visual acuity to decrease,
especially in poor lighting conditions or environments with little contrast.\textsuperscript{14} One in nine Canadians have irreversible vision loss by age 65; a number that increases to 1 in 4 by age 75.\textsuperscript{15}

Just as vision can become less precise with age, so can hearing. Results from the Canadian Health Measures Survey suggest that adults aged 60 to 79 years were significantly more likely to have hearing loss (47\%) compared to younger adults aged 40 to 59 years (16\%) and 19 to 39 years (7\%).\textsuperscript{16} Auditory issues in seniors include trouble detecting low pitched sounds; or discriminating between changes in pitch, volume, and the location of a noise.\textsuperscript{17}

Once information is perceived by the sensory organs, it is sent to the brain and encoded into memory. Neural aging decreases the efficiency of this information transfer, which can cause forgetfulness and gaps in memory.\textsuperscript{18} These memory deficits are known as “age-associated memory impairments” and occur in almost 40 percent of people who are over the age of 65.\textsuperscript{19} Studies on these cognitive changes on the ability to be a witness suggest that aging is related to more rapid


\textsuperscript{17} Deborah Davis and Elizabeth Loftus, “Age and Functioning in the Legal System: Victims, Witnesses, and Jurors” in Ian Noy and Waldemar Karowski, \textit{Handbook of Human Factors in Litigation} (Boca Raton, FL: CRC Press, 2006) at 11-2.

\textsuperscript{18} Specifically, studies link the decrease in efficiency to a shrinkage in the brain at a rate of over 0.5\% per year in adults aged over 60 (Anna Hedman et al, “Human Brain Changes Across the Life Span: A Review of 56 Longitudinal Magnetic Resonance Imaging Studies” (2012) 33 Human Brain Mapping 1987), as well as deterioration in the frontal lobe – the area of the brain responsible for memory, emotional control, and judgment, Davis & Loftus, \textit{supra} note 17 at 11-2.

forgetting, and that seniors generally provide less detailed accounts of an event. As well, with aging, there is a greater susceptibility to incorporate false information into memories, a phenomenon known as the “misinformation effect”. Together, these changes in sensory acuity and memory can have a negative effect on the accuracy of testimony, both in terms of taking in information from the outside world at the time of a witnessed event as well as in being able the recall and recount an event later on in a trial.

(c) Mobility issues

A third issue that is more commonly experienced by seniors is mobility issues – functional limitations to the ability to get around independently. While only around 10% of men and women aged between 55 – 64 living in the community report having a physical limitation, by age 75, 29% of men and 38% of women that are living in the community report at least one physical limitation.

Two common causes for this decrease in mobility are falls and arthritis. Arthritis is an

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21 Daniel Yarmey & Judy Kent, “Eyewitness Identification by Elderly and Young Adults” (1980) 4:4 L Hum Behav 359.


24 Between 20% (at age 65) to 30% (at age 80) of seniors experience falls that require hospitalization every year, making falling the leading cause of injury-related hospitalizations among Canadian seniors: Kathryn Wilkins & Evelyn Park, “Chronic Conditions, Physical Limitations, and Dependency Among Seniors Living in the Community” (1996) 8:3 Health Reports 7 at 10 <http://www.statcan.gc.ca/pub/82-003-x/1996003/article/3014-eng.pdf> accessed October 11, 2016. The data reviewed in this survey was from seniors living in the community, and does not take into account those seniors in institutional care where the number of individuals with physical limitations would likely be much higher (at 14). The higher overall prevalence of limitations among older women than older men partially reflects women have a longer life expectancy, and the resulting higher proportion of the very old among women aged 75 and over (at 10).

inflammation of the joints that is experienced by approximately one in three (33.8%) senior males and one in two (50.6%) senior females in Canada. There are over 100 different types of arthritis, and the experience of pain, inflammation, and mobility limitations that are associated with the condition vary from person to person. Mobility issues are important to consider when it comes to accessing the courts because they can make it more difficult to attend court in person.

(d) Strokes and dementia

Other age-related issues that can interfere with the ability to participate in a trial are strokes and dementia. A stroke is a sudden interruption of oxygen to the brain. Though a stroke can occur at any age, in Canada, individuals who are aged over 65 are ten times more likely to have a stroke than those who are aged between 18 – 44 years. The effects of a stroke range in severity from relatively mild symptoms (e.g. slurred speech, short term confusion, loss of muscle tone) to more serious effects like long term mobility issues, loss of the ability to speak (known as “aphasia”) or loss of memory.

Individuals who have a stroke are more than twice as likely to develop dementia – a decline in cognitive function, judgment, language, complex motor skills or other intellectual functions that lead to a loss of independence. Within the next 15 years, the number of seniors in Canada who

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associated with aging, from age 45 to 64 17.2% of males and 24.8% of females, representing more than 1.9 million Canadians were diagnosed with arthritis. This figure doubles after age 65.

26 Ibid.
have dementia is expected to almost double. Though most people associate dementia with memory loss, dementia can involve symptoms ranging from strictly physical manifestations of the condition (like limb stiffness or uncontrollable movements called “bradykinesia”) to the serious cognitive decline associated with the most common type of dementia, Alzheimer’s Disease.

There is no way to uniformly characterize how having a stroke or dementia affects a person’s ability to be a witness in a trial. Individuals with serious cognitive impairments would not be competent to testify in a trial. For individuals with less serious cognitive impairments who are competent to testify in person, the diagnosis of dementia or a stroke complicates the assessment of in-court testimony and can negatively affect weight attributed to testimony. Finally, aphasia impairs the ability of those affected to communicate verbally. Part II explores the legal issues triggered by these limitations in greater depth.

**Part II: Practical and Legal Issues Related to Aging Witnesses**

To provide a more detailed account of how the physiological conditions described in Part I can operate to exclude or discount testimony in a trial setting, this Part begins with an overview of the rationales for the adversarial system’s preference for in-person testimony. It then discusses

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30 Between 90 – 98% of individuals with dementia are aged over 65, and the number of people with dementia is expected to increase from 747,000 to 1.4 Million: Alzheimer Society Canada, “Dementia Numbers in Canada” online: <http://www.alzheimer.ca/en/About-dementia/What-is-dementia/Dementia-numbers>. A US study found that the incidence of dementia increases with age where 2% of people aged between 65 – 69 have dementia, 5% of individuals in their 70s have dementia, and 25% of individuals in their 80s have dementia (Brenda Lee Plassman et al “Prevalence of dementia in the United States: The Aging, Demographics, and Memory Study” (2007) 29 Neuroepidemiology 125).

31 *Ibid* at 128 suggests that, in the United States, Alzheimer’s Dementia accounted for approximately 69.9% of all dementia, while Vascular Dementia accounted for 17.4%. Other types of dementia of an undetermined etiology, Parkinson’s dementia, normal-pressure hydrocephalus, frontal lobe dementia, alcoholic dementia, traumatic brain injury, and Lewy body dementia accounted for 12.7% of cases. With increasing age, Alzheimer’s Dementia accounted for a greater proportion of dementias with 79.5% of individuals aged over 90 in the group having dementia compared to 46.7% among those aged 71–79.

32 *Canada Evidence Act*, RSC, 1985, c C-5, s 16 [*Evidence Act*]. Examples in the cases of dementia rendering a person incompetent to testify include *Khelawon, supra* note 4; *R v Asling*, 2011 ONCJ 838 [*Asling*]; *Burrows, supra* note 14; *Mawani v Pitcairn*, 2012 BCSC 1288 [*Mawani*].
two of the legal barriers that arise from the adversarial system’s preference for in-person testimony: the presumptive inadmissibility of statements made from outside the courtroom for consideration in a trial (the rule against hearsay) and the in-court assessment of reliability. The rule against hearsay has direct implications for those witnesses who die, lose competency, or have mobility issues that prevent them from attending court in person. For witnesses who are able to attend court in person, aging may introduce physical or cognitive changes that detract from the in-court assessment of reliability. These material problems illustrate how the adversarial tradition’s preference for in-person testimony can exclude seniors who experience limitations, or discount their version of events.

