Written plans and self-evaluations in investigative interviews with witnesses

Jane Tudor-Owen

Edith Cowan University

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Written plans and self-evaluations
in investigative interviews with witnesses

This thesis is presented for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

Jane Tudor-Owen

Edith Cowan University
School of Arts and Humanities
2016
Abstract

The PEACE model of investigative interviewing (Preparation and planning; Engage and explain; Account, clarification, and challenge [Account]; Closure; and Evaluation), has been in operation internationally since the early 1990s when it was introduced in England and Wales. The model is in operation in a number of Australian jurisdictions, including Western Australia (WA), where it was formally incorporated into interview training in 2009. While there have been a number of evaluations of the PEACE model, they have predominantly focused on the interview stages of the model; that is, Engage and explain, Account, and Closure. By comparison, the Preparation and planning and Evaluation stages of the interview process have been neglected. Further, the majority of research has originated in the United Kingdom, with limited international research specifically concerning the PEACE model, rather than interviewing generally. In addition to there being limited research in an Australian context, most research published to date has examined the interviewing of trained police officers. As such, there is a need for research examining the Preparation and planning and Evaluation stages of the PEACE model in an Australian context, with a focus on less experienced police officers.

In the present research, a sample of 37 police recruits (recruits) from the WA Police Academy conducted interviews with witnesses of mock crimes on four occasions during their 26-week recruit training. The first interview was conducted in the second week of recruits’ training; the second interview was conducted following legal and procedural training; the third interview was conducted following interview training; and the final interview was conducted at the conclusion of recruits’ training. On each occasion, recruits were provided with ten minutes to prepare for the interview and given pens and paper to formulate written plans if desired. Following this time of preparation, recruits were shown into interview rooms and conducted interviews with witnesses who had viewed a film depicting a mock crime. Recruits and witnesses completed written evaluations following each interview.
The aim of the present research was to examine the interviewing practices of recruits and how these change following specific points in their training at the WA Police Academy. To address the paucity of research on the Preparation and planning and Evaluation stages of the PEACE model, the focus of the present research was to examine these stages in detail. The research presented in this thesis provides an understanding of the content of recruits’ written plans, interviews, and self-evaluations in the context of interviews with witnesses, in addition to understanding how these change following specific points in training. Further, the research provides insight into the impact of plans on interviews, and the impact of self-evaluations on plans and interviews. The first empirical chapter examines recruits’ plans; the second empirical chapter examines the impact of plans on interviews; and the third empirical chapter examines the impact of self-evaluations on plans and interviews.

Findings from the research indicate recruits emphasise the aspects of the interview relating to the account from the witness in their plans and interviews, but that this emphasis diminishes following specific points in training. With regard to the impact of plans on interviews, findings suggest recruits actively cover a high proportion of planned items in interviews and show a positive correlation between planned and covered items in the Engage and explain stage of the interview. Further, following interview training, there are a number of key interview components that are more likely to be covered in interviews when included in plans. These components generally relate to procedural instructions, or those components less obvious or intuitive to the recruit. Recruits were found to include small numbers of items in self-evaluations when asked how they would conduct their interview differently, and these most often related to questioning, procedural, or structural aspects of the interview. Findings showed recruits’ self-evaluations resulted in limited changes in interviewing practices.

The implications of these findings largely relate to the training of recruits. While the impact of plans appeared more substantive than that of self-evaluations, it is suggested that the impact of these practices may be increased if recruits are trained specifically with regard to the use of plans and what to include in them, and how to reflect on their performance and implement
feedback. While the PEACE model encourages planning and evaluating by virtue of the inclusion of the Preparation and planning and Evaluation stages, it does not appear recruits are proficient in either practice, and therefore the efficacy of those practices in their present state may be limited.
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Signed (signature not included in this version of the thesis)

Date…………………………………………………………..
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I would like to thank Paul Pedretti, Dr Adrian Scott, and Professor Ray Bull for access to the data obtained through their research project with Western Australia Police. In addition, I would like to acknowledge Eleanor Rudnai, Luke Fundell-Williamson, Stephanie Ransom, and Phan Nguyen for their work transcribing interviews and self-evaluations.

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Associated Publications

A portion of Chapter 1: Introduction has been published in the following book chapter:

A portion of Chapter 3: Plans has been published in the following journal article, conference and poster presentations:


A portion of Chapter 3: Plans and Chapter 5: Self-evaluations, Interviews, and Plans has been published in the following poster presentation:

Dedicated to Green Eagle and Agent Rex, with love.
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Chapter 1: Introduction

The research presented in this thesis provides an understanding of the content of police recruits’ (recruits) written plans, interviews, and self-evaluations in the context of interviews with witnesses, in addition to understanding how these change following specific points in training. Further, the research provides insight into the impact of plans on interviews, and the impact of self-evaluations on plans and interviews. The first empirical chapter examines recruits’ plans; the second empirical chapter examines the impact of plans on interviews; and the third empirical chapter examines the impact of self-evaluations on plans and interviews. The findings presented in this thesis examine the efficacy of the practices of preparing plans and self-evaluations in accordance with the investigative interviewing model, PEACE, and provide direction for training recruits and police officers in these practices. This first chapter provides an examination of relevant literature, followed by the aims and rationale of the research, and an outline of the structure of the thesis.

Literature Review

In order to provide context for the research presented in this thesis, a number of distinct areas of research have been reviewed. Firstly, the reader will be provided with an overview of the historical development of investigative interviewing, including a discussion of the rationale behind the adoption of investigative interviewing. This section will include a discussion of the psychological principles underpinning the PEACE model currently used in interviews with witnesses and persons of interest (POI) internationally and in a number of jurisdictions in Australia. In the context of this thesis, the term, ‘witness’, refers to the observer or victim of an offence and the term, POI, is synonymous with ‘suspect’. The focus will be on the Cognitive Interview (incorporating aspects of the Free Recall model) as these are most relevant for the sample in the present research. Secondly, the reader will be provided with a more detailed discussion of investigative interviewing in Australia, as this is the context in which the research presented in this thesis was conducted. A discussion of the adoption of PEACE in Australia will be followed by an outline of interview training in Australia, with examples from three Australian jurisdictions to highlight the similarities and differences across jurisdictions.
Chapter 1: Introduction

Thirdly, the reader will be provided with an overview of the research structured according to the five stages of the PEACE model. As with explanations regarding the different models of interviewing used within PEACE, the examination of research pertaining to the Account stage will again draw attention to the Cognitive Interview (incorporating aspects of the Free Recall model). As there is a paucity of research examining the Preparation and planning and Evaluation stages, literature from other disciplines will be reviewed. Finally, the use of reflective practice in the human service professions will be discussed as a vehicle by which planning and self-evaluation may be more comprehensively embedded in the practice of investigative interviewing. The aims and rationale section at the conclusion of the chapter will link the reviewed literature and demonstrate its relevance to the research presented in this thesis.

Development of Investigative Interviewing

The aim of an interview, be it investigative in purpose or otherwise, is to obtain information from the interviewee (Yarbrough, Hervè, & Harms, 2013). It has been aptly stated that police interviewing is a key inquisitorial component of an adversarial justice system (Williamson, 1993). The interview process and outcomes have substantial implications for the prosecution’s case and, as such, for the accused. When interviews with POIs are conducted poorly, or apply unethical strategies, there are two possible outcomes: the accused is not given a fair trial as the evidence tendered has not been gathered appropriately; or, the interview is deemed inadmissible and a potentially guilty person is free. The importance of interviewing witnesses cannot be overstated, and while anecdotal evidence suggests witness interviews are considered less important than interviews with POIs, it is acknowledged that poor witness statements can weaken the prosecution’s case (Tudor-Owen & Scott, 2015). As Fisher (1995) notes, complete and accurate witness statements maximise the likelihood of a perpetrator being successfully prosecuted and subsequently minimise the likelihood of a wrongful conviction. The quality of witness statements is even more crucial when investigating particular types of offences; for example, offences where there is no physical evidence (Lamb, Sternberg, Orbach, Esplin, & Mitchell, 2002; Powell, 2002). Therefore, it is imperative the interview provides a clear and accurate account of the witness’ recollection. Recognition of the importance of witness interviews and the
corresponding statements in achieving just outcomes in court has resulted in increased efforts to improve the quality and quantity of information elicited in interviews with witnesses (Schreiber Compo, Hyman Gregory, & Fisher, 2010).

Interviewing in a forensic context is typically categorised as either confrontational or investigative. However, it was not until the late 1980s that there was such a distinction between interviewing styles as the confrontational approach developed by Inbau, Reid, and Buckley was the prevailing model (Williamson, 1993). To a large extent, these approaches appear geographically determined; the confrontational approach is applied in some jurisdictions in the United States (US), whereas the investigative approach has been adopted in Australia, New Zealand, and the United Kingdom (UK) and in some other countries in Europe (Kassin, Appleby, & Torkildson Perillo, 2010). Part of the difference in technique is the purpose of the interview. A confrontational style of interview is designed to elicit a confession, while the investigative style is focused on encouraging a full account from the POI (Bull & Milne, 2004; Walsh & Milne, 2008; Williamson, 1993).

The model of interrogation developed by Inbau et al. is prescribed for POIs whose guilt “seems definite or reasonably certain” (Inbau et al., 1986, p. 77). Within the steps of the interview, police officers are instructed as to themes that can be raised with the POI including: sympathising with the POI and telling them other people may have done the same thing under similar circumstances; suggesting an alternative motivation for the offence that is deemed to be less offensive; apportioning blame to others, for example, the victim; and flattery of the POI. The use of interrogation tactics, while still common in some international jurisdictions, has been criticised for the use of psychological strategies which can result in false confessions from suggestible POIs (Williamson, 1993).

There are common features across models used in the context of investigative interviewing. These features include prioritising the use of open questions, avoiding leading and suggestive questions, and minimising the use of closed questions by beginning the interview with broader questions and clarifying further when necessary (Fisher, 2010). Additionally, having a specific section of the interview for closure is also considered a key aspect of most models of investigative interviewing (Read, Powell, Kebbell, & Milne, 2009). In terms of the way the interview is conducted, emphasis is placed on rapport building (Fisher, 2010), as it has been suggested that information provided by witnesses may be increased by police making an effort to
ensure the witness is comfortable, treated with respect, and provided with the opportunity to take control (Roberts, 2011a).

The introduction of the *Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984* (UK) was the first legislative indication of a move away from confrontational interviewing techniques towards an investigative style of interviewing (Kassin et al., 2010; Soukara, Bull, Vrij, Turner, & Cherryman, 2009). The move came about following a number of well-publicised miscarriages of justice, including the false confessions in the *Confait* case, the Guildford four, and the Birmingham Six (Gudjonsson, 2001). In 1991, amidst the concern around the impact of poor interviewing practices on the validity of confessions, a small group of psychologists and detectives was commissioned to provide advice on how to use psychology to inform interviewing practices (Bull, 2013). The resulting report was used by a group of detectives drawn from across England and Wales to develop the PEACE model of investigative interviewing (Bull, 2013). The development of the PEACE model by psychologists and justice professionals highlighted the change in approach to interviewing in the UK, with emphasis placed on integrating theory and practice (Williamson, 1993).

The PEACE model is an acronym representing five stages of an investigative interview: Preparation and planning; Engage and explain; Account, clarification and challenge (Account); Closure; and Evaluation (Clarke & Milne, 2001). The Preparation and planning stage includes familiarisation with case notes and evidence, as well as the preparation of written plans for the interview itself. The Engage and explain stage comprises rapport building and the explanation of procedures to the witness or POI. While necessary throughout the duration of the interview, it is important rapport building occurs prior to the witness being asked for their account (Read et al., 2009). The Account stage refers to the information gathering aspect of the interview where the interviewer asks the witness or POI for a full account, and seeks clarification where necessary. Emphasis may be placed on the challenge aspect of this stage in interviews when the person appears hostile to questioning, or is presenting information that is inconsistent with what has previously been disclosed to police. During the Closure stage, the interviewer summarises the content of the interview and prepares the interviewee to leave. The final stage, Evaluation, involves the interviewer’s considered reflection about the interview; what worked and what could be improved.
The PEACE model has been advocated for use with both witnesses and POIs as research noted the attributes of a good interview are equivalent for both populations (Bull & Milne, 2004; Grote & Mitchell, n.d.), as the goal of the interview is, in all instances, to gain an accurate account of events (Bull, 2013). However, it is suggested that the techniques used during the interview stages of the model; that is, Engage and explain, Account, and Closure, be modified according to the circumstances of the interview. The Cognitive Interview (or the Free Recall model as a simplified alternative) is advocated for use with cooperative witnesses and POIs and the Conversation Management model is advocated for use with uncooperative witnesses and POIs (Milne & Bull, 1999). Both of these models have been tested in evidence-based research. However, while the PEACE model advocates distinct Preparation and planning and Evaluation stages, there has not been the same attention to articulating the psychological principles underlying the inclusion of these stages in the model, nor the development of an evidence base from which to continue to assert their importance.

The Cognitive Interview compromises a number of distinct components: explain, rapport, report everything, never guess, uninterrupted account, concentration, recall in a variety of orders, change perspective, mental reinstatement, and witness compatible questioning (Dando, Wilcock, & Milne, 2009a). Given the impetus for the development of the Cognitive Interview was the police service’s request for assistance in techniques to improve recall (Memon, Wark, Bull, & Koehnken, 1997), arguably the hallmark of the Cognitive Interview is the mental reinstatement components. The mental reinstatement encouraged by police officers is threefold: recalling the witness’ emotional response; recalling the features of scene using the five senses; and recalling the sequence of events (Memon et al., 1997). These principles are informed by Tulving and Thomson’s (1973) encoding specificity principle which suggests that context reinstatement increases the accuracy of recall and recognise the importance of the cognitive environment in both the encoding and retrieval of memory.

The Cognitive Interview was developed as a non-hypnotic interview protocol to elicit accurate recollection from witnesses by raising their consciousness of the events surrounding the offence (Fisher, Geiselman, & Amador, 1989). It is considered useful, not only because it has been shown to increase the amount of information provided by interviewees, but also because it does not take a
considerable amount of time to train and is not complicated to administer in practice (Fisher et al., 1989). In revising the Cognitive Interview, its developers consulted non-psychology literature relating to the use of interviews, including social work (Fisher, Milne, & Bull, 2011). The revised version includes the cognitive components but also focuses on social components of interviewing (Memon et al., 1997). More than simply encouraging rapport building, the revised model provides instruction for police officers to allow the witness to dictate the pace and direction of the interview by encouraging free recall and questioning the witness according to the order of their account rather than imposing a police agenda (Memon et al., 1997). The positive relationship between emotional intelligence and job performance by investigators (Ono, Sachau, Deal, Englert, & Taylor, 2011) provides further support for the emphasis placed on rapport building.

The Free Recall Model, as it sounds, is a simplified version of the Cognitive Interview focusing on eliciting a free recall from the witness. The model advocates the use of minimal prompts and basic memory retrieval techniques in contrast to the more complex techniques taught as part of the Cognitive Interview. The Free Recall model is taught in initial interview training in some jurisdictions, including Western Australia (WA), as a simpler alternative to the full Cognitive Interview for recruits or inexperienced police officers to use when questioning regarding less complex offences. The Conversation Management model was developed by Eric Shepherd in the 1990s and is advocated for use with POIs and uncooperative witnesses (Schollum, 2005). This model contains three components: POI agenda (or witness agenda); police agenda; and challenge (Roberts, 2011b). The model varies to the Cognitive Interview in that it is not to be led by the interviewee. After the POI is given the opportunity to provide an account, the police are then able to ask any questions not covered by the POI and, lastly, have the opportunity to challenge inconsistencies (Roberts, 2011b).

**Investigative interviewing in Australia**

In Australia, what is known as investigative interviewing was not adopted in most jurisdictions until a decade later, and in some jurisdictions almost 20 years later, than its introduction in England and Wales in the early 1990s. While investigative interviewing in the context of interviews with adults was imported to
Chapter 1: Introduction

Australia from England and Wales, the various Australian jurisdictions adopting this approach have made adaptations to suit local needs.

In a similar vein to the progression of events described in the UK, there were important reforms within policing in WA following heavily publicised criticism of the investigative process in key cases (Hill & Moston, 2011). Much has been written about the interview process and miscarriages of justice (see e.g., *Button v The Queen*). However, the story less often written is how this same pressure can lead to a miscarriage of justice in the opposite direction, in a false acquittal. In the case of Dante Arthurs, Australians saw first-hand how police interviewing can negatively impact investigations and, ultimately, prevent justice. Mr Arthurs was convicted in 2007 of the murder of an eight year-old girl in 2006, having previously been questioned and released in 2003 in relation to indecently dealing with another eight year-old girl. With regard to the 2003 allegations, the Director of Public Prosecutions elected not to proceed with prosecution on the basis that the admissibility of the interview held with Mr Arthurs was likely to be at issue due to the “aggressive questioning” of Mr Arthurs by the police officers (“Police interrogation let girl killer escape charges,” 2007). If the interviews with Mr Arthurs in 2003 had been deemed admissible, and the prosecution successful, it is argued that the tragedy of 2006 could potentially have been avoided (Hill & Moston, 2011).

Within Australia there are eight policing jurisdictions, seven of which comprise police services in WA, New South Wales (NSW), the Northern Territory (NT), Queensland, South Australia (SA), Tasmania, and Victoria. In addition, Commonwealth matters are dealt with by the Australian Federal Police (AFP) which incorporates police services in the Australian Capital Territory (ACT). The Australia New Zealand Policing Advisory Agency (ANZPAA), established in 2007, serves to provide policy advice to policing jurisdictions in Australia and New Zealand (ANZPAA, 2010). In recognition of the need for uniformity in policing practices across Australia, ANZPAA and the Australia New Zealand Council of Police Professionalisation (ANZCoPP) are developing a Police Practice Standards Model which promotes professional development, and will consolidate and further build the evidence base for policing practices (ANZPAA, 2013). Despite these advances, there are still the issues of jurisdictional discretion with regard to the adoption of any agreed upon best practice and limited relevant statutory provisions in the context of witness interviews. Although there is legislation governing the conditions under
which POIs can be detained and interviewed (see e.g., the Criminal Investigation Act 2006 [WA]), there is no equivalent legislation governing the interviewing of witnesses.¹

There are no government-based bodies providing documentation and advice regarding best practice in investigative interviewing in Australia (Green, 2012), although ANZPAA are currently developing relevant practice standards for police. The introduction and development of investigative interviewing in the context of interviews with adults in Australia was similar in a number of jurisdictions. For example, in Queensland and Victoria, individual members of the respective police services spent time training in England and Wales so they were able to implement training courses in their respective states. Following the initial implementation of the model, supplementary training for Australian police services has been provided at regular intervals by visiting international experts.

In Queensland, the principles of investigative interviewing were initially introduced in 1993, whereas in Victoria and Tasmania the principles were not introduced until the late 1990s and early 2000s. In 2007 Queensland Police undertook a review of their interview training and updated their curriculum in line with developments in investigative interviewing in England and Wales. Similarly, Victoria Police have updated their curriculum since the introduction of investigative interviewing practices, with an increased emphasis on interviews with witnesses.

Project Anticus, instigated by the WA Police in 2009, was established in response to criticism of detective practices in a range of high profile cases, including allegations of wrongful conviction and wrongful acquittal, as previously discussed. In an attempt to improve investigative outcomes, the Project targeted four main areas: the professional development of detectives; investigative policies and procedures; the relationship between the police and prosecution; and, relevantly for the present study, interviewing (Western Australia Police, 2009). In response to the mandate to improve interviewing in WA, the PEACE model of investigative interviewing was introduced in 2009 (Western Australia Police, 2009). The curriculum in WA has also continued to develop since its introduction in 2009 with a specific training précis for interviews with witnesses issued in 2012.

¹ There are statutory provisions in each of the Australian jurisdiction governing the interviewing of vulnerable witnesses. As this population is outside the scope of the present research, these provisions will not be reviewed. For a detailed account of relevant legislation in the Australian context pertaining to the interviewing of vulnerable witnesses, please see Tudor-Owen and Scott (2015).
Broadly speaking, what has been adopted (and adapted) for use in Australian jurisdictions in interviews with adults is the PEACE model. Western Australia, NSW, Queensland, Tasmania, and Victoria have each introduced the PEACE model as the overarching model informing investigative interviewing. In the WA, NSW, and Queensland police literature, the PEACE model is clearly used to inform the structure of the interview, with the Free Recall, Cognitive Interview and the Conversation Management models being used within the Account phase of the interview.

Training in Australia

Five tiers of training were initially developed to instruct police in interviewing using the PEACE model, which were later revised to 3 or 4 tiers (Green, 2012). Tiered training for interviewing skills recognises that not all police officers require the same level of interviewing expertise (Clarke & Milne, 2001). A number of jurisdictions in Australia have adopted the revised 3 or 4 tier model of training (Tudor-Owen & Scott, 2015). In WA, for example, the revised model consists of four levels: interviews for volume and simple crimes; interviews for serious and complex crimes; specialist interviews; and interview advisors. Level one training is offered to recruits in WA, NSW, Queensland, Tasmania, and Victoria, with more specialised training offered to police officers on particular promotional pathways. Level one training includes instruction in the use of the Free Recall model, basic memory retrieval techniques, and generic communication skills. In WA, Queensland, and Victoria, police officers have additional requirements in order to successfully complete their probation. In WA and Queensland, police officers are required to complete an additional assessment based on an interview conducted in the field. In Victoria, police officers are required to attend a one-day refresher course at the conclusion of their probation.

Depending on the jurisdiction, level two training can be offered as part of a ‘standalone’ investigator course or as part of detective and/or sergeant promotional pathways. The interview training offered at level two varies across jurisdictions. For example, in Queensland, the interview techniques learnt in level one are extended and applied specifically to the context of serious and complex investigations. In Victoria, by comparison, training includes instruction in using the Cognitive Interview, and more advanced memory retrieval techniques. In WA, specialist level
three training is offered to the Child Assessment and Interview Team. In addition to teaching advanced memory retrieval techniques, level three training in Queensland introduces the Enhanced Cognitive Interview and develops specialist knowledge, including skills relevant to the interviewing of vulnerable adult witnesses. The structure for level three interview training in Victoria is currently under review, with the proposed course increasing in duration, demonstrating recognition for increased training in this area. The level four training offered in WA and Victoria (and proposed in Queensland) equips police officers as interview advisors for their particular areas of work and appears to be a hybrid of the original tier four and tier five PEACE training; incorporating supervision and advisory roles (Green, 2012).