(a) The adversarial method of testing evidence

In the civil context, a fundamental aspect of the adversarial system is that the decision rendered by a judge will be based only on the evidence and arguments presented in court.33 In the criminal context, the ability to see and hear a witness as they provide testimony is even more important, and has been tied to the constitutional right to a fair trial and the ability to make a full answer and defence to a charge.34 This preference for in-person testimony is rooted the 16th and 17th Century trials by jury.35

The requirement that witnesses present testimony in person was thought to protect jurors from rendering decisions based on gossip. At that time, juries that were comprised of members of the community who were encouraged to draw on their personal knowledge of events in adjudicating a dispute.36 Nothing prevented the jury from relying on rumours, no matter how untrustworthy,

34 R v NS, 2012 SCC 72 at para 21.
35 Mirjan Damaska “Evidentiary Barriers to conviction and two models of criminal procedure: a comparative study” (1973) 121 U Penn LR 506 at 583.
so judges created the requirement that witnesses give their evidence in person to control the quality of evidence upon which juries based their verdict.\textsuperscript{37}

Apart from the concern for the quality of evidence relied on by jurors, another justification for the requirement that witnesses attend court in person was borne from a historical distrust of public officials and the need to safeguard against abuses of power at that time.\textsuperscript{38} Making witnesses attend court in person prevented parties, in particular the government, from falsifying evidence and trumping up charges against innocent citizens.\textsuperscript{39}

A further benefit of having witnesses attend court in person was that witnesses in trials presented evidence under oath. Centuries ago when these procedures were created, witnesses were highly religious, and the oath was seen to be a guarantee of truthfulness made under threat of divine vengeance.\textsuperscript{40} Having witnesses face the adverse party in court and deliver their testimony under oath was thought to enhance the truthfulness of their testimony by imposing on them the solemnity of their role and make them accountable to those involved in the dispute as well as their peers.\textsuperscript{41}

A further benefit of having witnesses deliver testimony in person is that it enables courtroom cross-examination, which was described by John Henry Wigmore as “the greatest legal engine ever invented for the discovery of truth.”\textsuperscript{42} Cross examination is necessary because of the partisan nature of the adversarial trial. During examination in chief, witnesses are guided through their evidence by an interested party so their testimony may omit facts that are significant to the opposing party’s position. There may have been qualifications or explanations which the witness

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{37} Ibid.
\item \textsuperscript{38} Damaska, supra note 35 at 583.
\item \textsuperscript{39} This historical basis underlying the preference for face to face confrontation are summarized in Crawford v Washington, 541 U.S. 36 (2004) as stemming from the 1603 trial and execution of Sir Walter Raleigh where the state’s charges of treason were based on a falsified affidavit.
\item \textsuperscript{40} George Fisher, “The Jury as Lie Detector” (1997) 107(3) Yale Law Journal 575 at 580.
\item \textsuperscript{41} Ibid.
\end{itemize}
did not have the opportunity to add to his or her in-chief testimony, and which subsequently can be uncovered only by being cross examined by the adverse party.\textsuperscript{43} That witnesses give their testimony in person is important because the ability of a judge or jury to see a witness’s demeanour as they are cross-examined is thought to be key to assessing their credibility.\textsuperscript{44}

Though testing evidence in this way has served the common law well for hundreds of years, in recent decades, scholars and social scientists alike have questioned the efficacy of the oath, demeanour, and cross-examination at ensuring the reliability of witnesses. Some suggest that the oath has lost its ‘divine power’ to ensure truthfulness in the more secular climate of current trials.\textsuperscript{45} The value of seeing a witness as they provide testimony is undermined by studies that show that individuals are poor at determining the truthfulness of a witness based on demeanour.\textsuperscript{46} Other social science studies weaken the truth-finding rationale of cross-examination by finding that it makes once accurate memories, inaccurate.\textsuperscript{47}

Despite these critiques, the traditional way of testing through courtroom cross-examination is so deeply rooted in the adversarial tradition it continues to be thought of as the best tool for fact finding in a trial. Accordingly, the common law has developed legal barriers to restrict the

\textsuperscript{44} \textit{NS, supra} note 34 at paras 25 – 26.
\textsuperscript{45} Fisher, \textit{supra} note 40 at 580.
\textsuperscript{47} Tim Valentine and Katie Maras, “The Effect of Cross-Examination on the Accuracy of Adult Eyewitness Testimony” (2011) 25 App Cog Psyc 554 and Rachel Zajac and Fiona Jack, “The Effect of Age and Reminders on Witnesses’ Responses to Cross-examination-style Questioning” (2014) 3:1 J App R Mem Cog 1 both found that cross-examination led to decreased accuracy in witnesses. The latter study by Zajac and Jack tested the effects of age on cross-examination style coercion in mock witnesses in three groups: children, adolescents and adults. The oldest witness in the ‘adult’ group was aged 60, so while they found the negative effect of cross examination on witness accuracy was reduced with age, these results may not be applicable to older adults due to the changes to memory and cognition that increase in frequency after age 65.
admission of witness statements made from outside of the courtroom. The paragraphs that follow describe these legal barriers, and how they can prevent the participation of individuals in the trial process who experience the conditions described in Part I that become more prevalent with advancing age.

(b) Absence, accessibility, and the rule against hearsay evidence

The archetype of the adversarial trial’s preference for in-person testimony is the rule against hearsay. Hearsay is any out of court statement that is being tendered for its truth in a later trial. Some of the rationales for excluding hearsay are that it is thought to lend itself to the perpetration of fraud; it is weaker evidence compared to first hand knowledge; it deprives the trier of fact the opportunity to observe the demeanour of the declarant; and, relying upon it would weaken the fairness of the trial process. In addition, hearsay evidence is not admissible because it is difficult for a trier of fact to know how much weight to attach to it, as Madam Justice Charron explained in R. v. Khelawon:

The general exclusionary rule is a recognition of the difficulty for a trier of fact to assess what weight, if any, is to be given to a statement made by a person who has not been seen or heard, and who has not been subject to the test of cross-examination. The fear is that untested hearsay evidence may be afforded more weight than it deserves.

The material problem that arises in the context of the aging witness is that when witnesses die or are unable to access the courtroom because of mobility issues, in-court testimony is lost. Their only accounts – those that were made before trial – constitute hearsay which is presumptively inadmissible at common law.

48 Lederman et al, supra note 36 at 240.
49 Khelawon, supra note 4 at para 35.
(c) Testing reliability through the testimonial factors

The adversarial trial’s emphasis on orality has implications not only in terms of excluding hearsay, but also in terms of the heavy reliance that is placed on the in-court assessment of the reliability of witnesses. The reliability of a witness's account depends on the judicial assessment of the “testimonial factors” - the witness’s ability to observe, recall, and recount an event in the courtroom. There are a number of ways the age-related risks discussed in Part I could impact the in-court assessment of the testimonial factors.

For instance, perception would be negatively assessed if a decrease in functioning in the sensory organs prevents a witness from making an accurate courtroom identification. While it is well known that memory is negatively effected by the lapse of time between an event and a trial, aging is associated with more rapid forgetting as well as an increased risk of a serious cognitive disruption. Communication assessments could be affected by advancing age if a courtroom has poor acoustics, which make it more difficult for witnesses with hearing loss to understand direct

50 McEwan, supra note 43 at 68.
52 McEwan, supra note 43 at 95 (memory lapses increase with time). Hermann Ebbinghaus first wrote about the effects of time on memory in his book Memory: A Contribution to Experimental Psychology (translated by H. A. Ruger & C. E. Bussenius) (New York: Dover, 1964). Known as the “forgetting curve” his theory posits that memories for new knowledge are halved within a matter of days or weeks unless there are conscious efforts to remember. Memories can be retained if there are efforts to remember, or where memories are particularly strong. The stronger the memory, the longer period of time that a person is able to recall it. The Supreme Court of Canada has echoed that time negative affects the ability to remember in R v Askov, [1990] 2 S.C.R. 1199.
53 With advancing age, witness identifications become increasingly unreliable, see: Amina Memon, Fiona Gabbert & Lorraine Hope, “The Aging Eyewitness” in Joanna R Adler, ed, Forensic Psychol Concepts Debates Pract (Cullompton, Devon ; Portland, Or: Willan, 2004). While most studies treat older adults as one group of adults over aged 60, Amina Memon and colleagues’ study they separated older adult into a younger group (aged 60 – 68, the “young-old” group) and an older group (aged 69 – 81, the “old-old” group) and found significant differences between these two groups of older witnesses. 75 percent of the old-old group made false identifications from a target absent lineup compared to just 13 percent of the young-old witnesses. This would suggest that witnesses who are over age 69 may be particularly prone to making false identifications.
and cross-examination, leading to confusion or uncertainty in responses. Where any of these testimonial factors are deemed to be poor by a trier-of-fact, the entirety of a witness's account may be discounted – even parts that are accurate.

Studies in psychology suggest a number of best practices for interviewers trying to obtain reliable information from elder witnesses. First, the most reliable version of an event is the one that is told the soonest after the event. Second, witnesses should be questioned in a manner that is consistent with their actual sensory abilities, and should not automatically be spoken to more slowly or loudly unless this is necessary as this is linked to a decrease in seniors’ memory performance. Third, psychologists suggest that an effective way to improve the accuracy of elder witness accounts is to remind witnesses of an event through a process known as “context reinstatement”. As its name suggests, context reinstatement calls on witnesses to imagine themselves back in the environment where the event occurred. Finally, interviewers should ask open ended questions. Witnesses who are asked leading questions are prone to incorporate false information into their memories in a phenomenon known as the “misinformation effect”. Ideally, questioning practices during a trial would adopt these techniques in order to collect the most accurate testimony from a witness as possible.

54 Studies in psychology have linked confidence to perceptions of reliability see: Kenneth Diffenbacher and Elizabeth Loftus, “Do jurors share a common understanding concerning eyewitness behaviour?” (1982) 6 Law and Human Behaviour 15.  
55Marche et al, supra note 20 at 276.  
58Loftus, supra note 22. Firstline Trust Co v Mills, 2000 BCSC 226 at para 12 [Mills] provides one example of how leading questions discredited a witness’s testimony in practice. In that case, Ms. Mills’s lawyer had tried to overcome some of her memory issues by asking leading questions in examination in chief. According to Madam Justice Baker, this strategy failed because it made it difficult to assess what Ms. Mills actually remembered and what she reconstructed and she had a tendency to agree with her lawyer’s suggestions.
In practice, context reinstatement regularly happens when witnesses are being prepared for court. Prior to a trial, when lawyers review earlier statements, documents, and photos with a witness before they take the stand, witnesses are reminded of the time and the environment in which an event took place. During a trial, a witness can refresh their memory from a document, electronic record, or transcript from an earlier proceeding. Looking at these documents helps witnesses imagine themselves back in the time and place where the event occurred, and improve what they remember as they give their testimony.

With the exception of context reinstatement, the best practices recommended in the social science literature stand in stark contrast to what is seen to be an essential component of the adversarial system: the right to cross-examine a witness. During cross-examination, counsel use leading questions in order to pull information from an opposing party. Cross-examination also uses other techniques that are shown to reduce accuracy, such as asking the same question repeatedly in a different way, highlighting inconsistencies in a witness’s story, and exploiting memory gaps to discredit a witness. Though studies in psychology suggest that these questioning strategies reduce the chance of getting the most accurate testimony from a witness, it is unlikely that the constitutional right to be able to cross-examine a witness “without significant and unwarranted constraint” will be unseated.

Just as the right to cross-examine a witness is an area where the adversarial emphasis of the common law legal tradition conflicts with the recommended practices in the social sciences, so are the rules relating to the presentation of evidence in a courtroom. Research on best practices

59 Paciocco & Stuesser, supra note 51 at 422 – 427 describe the limits on a witness’s ability to refresh their memory.
60 R v Lyttle, [2004] 1 SCR 193 at para 2 [Lyttle].
61 Paciocco & Stuesser, supra note 51 at 431.
62 Valentine and Maras, supra note 47.
63 Lyttle, supra note 60 at para 2.
for interviewing witnesses suggests that these courtroom conditions are not well suited for soliciting the most accurate testimony from witnesses of any age.\footnote{Alison Cunningham and Pamela Hurley, \textit{A Full and Candid Account} (London, ON: Centre for Children and Families in the Justice System, 2007), at Vol 1, p 12 the authors provide a table that contrasts ideal interviewing techniques with the courtroom experience. While their analysis proceeds on the basis of child witnesses, the issues apply to witnesses of all ages, and mirror the concerns expressed by Tammy Marche and others or their research on best practices for interviewing senior witnesses in Marche \textit{et al}, supra note 20 at 276.} Ideally, witnesses would be interviewed in a comfortable setting by someone who makes them feel at ease.\footnote{Ibid.} In contrast, the courtroom is an unfamiliar and imposing place. Witnesses are alone, elevated above other individuals. While these conditions are meant to impress upon witnesses the solemnity of the occasion on the assumption that it will make them more truthful, they actually make witnesses feel uncomfortable and intimidated – which has been shown reduce accuracy.\footnote{Ibid at 3. See also McEwan, \textit{supra} note 43 at 14.}

**Part III: Accommodating Senior Witnesses**

Contrasting the recommendations from the social sciences with the ways facts are established in a courtroom demonstrates how the current methods of testing evidence in a trial may actually make testimony less accurate; and at the same time, limit the ability of individuals who require accommodation from participating in the trial process. When these negative consequences of the adversarial process are brought to light in the context of conditions that become more prevalent with advancing age, the procedural accommodations that are discussed in this part can be seen as the compromise that Canadian legislatures and courts have negotiated with the common law’s preference for in-person testimony.

The paragraphs that follow discuss how trials can be expedited, pre-trial testimony can be preserved, testimony can be provided from outside the courtroom, other evidence can assist with the assessment of in-court testimony, and the principled approach to hearsay can be used to meet
the needs of witnesses who require accommodation. Though these rules may be less than perfect from a social science standpoint, they provide for a number of ways that evidence can be presented in both criminal and civil matters that respect the spirit of the procedural constraints of the adversarial tradition as well as an individual’s right to participate in the trial process.

(a) Expedited trial scheduling

Where there is a significant risk that a participant may be unavailable to testify in person, there are a number of ways to speed up trial scheduling. For criminal trials, section 11(b) of the Charter of Rights and Freedoms enshrines a constitutional right to “be tried within a reasonable time” for all people accused of a crime. The Supreme Court of Canada case R. v. Jordan addresses trial delays by setting presumptive ceilings 18 months in provincial court and 30 months in superior court to have a matter heard, beyond which delay is trial delay is presumed to be unreasonable, unless the Crown proves exceptional circumstances were involved.