Interview training is primarily delivered in the form of workshops that include practice interviews. For witness interview training, these workshops may include time designated to developing witness statements after the practice interviews. In some jurisdictions there is also a requirement for in-field assessment. For example, in WA, Queensland, and Victoria, recruits and police officers complete assigned tasks and receive feedback from their supervisors before submitting the work to the relevant training body. In an attempt to encourage continued improvement in a convenient setting, as well as to mitigate de-training, some substantive and refresher training is provided in Queensland and Tasmania. Furthermore, some jurisdictions including WA and Victoria, are currently developing materials for online interview training which will facilitate training across geographically large jurisdictions. These strategies aim to maximise the learning and retention of skills by participating police officers. They are also consistent with recommendations that investigative interview training include clearly operationalised research-based practices; opportunities to practice skills and receive feedback during training; and follow-up training, for example, refresher courses and/or additional tasks to complete in the field (Clarke & Milne, 2001; Powell, 2002; Oxburgh & Dando, 2011; Schreiber Compo et al., 2010).

Although the interviewing of vulnerable witnesses is outside the scope of the present research, the approach to training specialist interviewers is novel and provides a useful basis for comparison with interview training in general. Interview training pertaining to vulnerable witnesses has been made available online. This approach to training is unique in Australia, in that training is centralised and police officers in multiple jurisdictions are able to access training simultaneously. The
training is designed to be collaborative, with the sharing of information and resources an essential component. This approach is an example of the strength of collaborations between police (and other legal professionals) and academics. A number of jurisdictions have consulted with academic and industry experts in order to revise policy and procedures. In addition to the example of the development with regard to interviewing vulnerable witnesses, NSW Police sought advice from a forensic linguist, social workers, legal professionals, and the Ethnic Affairs Commission when developing their Code of Practice for Custody, Rights, Investigation, Management and Evidence (CRIME) in 1998 (Gibbons, 2001). As a result, the interviewing of witnesses in Australia is informed by psychological principles, an awareness and knowledge of the relevant law, and an understanding of the needs of unique populations.

Changing interview culture is a challenge that has been raised by police jurisdictions in Australia. The techniques used previously, including the more confrontational approach to interviewing, have not been entirely eliminated from practice. In Queensland, one strategy has been to deliver training to key experienced police officers in order to facilitate the elimination of out-of-date practices and the adoption of current interviewing practices. Interview trainers are challenged by recruits and newer police officers who comment that the investigative approach to interviewing takes too much time. In particular, it would seem that memory retrieval techniques are seen as using time that could be better utilised elsewhere. While the benefits of such techniques can be explained in training, it is unlikely that police officers will understand the rationale behind the techniques until they conduct interviews. What is essential in developing a new culture of interviewing, therefore, is that senior police officers are practicing and promoting investigative interviewing.

Having established PEACE interviewing as standard practice across a number of jurisdictions in Australia (Tudor-Owen & Scott, 2015), it is clear that jurisdictions are now developing their own unique approaches to training and development. As evidenced by the adoption of Australian-based centralised interview training for interviews with vulnerable witnesses, Australian policing jurisdictions are keen to make use of internationally- and locally-based resources. While there is concern regarding the loss of skills following training, even with regard to the provision of intensive programmes (Powell, 2002), there is considerable innovation in the development of training practices across the jurisdictions. As the move towards
shared knowledge and resources amongst the jurisdictions gains momentum, there will be more room for the improved quality and delivery of training.

**Research Examining Investigative Interviewing**

The literature examining investigative interviewing increased following the development of the Cognitive Interview in the late 1980s, and the introduction of the PEACE model in the UK in the early 1990s. While the research presented in this thesis is focused on the interviewing of adult witnesses by recruits in WA, very little research to date has considered this specific population. This section of the literature review will provide a broad summary of the research with regard to interviewing witnesses and POIs, followed by an overview of the investigative interviewing literature organised according to the five stages of the PEACE model. Not all of the research reviewed makes reference to the PEACE model; however, where possible the research is delineated according to the five stages for clarity of reading.

As the majority of research examining investigative interviewing focuses on its use with POIs (Griffiths, Milne, & Cherryman, 2011; Schreiber Compo et al., 2010), it may be suggested that there is a perception that interviews with POIs are more important than those with witnesses; however, the impracticality of access to interviews with witnesses is likely to have contributed to this deficit. The mandatory videorecording of interviews with POIs has been legislated internationally, but the recording of interviews with witnesses, aside from vulnerable witnesses, is not common practice (Tudor-Owen & Scott, 2015). Oxburgh and Dando (2011) suggest witness interviewing is likely to gain attention following the focus on interviews with POIs through the 1980s and 1990s, with the prospect of mandatory recording of interviews with all witnesses providing the impetus for this increased attention, as admissibility would be at issue in court. Rock (2001) suggests this development, provided it does not result in wasted resources, may provide the opportunity to increase the clarity of associated witness statements.

Examinations of investigative interviewing, and the PEACE model specifically, have primarily focused on the stages occurring during the actual interview; that is, the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages. By comparison, the stages extrinsic to the interview, the Preparation and planning and Evaluation stages, have been largely neglected (Walsh & Bull, 2010a). Research has examined the impact of skill on overall interview quality and positive interview
outcomes (e.g., obtaining a confession or a full account). These analyses have considered overall performance, performance of individual stages of the interview, and performance of components within the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages.

Considering the performance of the PEACE mode as a whole, Walsh and Bull (2010b) found performing at PEACE standard (a value of three or above on the five-point Likert scale) was positively associated with overall interview quality and those interviewers were more likely to achieve desirable interview outcomes (either a fairly obtained confession or a full and accurate account without a confession). In terms of individual stages of the interview, this relationship was strongest with regard to the Preparation and planning and Account stages. Walsh and Bull further suggest that skilled planning impacts the Account stage of the interview resulting in an increase in overall interview quality and a higher likelihood of positive interview outcomes. However, this relationship is not explicitly examined in their study. The researchers note that difficult aspects of the interview (e.g., Develops topics, Intermittently summarises and links, and Challenges appropriately) were not often covered in the less skilled interviews, and suggest benefit fraud investigators may not be aware of the need for these aspects of the interview, or need further training. Further, Griffiths and Milne (2006) found that while improvement was observed in the more complex aspects of the interview after training, this improvement was not necessarily sustained, suggesting the need for refresher training. Although performing interviews at PEACE standard is associated with higher quality interviews and increased likelihood of positive outcomes, Walsh and Bull (2010a) found the majority (57%) of benefit fraud investigators in their sample performed interviews below PEACE standard, with 17% receiving the lowest rating of Further training required.

Due to the relative similarity between interview schedules used in the literature, individual component comparisons can be made across studies by Clarke and Milne (interviews with witnesses and POIs; 2001), Clarke, Milne, and Bull (2011), Walsh and Bull (2010a), and Walsh and Milne (2008), with the latter two studies examining interviewing by trained benefit fraud investigators. Researchers conducting each of these studies used five-point Likert scales to measure performance of interviewers with a mean score of three or above indicating PEACE standard. Looking at the proportion of components in each stage of the model
performed at or above PEACE standard, Preparation and planning was performed with the most skill, followed by Engage and explain, Account, and then Closure. The exception to this pattern was in Walsh and Milne’s sample where a greater proportion of the components within the Account stage were performed at or above PEACE standard, than the Engage and explain or Closure stages. The findings with regard to performance of components within the individual stages is presented in the relevant sections below.

**Preparation and planning.**

Clarke et al. (2011) suggested that a number of poor interviewing practices which were present prior to the implementation of the PEACE model can be attributed to insufficient planning. These practices included an inability to establish relevant facts, poor questioning technique and inappropriate repetitive questioning. In his assessment of the PEACE model, Gudjonsson states, “There is clearly a strong emphasis on proper preparation prior to interviews, and on fairness and integrity during interviewing” (1994, p. 239). However, the limited focus on planning in the investigative interviewing literature is cause for concern, particularly given police officers believe preparation is associated with higher quality interviews and more positive interview outcomes (Soukara et al., 2002), an observation supported by research examining the practice of benefit fraud investigators trained in the PEACE model (Walsh & Bull, 2010b).

Within the Preparation and planning stage, Gudjonsson (1994) suggests there are seven principles for interviewers to consider: understanding why the interview is being conducted; identifying objectives; articulating the relevant elements of the offence in question; reviewing evidence already gathered; determining what evidence may still be available that has not already been obtained; understanding the legislative and procedural requirements governing the interview; and ensuring the interview is designed with flexibility in mind. Indicators of prior preparation assessed by researchers have included: understanding the offence and its elements; having exhibits and evidence readily accessible; understanding possible defences; and conducting a structured interview showing an identifiable strategy for questioning (see e.g., Walsh & Bull, 2010b; 2012b). However, these principles are not readily operationalised for assessment in the context of research. The majority of research evaluating investigative interviews to date has used video recordings of either actual or mock interviews. As a consequence, assessment of the Preparation
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and planning stage has been largely limited to hypotheses about the activities of the interviewer prior to the interview, as the activities themselves are not evident in the interview recordings (Clarke & Milne, 2001; Clarke et al., 2011; Walsh & Bull, 2010b). In studies where only a recorded interview is observed, or transcribed interviews are read, it is difficult for researchers to comment on the level of planning or preparation undertaken by the interviewer (Clarke & Milne, 2001). For example, limited flow or coherence may be attributed to lack of planning, or the police officers involved may have reached an agreement ‘off the record’ regarding the structure of the interview which is unable to be determined from watching the interview or reading the transcript (Baldwin, 1993).

Considering the empirical data reported in Clarke and Milne (interviews with witnesses and POIs; 2001), Clarke et al. (2011), Walsh and Bull (2010a), and Walsh and Milne (2008), Preparation and planning has predominantly been examined using one item measured by the researcher, basing their assessment of the interviewers’ performance of this stage on the basis of activities in the interview indicating preparedness. In the five aforementioned samples, the mean score was at PEACE standard or above in two of the five samples (interviews with POIs, Clarke & Milne, 2001; Clarke et al., 2011), and below PEACE standard in the three remaining samples (interviews with witnesses, Clarke & Milne, 2001; Walsh & Bull, 2010a; Walsh & Milne, 2008). To that end, it can be suggested that police officers appear to perform better than benefit fraud investigators in Preparation and planning, but that there remains scope for improvement.

McGurk, Carr, and McGurk (1993) found planning for the interview improved significantly following training, with a sustained improvement observed over time. However, the authors recommended an extension of the present training regarding Preparation and planning, with particular emphasis on how to cover the elements of the offence. In their evaluation of the performance of PEACE a number of years later, Clarke and Milne (2001) assessed planning skills as limited and the compulsory use of written plans was recommended (Clarke & Milne, 2001). More recently, Walsh and Milne (2008) suggest the limited planning affected the content of interviews, particularly with regard to the structure of the interview and interviewer flexibility. Later findings by Walsh and Bull (2010b) support this suggestion as they noted a positive association between the performance of Preparation and planning and overall interview quality.
Engage and explain.

There were nine components measured within the Engage and explain stage for Clarke and Milne (interviews with witnesses and POIs; 2001), Clarke et al. (2011), Walsh and Bull (2010a), and Walsh and Milne (2008): Introduced him/herself; Caution; Checking understanding of caution; Grounds for arrest; Right to legal advice; Interview purpose; Routines and route map; Opportunity for own account; and Rapport. The components performed with the most skill in the Engage and explain stage appeared to be those which were most obvious and least difficult. The mean score was at all above PEACE standard in all samples where the component was measured for: Introduced him/herself (interviews with witnesses and POIs, Clarke & Milne, 2001; Clarke et al., 2011; Walsh & Bull, 2010a), Caution (interviews with POIs, Clarke & Milne, 2001; Clarke et al., 2011; Walsh & Bull, 2010a; Walsh & Milne, 2008), and Grounds for arrest (interviews with POIs, Clarke & Milne, 2001; Clarke et al., 2011), indicating performance of these components was generally adequate.

Those components performed with the least skill in the Engage and explain stage were those requiring either an increased understanding of interview process or those requiring higher levels of interpersonal communication. In the two studies measuring the component, Right to legal advice, one sample had a mean score above PEACE standard (Clarke et al., 2011) and one was below (Walsh & Bull, 2010a). The mean score was below PEACE standard in all samples where the component was measured for: Checking the understanding of the caution, (interviews with POIs, Clarke & Milne, 2001; Clarke et al., 2011; Walsh & Bull, 2010a; Walsh & Milne, 2008), Interview purpose (interviews with witnesses, Clarke & Milne, 2001; Clarke et al., 2011; Walsh & Bull, 2010a; Walsh & Milne, 2008), Routines and route map (interviews with witnesses and POIs, Clarke & Milne, 2001; Clarke et al., 2011; Walsh & Bull, 2010a), Opportunity for own account, and Rapport building (interviews with witnesses and POIs, Clarke & Milne, 2001; Clarke et al., 2011; Walsh & Bull, 2010a; Walsh & Milne, 2008), indicating performance of these components was generally inadequate.

Account.

Sixteen components were measured within the Account stage for Clarke and Milne (witnesses and POIs; 2001), Clarke et al. (2011), Walsh and Bull (2010a), and Walsh and Milne (2008): Encourages account; Appropriate structure/logical
sequence; Dealing with difficulty; Keeps interview to relevant topics; Appropriate use of questions; Exploration of information; Use of pauses/silence; Explores motive; (Development of topics; Summarises and links; Points to prove; Uses interviewee’s words/language; Clarification; Challenges; Evidence of Conversation Management model; Evidence of Cognitive Interview). No components had mean scores at or above PEACE standard across all samples where the component was measured.

While the majority of components within the Account stage were not performed well, those with the highest level of skill related to the way the interview was conducted, rather than specific content. With regard to specific components, the majority of samples had a mean score at or above PEACE standard where the component was measured for: Encourages account, Appropriate structure / logical sequence (interviews with POIs, Clarke & Milne, 2001; Clarke et al., 2011; Walsh & Milne, 2008), Dealing with difficulty, and Keeps interview to relevant topics (interviews with witnesses and POIs, Clarke & Milne, 2001; Clarke et al., 2011; Walsh & Milne, 2008).

Those components requiring specific content or application of interviewing principles (e.g., use of particular question types) were performed less competently. The majority of samples had a mean score below PEACE standard where the component was measured for: Appropriate use of questions, Exploration of information, Use of pauses/silence (interviews with witnesses and POIs, Clarke & Milne, 2001; Clarke et al., 2011; Walsh & Bull, 2010a), and Explores motive (interviews with POIs, Clarke & Milne, 2001; Clarke et al., 2011; Walsh & Bull, 2010a; Walsh & Milne, 2008). For the components, Appropriate use of questions, Explores motive, Exploration of information, and Use of pause/silence, the only sample with a mean score at or above PEACE standard was Walsh and Milne (2008). Further, the mean score was below PEACE standard in all samples where the component was measured for: Development of topics, Summarises and links, Points to prove (interviews with witnesses and POIs, Clarke & Milne, 2001; Clarke et al., 2011; Walsh & Bull, 2010a; Walsh & Milne, 2008), Uses interviewee’s words/language, Clarification (interviews with witnesses, Clarke & Milne, 2001), Challenges (interviews with POIs, Clarke & Milne, 2001; Clarke et al., 2011; Walsh & Bull, 2010a; Walsh & Milne, 2008), Evidence of Conversation Management model (interviews with witnesses, Clarke & Milne, 2001; Clarke et al., 2011; Walsh
& Bull, 2010a; Walsh & Milne, 2008), Evidence of Cognitive Interview (interviews with witnesses, Clarke & Milne, 2001; Walsh & Bull, 2010a), indicating performance of these components was generally inadequate.

The mnemonic ADVOKATE is encouraged for use in interviews with witnesses to elicit more detail about the event being recalled. The mnemonic was devised following *R v Turnbull* where the need to address specific aspects of a witness’ recall was identified (Schollum, 2005). The eight components are: Amount of time under observation; Distance; Visibility; Obstruction; Known or seen before; Any reason to remember; Time lapsed; and Error/discrepancy. Although only one study has considered interviewers’ performance of the individual components within the mnemonic, these results were not promising, with none of the components performed at or above PEACE standard (Clarke & Milne, 2001). The components performed with the most skill were Visibility, Distance, and Known or seen before and the components performed with the least skill were Error/discrepancy, Any reason to remember, and Time lapse. Questioning the witness with regard to Error/discrepancy would arguably require the most skill of the eight components as the interviewer would need to have synthesised all information received regarding the offence (including information provided prior to the interview) and identified inconsistencies with the witness’ account. In contrast, asking the witness if there was Any reason to remember or establishing the Time lapse would not appear to hold the same level of difficulty. Rather than being attributed to skill deficits, the limited use of ADVOKATE may be due to police officers not remembering the different components, or struggling with perceived time constraints (see e.g., Hill & Moston, 2011).

*Cognitive Interview.*

A number of studies have examined the operation of the Cognitive Interview for interviews with cooperative witnesses and POIs. Examining the performance of the Cognitive Interview with witnesses, Clarke and Milne (2001) and Dando et al. (2009a) found police officers did not perform any components with a mean value above the median. Of the four components measured in both studies, the inexperienced police officers in Dando et al.’s sample performed at a higher level than the more experienced police officers in Clarke and Milne’s sample in Report everything, Context reinstatement, and Concentration. In contrast, the more experienced police officers performed at a higher level with regard to Witness
compatible questioning. Given the length of time between the studies, it is reasonable to suggest training may have improved in effectiveness. Comparison of the most and least skilfully performed components for the samples in Clarke and Milne (2001) and Dando et al. (2009a) reveals some similarities (although the overlap of components was limited). For Clarke and Milne’s sample, the most skilfully performed components were Witness compatible questioning, Transfer control, and Report everything. The least skilfully performed components were Change perspective, Change order, and Imagery. For Dando et al.’s sample, the most skilfully performed components were Concentration, Never guess, and Context reinstatement. The least skilfully performed components were Free Recall account, Rapport, and Explain. Given the limited training of the sample in Dando et al., it is surprising that components of relative ease (e.g., Free Recall account) were performed less skilfully than those typically associated with requiring more skill (e.g., Context reinstatement). In contrast, the findings in Clarke and Milne appear consistent with those components typically associated with requiring the least and most skill respectively. One explanation for these seemingly counterintuitive findings is that police officers in Dando et al.’s sample would have completed their interview training comparatively more recently than Clarke and Milne’s sample. To that end, those components commonly perceived as more difficult may have been less so for those having received training recently.

Research has also examined police officers’ reported frequencies of use for the individual components of the Cognitive Interview. Kebbell, Milne, and Wagstaff (1999) asked police officers trained in the use of the Cognitive Interview to report the frequency with which each component was used on a scale from Never to Always. Dando, Wilcock, and Milne (2008) asked police officers if they had used or attempted to use each component. While the scales are not directly comparable, the relative frequency of use can be compared. The most frequently used components in Kebbell et al.’s sample were Establish rapport, Report everything, and Encourage concentration. The most frequently used components in Dando et al.’s sample also included Rapport, in addition to Free Recall account and Explain. The least frequently used components in Kebbell et al.’s sample were Transfer control, Change perspectives, and Imagery. In contrast, the least frequently used components in Dando et al.’s sample were Mental reinstatement of context, Never guess, and Encourage concentration. The differences in findings may be due to the sample; the
mean length of service for police officers in Kebbell et al.’s sample was 12.0 years whereas the mean length of service of police officers in Dando et al.’s sample was 1.9 years. While police officers in Dando et al.’s sample may have received training more recently, it is police officers in Kebbell et al’s sample that are likely to have more experience interviewing. In addition, the studies were conducted after a large amount of time had elapsed, and changes in approaches to training may have influenced police officers’ use of particular components.

Police officers do not generally apply all aspects of the Cognitive Interview; an observation in both research examining the performance and perceptions of police officers (Dando et al., 2009a). Dando et al. suggest the neglect of some aspects, and the fact that none of the police officers in their study used or attempted all aspects, may be due to the cognitive requirements of the interview and the amount of instruction that may or may not be synthesised by inexperienced police officers. This observation particularly resonates with regard to the more challenging aspects of the interview. Dando et al. suggest there is insufficient training focused on interviewing witnesses and that police officers perceive the model as too difficult to apply in practice. Even having attended training, police officers commented on the difficulty applying cognitive techniques (Memon et al., 1994). Two police officers in Memon et al.’s study specifically referred to the communication aspect of their interview being compromised because they were concerned about how to apply techniques. These findings support those of Dando et al. (2009a) who found police officers were able to perform some aspects of the Cognitive Interview but others appeared to be too challenging to balance with the more basic aspects. An example of a technique identified as being too challenging is the context reinstatement component of the Cognitive Interview.

Although research has shown mental reinstatement of context increases the accuracy of recall (Dando, Wilcock, & Milne, 2009b), research with inexperienced police officers has shown this aspect of the Cognitive Interview is rarely performed (Dando et al., 2009a). Approximately 27% of inexperienced police officers in Dando et al.’s sample either used or attempted to use mental reinstatement of context which is suggested as one of the strongest aspects of the Cognitive Interview; however, they also note the high cognitive load required for police officers to use this aspect effectively (2009a). These findings support those of Wright and Alison (2004) who
found their sample of Canadian police officers did not frequently perform memory-enhancing techniques.

In addition to finding some aspects of the Cognitive Interview too challenging, police officers have commented that applying the model in its entirety is too time intensive, given their high workload and the perceived simplicity of some crimes (e.g., volume crime; Dando et al., 2009a). When asked whether they felt pressured to complete interviews, 74% of respondents indicated they usually or almost always felt pressured. Fifty percent of respondents cited workload and time as the source of the pressure. Some of the neglected aspects may be due to the challenge of applying all aspects of the model, with police officers unable to focus on every aspect (Dando et al., 2009a).

Given the perception that the cognitive load in conducting a Cognitive Interview in its entirety may be too high for inexperienced police officers, it has been suggested that initial training in the interview model be simplified to ensure its effectiveness (Dando et al., 2009a). With regard to interview training, 71% of respondents either Did not feel at all equipped or Did not feel very well equipped following PEACE training. Only 5% of respondents felt either Very well equipped or Extremely well equipped. Having completed training in a simplified version of the model, refresher training for Tier 1 could then build upon these basic skills. As noted previously, in Australia, a number of jurisdictions focus on the use of the Free Recall model in level one training, with basic memory retrieval techniques, rather than the application of the Cognitive Interview in its entirety (Tudor-Owen & Scott, 2015).