In addition to R v Jordan’s presumptive ceilings, Crown counsel seeking to expedite a trial could apply to proceed by direct indictment pursuant to section 577 of the Criminal Code. In limited circumstances, a direct indictment expedites the overall trial process by eliminating the need to conduct a preliminary hearing. In order to obtain permission from the Attorney General to proceed by direct indictment, Crown prosecutors must show that it is in the public interest to do so. Public interest factors that could be relevant to senior witnesses include: (1) a significant

67 Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms, Part 1 of the Constitution Act, 1982, being Schedule B to the Canada Act 1982 (UK), 1982, c 11, s. 11(b) [Charter].
69 Criminal Code, s 577.
70 One major limitation is that direct indictments are not available for summary conviction offences, which represent a large number of criminal prosecutions.
danger of harm to witnesses and it is reasonable to believe that they would be adversely affected if they were required to participate in multiple judicial proceedings; (2) a preliminary inquiry would cause undue delay; or (3) an expedited trial is necessary because of serious health problems of an accused or an essential witness.72

However, dispensing with a preliminary hearing may not always be a good idea for the Crown because the preliminary hearing can be a way to preserve testimony that may not be available at a later trial. Section 715(1) of the Criminal Code provides that testimony from a preliminary inquiry can be used at a later trial if the witness is unavailable.73 In this way, Crown counsel could use the preliminary inquiry, together with section 715(1) of the Criminal Code, as a way of ensuring that a witness’s testimony is available for a trial that occurs months or years in the future.

Apart from direct indictments and testimony from a preliminary hearing, Crown counsel can guard against attrition through informal requests in pre-trial appearances to expedite a trial date on the grounds that the delays would prejudice their case. Any of these applications to abridge the trial wait times would trigger constitutional arguments that speeding up the trial process would interfere with an accused’s right to the counsel of their choice and scheduling would need to be subject to that counsel’s availability.74

In civil trials, there are no Charter guarantees for participants but there are a number of procedural options for parties looking to expedite trial dates. If there is a problem with the trial date set by the Registrar, a party can apply to the court for a different one.75 Some provinces

72 Ibid.
73 Criminal Code, s 715(1).
75 British Columbia Supreme Court Rules, BC Reg 221/90, R 12-1(7), (9) [BC Supreme Court Rules]; Alberta Rules of Court, AR 124/2010, R 8.4, 8.5; Saskatchewan Queen’s Bench Rules R 9-2(2); Quebec Code of Civil Procedure,
provide for expedited trials if a claim involves a pecuniary loss, real property, or a builder’s lien with a value less than $100,000. Counsel with elder clients involved in a civil dispute could avail themselves of these provisions to avoid trial delays.

(b) Preserving pre-trial testimony for later use

To address the risk of the loss of testimony due to death or serious cognitive disruptions, there are a number of ways pre-trial evidence can be preserved for both criminal and civil matters. For civil matters, deposition or commissioned evidence, discovery evidence; transcripts from other proceedings and other pre-trial examinations can be used to replace evidence in chief at a later trial. While these types of examinations do not happen immediately, they do reduce the delay in providing testimony at a trial, which may improve the accuracy of a witness’s account. These mechanisms also observe aspects of procedural fairness of the adversarial system as witnesses provide pre-trial evidence in these ways do so under oath and opposing counsel has the opportunity for cross-examination.
For criminal matters, where it is anticipated that a witness may be unavailable in the future, pre-trial testimony can also be preserved by having the evidence of a witness taken by a commissioner prior to trial pursuant to sections 709 – 711 of the Criminal Code. In order to use these provisions, the party seeking to have evidence taken by commissioner must show that the witness would be unlikely to give live evidence at trial because of physical disability arising out of illness or “any other good and sufficient cause.” These provisions have been used successfully to admit the commissioned evidence of seniors who, because of their age and poor health, were unavailable for a later trial.

The case R. v. Khelawon presents a cogent example of how the failure to use these sections to preserve the evidence of the senior complainants proved fatal for the prosecution of assaults that allegedly took place against residents of a nursing home. In Khelawon, criminal charges were laid against the manager of a retirement home for allegedly abusing and threatening five of the residents. By the time the matter reached trial two and a half years later, four of the complainants had died and the one remaining complainant was no longer competent to testify. While their earlier police interviews had been taped, these were not sufficiently reliable to qualify as an exception from the rule against hearsay. In acquitting the accused of all charges, the Supreme Court of Canada mentions that the evidence of the victims could have been preserved for later use at trial had these Criminal Code provisions for taking evidence by commissioner been used.

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81 Criminal Code, ss 709 – 711.
82 Ibid.
83 R v Stevenson, 2012 BCSC 800 [Stevenson], Burrows, supra note 14 at paras 22, 23.
84 Khelawon, supra note 4, but see also R v Campoli, 2011 ONSC 1226 [Campoli] where the failure to arrange for commissioned evidence was not seen as failing to meet the necessity requirement of the principled approach to hearsay given that the 97-year-old witness died only a couple of weeks after the information had been laid on the accused.
85 Khelawon, supra note 4 at para 7.
In contrast, *R. v. Burrows* shows how sections 709 – 711 of the *Criminal Code* were successfully used to admit the statements of complainants in a case where the accused had broken into a nursing home and sexually assaulted a number of its residents, who ranged between 71 and 95 years of age. The responding officers taped interviews with all of the complainants on the day of the event. By the time the preliminary inquiry was held a year later, one of the complainants had died. The other witnesses attended at the court and were ready to provide testimony, but other arguments took up all of the time and only one of them was able to testify. For the others, the preliminary inquiry had to be rescheduled for a later date. In order to preserve the evidence of the remaining complainants, the detectives took sworn videotaped statements that day. This proved to be a prudent decision, because two more complainants died and two others became incompetent to testify before the preliminary inquiry resumed six months later. By the time of the trial, only one of the original seven complainants were available and competent to testify in person. For the others, Justice Wilson admitted the commissioned evidence, audiotaped interviews from the day of the assault, or videotaped statements that were taken earlier. Though it was decided before *Khelawon*, *Burrows* is nonetheless consistent with *Khelawon*’s later holding because, unlike the videotaped police interviews in *Khelawon*, there was no "pre interview" or

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86 *Burrows, supra* note 14.
87 *Ibid* at para 40.
88 *Ibid* at paras 8 –14.
90 *Ibid* at paras 265 – 269. Specifically, the complainants were G.M. (who died before the trial, audiotaped interview was her testimony at trial), E.T. (not competent to provide evidence at trial, videotaped interview from a year after the event admitted for her testimony), B. (lost competency by the time of trial, but had provided commissioned evidence which was used as her testimony), A.S. (died before the trial, audiotaped interview was her testimony for the trial), F.R. (not competent by the time of the trial, audiotaped interview was her evidence for the trial), F. (only witness to give live testimony at trial), and L.V. (died before the trial, audiotaped interview from day of the assault was her evidence).
discussion before the police took the statements from complainants which allowed the statements to meet the reliability branch of the principled approach to hearsay.91

(c) Minimizing in-court appearances

For seniors who experience mobility issues, going to court may require arranging for rides for themselves and medical equipment or assistance navigating the courtroom. In R. v. Burrows, Justice Wilson described these logistical issues as “significant hurdles” that had to be overcome to get the elder complainants to appear at a preliminary hearing.92 To ease this logistical burden, there are a number of provisions that can be used in both the criminal and civil contexts to minimize the in-person pre-trial appearances.

In criminal cases, a “Designation of Counsel” form can authorize counsel to attend some procedural appearances without an accused having to be present.93 Section 650.01 of the Criminal Code provides that Counsel for the accused can attend most procedural applications in court except when oral evidence of a witness is taken, when jurors are being selected, or for an application for a writ of habeas corpus.94 With the exception of these circumstances, or unless the court orders otherwise, an appearance by the designated counsel is equivalent to the accused being present.95

91 Ibid at para 240. In contrast, in Khelawon, supra note 4, a factor that detracted from where there was an extensive half hour interview conducted before the video taped interview commenced. Further, Burrows, supra note 14 at paras 233 – 250 outlines factors that enhanced the reliability for individual statements, including that varying degrees of an oath were taken and there was evidence from other sources as to the demeanour of the complainants. 92 Burrows, ibid at para 11 mentions these issues where each complainant had to take a separate taxi to accommodate the walkers and equipment. The complainants became agitated, and upset that they were kept waiting for the day, and that they did not testify as planned. See also Phillips v Canadian Pacific Railway Co, [1938] OJ No 326 (HC) rvd [1939] OJ No 49 (SC), where a trial was moved from Toronto to Ottawa to accommodate the 80-year-old plaintiff who had a broken foot.
93 Criminal Code s 650.01. For example, Form 18, Criminal Proceedings Rules for the Superior Court of Justice (Ontario) (SI/2012-7). Those accused of crimes are required to attend a pre-trial conference pursuant to Criminal Rules of the Supreme Court of British Columbia, SI/97-140, R 5.
94 Ibid.
95 Ibid. More discussion on the use of the designation of counsel contained in this section is in Kenneth Grolish, “Accused Need Not Be in Court for Routine Adjournments” (2003) 23:4 The Lawyer’s Weekly (QL).
In addition, section 715.2 of the *Criminal Code* provides that witnesses may be able to adopt their videotaped testimony from a police interview or a prior hearing if they have difficulty testifying in a trial by reason of a mental or physical disability. 96 This provision could potentially help to preserve the evidence of witnesses who experience a decline in cognitive or physical function, that renders them unable to communicate evidence in the courtroom. Witnesses must be present at the later trial in order to avail themselves of this section, so its benefit is limited to reducing the number of times a witness would have to attend court.97

Another rule that reduces the number of times a witness would have to attend court is s. 540(7) of the *Criminal Code* which provides that at a preliminary hearing, a justice can receive “any information that would otherwise not be admissible but that the justice considers credible or trustworthy…including a statement that is made by a witness in writing or otherwise recorded.”98 This provision may allow for seniors who find it difficult to present viva voce evidence to provide an affidavit or submit a recording or a prior interview instead of attending a preliminary hearing.99 There is also the possibility for prosecution to proceed by direct indictment, without a preliminary hearing. Though, as mentioned in the previous section, the preliminary hearing may be a useful way to preserve testimony.100

For witnesses who are unable to make it to the courtroom at all because of mobility issues, section 486.2 of the *Criminal Code* allows a witness to testify from outside the courtroom by closed-circuit television (CCTV).101 In order to use CCTV, counsel need to establish that the

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96 *Criminal Code*, s 715.2.
97 Ibid.
98 *Criminal Code*, s 540(7).
99 Hurley, supra note 80 at 19.
100 *Criminal Code*, s 577.
101 *Criminal Code*, s 486.2. Prior to the 2006 amendments, s 709 of the *Criminal Code* was also used as a means of allowing for videoconferencing of witnesses located outside the courtroom in *R v Dix*, 1998 ABQB 370.
accommodation is necessary to obtain a full and candid account from their witness.\textsuperscript{102} In deciding whether to grant the application, the Court considers: the nature of the offence; the relationship of the witness to the accused; the age of the witness; and any other circumstances the court might deem relevant.\textsuperscript{103}

While some applications are consented to by counsel or made based on oral submissions alone, others have been supported by evidence from police officers, victim services providers, personal support aids, experts, existing documents and letters from physicians.\textsuperscript{104} In the case of senior witnesses, evidence of cognitive decline or increased likelihood of death might be advanced in support of an application for accommodation where these conditions make it difficult for a witness to be present in the courtroom. Though prosecutors could expect defence counsel to oppose an application for testimonial aids based on the argument that their use violates the accused’s right to a fair trial and the right to be presumed innocent contained in sections 7 and 11(d) of the \textit{Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedoms},\textsuperscript{105} the Supreme Court of Canada has upheld the constitutionality of the adoption of videotaped statements in language that could extend to the other testimonial supports.\textsuperscript{106} Specifically, testimonial accommodations may be used where they do not undermine


\textsuperscript{103} Criminal Code, s 486.2(3). In \textit{R v AFJ}, [2014] OJ No 6148 (OntCJ) at para 12, Beaman J suggests that advanced age might work against witnesses seeking testimonial accommodations: “M.J. is 55 years old. It is fair to say that she is a mature woman, with some life experience behind her. Unlike the young female complainants in \textit{R v Salehi}, presumably she would have had “a significant degree of life experience which gives one the wisdom to separate potential fears from the reality.”

\textsuperscript{104} Hurley, \textit{supra} note 80 at 3.


\textsuperscript{106} \textit{R v Levologiannis, supra} note 5 at paras 19 – 21. These rationales was cited with approval in upholding the constitutionality of the broader 2006 revisions to the testimonial accommodation provisions in the \textit{Criminal Code} in \textit{R v. JZS}, 2008 BCCA 401 app dis’d 2010 SCC 1.
the presumption of innocence, there is an opportunity to cross-examine a witness, and where the trial judge maintains a residual discretion to ensure the accused received a fair trial.\textsuperscript{107}

A further accommodation available for witnesses who have mobility issues in criminal cases is found in section 714.3 of the \textit{Criminal Code}, which allows for witnesses to give evidence and be cross-examined by telephone or other technology.\textsuperscript{108} Courts considering an application under this section will look at (a) the location and personal circumstances of the witness; (b) the costs that would be incurred if the witness had to be physically present; (c) the nature of the witness' anticipated evidence; and (d) any potential prejudice to either of the parties caused by the fact that the witness would not be seen in person.\textsuperscript{109} Seniors who have mobility issues or for whom it would be cost prohibitive to attend a trial in person could make applications to have their evidence admitted pursuant to this section.\textsuperscript{110}

In civil cases, there are a number of ways that counsel could minimize the number of in-court appearances required of their clients. While each province has different rules, in British Columbia, counsel can apply for a Case Planning Conference where a judge could make orders that examinations for discovery of a witness be conducted in a certain manner or at a certain place,

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\textsuperscript{107} \textit{Ibid.} Some may argue based on \textit{R v NS, supra} note 34 that a limit to accommodations is that those that interfere with an accused’s view of a witness’s demeanour as they respond to cross-examination violate an accused’s right to make full answer and defence. However, this argument could be countered with: (1) the testimonial accommodations do in the \textit{Criminal Code} do not interfere with the accused’s ability to see the witness as they provide testimony (as set out in \textit{Levogiannis, ibid.} screens only block the witness’s view of the accused, not that of the accused, their lawyer or the judge of the witness); and (2) the Supreme Court in \textit{R v NS} did not have any social science or legal scholarship on the fallibility of demeanour evidence on the record to consider. Recent decisions from the Ontario Court of Appeal \textit{Hemsworth, supra} note 46 and \textit{Rhayel, supra} note 46 2016 ONCA have recognized demeanour is a poor indicator of reliability, which could change the position that the Supreme Court could take on the connection between being able to see a witness during cross examination and an accused’s right to a fair trial in the future.

\textsuperscript{108} \textit{R v NS, supra} note 34 at para 104; \textit{Criminal Code, s 714.3}.

\textsuperscript{109} \textit{Ibid.}

\textsuperscript{110} See for example, \textit{R v Jeanes}, 2014 BCSC 994 [Jeanes].
\end{flushright}
which allows for the possibility that elders are examined in their homes.\textsuperscript{111} Mandatory pre-trial or trial appearances can be made by telephone or videoconference.\textsuperscript{112} Some provinces also provide for the option to pursue a claim by summary trial, which can rely almost exclusively on documentary evidence from witnesses, such as affidavits.\textsuperscript{113}

Finally, where a group of seniors have common claims against a defendant (for instance, claims of abuse against an institutional defendant) their claims could be brought by way of class action procedure.\textsuperscript{114} The class procedure minimizes in court appearances because only one member of the group, the representative plaintiff, needs to attend a trial in person. The other members of the group, known as “the class”, are kept up to date on the proceedings by class counsel. Courts have held that a class proceeding may be a preferable procedure in circumstances where “[m]any of the class members are elderly and unlikely to survive protracted litigation and inevitable appeals on an individual basis”.\textsuperscript{115}

\textsuperscript{111} BC Supreme Court Rules, R5-1(1)(f)(i), (o), (q)(r). Similar provisions include Saskatchewan Queen’s Bench Rules R 4-5; Manitoba Queen’s Bench Rules R 48.01(3), R 50.01; Ontario Rules of Civil Procedure, R 20.05(2); Quebec Code of Civ Pro R 153, R 158; NS Civ Pro Rules, R 26.04; NB Rules of Court, R 50.01; NL Rules of Court R 11.02(3); PEI Rules of Court, R 50.