**Question types.**

It has been shown that police officers have an awareness of different question types and the impact utilising the different types of questions can have on an interview (Griffiths et al., 2011). This finding is unsurprising given the likelihood that interview training focuses on questioning; however, it is encouraging to note police officers retain this information and are able to critically analyse their performance in this regard. However, Griffiths and colleagues (2011) suggest further development is required for police officers to apply their knowledge and utilise more appropriate question types during the interview. The use of specific question types in interviews, and prioritising some question types over others, forms part of interview training. Various mnemonics are taught to police to encourage the use of open questions, in preference to closed questions; for example, TEDS (Tell me, Explain to
me, Describe to me, and Show me) and 5W1H (Who, What, When, Where, Why, and How). Researchers have attempted to measure the types of questions most commonly used by police and to understand why particular types are favoured over others, and whether question type impacts the account provided from the witness.

The questioning employed by police officers has implications for the admissibility of interviews as evidence, as well as shaping the tone of the interview in terms of building and maintaining rapport with the witness or POI. For example, Wright and Alison (2004) suggest asking leading questions and repeating questions can reinforce witness’ perception that the interviewer is an authority figure and can exacerbate the suggestive nature of these types of questions. Even amongst those who have received advanced interview training there appears to still be a focus on closed questions. In their study of the questioning of witnesses and POIs by police officers in the UK with advanced training, Griffiths and colleagues (2011) found police officers adopted a style preferring probing questions. While the authors contend the more controlled nature of this style of interviewing may suit interviews with POIs or uncooperative witnesses, it has the potential to limit the information provided by cooperative witnesses and may increase the amount of confabulation as the interview is not witness-led (Griffiths et al., 2011). Further, it has been suggested the increased use of closed questions may be deliberate, be it conscious or otherwise, to ensure the interview proceeds quickly, and to demonstrate power by not allowing the witness or POI to provide responses that may include rationalising behaviours (Oxburgh & Dando, 2011).

Closure.

With regard to the three interview stages of the PEACE model; Engage and explain, Account, and Closure, a comparatively limited number of components have been examined within the Closure stage. Further, the findings suggest components are not performed at PEACE standard. The three components measured in the Closure stage comprise Summarises interview (interviews with witnesses and POIs, Clarke & Milne, 2001; Walsh & Bull, 2010a; Walsh & Milne, 2008); Explain what happens next (interviews with witnesses, Clarke & Milne, 2001; Walsh & Bull, 2010a); and Overview of Closure (interviews with witnesses and POIs, Clarke & Milne, 2001). While the aim of an investigative interview is to elicit an account from the witness, the Closure stage of the interview contains important legal requirements in addition to leaving an impression on the witness or POI. Roberts (2010) suggests
the relationship between police officers and witnesses is important in determining the experience of the witness and may therefore have implications for whether witnesses will choose to engage with police at a later date.

**Evaluation.**

Evaluation in the context of investigative interviewing is “barely researched” (Walsh & Bull, 2010a, p. 130). While the Preparation and planning stage has been examined retrospectively using interview data, there is no such option for examining the Evaluation stage. It is not clear whether officers do not engage in self-, peer-, or supervisor-evaluation, or whether the data is not available for analysis for practical or confidentiality reasons. From a practical point of view, the accuracy of evaluations should be simple to analyse provided there is access to the interview itself and the evaluation. This analysis would involve a comparison of the evaluation to the content of the interview. However, it would be more difficult to assess the impact of evaluation on subsequent performance in interviews. To date, neither of these approaches to analysing evaluations have been adopted in the context of investigative interviewing.

To some extent, it can be contended that research examining the perceptions of interviewers is a type of self-evaluation, particularly when respondents are asked about how often they apply techniques and how well they believed they have performed them. While much of the early research evaluating the PEACE model has focused on identifying and assessing performance indicators, attention has increasingly been paid to examining the perceptions of individuals trained in its use. These different approaches to evaluating the PEACE model allow for comparisons between police (and other investigators’) perceptions and actual performance. For example, Walsh and Bull (2011) found a distinct ‘gap’ between benefit fraud investigators’ perceptions and their actual performance in investigative interviews, with benefit fraud investigators evaluating their own performance more favourably than independent assessors.

Research examining the perceptions of police officers and benefit fraud investigators has consistently found that planning for interviews is considered to be an important part of the interview process (Cherryman & Bull, 2001; Soukara et al., 2002; Walsh & Bull, 2011). For example, Cherryman and Bull found that police officers trained in specialist investigative interviews ranked preparation as the second most important skill after listening, in terms of its importance in the interview
Additionally, Soukara et al. found that 95% of respondent detectives considered planning to be important and Walsh and Bull found that 96% of respondent benefit fraud investigators considered planning to be important, with 80% considering groundwork to be a Constant or Regular aspect of practice. Interviewers’ self-reported planning practices vary. For example, Walsh and Bull found that 63% of respondent benefit fraud investigators reported they planned Always and 10% reported they planned Very often. With regard to skill level, Hill and Moston (2011) found that 2% of respondent police officers reported Excellent; 26% reported Above average; and 65% reported Average skill at Planning and preparation. These findings suggest that while most police officers perceive planning as being an important part of the interview process, less police officers engage in actively planning all of the time, and even less perceive their planning as being Excellent or Above average. Training may then be tailored towards instruction in how to plan effectively and encouraging police officers to do this for each interview conducted.

In terms of articulating important aspects of an interview, Oxburgh and Dando (2011) suggest a quality interview is one in which appropriate questioning is adopted; interviewers have received adequate training; and the interviewing style adopted by the interviewer is empathic. When police officers are questioned about what they believe is important in an interview, they report listening, preparation, questioning, knowledge of subject, flexibility, open mindedness, rapport, and compassion/empathy as being the most important (Bull & Cherryman, 1996). Swedish police surveyed regarding interviewing victims of domestic violence were also asked about the main aim of interviews with witnesses and most often cited obtaining as much information as possible and establishing rapport (Hartwig, Dawson, Wrede, & Ask, 2012). These findings are consistent with those of Powell, Kebbell, and Milne (2009) who state police officers perceived courtesy, respect, patience, and honesty as being important in interviewing marginalised populations. The attributes cited in these studies largely relate to the rapport building and basic communication aspects of the interview, rather than any specific techniques that may be advocated. When questioned about the attributes contributing to being an effective detective, detectives most commonly cited communication skills (Westera, Kebbell, Milne, & Green, 2016). Relevantly with regard to interviewing, specific aspects of communication required to be an effective detective included rapport, empathy,
humility, being non-judgmental and ‘good with people’ (2016, p. 7). In terms of whether these perceptions are translated into practice, Dando et al. (2009a) found rapport and explain were the most frequently utilised aspects of the Cognitive Interview performed by inexperienced police officers, with approximately half the sample engaging in rapport activities and two-thirds of the sample exampling the interview process to witnesses. While the perception of the effectiveness of the explain aspect of the Cognitive Interview was not surveyed, respondents indicated the rapport aspect was at least Quite effective (Dando et al., 2009a).

With regard to perceptions of the individual components within the Account stage of the interview, Dando et al. (2008) studied the interviewing practices of inexperienced police officers with a mean length of service of 1.9 years. Of eight aspects of the PEACE Cognitive Interview: Rapport, Report everything, Never guess, Uninterrupted account, Concentration, Recall in a variety of orders, Change perspective, and Mental reinstatement; respondents ranked Rapport, Uninterrupted account, Report everything, Mental reinstatement, Never guess, and Concentrate as being at least Quite effective. In contrast, Recall in a variety of orders was considered Not very effective, and Change perspective was considered Never effective. As those aspects perceived as being most effective were similar to those reported as being used least frequently, it may be suggested recruits perceive those aspects as least effective because they are least used. Alternatively, those aspects may be least used because they are perceived as being least effective. While Dando et al.’s (2008) findings demonstrate the aspects of the cognitive interview inexperienced police officers perceive as effective, and believe is used most frequently, they suggest the need for research conducted immediately post-training to determine whether the perceptions are impacted by training, or by experiences once they have begun their practice.

**Interpersonal aspects of the interview.**

The way in which the interview is conducted may have implications for the quality of the information provided from the witness; that is, their account (Dando et al., 2009; Roberts, 2011a). Given the positive relationship between accurate witness accounts and investigative outcomes, there is an assumption that quality investigative interviewing, insofar as it results in accurate witness accounts, will result in positive investigative outcomes (Fisher, 2010). Emphasising the need for police to actively engage in rapport building, trust and confidence in police are considered key
components in both encouraging witnesses to report offences to the police, and in conducting quality interviews (Roberts, 2011a). Given the adversarial nature of interviews with POIs, building rapport may be a challenging task (Abbe & Brandon, 2014). However, even in interviews with witnesses rapport building may be challenging due to the power differential between interviewer and interviewee.

The difficulty of measuring the construct of rapport and its influence on an interview is documented in the literature (Collins, Lincoln, & Frank, 2002). In the context of an investigative interview, rapport building begins in the Engage and explain phase of the interview when the interviewer introduces him/herself and provides instructions to the interviewee (Walsh & Bull, 2012). Rapport is demonstrated in the Account phase of the interview by active listening, maintaining a calm persona, and speaking in a respectful tone (Walsh & Bull, 2012). As with the Engage and explain stage of the interview, the Closure stage provides an obvious opportunity for demonstrating rapport. During this stage of the interview the interviewer summarises the account and asks the interviewee if they would like to add or change anything, explains what will happen next, and ensures the interviewee is comfortable ending the interview (Walsh & Bull, 2012).

The complex nature of processes within the interview itself can be exemplified by the practice of rapport building. While rapport building is encouraged in interviews, both initially in the Engage and explain stage and throughout the interview, the way rapport is built, through affirming nods and sounds, can also unintentionally influence the witness’ account (Wright & Alison, 2004). While minimal verbal and non-verbal encouragers are effective to building rapport (Read et al., 2009), interviewers need to have a high level of awareness to ensure encouragement is not provided with regard to particular aspects of the account so as to highlight approval or disproval at various points. As police officers who have received advanced interview training have noted difficulty combining multiple processes; for example, listening and developing questions (Griffiths et al., 2011), the additional task of reflecting on how questions are asked and what verbal and non-verbal cues are being provided, may be a daunting and unachievable task for recruits and less experienced police officers.

Empirical testing of the effect of rapport building is problematic due to its individual nature and the unique interaction between two people (Collins et al., 2002). In order to examine the effect of rapport on the recall of witnesses, Collins et
al. (2002), tested the recall of witnesses under three conditions: rapport building, neutral, and abrupt. The conditions were manipulated by varying verbal and non-verbal aspects of the interview. For example, use of the interviewee’s name, dialogue, and tone of voice. As these are subjective measures, participants were asked for their perception of the interviewer after the interview had been concluded. Significantly more correct details were elicited from witnesses in the rapport building condition than in either the neutral or abrupt conditions, and no significant difference observed between the latter two conditions.

In the context of the PEACE interview, a number of studies cited earlier in this review with regard to the performance of components within the PEACE model included Rapport as an examined component, although it was generally limited to the Engage and explain stage of the interview. Findings showed that all samples of inexperienced police officers, experienced police officers, and benefit fraud investigators performed the Rapport component with a mean score below PEACE standard (interviews with witnesses and POIs, Clarke & Milne, 2001; Clarke et al., 2011; Dando et al., 2009a; Walsh & Bull, 2010a; Walsh & Milne, 2008). Walsh and Bull (2012) examined the effect of rapport building and maintenance in the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages on interview outcomes with suspects of benefit fraud. While rapport is often associated with the initial part of the interview, there was no significant effect between rapport building in the Engage and explain stage and the interview outcome. In contrast, there was a significant effect between rapport maintenance in the Account phase and the interview outcome, with rapport maintenance performed at or above PEACE standard, associated with a positive interview outcome (a comprehensive account or a full confession). Calculations regarding the association between skill level in rapport maintenance in the Closure stage and positive interview outcomes were not possible as all Closure stages were performed below PEACE standard.

Walsh and Bull (2012) further found that the level of skill for rapport building in the Engage and explain stage was not necessarily mirrored for rapport maintenance (continuing to engage in rapport building behaviours) in the Account stage, with some benefit fraud investigators improving their skill in this area as the interview progressed, and some regressing. Performance of rapport building and rapport maintenance (in the Engage and explain and Account stages respectively) at or above PEACE standard was associated with the highest percentage of positive
interview outcomes and performance of rapport building and rapport maintenance below PEACE standard was associated with the lowest percentage of positive interview outcomes. Where performance of either rapport building or rapport maintenance was below PEACE standard, a higher percentage of positive interview outcomes were observed when the performance of rapport building was below PEACE standard and rapport maintenance was above PEACE standard. These findings demonstrate that while performance of rapport building at or above PEACE standard in the Engage and explain stage is not significantly associated with positive interview outcomes, optimum interview outcomes are attained when both the rapport building and rapport maintenance in the Account stage is performed above PEACE standard.

One of the key differences between the investigative and confrontational approaches to interviewing is the transfer of control to the interviewee, particularly in the context of interviews with witnesses. Griffiths, Milne, and Cherryman (2011) found police officers interviewing witnesses and POIs both displayed a concerted attempt to control the interviews and, despite having received advanced training in interviewing, still adopted a similar approach when interviewing compliant POIs and witnesses, perhaps demonstrating that flexibility in approach is more of a higher order task than previously thought. Even though police officers are trained to allow the witness to have control over their interview, those police officers articulated a clear agenda when questioning following the initial recall by the witness. These findings support those of Wright and Alison (2004) who found their sample of Canadian police officers appeared to ask questions in such a way as to confirm their beliefs about what had occurred. In this way, although the interviewee is invited to provide an initial account, the police officer maintains control through their questioning after the account has been given instead of using the account to direct the interview. Police officers have commented on the difficulty of combining listening and formulating a questioning strategy, with some police officers identifying aspects of self-reflection during the interview as contributing to the complexity (Griffiths et al., 2011). The ultimate aim for interviewers is to reflect within the interview and tailor an approach accordingly; however, these findings highlight the difficulty of reflecting and then implementing feedback whilst in the midst of conducting an interview.
Impact of training.

Historically, formal police training in investigative interviewing has been limited, and what training was received was not necessarily informed by empirical research (Yarbrough et al., 2013). The review of investigative training in Australia presented earlier in this chapter highlights the increasing use of empirically-informed interviewing practices, particularly in the area of interviews with vulnerable witnesses. Fisher (2010; Fisher et al., 2011) notes key components of successful interview training include motivated participants; conveying the principles informing the protocol; providing demonstrations and opportunities to role-play; provision of feedback; and refresher training at regular intervals. An early review of studies examining the impact of training on interview performance concluded that knowledge acquired through training resulted in limited improvement in practice (Powell, 2002). Where improvements have been noted as result of training and supervision, there is concern that these improvements are not sustained (Lamb et al., 2002). Lamb and colleagues (2002) noted that even after extensive supervision over a period of 12 months, interviews conducted in the six months following the conclusion of the supervision had reduced significantly in quality.

Studies of the impact of training on the performance of the PEACE model reveal mixed findings, with no discernible pattern with regard to the timing of the studies. That is, there are some earlier studies showing training having a significant impact on performance (e.g., McGurk et al., 1993) and some showing limited impact (e.g., Aldridge & Cameron, 1995). Further, later studies, where it might have been expected that training practices had improved, also show findings indicating training has a significant impact (e.g., Walsh & Milne, 2008) and others where the impact is limited (e.g., Clarke & Milne, 2001; Clarke et al., 2011). With regard to assessing performance, indicators will vary depending on the component being measured. For example, assessing questioning in comparison to rapport building. Assessment of questioning will take into account the presence and absence of particular question types, whereas assessment of rapport building will consider tone of voice and sitting position.

Considering the studies individually, McGurk and colleagues (1993) found the overall quality of police officers’ interviews with witnesses was significantly improved following training, and this was maintained six-months after training had concluded. In contrast, Aldridge and Cameron (1995) found no significant
differences in the number of questions asked in particular categories across the following three groups: those pairs who had received no training; those pairs who had completed evidential interview training; and those pairs where one participant had completed the evidential interview training and one had not. Walsh and Milne’s (2008) comparison of PEACE-trained and untrained benefit fraud investigators’ interviews with POIs found a significant association with PEACE training and performing skilled or highly skilled interviews. In contrast, Clarke and Milne (2001) and Clarke et al.’s (2011) examination of the impact of training on police officers’ performance on interviews with POIs (and witnesses in Clarke and Milne [2001]) did not find an association between training and a positive interview outcome. Of the studies explicitly examining the PEACE stages, Clarke and Milne, and Clarke et al. did not find training had a significant impact on the performance of any of the analysed stages, and Walsh and Milne (2008) found training only had an overall significant impact on the performance of the Closure stage, with benefit fraud investigators trained in PEACE displaying higher levels of competency. However, training had a significant impact on the performance of some individual components of interviews with POIs (Clarke & Milne, 2001; McGurk et al., 1993; Walsh & Milne, 2008).

In terms of the performance of the individual stages of the PEACE model, training has not generally been found to be effective in improving Preparation and planning (Clarke et al., 2011; Walsh and Milne, 2008). When interviewing POIs, police officers trained in the use of PEACE demonstrated increased competency in planning in comparison to untrained police officers. However, with regard to interviewing witnesses of crime, there were no significant differences noted between police officers trained in the use of PEACE and those who were not (Clarke & Milne, 2001). Walsh and Milne (2008) found no difference in the Preparation and planning of benefit fraud investigators who were trained and investigators who were untrained in the PEACE model of interviewing. A recent study examining Preparation and planning in the context of PEACE was with a sample of police officers and used a five-point scale ranging from No apparent planning to A good understanding of the case (Clarke et al., 2011). In addition to not showing any significant differences between the trained and untrained groups, there were no significant differences due to supervision or the presence of a legal advisor.
However, mean values for Preparation and planning were slightly higher than those reported in Walsh and Milne (2008) and Walsh and Bull (2010a).

With regard to the interview stages of the model, McGurk et al. (1993) found training resulted in a significant improvement in the performance of Introducing the interview, Establishing the credibility of the witness, Questioning technique, Communication skills, Structuring the interview, and Listening skills in interviews with witnesses. These improvements were mirrored in interviews with POIs, with the exception of Establishing the credibility of the witness as it was not relevant. In addition, training resulted in a significant improvement in the performance of Obtaining the suspect’s version of events, and Having an open mind, in interviews with POIs. In their later study examining the interviewing practices of benefit fraud investigators, Walsh and Milne (2008) found a significant difference between trained and untrained benefit fraud investigators in the performance of Delivery of caution in the Engage and explain stage; Encourages suspect to give version of events, Develops topics for discussion, Deals with difficulty, Explores information received from suspect, and Uses of pauses and silence, in the Account stage. There was also a significant difference in the overall performance of the Closure stage.

In contrast, Clarke and Milne (2001) found training did not significantly impact the performance of components within the interview, or the overall interview outcome in interviews with witnesses. Further, Clarke and Milne found training did not significantly impact the performance of components within the Preparation and planning, Engage and explain, or Closure stages of interviews with POIs. This pattern was observed across the components within the Account stage, although there were aspects of questioning in interviews with POIs that were significantly impacted by training. These findings were largely supported by those in Clarke et al. (2011), where it was found training did not significantly impact the performance of components within the Engage and explain, Account, or Closure stages in interviews with POIs.

Possible explanations for the limited impact of training may be the method of delivery, the ability of officers to change behaviours that may be ingrained through their practice, or the difficulty in transferring skills gained in practice to the context of the workplace. While training can be effective in increasing the skills of participants, research has found that the maintenance of these skills is improved by a specific aspect of the training focused on transferring the skills gained to the
workplace (Heaven, Clegg, & Maguire, 2006). Broader, cultural issues may also impact the long term influence of training. In a focused learning environment such as a police academy, there is constant motivation to perform well and improve practice. However, officers working in the field may not receive the same level of explicit encouragement to improve interviewing practices or implement techniques learned during training, particularly if these involve taking more time in the interview. To that end, a cultural shift towards emphasising the importance of best practice is key in observing an overall improvement within the field (Tudor-Owen & Scott, 2015).

Looking Outside the Investigative Interviewing Context

Having reviewed the literature examining the five stages of the PEACE model, it is evident that limited research has examined the Preparation and planning and Evaluation stages of the PEACE model, or planning and evaluation in the context of investigative interviewing generally. To that end, literature from other disciplines can provide an avenue by which to contextualise research and findings. The consideration of Preparation and planning in other contexts will include a discussion of the planned behaviour and goal-setting theories and the concepts of perceived behavioural control and self-efficacy. These sections will be followed by a discussion of scenario planning in the context of business. The consideration of Evaluation in other contexts will focus on self-evaluation and will also include a discussion of the relevance of the planned behaviour and goal-setting theories and the concepts of perceived behavioural control and self-efficacy. These sections will be followed by a discussion of the theory of temporal self-appraisal, the ‘unskilled and unaware’ phenomenon, and the use of feedback in facilitating self-evaluation.

Preparation and planning in other contexts.

Theory of planned behaviour.

Although they are usually discussed in different contexts, components within the theories of planned behaviour and goal-setting, and the concepts of perceived behavioural control and self-efficacy may have implications for the Preparation and planning stage of the PEACE model. The premise of these theories, that intention impacts behaviour (Ryan, 1958), provides rationale for the suggestion that police officers plan for interviews. If what is written in a plan is characterised as an expression of intention, the factors influencing intention as per the theory of planned behaviour may be relevant in informing and explaining planning practices. The
theory of planned behaviour proposes that an individual’s behaviour is determined by their intention, which is in turn determined by social pressures, the individual’s attitude, and perceived behavioural control. Later research by Ajzen and colleagues found support for the direct link between perceived behavioural control and behaviour, suggesting that if intention is held constant, an individual with greater perceived behavioural control should be more likely to engage in the intended behaviour than someone with comparatively less perceived behavioural control (Ajzen, 1991). The concept of perceived behavioural control will be defined and discussed in further detail in subsequent paragraphs.