\textsuperscript{112} BC Supreme Court Rules, R 12-2(1), (5), (6). Other provinces have made similar use of technology to allow for witnesses to attend a trial or pre-trial examinations remotely, see Alberta Rules of Court, R 6.10; Saskatchewan Queen’s Bench Rules, R 9-20, Manitoba Queen’s Bench Rules, R 34.19 (examinations), R 20A(20) (case conferences); Quebec Code Civ Pro, R 295, 296; Ontario Rules of Civil Procedure, R 20.05(2); NS Civ Pro Rules, R 51.08. In Saskatchewan, parties can apply for pre-trial appearances to be conducted by counsel alone (Saskatchewan Queen’s Bench Rules, R 4-15); Prince Edward Island Rules of Court, R 1.07, R 50.08 [PEI Rules of Court].

\textsuperscript{113} BC Supreme Court Rules, R 9-7; Alberta Rules of Court, R 7.5; Saskatchewan Queen’s Bench Rules, R 6-18 (summary trial) and 7-2 (summary judgment); Manitoba Queen’s Bench Rules, R 20.01; Ontario Rules of Civil Procedure, R 20.01; NS Civ Pro Rules, R 13; NB Rules of Court, R 22 (summary judgment).

\textsuperscript{114} A statement of claim was recently filed in the Ontario Superior Court against the Revera chain of nursing homes for neglect, but has yet to be certified (Moira Welsh, “Family Seeks Class Action Suit Against Ontario Nursing Home After Father’s Death” \textit{Toronto Star} (October 20, 2016) <https://www.thestar.com/news/queenspark/2016/10/20/family-seeks-class-action-suit-against-ontario-nursing-home-after-fathers-death.html>).

\textsuperscript{115} Anderson \textit{v} Canada (Attorney General), 2010 NLTD(G) 106, at para 121, affd 2011 NLCA 82. The class action procedure has been used a number of other times to address institutional abuse (e.g. Rumley \textit{v} British Columbia, [2001] 3 SCR 184 (which dealt with abuse in a school); Murray \textit{v} Capital District Health Authority, 2016 NSSC 141 (strip searches in a mental hospital); Cavanaugh \textit{v} Grenville Christian College, 2014 ONSC 290 (abuse in a school)). In the United States there have been a number of class actions certified against nursing homes for
(d) Assessing testimony from individuals with cognitive issues

For those individuals with cognitive issues who are competent to testify in person, it may be necessary to adduce evidence to help the finder of fact move beyond a medical diagnosis to determine the effect of a medical condition on that witness’s testimonial abilities. For instance, as discussed in Part I(d), dementia manifests itself in a number of ways – ranging from strictly physical manifestations (which would not have any effect on the ability to recall events) to very severe memory loss in those with Alzheimer’s Disease. Because Alzheimer’s Disease is the most commonly experienced form of dementia, a judge or jury may assume dementia results in severe memory loss so other evidence may be needed to displace this belief.

In such a case, counsel could advance third party evidence to assist with the determination of the extent of the effect of a cognitive condition on an individual’s ability to observe, remember, and recall an event. Case law provides examples of different sources that have assisted with the assessment of testimony from senior witnesses with cognitive issues including: (1) treating doctors;116 (2) expert evidence from geriatric nurses,117 nurse psychologists,118 or geriatric psychiatrists,119 or (3) family members.120 While this third party information can only be used for the limited purpose of delineating the extent of a medical condition and not the reliability of a neglecting their residents (e.g. Passucci v Absolut Ctr. for Nursing & Rehabilitation at Allegany, LLC, 2014 NY Misc LEXIS 5834; 2014 NY Slip Op 33459(U); Salas v Grancare, 22 P.3d 568; Flemming v Barnwell Nursing Home and Health Facilities, 56 AD3d 162, 865 NYS 2d 706 [3d Dept 2008], affd 15 NY3d 375, 938 NE 2d 937, 912 NYS 2d 504 [2010]). Another advantage of the use of the class proceedings for seniors is the ability to make a ruling on probabilistic proof, which reduces the evidential burden on individual complainants, see Helene Wheeler, “United We Stand: Using Class Actions to Redress Harm in Nursing Homes” (2008) 1 Can J Elder L 131.

116 Ast v Mikolas, 2010 BCSC 127; Khelawon, supra note 4; Howard, supra note 77; Asling, supra note 32.
117 Burrows, supra note 14.
118 Ibid.
119 Khelawon, supra note 4.
120 Ibid; Asling, supra note 32.
witness’s testimony, it has allowed judges to look past diagnoses and assess witnesses on their actual abilities.¹²¹

In some cases, a stroke or dementia can affect an individual’s ability to communicate by causing aphasia. In these circumstances, the Canada Evidence Act provides if a witness has difficulty communicating by reason of physical disability, the court may order that the witness be permitted to give evidence “by any means that enables the evidence to be intelligible”.¹²² To date, this provision has been used to enable the use of interpreters to provide evidence for individuals who are deaf,¹²³ but could theoretically be extended to different courtroom accommodations for seniors who may need to access alternative means of communication when a stroke or dementia impairs verbal language abilities.

(e) The principled approach to hearsay

For individuals who are unable to provide testimony in person because of a loss of competence or death, it may be necessary to introduce their earlier statements that were made out of court. As discussed in Part II(b), these statements, known as hearsay, are presumptively inadmissible at common law because they have not been made under oath, tested by cross-examination, and the trial judge has not had the opportunity to see and hear a witness as they provide evidence in order to assess their demeanor.¹²⁴ Despite its presumptive inadmissibility, hearsay statements can be admitted at a trial for their truth if they are sufficiently necessary and reliable.¹²⁵ R. v. Khelawon is the leading case that sets out this approach to the admissibility of

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¹²¹ Other cases where doctors provided evidence relating to witnesses testifying in court include Howard, supra note 25 and Mills, supra note 58.
¹²² Canada Evidence Act, RSC 1985, c C-5, s 6(1).
¹²³ For example, R v Titchener, 2013 BCCA 64.
¹²⁴ Khelawon, supra note 4.
¹²⁵ Ibid.
hearsay statements in its “principled approach” to hearsay.\textsuperscript{126} Though the outcome of \textit{Khelawon} was unfavourable to the complainant with dementia, its principled approach to hearsay has been used to successfully admit out of court statements made by seniors who have died or lost competence prior to a trial.\textsuperscript{127}

For example, in \textit{R. v. Asling}, neighbours called the police after Mary Asling had run to their house, telling them that she needed to escape from the accused, her maternal grandson.\textsuperscript{128} Mary told her neighbours that the accused had been responsible for injuries on her arms and head. At that time, the accused lived with Mary because she had already been diagnosed with dementia and was unable to live independently. By the time of the trial two years later, Mary’s cognitive abilities deteriorated and she was unable to testify in court because of a lack of competence.

In these circumstances, Justice MacLean of the Ontario Court of Justice held a \textit{voir dire} to determine the admissibility of her prior statements to her neighbors, her doctor, and the police who responded to the 911 call. For each of Mary’s hearsay statements, Justice MacLean looked at (1) the timing of the statement in relation to the event reported; (2) the nature of the event reported; (3) the context and tone of the statement; (4) the absence or presence of a motive to lie on the part of the third party relating what Mary had told them;\textsuperscript{129} (5) the presence of leading questions; (6)

\begin{itemize}
    \item \textsuperscript{126} \textit{Ibid.}
    \item \textsuperscript{127} Cases where a senior citizen’s videotaped statements, affidavits, or signed statements were admitted through the application of the principled approach to hearsay include: \textit{R v Nadeau}, 2014 QCCS 838 \textit{[Nadeau]; Campoli, supra note 84; Chandra v Canadian Broadcasting Corp.}, 2015 ONSC 4063 \textit{[Chandra]; MacNeil v MacNeil}, 2014 NSSC 171 \textit{[MacNeil]; and R v Taylor}, 2012 ONCA 809 \textit{[Taylor]. In R v MacHannah}, 2012 QCCQ 1496 \textit{[MacHannah]}, the statements by the deceased were not sufficiently reliable. Other cases that involved hearsay cases that involved statements to other people include \textit{Gutierrez Estate v Gutierrez}, 2015 BCSC 185 \textit{[Gutierrez] (not admissible), Verwood v Goss}, 2014 BCSC 2122 \textit{[Verwood] (not admissible), Maddess v Racz}, 2008 BCSC 1550 \textit{[Racz] (admitted), Asling, supra note 32 (statements made to neighbours admitted, statements made to doctor and detective were not).}
    \item \textsuperscript{128} \textit{Asling, supra} note 32.
    \item \textsuperscript{129} \textit{R. v. Blackman}, 2008 SCC 37 at paras 43 – 46 holds that motive is a relevant consideration in assessing whether the circumstances in which a hearsay statement came about are sufficient to justify its admission, but that motive is one factor to consider in determining admissibility.
\end{itemize}
the confirmation of the event reported by physical evidence; and (7) evidence of Mary’s cognitive abilities at the time of making the statement. This application of the principled approach to hearsay is the type of contextual analysis that can facilitate hearsay from seniors who have cognitive issues because it considers the individual nature and variability of the condition.

(f) Are the accommodations being used?

The preceding sections explore how there is some procedural flexibility within the current rules that could help seniors who require accommodation. Unfortunately, a review of the cases citing these provisions suggests that, with the exception of the principled approach to hearsay, these legal tools are rarely being used to facilitate the participation of senior citizens in the trial process. Admittedly, a case law review provides a limited picture of the overall phenomenon. A case law review will only consider written decisions, which means routine dispositions and oral decisions are not included. This case law review is further limited to judgments where the age of a person is mentioned, which narrows the population of trials that are considered even further.

Ibid at para 127. Scrutinizing each of Mary’s statements to other people at the time of the event according to the test above, Justice MacLean found that Mary’s statements to her neighbours about how she was injured were admissible, but her later statements to doctors and police were not admissible for their truth because they were not sufficiently reliable.

In a case law review that noted up Khelawon, supra note 4 (current to February 23, 2017) where the age of a declarant was mentioned, the principled approach to hearsay was used regularly to admit statements from seniors, including: Philips v Keefe, 2010 BCSC 2005 at para 29; Bunn v Bunn Estate, 2016 BCSC 2146 at para 76; Williams Estate v. Vogel of Canada Ltd., 2016 ONSC 342 at para 20; David v Beals Estate, 2015 NSSC 288; Modonese v. Delac Estate, 2011 BCSC 83; Anderson v Anderson, 2010 BCSC 911 (some statements admitted, others not admissible); Chandra, supra note 129; MacNeil, supra note 129; Nadeau, supra note 129, Campoli, supra note 84; Mac v Mak, 2016 BCSC 1140; Racz, supra note 129, Asling, supra note 32 (statements made to neighbours admitted, statements made to doctor and detective were not); Morgan v Pengelly Estate, 2011 BCSC 1114; Travica v Malloux, [2008] OJ No. 3880 (SC). However in Cowper-Smith v Morgan, 2015 BCSC 1170; Taylor, supra note 114 and MacHannah, supra note 129 statements were sufficiently reliable to be admitted. Other cases that involved hearsay statements to third parties included Gutierrez, supra note 129 (not admissible), Verwood, supra note 129 (not admissible). Given that the search was conducted in English, decisions from Quebec and New Brunswick are under-represented.

In a random sample of 50 real property disputes, 17 mentioned the age of the witness which places the overall proportion of cases where age is mentioned at around 30%. This number would likely be larger in the criminal context because some crimes have an age-based element (for example, sexual interference, invitation to sexual touching, and sexual exploitation involve touching for a sexual purpose in relation to a person under the age of 16 in Criminal Code ss 151 - 153) further the age of a victim is an aggravating factor for the purposes of sentencing (Criminal Code s 718.2).
So while a definite conclusion on the use of these laws is difficult to draw, a case law review does demonstrate a striking difference in the number of cases that cite the accommodations as being used for seniors compared to other age groups: in over 1,500 cases that applied the civil and criminal accommodations described in this part, 53 were used in favor of seniors.133

In the civil context, over 700 reported decisions considered the use of depositions, affidavits, discovery evidence, or out of court examinations to admit testimony from unavailable witnesses – but only 39 of these cases involved seniors.134 There was one example where trial dates were

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133There is variability in the ways QuickLaw reports citations of provisions from jurisdiction to jurisdiction. In British Columbia, the BC Rules of Court can be noted up by Rule, however in other jurisdictions a Boolean search was conducted to look for citing cases. For example, “Rules of Court”/s “R. 31.11” with a jurisdictional limit of Ontario, which was a lot less precise, and may have the effect of understating case law from other jurisdictions.

134 The relevant provincial rules of court were noted up current to September 25, 2016, as well, a search of the term “de bene esse” was conducted in QuickLaw. De bene esse examinations, like the commissioned evidence provisions in the current rules, are “… an examination out of court and before trial, of witnesses who are old, dangerously ill, or about to leave the country, on the terms that, if the witnesses continue ill or absent, their evidence be read at the trial, but if they recover or return, the evidence may be taken in the usual manner” per Bouck J in A-Dec v Dentech Products, [1988] BCJ No 1875 (SC) citing Jowitt's Dictionary of English Law, 2nd Ed. page 551). This case law review includes cases where applications were unsuccessful, as well as successful applications – focusing only on the age of the witness who was bringing the application and not on its success to show who is using the provisions. Cases where applications to admit deposition or commissioned evidence from seniors include: Boshard v Combined Painting (W.P. Boshard) Ltd., [1974] BCJ No 326 (SC); Pierre v Lil’Wat Nation, [1999] 10 WWR 174 (though the party died before his videotaped statement could be taken); Martin v Gilson, [1956] BCJ No 156 (SC); De Araujo v Neto, 2001 BCSC 935; and Williston Lake Navigation v Pacific Terex Ltd., [1985] BCJ No 855 (SC) (no age mentioned, party who was examined described as “senior”); Eastern Trust v Hume, [1964] BCJ No 12 (SC); and Mawani, supra note 32. In Alberta, there were no cases that cited Alberta Rules of Court R 6.21 (depositions prior to a trial to preserve the evidence of a witness), R 6.10 (electronic hearing); or R 8.14 (pre-trial examinations to preserve evidence) that involved a person aged over 60. Of the 50 cases mentioning “de bene esse” in Alberta, only five involved individuals aged over 60 (Bakker v Van Santen, 2003 ABQB 706; Lindahl Estate v Olsen, [2004] AJ No 967; Schwartz Estate v Kwinter, 2008 ABQB 288; JMJ v GP, 1998 ABQB 933; Alberta (Public Trustee) v TF, 1998 ABQB 864). R 8.14 was used two times to admit pre-trial examinations when a witness had died, though the age and cause of death of those absent witnesses was not mentioned: McKinnon v MacPherson, [1909] NSJ No 7 (SC). In Ontario, Ontario Rules of Civil Procedure, R 36.01 or de bene esse examinations were used for senior witnesses in Ward v Ward Estate, [1976] OJ No 857 (HC); Geisel v Geisel, [1985] OJ No 576 (HC); Deevy v Deevy, [1912] OJ No 341 (HC); JM v Clouthier, 2013 ONSC 221, Martin v Ross [1875] OJ No 275 (Practice Ct.) (mentions de bene esse examinations could be used if plaintiff could not travel to new venue for trial); Vasil v Lukatch, [1954] OJ No 50 (HC); Keenan v Cambellford (Township), [1940] OJ No 138 (HC) (for “a woman between sixty-nine and seventy-six years of age, her age not being definitely established”); Frank v Harwich (Township), [1889] OJ No 109 (HC); Hunt v Prentiss, [1854] OJ No 209 (HC) (refers to “aged” witness); White v Weston, [1986] OJ No 2611 (HC), Wright v Whiteside (1983), 40 OR
expedited or a case planning conference was used to minimize pre-trial appearances for a senior citizen. In five cases, a summary trial or fast track litigation process was used to expedite the trial process for a senior citizen. While a case law review provides a limited picture of the total number of applications made in court, it does suggest that civil provisions are infrequently used to facilitate the participation of seniors who require accommodation.