**Goal-setting theory.**

Goal-setting theory considers the relationship between intention and task performance (Locke & Latham, 2002). The distinction between the theory of planned behaviour and goal-setting theory can also be made on the basis of their origin in psychology, with the former generally attributed to social psychologists and the latter to organisational psychologists. Summarising what is known about goal-setting and performance, Locke and Latham (2006) state that harder and more specific goals result in higher levels of performance than easier or vague goals (see Locke, 1968 for a meta-analysis). In addition, when a goal is identified by an individual, attention will be focused on attaining that goal and in turn may be directed away from unrelated tasks. Locke and Byron (1969) studied participants’ ability to improve different aspects of a multi-task driving exercise. Participants completed the driving task three times, with the latter two times focused on improving a different aspect each time. The findings show that performance was improved in the assigned tasks, but was not necessarily sustained when the assigned task was then changed. These findings support the suggestion that specific goals lead to improved performance. While not directly assessed, findings also suggest that it may not be possible to work on improving multiple tasks simultaneously and support the assertion that skill and ability may mitigate the impact of intention on performance.

In terms of the practice of planning, goal-setting theory provides some guidance. Gollwitzer (1993) suggests implementation intentions, or an operationalised plan, would assist in achieving the broader goal intentions. In the context of interviewing, the interviewer would need to identify a goal(s) for the interview and plan accordingly, articulating specific intentions (Locke, 1968; Locke & Latham, 2006). However, it has also been noted that achievement of goals may be
delayed (Locke, 1968), and may remain in the subconscious (Locke & Latham, 2006). That is, once a person has identified a goal, it may not need to be ruminated on constantly for the goal to be achieved. To that end, completing interview training and identifying goals for interviews may have a positive impact on performance, without the requirement for constant reflection.

**Perceived behavioural control and self-efficacy.**

The concepts of perceived behavioural control and self-efficacy are relevant to the theory of planned behavior and goal-setting theory. Perceived behavioural control determines the individual’s perception of the difficulty of the task by taking into account the intention as well as the individual’s own abilities and experiences that will impact completion of the task (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Madden, 1986). Perceived behavioural control is similar to self-efficacy, which refers to an individual’s belief they can achieve a desired outcome (Bandura, 1977). Bandura suggests self-efficacy will impact whether an individual initiates a task, as well as how persistent that individual will be in completing the task. Therefore, increasing self-efficacy (or perceived behavioural control) may result in increased performance and/or achievement of desired tasks.

Although self-efficacy was initially discussed in the context of treatment modalities for mental illness, there are clear applications of the concept to broader domains. Increasing self-efficacy, and thereby increasing to likelihood of desired behaviours, should address the four domains of personal accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal (Bandura, 1977). Activities commonly incorporated into interview training can effectively target these domains. For example, role playing interviews with witnesses and POIs with feedback from peers and supervisors, instructional learning in the form of seminars, and the use of modelling to demonstrate mastery. Where these activities are undertaken in a supportive environment, the opportunity to develop self-efficacy is increased, as the activities will not be associated with a stressful environment.

The main criticisms of theories linking intention and behaviour consider the intention-behaviour gap. That is, an understanding of the internal and external factors that offer an explanation as to why intention is not always translated into behaviour (Moghavvemi, Salleh, Sulaiman, & Abessi, 2015). Internal factors are those specific to the individual; for example, skills, abilities, and past experiences. External factors are those with which the individual has no control; for example, opportunities,
competing time pressures, and the requirement for cooperation from third parties (Ajzen & Madden, 1986). However, it is suggested that planning and increased self-efficacy (or perceived behavioural control) can be used to bridge the intention-behaviour gap (Sniehotta, Scholz, & Schwarzer, 2005).

In the context of the relationship between intention and behaviour, an implementation intention can be described as a specific plan to achieve a goal intention (a broad aim; Gollwitzer, 1993) and is associated with an increased likelihood to engage in the intended behaviour (Gollwitzer, 1993; Sniehotta et al., 2005). Implementation intention is considered important when there are factors present that may negatively impact an individual’s goal; for example, it may be that there are multiple ways to achieve the goal (Bamberg, 2000). In the context of the theory of planned behaviour, the concept of implementation intention is based on the premise that planning for a goal may increase perceived behavioural control (or, relatedly, self-efficacy), which would then increase the likelihood of the goal being achieved (Bamberg, 2000). Further, Bamberg (2000) found that the use of an implementation intention also increased the likelihood of the goal being achieved even when the goal itself went against a habit, as in the case of changing mode of transport.

Similarly, the practical application of the theory of planned behaviour requires a consideration of the components of an individual’s psychology that may predict engagement in a particular behaviour (be it desirable or otherwise; Ajzen, 1991). This theory proposes that intention, perceived behavioural control, attitudes, and social pressures contribute to the likelihood of a desired behaviour; in this case, skilful interviewing. To that end, it is important that training for interviewing takes into account these factors. While content knowledge delivered in the form of lectures is likely to assist in individuals forming appropriate intentions, and role-playing interviewing behaviours is likely to assist in maximising perceived behavioural control, attitudes and social pressures are more likely to be fostered as a result of the culture of the training environment; for example, the perception of peers and supervisors. Therefore, it is important that each of these factors receive consideration in the development of training protocol for interviewing.

**Scenario planning.**

Planning, while a disciplined activity of sorts, promotes flexibility and adaptation (Mumford, Schultz, & Van Doorn, 2001). In business, it is utilised to
encourage flexibility in uncertain economic climates (Phelps, Chan, & Kapsalis, 2001). The increased ability to be flexible can be linked to the more recent scenario planning (see e.g., Phelps et al., 2001). This form of planning encourages businesses to identify multiple hypothetical scenarios that may eventuate in the future and provides the opportunity to plan for achieving the best possible outcomes in each of these scenarios. Its rise in popularity has corresponded with increasing literature published in the area (Varum & Melo, 2010). Scenario planning is the formalisation of wisdom that has, in effect, always been in operation (Chermack & Coons, 2015) as it represents the idea of planning for the worst-case scenario (and any other likely scenario) to ensure the most positive outcome regardless of the circumstance. The process addresses diversity and uncertainty (Zapata & Kaza, 2015), and may decrease the cognitive load of the interview as they are prepared for a number of eventualities. However, while scenario planning is designed to be inclusive of all relevant stakeholders, there is some discussion that this inclusivity is problematic due to the need to balance competing objectives (Zapata & Kaza, 2015).

While there is limited research considering the readily quantifiable benefits of utilising a scenario planning strategy, in their review of the scenario planning literature, Varum and Melo (2010) note the commonly cited benefits of scenario planning as being an increased ability to identify challenges that may be faced in the future (and the opportunity to then prepare for these) and the associated learning benefits from engaging in the process of identifying scenarios. Winch and Arthur (2002) suggest that identifying possible scenarios and making plans accordingly increases confidence as the organisation (or individual) is prepared for any eventuality. Given interviews with witnesses should be witness-led, the interviewer is unable to predict the direction of the interview, nor its outcomes. As such, the process of creating a plan documenting possible outcomes of the interview with corresponding notes and instructions may assist in increasing confidence. Further, confidence imbued by this application of scenario planning may assist in creating the cognitive space to focus on other aspects of the interview that are not directly related to questioning about the account; for example, procedural matters and rapport building. The application of scenario planning to investigative interviewing would encourage the interviewer to plan for the multiple purposes of the interview (e.g., investigative and evidentiary; Powell, 2002; Westera, Kebbell, & Milne, 2011), as well as for multiple outcomes.
Evaluation in other contexts.

Relevance of theories of planned behaviour and goal-setting.

As the relevance of the theories of planned behaviour and goal-setting have been described with regard to planning, they will not be defined again here. However, it is important to note the relevance of these theories to the discussion of self-evaluation. When discussing the relationship between intention and behaviour, it was suggested that what is included in a written plan could be characterised as an expression of intention. It may also be suggested that identifying an aspect of behaviour to improve, as is the case in the context of self-evaluations, may also be characterised as an expression of intention. In that way, the discussion regarding the importance of perceived behavioural control and self-efficacy in the above section regarding planning is also relevant to the understanding the potential impact of self-evaluations on behaviour.

Theory of temporal self-appraisal.

It was Socrates who, according to his biographer, Plato, stated,

So I considered him thoroughly – I need not speak of him by name, but he was one of the politicians – and when I considered him and conversed with him, men of Athens, I was affected something like this: it seemed to me that this man seemed to be wise, both to many other human beings and most of all to himself, but that he was not. So from this I became hateful both to him and to many of those present.

For my part, as I went away, I reasoned with regard to myself: “I am wiser than this human being. For probably neither of us knows anything noble and good, but he supposes he knows something when he does not know, while I, just as I do not know, do not even suppose that I do. I am likely to be a little bit wiser than he in this very thing: that whatever I do not know, I do not even suppose I know.” (Plato & Trenderick, 1954, para. 6).

The specific concept of self-evaluation is relevant to the research presented in this thesis. As highlighted above, the idea of knowing what you do not know, or believing you know what you do not, is not a new one. The theory of temporal self-appraisal suggests that people tend to consider their past self in a way that is flattering to their current self. For example, by being over critical of their past self in order to feel more superior in the present (Wilson & Ross, 2001). Further,
individuals report feeling ‘closer’ to their past self when the perception is positive, or has positive implications for their current self (Ross & Wilson, 2002). Examination of the relationship between time and perceptions, in particular, temporal landmarks, found perceptions of a prior self were more likely to be different following a landmark (e.g., birthday, end of semester, Christmas; Haddock, 2004). That is, individuals were more disconnected from their prior self, suggesting the importance placed on landmarks in influencing perceptions. This theory has implications for the practice of self-evaluation, as accuracy of perceptions are likely to be influenced by time and whether or not the experience is consistent with the individual’s ideal self. According to the theory of temporal self-appraisal, most self-evaluations are going to be more critical than is reflected in actual performance. This observation contrasts with Walsh and Bull’s (2011) examination of benefit fraud investigators’ perception of their performance, which found investigators perceived their performance more favourably than independent researchers. Therefore, it is important to assist police officers in developing the skill to accurately self-evaluate without decreasing their self-efficacy.

‘Unskilled and unaware’.

It has been suggested that people underperforming may not only lack the skill to perform well, but also lack the skill to accurately self-evaluate, as the metacognition (or thinking about our own thinking) required for particular aspects of work is also required to accurately evaluate one’s performance (Dunning, Johnson, Ehrlinger, and Kruger, 2003; Kruger & Dunning, 1999). This phenomenon has been referred to as ‘unskilled and unaware’ (Kruger & Dunning, 1999). Kruger and Dunning (1999) found people with training to improve their metacognition were more able to accurately evaluate their own performance. The findings from Kruger and Dunning (1999) also show participants who were less capable, were not only less capable of accurately evaluating their performance, they were also less capable of learning from others as they were less likely to identify competence in others and adjust their perceptions of their own performance. In terms of interviewing, in particular when in training, police officers are likely to be less aware of their own inadequacies in performance until they have received sufficient training to identify these areas for improvement. To that end, accuracy in self-evaluations may not be possible until after training has been undertaken.
Consistent with the theory of temporal self-appraisal, further research examining the ‘unskilled and unaware’ phenomenon contends people are less likely to accurately self-evaluate when they perceive the task being evaluated to be relevant (Kim, Chiu, & Bregant, 2015). Specifically, where the task is one that is considered important by the person, they are more likely to overestimate their performance to avoid compromising their sense of achievement (Kim et al., 2015). Kim and colleagues (2015) suggest that people with low metacognitive abilities may be able to accurately self-evaluate but they choose not to as a self-protective mechanism. When individuals are engaged in self-evaluation for the purposes of assessment, for example, they may be even less likely to evaluate accurately. To maximise the accuracy of the process, in a professional context, police officers should be encouraged in the process as a way of ensuring their performance is improved, rather than self-evaluation (and negative self-perception) being seen as the endpoint.

There are critics of the ‘unskilled and unaware’ phenomenon who suggest there are alternative explanations to the overinflated evaluation provided by less skilled participants and underestimated evaluation provided by the more skilled participants (Krajc & Ortmann, 2008). One important critique posed by Krajc and Ortmann is that the samples used by Dunning, Kruger and colleagues are not representative of the general population as they sample psychology students at competitive universities. Given the ability of students attending the universities in the sample, they contend that the sample with lower skills has not experienced sufficient feedback to be able to self-evaluate accurately, rather than having lower metacognitive ability.

Use of feedback.

Accurate self-evaluation is considered to be a learned behaviour, with feedback from others a key component in developing the skill (McCarthy, Meier, & Rinderer, 1985). This understanding is important in a training context, as it would appear people need to be provided with feedback in order to test their ability to accurately evaluate themselves. Ozogul, Olina, and Sullivan (2008) compared feedback provided to pre-service teachers in the form of teacher-, peer-, and self-evaluation. The authors found initial scores on the task (preparation of a lesson plan by pre-service teachers) were lowest in those evaluated by the teacher, followed by self-evaluation, and peer-evaluation with the highest score. Following the implementation of feedback, scores for the final plans in all conditions increased
significantly, with scores for the final teacher-evaluated plans significantly higher than those in the self-evaluated or peer-evaluated conditions. These findings demonstrate that evaluation in general is important in improving performance, but that evaluation by someone with objectively more expertise may be most effective as comparatively greater improvement was observed when feedback was provided by a teacher, rather than by a peer or through self-evaluation. This model of integrated feedback effectively triangulates feedback from multiple sources. One way of improving self-evaluation, and incorporating feedback from others would be by requesting individuals complete a structured self-evaluation and then having a third party provide feedback on the self-evaluation (Schunk, 2003). These types of activities to encourage accurate self-evaluation could be readily integrated into role-playing scenarios currently in operation in interviewing training for recruits.

Providing clear guidelines of what is expected is essential in facilitating self-evaluation and ensuring the individual is aware of expectations (Schunk, 2003). Without providing the guidelines, there is no sense of what is required and no anchor upon which to base the self-evaluation. Research suggests modelling behaviour as a way to improve self-efficacy and increase performance (Schunk, 2003). In particular, there is a distinction between a coping model and a mastery model; the coping model shows the process and some of the difficulties associated with the task, whereas the mastery model performs the task with no errors (Schunk, 2003). Consistent with suggestions based on increasing self-efficacy, the use of role-play and modelling in interview training would provide both coping and mastery models for police officers. The use of modelling in interview training, with commentary regarding expected outcomes and standards in the interview is a way to practically demonstrate expectations for interviews to ensure police officers have a standard against which to compare their performance. Given the influence of time on perceptions of self and performance, it would also be important to provide regular opportunities for police officers to have these behaviours modelled to ensure continued accuracy for evaluations of their own performance.

**Integrating Reflective Practices in Investigative Interviewing**

Reflective practice, or reflexivity, is promoted within human service professions as a way of engaging in mindful practice. For example, social workers are encouraged to engage in reflective practice with an emphasis on critical reflection
In defining reflexivity, it has been suggested there are three variations: in response to a given situation and formulating a course of action; critical thinking and awareness of self; and the use of self and emotions in practice (D’Cruz et al., 2007). These variations are each relevant to some degree to investigative interviewing; however, for the purposes of the research presented in this thesis, it is the first two variations that appear to be most relevant. While the use of self and emotions is critically important in any work with people, it is obviously more so in a therapeutic context, notwithstanding the association between rapport building, for example, and the quality of interviews (Walsh & Bull, 2012). At its most theoretical, reflexivity in the context of social work is intended to ensure the practitioner is cognisant of power dynamics and how these influence the client (D’Cruz et al., 2007). Applied to the context of investigative interviewing, this idea may be useful in encouraging witness-led interviewing, rather than police officers imposing their agenda.

The concept of reflexivity or critical reflection has been used in social work to bridge the gap between academic knowledge and practice knowledge (D’Cruz, 2007). This particular challenge has been experienced in investigative interviewing as research is not always well communicated to, or well received by frontline police officers (Grote & Mitchell, 2007). West (1996 cited in Chow et al., 2011) suggests reflexivity comprises elements of planning, action, and reflection. In an attempt to increase reflexivity in social work students, Chow et al. (2011) developed a course consisting of a variety of activities to cultivate reflexivity: experiential exercises, reflective discussion, using visual aids, assigned readings, journal writing, and self-directed learning. Students participating in the course showed increased self-reflection; both in self-reported need for self-reflection, and actual engagement in the
process, with changes noted immediately following the conclusion of the course and at the beginning of the next semester. While these activities are not necessarily suited to recruit training, or even practical in a policing context, there are aspects that may be useful for some or all recruits, recognising that it is important to incorporate different styles of learning in training.

While understanding that the Preparation and planning and Evaluation stages of the PEACE model are distinctly related to investigative interviewing, these two stages of the model are inherently process-oriented. To that end, the use of literature and ideas from other disciplines is relevant to furthering an understanding of these stages. Further, although reflective practice is commonly associated with human services professions, the work of the police is very much aligned with the provision of services to vulnerable people. As such, reflexivity as a matter of common practice will ensure the utility of the Preparation and planning and Evaluation stages of the interview, whilst also having a positive effect on broader policing work.

**Aims and Rationale**

The research presented in this thesis will address a number of gaps in the existing literature by analysing the planning and self-evaluation practices of recruits. While Preparation and planning is considered a key stage of the PEACE model (Bull & Soukara, 2010), limited direction is provided in the literature as to what constitutes planning or preparation in the context of the model, and how it is assessed. In the majority of research, planning is generally considered in an abstract sense, rather than assessing the presence (or absence) of written plans or their content. In addition, where research does attempt to evaluate the Preparation and planning stage in order to ascertain an police officer’s adherence to the PEACE model, it has only ever been assessed by incorporating a small number of items within otherwise detailed coding schedules. This limited analysis has not allowed for a thorough examination of the planning process and its impact on investigative interviews.

Further to limitations with regard to the analysis of planning in the existing research, the relationship between what is included in written plans and what is covered in the corresponding interviews has not been explored, nor have the implications of this information been examined. If recruits are not covering the items included in their written plans in interviews, then further emphasis in training needs to be placed on the use of written plans if their use is found to be beneficial to
Chapter 1: Introduction

interviews. However, if recruits are covering the items included in their plans in their corresponding interviews, then further research can examine how the use of plans impacts interview outcomes. This research is necessary to understand the utility of plans, particularly given recruits and police officers internationally are encouraged to incorporate Preparation and planning into the interview process. If findings suggest that plans have limited impact on the content of interviews, then the emphasis on planning, or using written plans, may be reconsidered.

The second stage of PEACE examined in this thesis is Evaluation. This stage of the PEACE model has not been researched extensively (Walsh & Bull, 2010a), largely due to the majority of research in this field examining videorecorded interviews to formulate assessments of interview performance. Unsurprisingly, using videorecorded interviews does not allow for the analysis of evaluation. Theoretically, the analysis of interviews by researchers is a form of evaluation, but it is not in the context of interview practice; for example, by direct supervisors of the police officers involved, their peers, or themselves. The limited research examining police officers’ perceptions of interviewing provides some insight into police officers’ self-evaluations, although these tend to be focused on perceptions of the interview, rather than a police officers’ reflection of their performance in a specific interview.

As with planning, evaluation is encouraged in interviewing by virtue of being included as a distinct stage in the PEACE model. The process itself is generally considered to result in improvement in practices where feedback is implemented. However, as this phenomenon has not been examined in the context of investigative interviewing, it is important to understand firstly, what recruits identify as areas for improvement and secondly, whether identifying these areas for improvement leads to an actual improvement in interviewing practices. It is possible that planning and self-evaluation practices may be improved with targeted training and, in the time-poor context of policing, the efficiency of prescribed practices is paramount.

In order to assess the quality of investigative interviews with witnesses, there needs to be an examination of all aspects of the interviewing process. Until now, there has been very little research that considers the Preparation and planning and Evaluation stages of the PEACE model. In addition, while the interviewing of both POIs and witnesses utilises the PEACE model, the amount of research considering the interviewing of POIs far outweighs the amount of research considering the interviewing of witnesses, and very little research has examined the interviewing
practices of recruits or inexperienced police officers. Ultimately, it is important to
determine what planning and self-evaluation practices are required to elicit full and
accurate accounts in interviews with witnesses. Furthermore, it is necessary to
understand how recruits plan and self-evaluate and whether this changes during their
training, as it is inexperienced police officers who will conduct the majority of
interviews with witnesses of volume crime.

Intuitively, it is expected that planning for an interview, and evaluating
performance, will impact its content. However, testing this hypothesis is problematic
due to the abstract nature of planning and self-evaluation and the limited existing
research to guide an approach. The research presented in this thesis was conducted
with two squads (37 recruits) completing recruit training at the WA Police Academy.
The recruits conducted interviews regarding a mock crime with witnesses on four
occasions during their 26-week training course and their written plans, interviews,
and self-evaluations form the data for this research. Given the issues identified with
the current body of research in this area, the research presented in the following
chapters sought to engage in an exploratory analysis of planning and self-evaluation
with the following four aims:

1. To determine the amount and type of content recruits include in their plans
   and how this changes following specific points in training (Chapter 3).
2. To determine how the amount and type of content in plans impacts interviews
   (Chapter 4).
3. To determine the amount and type of content recruits include in their self-
   evaluations and how this changes following specific points in training
   (Chapter 5).
4. To determine how recruits’ self-evaluations impact interviewing practices
   (Chapter 5).

Structure of Thesis

The following chapters provide distinct yet interrelated analyses of plans and
self-evaluations and their use by recruits in interviews with witnesses:

Chapter 2 Methodology
Chapter 3 Plans
Chapter 4 Interviews and plans
Chapter 5 Self-evaluations, interviews, and plans
Chapter 1: Introduction

The methodology for the research presented in this thesis is described in Chapter 2. While each of the empirical chapters contain method sections, the overall methodology, including an explanation of the approach to analysis and any relevant assumption testing, is presented in Chapter 2.

Each of the empirical chapters begins with an introduction including a brief outline of the relevant literature, followed by a description of the rationale for the analysis presented in the individual chapter. The empirical chapters all contain three phases of analysis with an individual method, results, and interim discussion. A chapter discussion is included at the conclusion of each of the empirical chapters to draw together the findings of the three phases of analysis.

The first empirical chapter, Chapter 3, aims to determine the amount and type of content recruits include in their plans and how this changes following specific points in training. Using content analysis, the first phase of analysis examines the amount and type of content included in recruits’ plans (using an inductive coding schedule containing 11 categories), and how this changes following specific points in training. The second phase of analysis examines what recruits include in their plans related to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages of the PEACE model and how this changes following specific points in training. Using this framework provides the opportunity to compare findings with existing literature examining the PEACE model. The third phase of analysis examines how the amount and type of content in recruits’ plans relates to 75 key interview components (categorised according to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages and 15 categories) and how this changes following specific points in training. These key interview components were identified from the investigative interviewing literature in conjunction with training materials provided by the WA Police Academy. Using this schedule provides the opportunity to identify the extent to which recruits are including items relevant to the interview in their plans. Each of the three phases also includes analysis of how the amount and type of content in recruits’ plans change following specific points in training.

Chapter 4 aims to determine how the amount and type of content in plans impacts interviews. The first phase of analysis examines the active coverage of planned items in interviews according to the schedule used in Phase I of Chapter 3 and how coverage changes following specific points in training. The second phase of
Chapter 1: Introduction

analysis examines the amount and type of content in recruits’ interviews relating to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages of the PEACE model and how this changes following specific points in training. Following this examination is an analysis of the correlation between the content of plans and content of interviews relating to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages. The third phase of analysis examines the proportion of key interview components identified in Phase III of Chapter 3 across the four occasions (categorised according to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages and 15 categories) and how this changes following specific points in training. Following this examination is the analysis of the impact of the inclusion of the 75 individual key interview components in plans on the coverage of these components in interviews.

The analysis presented in Chapter 5 has two aims: firstly, to determine the amount and type of content recruits include in their self-evaluations and how this changes following specific points in training; and, secondly, to determine how recruits’ self-evaluations impact interviewing practices. In the first and second phases of analysis, the content of recruits’ self-evaluations are analysed, with the quantitative analysis presented in the first phase and the qualitative analysis presented in the second phase. Both phases include analysis of the amount and type of content included in self-evaluations and how the content of recruits’ self-evaluations changes following specific points in training. The third phase of analysis qualitatively explores how content of self-evaluations at Time 3 impacts the content of the plans and interviews at Time 4. Specifically, each item included in the self-evaluations is analysed with respect to how that particular item is incorporated in plans and interviews at Time 4 when compared to Time 3.

Chapter 6 presents a general discussion to tie together the findings from the three empirical chapters and place these in the context of the literature reviewed in Chapter 1, to highlight the implications for the findings, describe the limitations of the research presented in this thesis, and to pose suggestions for further research.
Chapter 2: Methodology

The data for the research presented in this thesis was collected as part of a broader research project undertaken by the Sellenger Centre for Research in Law, Justice and Social Change at Edith Cowan University. This parent project aimed to evaluate the investigative interviewing skills of police recruits (recruits) at the Western Australia (WA) Police Academy following the introduction of a new interview protocol. The project adopted a repeated measures design to investigate the effect of training on recruits’ interviews with witnesses. In brief, witnesses watched a short film depicting a mock crime, while recruits were given the opportunity to plan for the forthcoming interviews. Witnesses and recruits were then led to individual rooms for the interviews. Following the completion of interviews, both witnesses and recruits completed written evaluations. This process was repeated on four occasions following specific points in the recruits’ training.

As the research presented in this thesis utilises secondary data, it is important to demonstrate appropriate development of thought with regard to the conceptualisation of the present research and associated analysis. The broader project was initially designed to examine the impact of training on interview quality. However, while the present student was not involved in the design or data collection for the broader research project, the opportunity was provided to view the plans and evaluations collected to develop a separate research agenda aiming to determine whether commonly encouraged practices outside the interview itself have a practical impact on the content of interviews. Below is a description of the process undertaken to develop the research presented in this thesis.

The present research was initially concerned with addressing the question of what recruits plan for and how this changes during the course of their training. The idea of examining how recruits’ written plans impact on interviews was a result of the broader question around the purpose of planning. If the content of written plans was found to impact the content of interviews, this provides rationale to encourage recruits to plan. However, if plans do not impact the interviews, then there may be more effective ways to prepare for interviews. The aspects of the proposed research assessing the self-evaluation practices of recruits were developed in response to the question of whether recruits’ self-evaluations impact interviewing practices. As with
the use of written plans, if the practice of self-evaluation is not found to impact interviews, then the encouragement for recruits to self-evaluate needs to be further analysed and alternative methods of impacting interviewing practices may need to be generated.

**Design**

A repeated measures design was employed to measure recruits’ performance of particular aspects of the PEACE model of interviewing at specific points during their training at the WA Police Academy. Use of a repeated measures design made it possible to assess the effect of training on recruits’ performance; the same recruits participated on each occasion, which means that the training itself was the systematic variation. Recruit training at the WA Police Academy is 26 weeks in duration, with the participant recruits for this research undertaking their training from September 2010 – February 2011. The first set of interviews occurred in the second week of recruits’ training, prior to formal training; the second interviews occurred in the ninth week of training when recruits had received legal and procedural training; the third interviews occurred in either the twelfth or fifteenth week depending on the squad to which the recruit belonged (as the interviews occurred in the week following formal interview training and this was staggered according to squad); and the fourth interviews occurred in the twenty-second and twenty-third weeks of training, at the final point at which they could be assessed prior to graduating.

Given the focus of the present research on interviewing, additional detail of interview training is warranted. Recruits were instructed in conducting interviews with witnesses, interviews with Persons of Interest (POIs), and preparing statements. The PEACE model is taught at the WA Police Academy, with the Free recall model advocated for obtaining the account from compliant witnesses, and the Conversation Management model for non-compliant witnesses and POIs. Broader, more generic interviewing skills are also taught to recruits, including: planning, rapport building, listening, and taking notes.

No control condition was utilised in this research as it was not practicable to have any recruits who were not trained in investigative interviewing during their training at the WA Police Academy. As a result of not having a control condition, there were a number of variables that could not be controlled. For example, not all recruits completed their interviews on the same day so there is a risk that recruits
heard details regarding the offence prior to their interview; the sex of witnesses differed unsystematically as they were assigned to recruits randomly; and recruits’ schedule for training meant that the timing of interviews had to be varied to ensure recruits had received the equivalent training at the time of the interview. The potential impact of the unsystematic variation is discussed in the limitations section of Chapter 6.

The independent variable in the research was time (which can also be expressed as training). The dependent variables differ according to the particular aspect of the study but include the content of plans; the content of interviews; coverage of planned items in interviews; content of self-evaluations; and the incorporation of self-evaluation items in plans and interviews. The variables particular to each aspect of the research will be further discussed in the relevant chapters.

Method

The Method section in this chapter incorporates a discussion of participants, materials, procedure and analysis. The discussion of the participants, materials, and procedure pertains to the parent research conducted by the Sellenger Centre. However, the analysis of the data is the contribution of the present author. Each empirical chapter (Chapters 3 to 5) also contain a method section containing operational definitions, inter-rater reliability, and a description of statistical analyses where relevant. To minimise repetition, the majority of information contained within this methodology chapter is not repeated in the empirical chapters. However, where necessary, the empirical chapters contain cross-references to this methodology chapter to further outline methodological considerations relevant to individual empirical chapters.

Participants

Recruits.

Forty-four recruits participated in the broader research project. However, for the purposes of the present research, only data available from recruits who participated in interviews on all four occasions was utilised. This process excluded seven recruits; therefore, the number of recruits in the present research was 37. In the sample of 37 recruits, 70% were male and 30% were female, with a mean age of 27
years ($SD = 5.83$). Further, for some analyses, only the plans of those recruits who included at least one item in each of their plans on the four occasions were included in the analyses, which excluded an additional 14 recruits. Therefore, the number of recruits in those analyses is 23. In the sample of 23 recruits, 61% were male and 39% were female, with a mean age of 27 years ($SD = 5.00$).

Witnesses.

Witnesses were invited students and staff from Edith Cowan University, in addition to non-sworn staff at the WA Police Academy. In the sample using 37 recruits, the witness demographics were as follows: Time 1, 30% were male and 70% were female, with a mean age of 24 years ($SD = 7.58$); Time 2, 19% were male and 81% were female, with a mean age of 26 years ($SD = 11.15$); Time 3, 19% were male and 81% were female, with a mean age of 31 years ($SD = 12.93$); and Time 4, 22% were male and 78% were female, with a mean age of 31 years ($SD = 11.81$). In the sample using 23 recruits, the witness demographics were as follows: Time 1, 26% were male and 74% were female, with a mean age of 25 years ($SD = 8.52$); Time 2, 26% were male and 74% were female, with a mean age of 25 years ($SD = 11.77$); Time 3, 17% were male and 83% were female, with a mean age of 31 years ($SD = 13.61$); and Time 4, 13% were male and 87% were female, with a mean age of 31 years ($SD = 11.45$).

Materials

In order to conduct the broader research project, the following materials were utilised:

- Information letters for recruits and witnesses (attached as Appendices A and B respectively).
- Consent forms for recruits and witnesses (attached as Appendices C and D respectively).
- Audiovisual equipment to film the four mock crimes. Film students were given the opportunity to film a mock crime scenario. The students were given direction regarding the content of the film but provided their own equipment and directed their films.
- Audiovisual equipment for witnesses to view the films. Each group of witnesses was briefed together at the WA Police Academy prior to the interviews.
Witnesses were shown the recording of the mock crime before being taken to the interview rooms.

- Interview rooms furnished with a table, chairs and a Digital Versatile Disc (DVD) recording device. Each interview was conducted in a separate interview room at the WA Police Academy.

- Pens and paper to create written plans and make notes. Recruits were provided with blue pens with which to write plans and black pens with which to write notes. This distinction was to facilitate the separate analysis of plans and notes. Recruits were also provided with paper to use for writing their plans and taking notes.

- Proformas for use in interviews. Recruits were provided with police-generated proformas for use in planning and for the interviews. The proforma contains information regarding interview techniques (e.g., TEDS and PEACE); the mnemonic ADVOKATE to assist with remembering content for questions; and space to write elements, defences and investigatively important information (a copy of the proforma is included as Appendix E and additional discussion of its contents and impact on analysis is discussed in the analysis section of this chapter).

- Briefing documents with instructions for recruits and witnesses specific to each time period (copies of the recruit and witness instructions for each of the time periods are included as Appendices F to M).

- Evaluation forms for completion by recruits and witnesses on each occasion, plus an additional self-evaluation form for recruits following the final interview (a copy of the recruit self-evaluation form is included as Appendix N).

**Procedure**

Four mock crimes were recorded, each approximately 60 seconds in length, and filmed from the perspective of the witness. That is, the viewer was witnessing the crime as if through his or her own eyes. The mock crimes recorded were (in chronological order from Times 1 to 4): an assault, theft of a wallet, theft from a car, and damage to property.

In the assault scenario, a 57 second clip, the witness was making a phone call on a public telephone when they observed a man walking across a zebra crossing. As
he neared the other side of the road, a man coming in the opposite direction brushed past him. In response, he turned around and pushed the man in the chest and kneeed him in the abdomen before walking away. The witness walked from the public telephone to the victim who is kneeling on the ground and asked him if he was okay. The victim asked the witness to call the police. The witness then walked to the public telephone and called the police. The film ended when the witness has spoken to the operator and asked them to attend the scene.

In the theft of a wallet scenario, a 55 second clip, the witness was reading his paper when a waitress arrived and asked if they would like a drink. The witness looked up to respond and as she walked away they looked around and saw a woman at an ATM. When the witness looked up again the woman was still at the ATM and two people walked past from the left. The third time the witness looked up, the woman had turned away from the ATM and was putting money into her wallet. Two individuals approached from the left and one wrapped her arm around the woman. The other individual took the wallet and both ran away to the right. The witness was then approached by the woman who asked if anyone had a telephone as her wallet has been stolen. The witness looked around and saw a blue car drive away.

In the theft from a car scenario, a 72 second clip, the witness was standing at a zebra crossing, looked to the right and saw a car waiting. The witness then crossed the road and walked to a bus stop. Whilst standing at the bus stop the witness looked across the road and saw a woman get out of her car and jog off while a man sat on the park bench near where the car was parked. The witness looked up again as a woman walked by the bus stop and the witness saw a man crouch behind the parked car. He then stood up and ran away from the car holding something in his hand. The witness then took out their mobile telephone and called the police to report suspicious behaviour.

In the property damage scenario, a 52 second clip, the witness was standing on the side of a road and saw a van drive by. As the van passed, the witness saw a person leaning against the wall of a grey building. The witness crossed the road and bent down to tie up their shoelace. When the witness looked up and scanned the area they saw two individuals walking on the street across the road. He looked back towards the grey building and saw the person who had been leaning on the wall writing on a window. The witness pointed and shouted, “Hey!” at the person writing and they dropped their pen and ran away. The witness walked to the window and
looked at what was been written before taking out their mobile phone to telephone the police.

These offences were selected for inclusion in the present research as it is a realistic expectation that inexperienced police officers would be required to interview witnesses of comparable, volume crimes. Using different crimes ensured recruits did not become familiar with interviewing with regard to a particular crime. All witnesses viewed the same film on each occasion; that is, all witnesses in Time 1 viewed the assault film, all witnesses in Time 2 viewed the theft of a wallet film, all witnesses in Time 3 viewed the theft from a car film, and all witnesses in Time 4 viewed the property damage film. While the films are comparable in length, there is some variation between the scenarios. For example, in Time 2 (theft of a wallet) there are two offenders, in contrast to there being only one offender in the other scenarios. In addition, there is no ‘victim’ in Time 4 (property damage) so the line of questioning is likely to change. The differences between the content of the scenarios is useful in that it eliminates some of the concern regarding recruits improvement by virtue of conducting multiple interviews as opposed to it being a result of training. The disadvantage of the differences is that it limits the strength of direct comparison between times.

While counter-balancing the offences would limit difficulty arising in analysis due to the different complexity of the scenarios, this was not possible for logistical reasons. Firstly, as the recruits were not all able to conduct their interviews at the same time in each round of interviews, there was a risk they would speak to each other about the various scenarios and this may result in some recruits preparing for scenarios they would encounter at a later interview. Secondly, there was a need to ensure witnesses were not interviewed with regard to the same offence multiple times, in order to reduce the influence witnesses may have in terms of providing different amounts of information to recruits on separate occasions. Thirdly, the logistics of a repeated measures design in an applied setting greatly inhibited the use of counter-balancing measures. Ensuring recruits could attend on four occasions was challenging. Also ensuring the same group of recruits (in the same condition) could attend at the same time on each occasion would not have been possible. Further, this same scheduling would have needed to factor in witnesses’ availability to ensure compatibility (that is, witnesses who had not already been interviewed for the same offence). Limitations to the design of the research are further discussed in Chapter 6.
Chapter 2: Methodology

On each occasion, witnesses watched the assigned video in a small group in the briefing room and were then each taken to separate interview rooms. While witnesses viewed the video and were briefed about the research by the chief investigator, recruits were given 10 minutes to prepare for the interviews before they were shown to the interview rooms. During the preparation time recruits were provided with an information sheet outlining brief details of the offence, pens, paper and a police-generated proforma with which to create a plan for the forthcoming interview. Recruits were also provided with enough paper to write notes during the interview. Recruits proceeded to conduct the interviews without time restrictions. At the conclusion of each of the interviews witnesses completed evaluations of recruits’ performance and recruits completed self-evaluations of their own performance. Recruits completed an additional self-evaluation at the conclusion of the interview at Time 4. The written plans and notes completed by the recruits were collected at the conclusion of each of the interviews, along with the completed self-evaluations from the recruits and evaluations from the witnesses. Recruits received certificates of participation and a tie pin at the conclusion of the research and witnesses were provided with a $20 gift voucher at the conclusion of each interview.

To provide an understanding of the magnitude of the data analysed within the present research, Table 1 shows the mean number of items in plans, questions in interviews, length of interviews in minutes, and items in self-evaluations. Between Times 1 and 2 there was an initial decrease in the number of questions in interviews, length of interviews, and items in self-evaluations. For all aspects of the data there was an increase between Times 2 and 3, followed by a decrease between Times 3 and 4. As noted in the following sections pertaining to data analysis presented in the individual chapters, the changes across the four occasions are examined by reference to the training undertaken by recruits during their time at the WA Police Academy.
Table 1  
**Mean Number of Items in Plans, Questions in Interviews, Length of Interviews in Minutes, and Items in Self-evaluations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Time 1</th>
<th>Time 2</th>
<th>Time 3</th>
<th>Time 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Items in plans</strong></td>
<td>9.03</td>
<td>13.68</td>
<td>53.73</td>
<td>41.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Questions in interviews</strong></td>
<td>65.43</td>
<td>63.14</td>
<td>124.95</td>
<td>104.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Length of interviews</strong></td>
<td>16.29</td>
<td>4.80</td>
<td>32.28</td>
<td>27.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Items in self-evaluations</strong></td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. Items in plans calculated using data from Phase I of Chapter 3 and items in self-evaluations using data from Phase I of Chapter 5.*

**Overview of Analysis**

The content of plans, interviews, and self-evaluations were analysed to address the research questions of this project. The broader research project was designed to maximise ecological validity and this was reflected in decisions made with regard to the materials utilised for the study. However, the decision to provide recruits with police-generated proformas, in particular, raised issues with regard to the analyses concerning plans, interviews, and self-evaluations. As such, the decisions regarding these analyses are discussed below with an additional discussion regarding the approach to accounting for the potential impact of police-generated proformas on analysis.

**Plans**

Recruits were provided with 10 minutes to prepare for each interview, and had access to a briefing document with instructions (documents provided to recruits and witnesses on each of the time periods are included as Appendices F to M), a police-generated proforma (included as Appendix E), as well as blank sheets of paper and pens to prepare written plans. As the approach to accounting for the use of police-generated proformas is discussed below, this section will be confined to a discussion of the analysis of plans written by recruits. The analysis of the content of written plans comprised those items physically written by recruits in the 10 minutes of preparation time, in addition to any materials brought to the interview by recruits. For example, at Times 2, 3, and 4, some recruits brought pre-prepared plans, in
addition to the police-generated proforma and their plans written in the 10 minutes of preparation.

The main issue with regard to the analysis of plans concerned the operationalisation of planning. ‘Plan’ can be used as a noun or a verb and the analysis presented in this thesis is confined to the plan as a noun; that is, what is written by the recruit. However, the consideration of relationships between plans and interviews, and self-evaluations and plans, provides a glimpse of the analysis of planning as a process. As such, all analyses of the content of plans were necessarily restricted by the understanding that planning is something that can occur without any written evidence and this aspect of planning has not been measured in the analysis presented in this thesis. While the broader research project could have questioned recruits about their planning explicitly (there was some guided reflection regarding preparation in the recruits’ self-evaluations), the asking of such questions may have alerted recruits’ to the researchers’ focus on plans and impacted the plans prepared for subsequent interviews. Recruits were aware the purpose of the research was to examine the impact of training on interviewing, but they were not alerted to specific aspects of analysis (e.g., planning or self-evaluating). As such, the data provided in the form of written plans is as free as possible from expectation bias on the part of recruits. However, it must be noted that, without prompting by the investigators, recruits may not have planned at all, or may have planned for less time than the allotted 10 minutes (although recruits were not required to plan during this time). Later sections of this chapter will discuss approaches to the analysis of plans with regard to the numbering of items and coding schedules employed for analysis.

Proformas

Recruits were provided with police-generated proformas for use in interviews (see Appendix E for a copy of the proforma). The proformas included typed content relating to the interview process (e.g., ADVOKATE; TEDS; PEACE; 5W1H) and prompts for structuring the interview (e.g., Elements; Defences). As some recruits annotated or marked their proformas (e.g., circling items, underlining items, or writing notes), it was important to determine a way in which these annotations would be analysed. A number of options were considered, as there was no clear way to determine whether or not a recruit had utilised their proforma. For example, some recruits’ plans or interviews may have been impacted by the proforma but without
any noticeable mark on it. As a result, it was decided that the typed content in the proforma would not be included in the analyses but annotated content on the proforma sheets would be included in the analyses. The decision to only include annotations means that the findings may not be representative of the recruits’ use of the proformas. However, it means that the results are not inflated by the standard inclusion of all proforma items, which, for the purpose of analyses, could potentially mask the intentional planning of recruits.

Some recruits brought their own personal proformas with them to the interviews. These were in the form of typed or handwritten notes that may have been used in previous interviews (where appearing after Time 1), or were prepared specifically for the interview in which they were used. Additionally, some recruits used proformas prepared by other recruits (as indicated by alternative names appearing on the proforma). In contrast to the restricted analysis of the content of police proformas, where a personal proforma was brought to the interview, the items contained in the proforma were included for analysis in the present study. The decision to include the content of personal proformas in contrast to not including content of police-generated proformas was based on the assumed likelihood of engagement by the recruit. Where a recruit has prepared a proforma to bring to the interview, or sourced one from another recruit, it has been assumed that this action indicates some engagement with the content of that proforma. In contrast, all recruits received the police-generated proforma without making a request.

Finally, there were some items not relevant for interviews with witnesses that were included in the police-generated and some personal proformas. While the PEACE model of interviewing is appropriate for use with witnesses and POIs, the recruits were told they were interviewing witnesses and, as such, items specifically pertinent to interviewing POIs were not required. Any items included in a proforma and deemed irrelevant for the purposes of the interview were excluded from analysis (e.g., reference to Conversation Management, a model used in the Account stage of interviews with POIs or hostile witnesses). Furthermore, for analysis with regard to the relationship between plans and interviews, the items in plans not relevant to the interviewing of witnesses would skew findings by showing that items were not covered in interviews. Such findings would indicate recruits did not engage with their plans whilst interviewing when, in fact, the items were not relevant to the interview.
Interviews

Recruits’ interviews with witnesses were conducted in interview rooms without time limitations. The video-recordings, transcriptions, and notes prepared by recruits were the subject of analysis pertaining to the interviews. The main issue associated with the analysis of interview content concerned the objective measure of performance. As such, coding relied on presence or absence, rather than assessing recruits’ performance of particular aspects of the interview. The process of analysing performance, even when considering presence or absence of particular aspects of the interview, was complicated by the limited research assessing performance of untrained recruits. Research to date has focused on either newly graduated (e.g., Dando et al., 2008; 2009a; 2009b) or more experienced police officers (e.g., Clarke and Milne, 2001), who would have a higher benchmark with regard to performance. Individual considerations with regard to specific approaches to coding, including the development of coding schedules, is discussed in later sections of this chapter.

Self-evaluations

Recruits and witnesses completed evaluations at the conclusion of each interview. The recruits’ self-evaluations comprised the data for analysis examining what recruits include in their self-evaluations and determining whether self-evaluations impact interviewing practices. The complete self-evaluation form (attached as Appendix N) comprises a number of questions encouraging the recruits to reflect on their performance. Analysing the responses to all questions was outside the scope of the present research. However, analysis of recruits’ responses to the question, “If you could conduct this interview again, what would you do differently?” was determined to be appropriate for this exploratory study of self-evaluation in the context of investigative interviewing. Recruits’ responses to this question were initially analysed for the purposes of addressing the question of how well recruits were able to evaluate their own performance. However, as recruits’ performance in interviews was not perfect, to some extent any item articulated by the recruit for improvement was reflective of their performance. Further, the question did not ask about what recruits believed could be improved; rather, it was about what aspect of the interview they would do differently if undertaking the same interview again. As such, the responses to the question were analysed with regard to whether
they impacted interviews with respect to the incorporation of the particular item, with the understanding that recruits may not have explicitly stated the intention that any plan or interview would be impacted accordingly.