In criminal cases, the accommodations seem to be used with even less frequency. There were no reported decisions where the testimonial supports provided for in section 6 of the Evidence Act or 715.2 of the Criminal Code were used by senior witnesses. Of the over 200 reported decisions relating to applications to give testimony via telephone or CCTV, two involved senior citizens.
citizens. Only three of the 345 reported decisions considering using a transcript or videotape from a preliminary inquiry were used with respect to a senior witness in a trial pursuant to s. 715 of the Criminal Code, and three of the 57 reported decisions citing sections 709 – 711 of the Criminal Code involved an application to have a senior witness’s pre-trial testimony taken by a commissioner. These findings are consistent with surveys of judges and Crown Prosecutors which found that applications for testimonial aids are made infrequently for adults (as opposed to children).

The question then becomes not if the laws of evidence are ready to meet the needs of seniors, but why are there so few cases where they are being used to help older adults? One possible is that applications for accommodations are not being opposed. Alternatively, perhaps seniors do not need accommodations. Some of the provisions discussed in this part can be used with very little effort by counsel, so the fact that they are not being used may signal an insufficient need for them as opposed to insufficient use.

However, given the prevalence of the age-related issues described in the first part of this paper in the population more broadly, it may be more likely that seniors who go to trial could be those who do not require accommodation; and those who do may not be engaging in the trial

138 Jeanes, supra note 112; Hasnain v Waddington’s Auctioneers and Appraisers, 2010 ONSC 3493. For an idea of how frequently these provisions are used in general, as of September 26, 2016 there were 189 cases citing s 486.2 of the Criminal Code (CCTV) and 17 cases that referred to s 714.3 (testimony via telephone or other technology).
139 A transcript from a preliminary inquiry was used instead of in-person testimony in R v Dorfer, 2009 BCSC 202 (74-year-old complainant was too ill to testify); R v Kralik, 2006 BCSC 306 at para 13 (87-year-old complainant’s videotaped preliminary inquiry was admitted because cognitive decline made it impossible to testify in person); R v Wilder, 2002 BCSC 1333 at para 15 (74-year-old third party witness was too ill to travel). Not counted was the case R v Utinen, 2015 BCSC 1796 where the complainant was described as “elderly” and “frail” but she was in her 50s.
140 Stevenson, supra note 83; R v Morin, 2009 ABQB 486 [Morin]; Burrows, supra note 12. There were two cases where counsel attempted to argue that failure to take an elder’s evidence by commissioner prior to the death of the witness should mean that the necessity requirement for the principled approach to hearsay was not met, but in both cases that argument was rejected: Campoli, supra note 84 and Nadeau, supra note 129.
141 Bala, supra note 139 at 53; Hurley, supra note 80 at 12.
142 For example, s 715 of the Criminal Code.
process to begin with. In the criminal context, charges are infrequently laid for elder abuse because of elder victims’ reluctance to press charges where the perpetrator of abuse is a child or caregiver, fear of institutionalization and loss of independence, and/or mental or physical disabilities.\textsuperscript{143} For civil cases, seniors who require accommodation may be deterred from initiating a civil dispute because of the time, emotional, and financial costs of litigation. Lawyers may be more likely to advise elder clients to settle a civil case or plead out a criminal case if they anticipate their client’s health may deteriorate before a trial can happen, or that the litigation process itself could exacerbate an existing medical condition.

Where cases do make it to trial, research on the use of the testimonial aids in the \textit{Criminal Code} provides some clues as to why seniors are not using the \textit{Criminal Code} aids to provide their testimony. A survey of judges found that there were technical and logistical issues using CCTV, for example, courthouses are not equipped with the necessary technology or staff can lack training on how to use it - which could explain why there is a lack of case law showing that it has been used for seniors.\textsuperscript{144} Testimonial aids are still a relatively new development in the law of evidence, and it may take some time for courtroom infrastructure and legal precedent setting out how and when these aids are available to catch up to the legislation.

Resource concerns might also act as a barrier to accessing the testimonial supports for seniors. A survey of Crown counsel and victim support workers revealed that the Crown counsel found CCTV is “hard to impossible” to obtain for an adult witness.\textsuperscript{145} Given this limited prospect of success, Crown counsel may feel that it would not be worth the time and costs preparing an

\textsuperscript{143} Ha & Code, \textit{supra} note 2 at 15 found that only 17\% of police investigations of elder abuse resulted in laying charges. See also, Morin, \textit{supra} note 142 at paras 56 – 58.
\textsuperscript{144} Bala., \textit{supra} note 139 at ix.
\textsuperscript{145} Hurley, \textit{supra} note 80 at 22.
application for a testimonial aid. 146 In the civil context, lawyers may be reticent to use the existing rules because of similar resource issues relating to the costs of bringing applications; they are not familiar with their availability; or do not have the time to prepare the necessary motions. If the costs of bringing motions for accommodations are prohibitive, then an adjustment to the rules that would allow for mandatory pre-trial conferences to be conducted remotely without a motion being brought to request it in advance may go some way to addressing this issue.

**Conclusion: Is the Law of Evidence Ready for the Aging Population?**

By exploring conditions that become more prevalent with advancing age and the legal barriers that individuals who experience these limitations face, this article argues that a strict adherence to the adversarial system’s preferred way of testing evidence can defeat the practical and social objectives of the trial by disproportionately excluding or discounting evidence from senior citizens. Looking at the legal and procedural accommodations currently available shows how Canadian courts and legislatures have resolved this tension by developing rules that respect the rationales underlying the adversarial tradition’s preference for in court testimony, at the same time as work in some flexibility for individuals who require accommodation. Whether it is a stroke, dementia, mobility issues, or biological changes that affect the senses and memory, the laws of evidence seem to be prepared to respond to the types of issues that present more frequently with advanced age.

Specifically, in both the civil and criminal contexts, there are ways to minimize pre-trial appearances, preserve pre-trial testimony for use in court, and facilitate the assessment of in-court testimony. For unavailable testimony, there is the principled approach to hearsay, which is flexible

146 Hurley, *supra* note 80 at 3.
in its application. In addition, there are a number of ways that trials can be expedited to reduce delay. Though these accommodations are not perfect from a social science standpoint, they can be used to incorporate the best practices recommended in the social science literature within the practical and logistical constraints of the trial.

Taken together, Canada’s laws of evidence are capable of being responsive to the coming demographic shift. This is not to say that there is not room for improvement. In the criminal context, having specific rules that provide for expedited trial dates could be expedited could increase seniors’ ability to attend trial and have the clearest memory of an event. In the civil context, allowing for mandatory pre-trial, or even trial, appearances to be conducted remotely without having to bring a motion to request permission to do so would go some way towards easing the financial disincentives for requesting accommodation.

That the laws on the books seldom show up in the cases involving seniors may signal access to justice issues for seniors who require accommodation. Current research suggests that the underuse of the testimonial aids for adults may arise from different charging patterns by police; time and financial resource issues for lawyers; and/or logistic and technical issues in the court houses. Before the laws of evidence can truly respond to the needs of seniors in the future, these issues should be explored further and addressed now.