**Overview of Empirical Chapters**

**Chapter 3.**

The analyses presented in Chapter 3 aimed to determine the amount and type of content recruits include in their plans and how this changes following specific points in training. In Phase I, inductive content analysis was used to identify categories contained within the plan data, and one-way repeated measures Analyses of Variance (ANOVAs) were performed to analyse the change in the total number of items and the amount and type of content with respect to these categories included in plans following specific points in training. In Phase II, data was coded deductively using the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages of the PEACE model, and ANOVAs were performed to analyse the change in the total number of items and the amount and type of content with respect to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages included in plans following specific points in training. In Phase III, the content of plans was coded deductively using a schedule developed from schedules in the existing literature and training materials provided by the WA Police Academy. The 75 key interview components in the schedule were collapsed into the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages and then into 15 categories to facilitate analysis. ANOVAs were performed to analyse the change in the total proportion of components, the proportion of components in the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages, and the proportion of components in the 15 categories included in plans following specific points in training.

**Chapter 4.**

The analyses presented in Chapter 4 aimed to determine how the amount and type of content in plans impacts interviews. In Phase I, the items in plans, as categorised according to the schedule used in Phase I of Chapter 3, were coded according to their coverage in interviews to highlight the proportion of planned items covered in interviews. A one-way repeated measures ANOVA was performed to determine whether there was a change in the total proportion of planned items covered in interviews following specific points in training. Due to the limited number of planned items in some categories, it was not possible to perform statistical
Chapter 2: Methodology

analyses of the coverage of individual categories following specific points in training. In Phase II, the proportion of items in plans related to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages of the PEACE model was compared to the proportion of questions in interviews related to these stages. ANOVAs were performed on the plan and interview data to analyse the change in content following specific points in training. In addition, Spearman Rank Order Correlations were performed to examine whether there was a relationship between the plan and interview data with regard to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages of the interview. In Phase III, interview data were coded according to the schedule developed for analysis in Phase III of Chapter 3. ANOVAs were performed to analyse the change in content with respect to the total proportion of key interview components covered, the proportion of components in the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages of the PEACE model, and the proportion of components in the 15 categories covered in interviews following specific points in training. The second aspect of analyses in Phase III sought to understand the impact of plans on interviews with regard to the 75 key interview components. One time period was selected to examine the relationship between plans and interviews on each of the 75 components. Time 3 was chosen for analysis as it could be hypothesised interviews on this occasion reflect the recruits’ peak skill in terms of having received all applicable training without the lapse in time experienced before the interviews at Time 4. Further, given the offence at Time 4 did not have a victim, it was decided that Time 3 data would provide the opportunity to consider the relationship between plans and interviews with respect to the maximum number of key interview components.

Chapter 5.

The analyses presented in Chapter 5 aimed to determine the amount and type of content recruits include in their self-evaluations and how this changes following specific points in training. The analyses further aim to determine how recruits’ self-evaluations impact interviewing practices. In Phase I, inductive content analysis was used to identify categories contained within the self-evaluation data, and a one-way repeated measures ANOVA was performed to analyse the change in the number of items included in self-evaluations following specific points in training. In Phase II of the chapter, content analysis was used to facilitate the qualitative analysis of recruits’ self-evaluations using the categories identified in Phase I. The content of each
category was described using examples from recruits’ self-evaluations and includes an analysis of the change in content following specific points in training. In Phase III of the chapter, content analysis was used to facilitate the qualitative analysis of the impact of self-evaluations on interviews and plans. The self-evaluation items included at Time 3 were analysed with respect to their incorporation in the plans and interviews at Times 3 and 4 to determine whether the self-evaluation items impact interview practices. Time 3 was largely chosen for analysis as it was the latest point at which recruits completed self-evaluations and had another interview to conduct in the following time period (providing plans and interviews to analyse with respect to self-evaluation items). In this way, it provided the most useful analysis of recruits’ use of self-evaluations prior to completing their training at the Academy.

A description of qualitative and quantitative research methods employed in the data analysis is provided below. Contained within these sections are further details of the specific analyses performed in each chapter, according to the phase to which it relates. Including descriptions of relevant chapters according to the analyses was deemed preferable to outlining the analysis of each chapter separately as multiple chapters utilise similar approaches to analysis and the description of each would be repetitive.

Qualitative Analysis

Content analysis. Content analysis was employed throughout the analyses presented in this thesis and was used to facilitate the coding of data as well as constituting substantive analysis. Discussing the objectivity of content analysis, Krippendorff notes, “…texts do not analyze themselves” (Krippendorff, 2010, p. 209). Even where statistical analyses have been performed, the analyses presented in this thesis have all begun with content analysis. This process is biased by virtue of content analysis being a subjective process. However, the use of a second rater and the calculation and reporting of inter-rater reliability throughout the process of analysis provides some measure of reliability in the findings presented. Furthermore, while the use of one researcher to code all plans, interviews, and evaluations may be considered a limitation, having one researcher coding all data ensures consistency.

Content analysis can be either inductive or deductive, depending on the area of research (Elo & Kyngas, 2008). For example, in areas of research where there are
clear frameworks for the existing literature, a deductive approach to contextualise the
data in the existing framework is a logical approach to the analysis. In contrast, in
areas of research where little has been published, an inductive approach is more
appropriate as the findings will provide starting point in the literature. The three
stages of content analysis; preparation, organising, and reporting, are similar for both
deductive and inductive approaches. The initial phase, preparation, involves
becoming familiar with the data. The organising phase is where the categories are
developed through a process of sorting where data belongs. This phase can have a
number of stages depending on the number of categories and any further collapsing
for analysis. For example, main, generic, and sub-categories, where data can be
analysed on different levels according to desired specificity (Elo & Kyngas, 2008).
Reporting the findings requires clear communication of the process of developing
categories and coding data, justifying the creation of categories and the inclusion of
specific items within those categories. Further, the process of organisation should be
reported in sufficient detail to ensure the study is reliable; that is, can be replicated
(Krippendorff, 2010). Further, Krippendorff (2010) emphasises the need for the
researcher to define their context, as the researcher is not unbiased in their analyses.
The content analysed in the present research, be it plans, interviews, or self-
evaluations, has been interpreted, to the extent possible, in the context in which they
were written or spoken; that is, during the interview process. To that end, words that
may ordinarily have multiple meaning are interpreted in the context of an
investigative interview.

**Coding schedule: Inductive categories in plans.**

*Chapter 3 (Phase I) and Chapter 4 (Phase I).*

Content analysis was used to code the content of the plans into a coherent
data set. All plans from the four occasions were studied closely with commonly
occurring topics noted and, in turn, designated as categories. Categories were refined
after initially trialling the schedule with a number of plans from each occasion and
categories were collapsed to ensure statistical analyses were possible. The final
schedule contained 12 categories: Introduction; Witness demographics; Interview
demographics; Pre-existing information; Incident details; Elements; Defences; Legal
procedure; Interview procedure; Rapport building; Interviewing technique; and
Other.
Chapter 4 (Phase I).

The items in the plans were checked against the content of the interviews. In order to differentiate between content that was covered by recruits and content that was only covered by witnesses, items in plans were coded according to whether they were introduced by the recruit (interviewer), introduced by the witness, absent, or not applicable. Where the item was introduced by the witness, there were three levels of analysis: Witness introduced and actively followed up by the interviewer; Witness introduced and parroted or summarised (but not actively followed up) by the interviewer; and Witness introduced and neither actively followed up nor summarised or parroted by the interviewer. Items coded as Interviewer introduced or Witness introduced and actively followed up by the interviewer were treated as actively covered for the purposes of analysis. Items coded as Not applicable were excluded from the calculation regarding the proportion of items actively covered by recruits. Therefore, the proportion of items actively covered by recruits was calculated by dividing the number of actively covered items by the total number of items minus the number of items coded as Not applicable.

As coding progressed, it was evident that it would not be possible to determine whether some of the planned items were covered in the interview. In particular, items in the Rapport and Interviewing technique categories were, in some instances, impossible to code. For example, “PEACE” was included in some plans as a reminder to include each of the stages. Assessing coverage of that particular item would begin to touch on issues around quality, rather than simply coverage. More specifically, if a person had included a greeting in their interview, would this suffice as coverage of the Engage and explain component of the model? Or would there be a requirement for a specific number of items relating to that component? One option to account for the difficulties associated with categorising some items was to remove those categories from analysis. That is, to exclude all planned items in Rapport building and Interviewing technique from the analysis. However, there are some planned items in those categories that can be assessed in terms of their coverage in the interviews. For example, “check comfort” coded as Rapport building in a plan can be covered as “are you comfortable?” in an interview. In contrast, “comfort” coded as Rapport building in a plan may not be easily recognised as being covered in an interview if the recruit has provided the instruction to themselves in terms of
creating a comfortable environment for the witness. Planned items that could not be coded as interviewer or witness introduced (any level) were coded as Not applicable.

The items coded according to the inductive coding schedule were analysed with regard to their coverage in interviews. However, to facilitate analysis, the categories of Elements, Defences, and Other were removed. The decision to exclude these categories was made due to the coverage of planned items pertaining to elements and defences not being readily identifiable in a meaningful way. That is, in some interviews the elements appeared to be implicitly covered, rather than explicitly. For example, a discussion of the property offence in Time 3 may cover that the wall of the tavern was damaged by graffiti. By virtue of the POI being a young person who ran away from the scene, the defence of ownership was implicitly covered. It would not be until a recruit asked the witness directly if the POI had permission or owned the premises that the item would be covered explicitly. As a result, it was decided that their inclusion in the analysis, on the basis of assumed (or implicit) coverage, would bias the findings and inflate the proportion of planned items covered.

**Coding schedule: EAC deductive categories in plans and interviews.**

*Chapter 3 (Phase II) and Chapter 4 (Phase II).*

Items in plans were coded according to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages of the PEACE model. Each item in each plan was assigned to either the Engage and explain, Account, or Closure stage. The decision regarding the categorisation of items was based firstly on the content of the item and, secondly, on the context of the item in the plan. If the content of the item was ambiguous with regard to the stage of Engage and explain, Account, or Closure to which it related, then the context in which it was written was used to determine the most appropriate stage. For example, “thank them” could be categorised as either Engage and explain or Closure, depending where in the plan it was written as the recruit could be thanking the witness for attending when they first arrive (Engage and explain), or thanking the witness for their account prior to them leaving (Closure).

*Chapter 4 (Phase II).*

As with the coding of plans in Phase II of Chapter 3, questions and statements in interviews were coded according to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages of the PEACE model. For the purposes of this chapter, where referring to questions in interviews, it is both questions and statements that have been included;
however for ease of reading, these are referred to together as “Questions”. Given the chronological way in which the PEACE model operates; that is, the Engage and explain stage is followed by the Account stage which is followed by the Closure stage, coding the Account stage first meant that all questions relating to the incident were identified as the chronologically middle section of the interview. The section of the interview appearing before the Account stage was broadly categorised as Engage and explain and the section appearing after the Account stage was broadly categorised as Closure. The numbering and examination of questions in each section ensured that questions related to different sections than those in which they were found were appropriately coded. For example, initial requests for contact details and instructions for the procedure of the interview were coded as Engage and explain even when contained in the Account or Closure sections of the interview. Similarly, revising contact details for follow-up contact was coded as Closure even when contained in the Account section of the interview.

Coding schedule: Key interview components in plans and interviews.

Chapter 3 (Phase III) and Chapter 4 (Phase III).

The coding schedule for use in Phase III of Chapter 3 was developed from scales assessing interviews with witnesses used in Clarke and Milne (2001) and Scott, Tudor-Owen, Pedretti, and Bull (2015), in addition to relevant items from the scale assessing interviews with POIs from Walsh and Milne (2008). The resulting schedule is more detailed than those used in research to date, which provides a more nuanced understanding of the key interview components. The discussion with regard to the development and analysis of the coding schedule has relevance for the results presented in this phase and in Phase III of Chapter 4 and will therefore be covered together and not repeated separately with regard to the method for Phase III of Chapter 4.
### Chapter 2: Methodology

#### Table 2

*Components in Coding Schedule Relative to those Utilised in Clarke and Milne (2001), Walsh and Milne (2008), and Scott et al. (2015)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Introduce self</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Provides date</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Provides time</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Place of work</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Witness name</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Witness age/DOB</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Witness telephone numbers</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Witness address</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Explain purpose of interview to gather information</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Interviewer has no knowledge</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Interviewer to ask questions</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Estimate time for interview</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Does the witness have time?</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Witness not to fabricate or guess</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Witness to say “I don’t know” if necessary</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Witness to report everything</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Interviewer taking notes</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Interviewer to prepare statement</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Witness may need to appear in court</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Is the witness willing to appear?</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. ¹ refers to Clarke and Milne (2001); ² refers to Walsh and Milne (2008); and ³ refers to Scott et al. (2015). – denotes absence and ✔ denotes presence of the item.
### Table 2

*Continued*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>Obstruction</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>61</td>
<td>Injuries</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>Known or seen before</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>62</td>
<td>What happened before?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>Any reason to remember</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>63</td>
<td>Have you seen POI since?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>Time lapse</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>64</td>
<td>Drug / alcohol</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>Error or material discrepancy</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>65</td>
<td>Refers to plan in interview</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46</td>
<td>Were there any other witnesses?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>66</td>
<td>Checks off items in plan</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47</td>
<td>Description of offender(s) (who)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>67</td>
<td>Sketch</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td>Description of witness(es) (who)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>68</td>
<td>Summarises initial account</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49</td>
<td>Description of victim(s) (who)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>69</td>
<td>Summarises regularly</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>Location of offence (where)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>70</td>
<td>Interviewer summarises interview</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51</td>
<td>Time of offence (when)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>71</td>
<td>Invites witness to add information</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52</td>
<td>Date of offence (when)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>72</td>
<td>Invites witness to alter information</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53</td>
<td>Vehicle</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>73</td>
<td>Thanks witness for time</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54</td>
<td>Weapon</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>74</td>
<td>Provides P9 card/contact details</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55</td>
<td>Where did POI go?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>75</td>
<td>Explains IR number</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56</td>
<td>CCTV/mobile phone footage?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>76</td>
<td>Provides details of how to give more</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>information</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57</td>
<td>Words spoken?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>77</td>
<td>Explains what happens next (e.g.,</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>statement)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58</td>
<td>Items left behind</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>78</td>
<td>Asks witness to sign sketch</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59</td>
<td>Do you know the witness(es)?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>79</td>
<td>Records time</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>Do you know the victim(s)?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* ¹ refers to Clarke and Milne (2001); ² refers to Walsh and Milne (2008); and ³ refers to Scott et al. (2015). – denotes absence and ✓ denotes presence of the item.
### Table 3

*Excluded Components from Coding Schedules Utilised by Clarke and Milne (2001), Walsh and Milne (2008), and Scott et al. (2015)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Identification of all persons present</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Evidence of Conversation Management</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Delivering caution</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Evidence of Cognitive Interview (CI)</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Checking understanding of caution</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Use of CI instructions</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Advising legal representation</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Questioning skills</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Advising routines and routes</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Was the use of ADVOKATE appropriate?</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Explaining that interview is opportunity to give account</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Self-confidence</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Building rapport</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>Open mind</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Interviewer greets the witness</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>Communication skills</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Interviewer uses friendly conversational style</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>Interviewer remains calm during interview</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Interviewer appears genuinely interested in what the witness has to say</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Overview of closure</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Interviewer states that the witness should report information even if it seems unimportant or trivial</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>Reading out final caution</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Interviewer states that the witness should report information even if it is incomplete</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>Invites interviewee to correct</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Dealing with difficulty</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>Records date</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Appropriate use of questions</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Interviewer asks for account (each topic)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note:* 1 refers to Clarke and Milne (2001); 2 refers to Walsh and Milne (2008); and 3 refers to Scott et al. (2015). – denotes absence of the item and ✓ denotes presence of the item.
The coding schedule developed for the present research also includes a number of components not present in those utilised by Clarke and Milne (2001), Walsh and Milne (2008), or Scott et al. (2015). Components 5 to 8 were included as recruits had no contact details for the witness and needed to obtain them for any follow-up contact. Component 18 was included as part of the information recruits should impart to the witness with regard to the routine and interview procedure. Component 20 was included to mirror the pattern of items regarding the time taken for an interview; that is, explaining the process and then checking the witness is willing to participate. Components 45 to 58 and 61 were included as they relate to information that the recruit should ascertain from the witness during the course of an interview. Components 59 and 60 were included as utilising a plan is considered an important aspect of an interview. Component 72 was been included as recruits are instructed to request a signature from the witness to verify the sketch.

Table 2 shows the key interview components in the coding schedule for Phase III of Chapters 3 and 4 and whether they were included (or an equivalent component was included) in the schedules used by Clarke and Milne (2001), Walsh and Milne (2008), and/or Scott et al. (2015). With regard to the incorporation of components from the schedules listed in Table 2 into the schedule utilised in the present research, in some instances the present schedule has condensed multiple components into one. For example, the schedule utilised in Scott et al. (2015) contains the components: Interviewer summarises all topics, Interviewer summarises at least one topic, and Interviewer does not summarise topics, but attempts to summarise the information provided. Rather than including all three components, the present schedule has the one component, Interviewer summarises regularly. The decision to simplify some aspects of the coding schedule are to ensure that there is not additional emphasis on particular skills over others.

Table 3 shows the components in those schedules that were excluded in the coding schedule developed for this thesis. With regard to the exclusion of components relating to the Engage and explain stage, component 1 in Table 3 was excluded as only one interviewer was present for the interview and the item related to their introduction is sufficient. Components 2 to 4 were excluded as they are not relevant for an interview with a witness. Component 5
was covered by the multiple components in the present schedule outlining instructions and procedure; for example, Explain purpose of interview to gather information, Interviewer to ask questions, and Explain witness may need to appear in court. Component 6 was covered by the item, Explain purpose of interview to gather information. Component 7 was excluded as it is difficult to assess objectively; however, it is assessed in part by the component, Asks questions not necessary for interview. Component 8 was excluded as it is covered by the component, Introduce self. Components 9 and 10 were excluded as they are difficult to assess objectively. Components 11 and 12 were excluded as they are considered to be covered by the component, Witness to report everything.

With regard to the exclusion of components relating to the Account stage, components 13, 21 to 24 were not included as they were difficult to operationalise and assess objectively. More relevantly, at the very early stage of training these are difficult components to assess, as recruits are not comfortable with the process of interviewing. Components 14 and 19 were excluded as they relate to specific skills in questioning which was considered beyond the scope of this thesis; the body of literature considering question types and their use is extensive and analysis of such is not necessary to achieve the aims of these phases of analyses. Component 15 is considered to be covered by the component, Exploration of information (follow-up) of the present schedule. Components related to the coverage of particular models of interviewing, components 16 to 18, were not included as the skills required for these are largely beyond the scope of introductory interview training. Finally, component 20 was excluded as ADVOKATE is appropriate for the types of offences regarding which recruits were conducting interviews on each of the four occasions.

With regard to the exclusion of components relating to the Closure stage, component 25 was excluded as coverage of the individual components included in the present schedule would cover this component. As such, including it as a separate component would be assessing that aspect of the interview more than once. Component 26 was excluded as it is not relevant to an interview with a witness, component 27 was excluded as it is covered in the present schedule by the component, Invites witness to alter information, and
component 28 was excluded as it is covered by the component, Provides date in the Engage and explain stage of the present schedule.

In terms of coding components as present or absent, where the recruit asked or stated the relevant information, or where the witness provided the information without prompting, the component was coded as being present. With regard to plans, the information may appear in a different format to that of an interview. Components in the schedule were coded as present in the plan where information was included in the plan that could be interpreted as connected to the component in the schedule. After preliminary coding of a selection of plans and interviews, it became apparent that the components 36 Active listening, 37 Use of pauses/silence, 65 Refers to plan in interview, and 66 Checks off items in plan would not be relevant for analysis as there was limited capacity to plan for those components. Given the basis of analysis is comparing the plans and interviews, these components were subsequently excluded from the remainder of coding. Two additional components were excluded from coding of interviews in Time 4, components 49 and 60, as these relate to the victim of the offence and there was no victim in Time 4.

With regard to the analyses of data in Phase III of Chapters 3 and 4, the high number of components in the coding schedule presented some difficulty. While coding for all components allowed for a nuanced analysis, collapsing the components into the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages and categories provided additional options. The components were categorised in two ways; firstly, into the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages of the interview. Having the components delineated into one of these three stages facilitated comparison with results presented in Phase II of Chapter 3, as well as with the wider literature. The second way components were categorised was to group them according to content within the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages, resulting in 15 categories. The five categories within the Engage and explain stage were Introduction; Witness demographics; Account instructions; Procedural instructions; and Witness wellbeing. The seven categories within the Account stage were Interview structure; Interview technique; ADVOKATE; Person details; Investigative areas; Elements and defences and Offence details. The three categories within the Closure stage
were Confirm account; Follow-up procedure; and Formalities. The components included in collapsed categories are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

*Individual Components Included in Collapsed Categories*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Item numbers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Engage and explain</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>1 to 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Witness demographics</td>
<td>5 to 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Account instructions</td>
<td>9, 10; 14 to 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedural instructions</td>
<td>11 to 13; 17 to 20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Witness wellbeing</td>
<td>21 to 24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Account</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interview structure</td>
<td>25 to 26; 30, 33, 35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interview technique</td>
<td>29, 32, 34; 67 to 69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADVOKATE</td>
<td>38 to 45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Person details</td>
<td>46 to 49; 55, 59 to 60; 63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investigative areas</td>
<td>53 to 54; 56, 58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elements and defences</td>
<td>27 to 28; 57, 61 to 62; 64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offence details</td>
<td>50 to 52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Closure</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confirm account</td>
<td>70 to 72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Follow-up procedure</td>
<td>74 to 77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formalities</td>
<td>73; 78 to 79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Coding schedule and qualitative analysis: Inductive categories in self-evaluations.*

*Chapter 5 (Phases I and II).*

Recruits completed self-evaluations after interviews on each occasion. Recruits’ responses to the question, “If you could conduct this interview again, what would you do differently?” were analysed to determine what recruits include in their self-evaluations as areas for improvement and how these change in response to training. Recruits’ responses were analysed using inductive content analysis. This process facilitated the creation of categories by which to organise the data coherently. Recruits’ responses were read and re-read to become familiar. Categories grouping particular types of responses together were developed and then tested to see if the categories encompassed all responses. All responses across the four time periods were then coded into the categories to facilitate analysis.
The numbering of self-evaluation items involved judgements regarding content and similarity. Where multiple items related to the same content, but could be differentiated with regard to purpose, multiple items were counted. For example, in Time 1, one recruit listed “make her feel more comfy, offer her a drink” and “ask if she was comfortable”. As these both related to witness comfort and could be covered in one interaction, these were condensed to one item for the purpose of numbering. In contrast, in Time 2, one recruit stated, “Neater writing and tell the lady to pause a little more to enable more detailed notes”. While there is an argument that the response as a whole relates to note taking, there are two distinct aspects; notes that are easier to read and notes that are more detailed. As such, this response consists of two items for the purpose of numbering. Questioning techniques; for example, 5W1H and TEDS, have been numbered per technique, rather than the individual components. That is, a response containing “5W1H” and “TEDS” would constitute two items, not six items for 5W1H and four items for TEDS. The rationale behind this distinction when other, more specific questions are individually numbered, is because the recruit was identifying they wish to improve overall with regard to the types of questions asked.

Chapter 5 (Phase III).

The in-depth analysis of the practice of self-evaluation and its impact on interviewing practices was limited to the self-evaluations completed at Time 3 for five reasons. Firstly, having limited analysis of interviews to Time 3 in Phase III of Chapters 3 and 4, it seemed logical to mirror this approach with regard to the in-depth analysis of the practice of self-evaluation in Phase III of Chapter 5. Secondly, self-evaluations at Time 3 were chronologically the last self-evaluations that could be assessed with regard to their impact on plans and interviews between Times 3 and 4 as there was no opportunity to consider plans or interviews after the self-evaluations completed at Time 4. Fourthly, of the sample of 37 recruits, there were five recruits in Time 1 and three recruits in Time 2 who, in response to the question, “If you could conduct this interview again, what would you do differently?” stated variously that either they were not sure, or at this point in their training the interview conducted to “the best of my present abilities”. Finally, one recruit in Time 1 and seven recruits in Time 2 indicated they would not do anything differently or did not
respond to the question. In contrast, in Time 3, one recruit indicated they were unsure and five recruits indicated they would not do anything differently or did not respond to the question. Therefore, in total, six recruits in Time 1, 10 recruits in Time 2, and six recruits in Time 3 did not provide any indication of areas for improvement in their self-evaluations. In order to assess the extent to which recruits’ self-evaluations in Time 3 impacted interviewing practices at Time 4, the self-evaluations, interviews, and plans of only those recruits who identified an area to improve in their self-evaluations at Time 3 were analysed in Times 3 and 4 ($N = 31$).

Examining the extent to which recruits’ self-evaluations impact their interviewing practices posed challenges for analysis as the individual responses were so varied in their level of specificity and ability to be operationally defined and measured. Rather than considering the impact of self-evaluations on plans and interviews separately, each self-evaluation item was ‘tracked’ across the recruits’ performance at Time 3 and Time 4 with respect to their plans and interviews in an attempt to understand self-evaluation holistically.

The process for assessing the incorporation of self-evaluation items and whether or not representation in plans changed between the two occasions was consistent across the categories and sub-categories as it related to whether the items included in plans related to the self-evaluation item were different at Times 3 and 4. For example, for a recruit suggesting they need to ask more open questions, the plans at Times 3 and 4 were examined to determine what items (if any) each of the plans related to questioning and whether the type of item or how it was expressed in the plan changed between Times 3 and 4. With regard to the analysis of the incorporation of self-evaluation items in the interviews, this was analysed differently depending on the self-evaluation item as the nature of the self-evaluation items differed to such an extent that one universal approach to assessing changes between Times 3 and 4 was not appropriate. For example, where a recruit identified wanting to appear more confident in the interview, this was analysed by viewing the recordings on both occasions and observing demeanour. In contrast, where a recruit identified wanting to ask less leading questions, this was analysed by reading the transcript and noting the occurrence of leading questions. To allow for these differences in analysis, the process for assessing the incorporation of self-
evaluation items in interviews and whether or not representation changes between the two occasions is described separately in each category, and in each sub-category where relevant due to the differences in the type of self-evaluation items and how these can be assessed.

To facilitate analysis of the impact of self-evaluation items on interviewing practices, the observations regarding the incorporation of the self-evaluation item in the plans and interviews at Times 3 and 4 were then entered into a matrix. The completed matrix, with notations regarding each of the self-evaluation items included by recruits at Time 3 and their incorporation in plans and interviews at Times 3 and 4, was ordered according to the seven categories identified in Phase I of this chapter (as mentioned previously, no recruits included items in their self-evaluations related to Rapport building). The impact of self-evaluation items at Time 3 on the plans and interviews at Time 4 was analysed within the categories and sub-categories to examine whether the incorporation of items in plans and interviews differed according to the category, and sub-category, to which it relates. Table 5 provides an example of the template used to facilitate the analysis of the incorporation of self-evaluation items at Time 3 in plans and interviews at Times 3 and 4, and includes two worked examples.
Table 5

Analysis Matrix of the Incorporation of Self-evaluation Items at Time 3 into Plans and Interviews at Times 3 and 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Self-evaluation Item</th>
<th>Time 3 Plan</th>
<th>Time 3 Interview</th>
<th>Time 4 Plan</th>
<th>Time 4 Interview</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Go a bit further in depth about clothes</td>
<td>Plan at Time 3 contains instructions and procedural information, TEDS and 5W1H expanded and ADVOCATE (sic) mnemonic, “Tell me what happened. Topic boxes, anymore you can remember”.</td>
<td>Recruit did initial summary and then summarised after first smaller part, and then two additional smaller summaries. No final summary and the person descriptions were not summarised. Detailed questioning about the offender but not about the witness or victim. Attempting to gain additional details, “tell me a bit more about description” and “tell me is there anything more that you can?” but did not probe specifically re clothes, age.</td>
<td>Plan at Time 4 contains less instructions and procedural information related to E but more related to C (none at Time 3), space for topics and “TOPIC BOXES (Summarise)”, TEDS and 5W1H expanded, no reference to ADVOKATE.</td>
<td>Initial summary was after a number of questions and sketch. Asked about clothes of the offender and age (after witness mentioned “he was quite young”). Summarised briefly two more times but did not include a final summary. There were no other descriptions of people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summarise (Recruit 4)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-evaluation Item</td>
<td>Time 3 Plan</td>
<td>Interview</td>
<td>Time 4 Plan</td>
<td>Interview</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use more TEDS questions</td>
<td>Plan at Time 3 contains witness details (including occupation), “free recall” as a heading, ADVOKATE, “introduction – name, purpose”, “s28 rights”, “court appearance”. Sketch on last page (unsigned).</td>
<td>15 “Tell me” or “Describe to me” questions plus asking for a sketch (Show me?), but these are asked indirectly e.g., “can you describe her to me?” ADVOKATE was asked at the conclusion of the interview and no victim support was offered (witness not asked whether they were “okay” at the beginning of the interview.</td>
<td>Plan at Time 4 contains witness details (including occupation), ADVOKATE, and “overview” as a heading. Sketch is signed by the witness.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Victim support</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Put ADVOKATE throughout not @ end</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Witness to sign diagram + collect at end …</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Where did it go?!</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Recruit 22)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Recruit asked witness to sign the sketch immediately after it was completed. Questions from ADVOKATE not asked until the end of the interview and victim support was again not offered, nor was the witness’ wellbeing enquired after in the initial stage of the interview. The recruit appeared to use proportionately less TEDS questions, opting for more closed and indirect questions to clarify, rather than open questions e.g., “so you first noticed him when you went, you were doing your shoelace up?” Asked for a description, “what I’ll do now is just get you to describe the guy that you saw?” but then used closed questions / statements to clarify e.g., “yup, a hoody. And would you say they were quite thin stripes or?” rather than asking an open question about the detail of the jumper.
Quantitative Analysis

The relevant statistical tests adopted for analysis are outlined in the respective chapters. Descriptive of the types of analysis used are included below.

Analysis of variance (ANOVA).

One-way repeated measures ANOVAs were performed in the analysis presented in Chapter 3 (Phases I, II, and III), Chapter 4 (Phases I, II, and III), and Chapter 5 (Phase I). The repeated measures design of the study, and the use of interval level data in these phases of analyses, meant that depending on the distribution of the data, the appropriate analyses were either one-way repeated measures ANOVAs or Friedman Tests (for normally and non-normally distributed data respectively). These analyses were appropriate for comparing the results of the same participants, using the same interval measure, across a number of occasions (Pallant, 2010). A third option, doubly-multivariate analysis, is also appropriate for repeated measures designs with multiple dependent variables measured on the same interval measure (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). However, the benefit of doubly-multivariate analysis lies in designs with more than one independent variable. As the current study had only one independent variable, this analysis was not chosen because it would not add additional value to the analysis of the results.

The use of ANOVAs assumes data is a random sample, interval level, normally distributed, and does not violate sphericity. The assumption testing for each relevant phase of analysis is outlined below. Where the assumption of normality was not met, it may be argued that Friedman Tests should be performed. However, ANOVAs are considered to be robust against violations of the assumption of normality, particularly with a sample size of over 30 participants (Pallant, 2010) as with most samples analysed within the thesis (with the exception of analyses in Phase II of Chapter 4). By definition, non-parametric tests do not assume the data is distributed with specific parameters (Coolican, 2009). Consequently, both one-way repeated measures ANOVAs and Friedman Tests were performed to analyse the data. Wilcoxon Signed Rank Tests were used for the post-hoc analyses following Friedman Tests and Bonferroni tests were used for the post-hoc analyses following ANOVAs. Bonferroni Tests were chosen for the post-hoc analyses in preference to
Tukey’s Tests as they minimise Type I errors but have greater statistical power than Tukey’s Tests when used with small samples, minimising the risk of Type II errors (Field, 2009). As mentioned previously, Bonferroni-adjusted alpha levels were used in determining significant findings with regard to parametric and non-parametric tests to further minimise the risk of Type I errors.

There were comparable findings of significance between the results of one-way repeated measures ANOVAs and Friedman Tests in all phases of analyses. Given analysis using non-parametric tests is 95.5% as powerful as parametric equivalents (Coolican, 2009), this comparability suggests reporting ANOVAs has not inflated findings. While reporting the results of Friedman Tests is readily digestible, the reporting of the post-hoc analyses using Wilcoxon Signed Rank Tests is far more detailed than the equivalent post-hoc tests for parametric data. As such, results of ANOVAs, along with the results of post-hoc analyses using Bonferroni Tests, are reported within the chapters. Differences were found with regard to three of the seven phases of analysis using ANOVAs: Phases I and II of Chapter 3, and Phase II of Chapter 4. The results of Friedman Tests are included in Appendices O – T.

Where there were violations of sphericity, rather than reporting Greenhouse-Geisser or Huynh-Feldt adjusted significance tests to account for the violation, the unadjusted statistic has been reported as it does not assume sphericity (Field, 2009) and is considered a safer option than reporting adjustments (Pallant, 2013).

**Spearman Rank Order Correlation.**

Spearman Rank Order Correlations were performed in the analysis presented in Phase II of Chapter 4. Spearman Rank Order Correlations are used to measure the nature and strength of association between two variables when data is non-normally distributed (Field, 2009). This analysis was chosen to determine whether there was an association between the items planned and questions covered by recruits with regard to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages of the PEACE model on each of the four occasions. The normality testing of the proportion of items in the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages in plans and the proportion of questions in the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages in interviews outlined for Phase II of Chapter 4 showed some of the data was non-normally distributed.
Chapter 2: Methodology

**Cochran’s Q Tests.**

Cochran’s Q Tests, with McNemar’s Tests for post-hoc analyses, were performed in the analysis presented in Phase I of Chapter 5. Cochran’s Q Tests are used to analyse the change in a categorical variable measured on multiple occasions. The use of these tests assumes data is categorical and measuring the same characteristic on three or more occasions (Pallant, 2010). The data used in Phase I of Chapter 5 was the presence or absence of particular categories in recruits’ self-evaluations on four occasions, thus the variables met the criteria for Cochran’s Q Tests by being categorical and measuring the same characteristic on more than three occasions.

**Chi-square Test.**

Chi-square Tests were performed in the analysis presented in Phase III of Chapter 4. Chi-square Tests are used to determine whether there is a relationship between the presence or absence of one variable and the presence or absence of a second variable.

**Cohen’s Kappa Coefficient.**

Cohen’s Kappa Coefficient was used to measure inter-rater reliability for coding in Chapter 3 (Phases I, II, and III), Chapter 4 (Phases I, II, and III), and Chapter 5 (Phase I). Cohen’s Kappa Coefficients were calculated to provide an indication of agreement having taken into consideration the level of agreement expected by chance (Cohen, 1960). That is, the benefit of using Cohen’s Kappa Coefficients in preference to calculating percentage agreement is that Cohen’s Kappa Coefficient takes into account that the raters may not make deliberate choices on each occasion where a decision is needed, and at times may guess (McHugh, 2012). It has been suggested that Cohen’s Kappa Coefficient may underestimate levels of agreement (McHugh, 2012) and, as such, the use of Cohen’s Kappa Coefficients provides a rigorous approach to calculating inter-rater reliability. The individual reliability calculations are presented in the method sections of the relevant empirical chapters.
Chapter 3: Plans

Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to examine what police recruits (recruits) include in their plans and how the amount and type of content in plans changes following specific points in training. This introductory section of the chapter will recap on the relevant literature and provide a rationale for the approach to analysing recruits’ plans. Following a discussion of the research questions to be addressed in this chapter, three phases of analysis will be presented. Each phase of analysis contains a method, results, and interim discussion section, and at the conclusion of the chapter there is a chapter discussion.

Literature

Within the Preparation and planning stage, Gudjonsson (1994) suggested seven principles for interviewers to consider: understanding why the interview is being conducted; identifying objectives; articulating the relevant elements of the offence in question; reviewing evidence already gathered; determining what evidence may still be available that has not already been obtained; understanding the legislative and procedural requirements governing the interview; and ensuring the interview is designed with flexibility in mind. Indicators of prior preparation assessed by researchers have included: understanding the offence and its elements; having exhibits and evidence readily accessible; understanding possible defences; and conducting a structured interview showing an identifiable strategy for questioning (see e.g., Walsh & Bull, 2010b; 2012b).

Early research examining the performance of PEACE showed an improvement in interviewing skills but there remained a deficit in planning, with police officers interviewing persons of interest (POI) having a mean score demonstrating Average Preparation and planning and police officers interviewing witnesses demonstrating Below average Preparation and planning, with both of these considered below PEACE standard (Clarke & Milne, 2001). Clarke and Milne found there was a significant difference in planning dependent on overall skill level for interviews with POIs, with police officers categorised as Skilled in their overall skill level scoring significantly higher for Preparation and planning than those categorised as Needing training or Satisfactory. Further, police officers categorised as Satisfactory in their
overall skill level scored significantly higher in Preparation and planning than those Needing training. This finding was not reflected in interviews with witnesses, where training had no effect on the score for Preparation and planning. A later study of benefit fraud investigators demonstrated findings consistent with Clarke and Milne (2001), with the analysis of groups performing above PEACE standard and those performing below PEACE standard revealing a positive association between the performance of Preparation and planning and overall interview quality (Walsh & Bull, 2010b).

Training has not generally been found to be effective in improving Preparation and planning (Clarke et al., 2011; Walsh and Milne, 2008). Walsh and Milne (2008) found no difference in the Preparation and planning score between benefit fraud investigators who were trained and investigators who were untrained in the PEACE model of interviewing, with both groups having a mean score between Adequate and Satisfactory. Using a sample of police officers, Clarke et al. (2011) did not find significant differences between the trained and untrained groups. However, mean values for Preparation and planning were slightly higher than those reported in Walsh and Milne (2008) and Walsh and Bull (2010a).

In terms of time spent preparing for an interview, approximately 46% of surveyed police officers from Queensland Police reported spending 10 to 15 minutes preparing for interviews with POIs, with police officers citing time pressures due to high caseloads as a reason for this limited time (Hill & Moston, 2011). Despite the short amount of time spent preparing for interviews, approximately 64% of police officers rated themselves as being Average at Planning and preparation, perhaps indicating police officers do not believe additional time is warranted for planning. However, researchers suggest poor planning practices may be overcome by mandatory interview plans including *inter alia* elements and defences, and interview structure (Walsh & Milne, 2008). Further, it was suggested that planning in the context of interview is important in providing flexibility for the interviewer. In particular, in interviews with POIs this flexibility would allow for interviewers to challenge defences and question strategically as a number of possible situations have been anticipated in the Preparation and planning stage (Walsh & Bull, 2010a).

As no previous research has considered the content of written plans by recruits or police officers, it is not clear what they would include in their plans and whether the content reflects what it considered important in interview generally. In their assessment of what is important for investigative interviews, police officers have variously reported appropriate
questioning (Bull & Cherryman, 1996; Oxburgh & Dando, 2011), adequate training (Oxburgh & Dando, 2011), empathic style (e.g., listening, courtesy, patience, respect; Bull & Cherryman, 1996; Oxburgh & Dando, 2011; Read, Powell, Kebbell, & Milne, 2009); preparation (Bull & Cherryman, 1996), knowledge of subject (Bull & Cherryman, 1996), flexibility (Bull & Cherryman, 1996), open-mindedness (Bull & Cherryman, 1996), and rapport (Bull & Cherryman, 1996; Hartwig et al., 2012). While police officers believed these aspects of the interview are the most important, it is not clear whether these aspects of the interview are incorporated into planning for interviews, or whether other aspects of the interview are considered to be easier or more useful to include in plans. Difficulties associated with scenario planning in the context of business literature included the need to balance competing objectives (Zapata & Kaza, 2015). In the context of the present research, this may manifest itself in recruits’ plans being unbalanced in content with regard to particular areas of the interview, depending on where they believe emphasis is most necessary. To that end, the content of recruits’ plans may not reflect what they believe is important for an investigative interview; rather, they may include items they are most likely to forget, or items they are most concerned about covering or performing well.

**Rationale for Analysis**

The most important consideration with regard to recruits’ plans is the impact of the amount and type of content on interviews, and whether this changes following specific points in training. If it is found plans do not impact interviews, either the suggestion to utilise them needs revisiting, or recruits need to be trained more effectively in their use. However, in order to address that question, it is first important to consider what recruits include in their plans, and whether there is a change in the amount and type of content included in plans following specific points in training. Understanding what recruits include in their plans provides insight into what aspects of the interview the recruit perceives needs covering and/or what aspects of the interview the recruit believes they are most likely to forget without prompting. Analysis of how these change following training provides an indication of the efficacy of training in changing recruits’ attitudes in terms of what needs covering in the interview and/or what is mostly likely to be forgotten, and changing recruits’ behaviour in terms of what is included in their plans.
The analysis of recruits’ plans is presented in three phases. The initial analysis of plans is presented in Phase I. The items included in recruits’ plans were analysed using content analysis and 11 categories were developed based on the content of plans on each occasion. Each item in each plan was coded according to the 11 categories to facilitate statistical analyses of the amount and type of content in recruits’ plans. The coding used in Phase I provides an overview of the amount and type of content in recruits’ plans; however, there is no basis from which to compare the findings with those in relation to the content of interviews in the investigative interviewing literature. The majority of research conducted examining the PEACE model, does so with reference to the five stages: Preparation and planning; Engage and explain; Account; Closure; and Evaluation. In order to understand the amount and type of content in recruits’ plans in the context of existing literature, the content of recruits’ plans was coded according to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages of the PEACE model. As with the analysis presented in Phase I, there was also an examination of the change in amount and type of content following specific points in training. The results of these analyses are presented in Phase II.

The analysis presented in Phase III utilises a coding schedule informed by previously published interview schedules and the training material provided to recruits at the Western Australia (WA) Police Academy. In this way, the schedule reflects expectations published within the literature and those of the profession with regard to what recruits should cover in interviews with witnesses. Analysing the content of recruits’ plans with regard to key interview components provides an understanding of the relevance of items included in recruits’ plans. Analysing how the proportion of components included in plans changes following specific points in time again provides the opportunity to understand the impact of training on the relevance of recruits’ plans.

Research Questions

The analyses presented in this chapter aim to determine the amount and type of content recruits include in their plans and how these change following specific points in training. The specific research questions used to guide the analysis in individual phases are presented below.

Phase I.

− What is the amount and type of content recruits include in their plans?
Chapter 3: Plans

- How does the amount and type of content in plans change following specific points in training?

**Phase II.**
- What do recruits include in their plans related to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages of the PEACE model?
- How does the amount and type of content related to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages of the PEACE model in recruits’ plans change following specific points in training?

**Phase III.**
- How does the amount and type of content in recruits’ plans relate to key interview components?
- How does the amount and type of content in recruits’ plans relating to key interview components change following specific points in training?

**Phase I**

Very little is known about plans in the context of investigative interviews. Understanding what recruits choose to include in their plans provides insight into what aspects of the interview they perceive as being important and/or what aspects of the interview they perceive as being more difficult to remember to cover. In terms of assessing the efficacy of training, it is also important to consider what impact, if any, training has on what recruits include in their plans. To that end, the first phase of analysis in this chapter addresses the question of what recruits include in their plans and whether the amount and type of content changes following specific points in training. This section of the chapter contains a method, results, and interim discussion, each specific to the first phase of analysis. The findings of this phase will then be discussed in the context of the findings from Phases II and III in the chapter discussion at the conclusion of the chapter.

**Method**

All of the recruits’ plans from the four occasions were studied closely to identify common themes. Having developed a preliminary coding schedule, a selection of plans from each occasion were coded to test whether the items contained within the plans could be
categorised according to the schedule. Following this process of development, the final coding schedule contained 12 categories: Introduction, Witness demographics, Interview demographics, Pre-existing information, Incident details, Elements, Defences, Legal procedure, Interview procedure, Rapport building, Interviewing technique, and Other. Each item in each plan was assigned to one of the 12 categories (further explanation of this process is outlined in Chapter 2). Operational definitions for the 12 categories are presented in Table 6.

Table 6
*Operational Definitions*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>Content that relates to the interviewer’s explanation of their identity and/or their role.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Witness demographics</td>
<td>Content related to the witness’ demographic details.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interview demographics</td>
<td>Details of the interview itself. For example, “Village Police Station.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-existing information</td>
<td>Content that has been disclosed to the recruit prior to the planning stage. This includes the nature of the offence, date of the offence, and time of the offence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incident details</td>
<td>Content included in the plan that relates to the incident, but is not pre-existing knowledge and is not an element of, or defence to, the charge being investigated.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elements</td>
<td>Legal elements of the particular charge being investigated on the relevant occasion (e.g., intent, fraudulently takes or converts, damage).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defences</td>
<td>Legal defences to the particular charge being investigated on the relevant occasion (e.g., provoked, self-defence, consent).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legal procedure</td>
<td>Content that relates to the legal procedure in forensic investigation. For example, “sign notes and sketch”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interview procedure</td>
<td>Content that relates to the interview procedure. For example, “my head will be down but I am still listening.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rapport building</td>
<td>Content that relates to the recruit attempting to build a relationship with the witness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviewing technique</td>
<td>Content regarding interviewing technique; that is, how to conduct the interview itself.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>Where the content does not relate to any of the aforementioned categories, or is indecipherable.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Inter-rater reliability.**

A random selection of five plans from each of the four occasions were coded by a second individual to assess inter-rater reliability. The second rater was provided with
operational definitions for each of the categories and was asked to code the data independently. A subsequent meeting was then held for the second rater to have the opportunity to seek clarification about the interpretation of categories. Following clarification, the second rater completed the coding of data and Cohen’s Kappa Coefficients were calculated to provide an indication of agreement having taken into consideration the level of agreement expected by chance (Cohen, 1960). For coding relating to the content of plans, the Cohen’s Kappa Coefficients were .98, .81, .84, .91 for Times 1, 2, 3, and 4 respectively. The four coefficients equalled or exceeded the score of .81 for a rating of Almost perfect agreement (Llandis & Koch, 1970).

Statistical Analyses

The analyses presented in this phase aimed to determine what recruits include in their plans and whether the amount and type of content changes following specific points in training. The mean numbers of items in each category were calculated to provide an understanding of the amount and type of content recruits include in their plans. As part of the examination of what recruits include in their plans, ranks were assigned to each category within each time period in order to determine where recruits place their emphasis in plans; that is, what categories receive the most attention. These ranks were used as a tool to guide analysis of the data. Twelve one-way Analyses of Variance (ANOVAs), 11 categories and total items, were performed to determine whether there was a change in the amount of content in plans and within individual categories following specific points in training. The twelfth category, Other, was excluded from the analyses as it did not contain a sufficient number of items to warrant analysis. Bonferroni-adjusted alpha levels were employed to reduce the risk of Type I errors.

Results

Amount and type of content.

The inductive coding process identified 11 categories of items recruits included in their plans: Introduction, Witness demographics, Interview demographics, Pre-existing information, Incident details, Elements, Defences, Legal procedure, Interview procedure, Rapport building, and Interviewing technique. Recruits did not plan evenly; rather, there was emphasis placed on particular categories. To facilitate an understanding of what recruits
planned for, and the focus placed on particular aspects of the interview, the categories were assigned a rank between 1 and 11, with 1 representing the category containing the highest mean number of items across the sample. To understand the broader focus placed on categories by recruits the order can be expressed as high, medium, or low. High order categories were ranked 1 to 4; medium order categories were ranked 5 to 7; and low order categories were ranked 8 to 11. The ranks, means, and standard deviations are presented in Table 7.

At Time 1 recruits focused on Incident details, Witness demographics, Pre-existing information, and Interview demographics. The low order categories were Introduction, Interview procedure, Elements, and Legal procedure. At Time 2 recruits focused on Incident details, Witness demographics, Pre-existing information, and Elements. The low order categories were Legal procedure, Introduction, Rapport building, and Defences. At Time 3 recruits focused on Incident details, Interviewing technique, Interview procedure, and Legal procedure. The low order categories were Defences, Pre-existing information, Introduction, and Interview demographics. At Time 4 the pattern with regard to the focus of recruits was identical to that at Time 3. The low order categories at Time 4 were Witness demographics, Pre-existing information, Introduction, and Interview demographics.

Looking across the four occasions, two categories remain consistent in their rank order (that is, high, medium, or low); Introduction as a low order category and Incident details as a high order category. The remaining categories change rank order across the four occasions. Given the change in focus at different time periods, these findings suggest training may have an impact on the focus of recruits’ planning. However, as will be discussed in the General Discussion, some of the changes may be attributed to practice effects.

**Change in the amount and type of content.**

Having examined what recruits include in their plans, one-way repeated measures ANOVAs were performed to determine whether there were significant differences in the number of total items and the number of items included in individual categories following specific points in training. One ANOVA was performed to compare the mean number of total items included in plans across the four occasions. Additional ANOVAs were then performed to compare the mean number of items included in each of the 11 categories across the four occasions. The means, standard deviations, and post-hoc analyses are presented in Table 7.

Using an alpha value of .05, there was a significant effect for time for total items: $\lambda =$
Chapter 3: Plans

.18, \( F(3, 34) = 51.62, p < .001, \eta^2 = .82 \). Post-hoc analyses revealed a significant increase in total items included in plans between Time 1 and Times 3 and 4, and between Time 2 and Times 3 and 4. In addition, there was a significant decrease in total items included in plans between Time 3 and Time 4.

Using a Bonferroni-adjusted alpha value of .004 there was a significant effect for time for eight of the 11 categories: Introduction \( \lambda = .48, F(3, 34) = 12.50, p < .001, \eta^2 = .52 \); Incident details \( \lambda = .39, F(3, 34) = 18.09, p < .001, \eta^2 = .62 \); Elements \( \lambda = .32, F(3, 34) = 23.86, p < .001, \eta^2 = .68 \); Defences \( \lambda = .56, F(3, 34) = 8.99, p < .001, \eta^2 = .44 \); Legal procedure \( \lambda = .29, F(3, 34) = 27.46, p < .001, \eta^2 = .71 \); Interview procedure \( \lambda = .22, F(3, 34) = 41.14, p < .001, \eta^2 = .78 \); Rapport building \( \lambda = .34, F(3, 34) = 22.13, p < .001, \eta^2 = .66 \); and Interviewing technique \( \lambda = .26, F(3, 34) = 32.65, p < .001, \eta^2 = .74 \). Post-hoc analyses revealed there was a significant increase in the number of items included in plans between Time 1 and Times 3 and 4, and between Time 2 and Times 3 and 4 for Introduction, Incident details, Defences, Legal procedure, Rapport building, and Interviewing technique. There was also a significant decrease in the number of items included in plans between Time 3 and Time 4 for Incident details. With regard to Pre-existing information, there was a significant decrease in the number of items included in plans between Time 2 and Time 4. With regard to Elements and Interview procedure, there was a significant increase in items included in plans between Time 1 and Times 2, 3, and 4. There was also significant increase in items included in plans between Time 2 and Times 3 and 4 for Interview procedure.
### Table 7

**Rank, Mean Number of Items, Standard Deviations, and Results of One-way Repeated Measures ANOVAs**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Time 1</th>
<th>Time 2</th>
<th>Time 3</th>
<th>Time 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rank</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Rank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>.08&lt;sub&gt;a,b&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Witness demographics</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interview demographics</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-existing information</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>1.56</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incident details</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.24&lt;sub&gt;a,b&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>6.01</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elements</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>.03&lt;sub&gt;a,b,c&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defences</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.16&lt;sub&gt;a,b&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legal procedure</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>.00&lt;sub&gt;a,b&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interview procedure</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>.08&lt;sub&gt;a,b,c&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rapport building</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.1622&lt;sub&gt;a,b&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviewing technique</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.1622&lt;sub&gt;a,b&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>9.03&lt;sub&gt;a,b&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>8.89</td>
<td>13.68&lt;sub&gt;c,d&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>7.32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Means in a row sharing the same subscripts differ significantly where $p < .05$. 

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Chapter 3: Plans

Interim Discussion

As the recruits had received no formal training at Time 1, those categories focused on by recruits would appear to be the most intuitive: Incident details, Witness demographics, and Pre-existing information. At Time 2, there were limited changes in the content of recruits’ plans; however, having completed legal and procedural training, the Elements and Legal procedure categories improve in their ranking, as high and medium order categories respectively. It is surprising, therefore, that Defences decreased in their ranking to become a low order category, as this content would also have been addressed in the legal and procedural training received by recruits. At Time 3 recruits’ focus changed following interview training. While the highest ranked category remained Incident details, the categories of Interview technique, Legal procedure, and Interview procedure became more of a focus in recruits’ plans. At Time 4 the pattern of recruits’ focus was very similar to Time 3.

Overall, there was an increase in the number of planned items at Time 3 following interview training and a decrease in the number of planned items between the third and final interviews. The pattern of findings with regard to the Incident details category mirrored that of total planned items, reflecting the large numbers of items in that category. For the remaining categories, the majority increased significantly following interview training as did total planned items and Incident details, but there was not the corresponding decrease between the third and final interviews that was observed for total planned items and the Incident details category.

Recruits received legal and procedural training prior to interviews at Time 2. Of the relevant categories (Elements, Defences, Legal procedure, and Interview procedure), there were only increases in planned items in the interview following this training for the Elements and Interview procedure categories. The pattern of findings showed a non-significant increase between Time 1 and Time 2 for items related to Legal procedure but a non-significant decrease was observed for items related to Defences. While non-significant findings can be of limited importance, in this instance they highlight the limited impact of this aspect of recruits’ training on the content of plans.

The interview training occurring prior to Time 3 appears to have had the most impact on the number of items included in recruits’ plans across the majority of categories, with the change generally maintained for Time 4. It is during this training
that recruits are instructed about what should be included in interviews, as well as how to conduct them. While content relevant to interviews would have been introduced across the duration of their training, it may be that recruits compartmentalise their training, resulting in an increase following interview-specific training, rather than increases following legal and procedural training at Time 2 and then again following interview training at Time 3.

It is important to be mindful that some categories have greater capacity with regard to the number of items that may be planned. For example, there are arguably a finite number of items a recruit would include relating to Witness demographics; for example, the contact details of the witness. In contrast, there are arguably an infinite number of items a recruit could include relating to Incident details; for example, details regarding the offender, victims, witnesses, vehicles and weapons. As a result, some categories are likely to feature more prominently in plans.

Using an inductive approach to analysing the content of plans allowed for an exploratory consideration of what the recruits plan for and whether the amount of type of content in recruits’ plans changes following specific points in training. A consideration of these categories has limited capacity for analyses according to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages as some items within the Phase I categories are applicable to multiple stages of the interview. For example, items relating to Legal procedure, Interview procedure, and Rapport building may be relevant to the Engage and explain or Closure stage of the interview. In contrast, the majority of items contained within Introduction, Witness demographic information, and Interview demographic information would be categorised in the Engage and explain stage and the majority of items within Pre-existing information, Incident details, Elements, Defences, and Interviewing technique would be categorised in the Account category. Given this difficulty, Phase II of this chapter examines the amount and type of content in recruits’ plans with respect to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages of the PEACE model to allow for the results to be contextualised in terms of the interview model in practice.

**Phase II**

Having established an understanding of the amount and type of content included in recruits’ plans, and whether this changes following specific points in training, the second phase of analysis in this chapter addresses the question of what
recruits include in their plans related to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages of the PEACE model and whether the amount and type of content changes following specific points in training. Analysing the findings with regard to the amount and type of content within the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages provides the opportunity to more readily understand the findings in the context of established research. This section of the chapter contains a method, results, and interim discussion, each specific to the second phase of analysis. The findings of this phase will then be discussed in the context of the findings from Phases I and III in the chapter discussion at the conclusion of the chapter.

Method

Following close study of the content of recruits’ plans, the items in plans were categorised according to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages of the PEACE model. The decision regarding the categorisation of items was based firstly on the content of the item and, secondly, on the context of the item in the plan. If the content of the item was ambiguous with regard to the stage of Engage and explain, Account, or Closure to which it related, then the context in which it was written was used to determine the most appropriate category (further explanation of this process is outlined in Chapter 2). Operational definitions for the stages are presented in Table 8.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Engage and explain</td>
<td>Items in the plan relevant to the introduction of the recruit, initial rapport building, and providing instructions regarding how the interview will be conducted.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Account</td>
<td>Items in the plan relevant to obtaining a full account from the witness, including interviewing techniques and specific items relating to offence details and investigative areas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Closure</td>
<td>Items in the plan relevant to the final stage of the interview, including summarising the witness’ account and providing details regarding follow-up contact with police.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Each item in each plan was assigned to either the Engage and explain, Account, or Closure category.
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Inter-rater reliability.

A random selection of five plans from each of the four occasions were coded by a second individual to assess inter-rater reliability. Further details of the process are outlined on pp. 98-99). Cohen’s Kappa Coefficients were calculated to provide an indication of agreement having taken into consideration the level of agreement expected by chance (Cohen, 1960). The Cohen’s Kappa Coefficients were .98, .84, .95 and .92 for Times 1, 2, 3, and 4 respectively. The four coefficients exceeded the score of .81 for a rating of Almost perfect agreement (Llandis & Koch, 1970).

Statistical Analyses

The analyses presented in this phase aimed to determine what recruits include in their plans related to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages of the PEACE model and whether the amount and type of content changes following specific points in training. The mean number of items in each interview stage was calculated to provide an understanding of the amount and type of content recruits include in their plans. As part of the examination of what recruits include in their plans, ranks were assigned to each category within each time period to determine where recruits place their emphasis in plans; that is, what interview stage receives the most attention in recruits’ plans. These rankings were used as a tool to guide analysis of the data. Four one-way repeated measures ANOVAs were performed to determine whether there was a change in the amount of content in plans and within Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages following specific points in training. Bonferroni-adjusted alpha levels were employed to reduce the risk of Type I errors.

Results

Amount of content.

Recruits did not plan evenly across the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages, which is consistent with findings presented in Phase I. To facilitate an understanding of what recruits planned for, and the emphasis placed on particular aspects of the interview, the stages were assigned a rank between 1 and 3, with 1 representing the stage containing the highest mean number of items across the sample. In Time 1 recruits focused on the Account stage, followed by Engage and explain, and then Closure. The recruits’ focus was identical to that observed in Time 1 for Times 2, 3, and 4. The ranks are presented in Table 9.
Chapter 3: Plans

Change in the amount of content.
A one-way repeated measures ANOVA was performed to compare the mean number of total items included in plans across the four occasions. Four additional ANOVAs were then performed to compare the number of items in plans in the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages across the four occasions. The means, standard deviations, and post-hoc analyses are presented in Table 9.

Using an alpha value of .05 there was a significant effect for time for total items $\lambda = .17$, $F (3, 34) = 55.20$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .83$. Post-hoc analyses revealed a significant increase in total items between Time 1 and Times 3 and 4, and between Time 2 and Times 3 and 4. There was also a significant decrease in total items between Times 3 and 4.

Using a Bonferroni-adjusted alpha value of .017, there was a significant effect for time for the Engage and explain $\lambda = .26$, $F (3, 34) = 31.70$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .74$; Account $\lambda = .28$, $F (3, 34) = 29.66$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .73$; and Closure stages $\lambda = .29$, $F (3, 34) = 27.87$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .71$. Post-hoc analyses revealed for all stages there was a significant increase in the number of items between Time 1 and Times 3 and 4, and between Time 2 and Times 3 and 4. For the Engage and explain and Account stage there was also a significant decrease in the number of items between Time 3 and Time 4.
### Table 9

**Rank, Mean Number of Items, Standard Deviations, and Results of One-way Repeated Measures ANOVAs for EAC in Plans**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Time 1</th>
<th></th>
<th>Time 2</th>
<th></th>
<th>Time 3</th>
<th></th>
<th>Time 4</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rank</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Rank</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Rank</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engage and explain</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.08&lt;sub&gt;a,b&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.11&lt;sub&gt;c,d&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12.49&lt;sub&gt;a,c,e&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Account</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.89&lt;sub&gt;a,b&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>7.37</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10.35&lt;sub&gt;c,d&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>6.89</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>35.41&lt;sub&gt;a,c,e&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Closure</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.05&lt;sub&gt;a,b&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.22&lt;sub&gt;c,d&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.92&lt;sub&gt;a,c&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>9.03&lt;sub&gt;a,b&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>8.89</td>
<td>13.68&lt;sub&gt;c,d&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>7.32</td>
<td>51.81&lt;sub&gt;a,c,e&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>19.71</td>
<td>36.62&lt;sub&gt;b,d,e&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>16.69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Means in a row sharing the same subscripts differ significantly where $p < .05$. 
Chapter 3: Plans

Interim Discussion

Across the four occasions recruits consistently focused on the Account stage, followed by Engage and explain, and then Closure. The analysis in Phase II used three broader categories, in contrast to the 11 categories in Phase I, in order to understand the content of plans in terms of the interview model and to contextualise findings within established research. The use of broader categories in Phase II demonstrated the focus of recruits in terms of the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages is consistent at all points in recruits’ training.

The calculations related to the number of items included in the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages, which, as highlighted with regard to Phase I, poses difficulty with the potential for some stages to have a greater number of possible items to plan. For example, there are arguably less items to plan for with regard to the Engage and explain and Closure stages when compared to the Account stage. However, the discrepancy between the number of planned items related to the Account stage when compared to the Engage and explain and Closure stages is such that the comparative neglect of the Engage and explain and Closure stages of the PEACE model is clear.

As with Phase I, there was an overall increase in the number of planned items at Time 3 following interview training and a decrease in the number of planned items between the third and final interviews. The pattern of findings for the Engage and explain and Account stages mirrored that of total planned items. However, for the Closure stage there was an increase in planned items following interview training, but there was no corresponding decrease between the third and final interviews.

Again consistent with Phase I, the interview training occurring prior to Time 3 appears to have had the most impact on the number of items included in plans overall and within each stage. The legal and procedural training occurring prior to Time 2 had the potential to impact items within the Account stage, but there was no significant increase to indicate such a relationship. The absence of a corresponding decrease in planned items between Times 3 and 4 for the Closure stage may indicate that interview training with regard to this aspect of the interview is more resistant to de-training, as illustrated by recruits’ maintenance of planned items during the 10-week gap between the third and final interviews. An alternative explanation is that given the Closure stage contains the least number of possible items to be planned, this may account for the limited change observed between Times 3 and 4.
The analyses presented in Phase III shifts the focus from exploring the content of recruits’ plans to analysing the relevance of the content of plans to the interview itself. In order to analyse the relevance of the content, recruits’ plans were analysed with respect to their incorporation of key interview components, identified through the established research and training materials provided by WA Police. Analysing the content of plans with respect to components expected to be covered by recruits in interviews with witnesses provides an indication of how much relevant content recruits are including in their plans. As with the findings from Phases I and II, this information may assist interview trainers in understanding what recruits do and do not emphasise in their planning and provide direction for targeted training in preparing plans for interviews specifically addressing key interview components.

**Phase III**

Having established an understanding of the amount and type of content included in recruits’ plans with regard to the 11 identified categories and the Engage and explain, Account and Closure stages of the PEACE model, and whether this changes following specific points in training, the third phase of analysis in this chapter aims to determine how the content of plans relates to key interview components and whether this changes following specific points in training. Analysing the plans with regard to the amount and type of content relating to interview components, and whether this changes following specific points in training, provides the opportunity to understand recruits' plans in the context of what is expected in the interview. This analysis will then facilitate further examination of the impact of plans on interviews. This section of the chapter contains a method, results, and interim discussion, each specific to the third phase of analysis. The findings of this phase will then be discussed in the context of the findings from Phases I and II in the chapter discussion at the conclusion of the chapter.

**Method**

A coding schedule identifying key components of interviews with witnesses was developed with reference to previously published schedules and training materials provided to recruits at the WA Police Academy (further explanation of this process is outlined in Chapter 2). The schedule contained 75 components expected to
be covered in interviews with witnesses. The individual components were further
organised according to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages, with
each of these stages containing sub-categories. The Engage and explain stage
contained five sub-categories: Introduction; Witness demographics; Account
instruction; Procedural instructions; and Witness wellbeing. The Account stage
contained seven sub-categories: Interview structure; Interview technique;
ADVOKATE; Person details; Investigative areas; Elements and defences; and
Offence details. The Closure stage contained three sub-categories: Confirm account;
Follow-up procedure; and Formalities. Recruits’ plans were examined against this
schedule to determine the total proportion of key interview components, and the
proportion of each of the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages and the
15 categories of the interview that were included in recruits’ plans and how this
changed following specific points in training. Operational definitions for the 15
categories are contained in Table 10.
## Operational Definitions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Engage and explain        | **Introduction**  
The recruit greets the witness and introduces him/herself, including their place of work, and the recruit provides the date and time of the interview.  
**Witness demographics**  
The recruit asks the witness for their name, date of birth, telephone number(s), and address.  
**Account instructions**  
Recruit explains the purpose of the interview is to gather as much information as possible, the recruit has no knowledge of what has occurred, the witness is to report everything they remember, they are not to fabricate information or guess, and the witness is to say, “I don’t know” if necessary.  
**Procedural instructions**  
The recruit is to inform the witness they will be asking questions and taking notes during the interview, and they may prepare a statement. The witness is to be provided with an estimation of the length of the interview and asked if they have time. The recruit needs to explain to the witness they may need to appear in court and ask if the witness is willing to appear if necessary.  
**Witness wellbeing**  
The recruit is to ask questions not necessary for the interview in order to build rapport with the witness, in addition to ensuring the witness is comfortable, knows they can request a break, and checking the witness is willing to proceed.  
| Account                   | **Interview structure**  
Recruit to ask for an uninterrupted account, demonstrate appropriate structure of the interview, utilise topic boxes and keep the interview to relevant topics.  
**Interview technique**  
Recruit should summarise the witness’ initial account as well as provide summaries regularly throughout the interview, recruit should ask clarifying questions, explore the topics, and utilise the witness’ language. The recruit should ask the witness to draw a sketch to aid in gaining a full account.  
**ADVOKATE**  
The recruit should utilise the mnemonic ADVOKATE as a prompt to gain additional information from the witness.  
**Person details**  
The recruit should request descriptions of the POI, victim and witnesses where relevant, including asking if the witness knows any of the individuals present, where the POI went, and whether the witness has seen the POI since the offence.  
**Investigative areas**  
Investigative areas for questioning include the vehicle, weapon, CCTV/mobile phone footage, and any items left behind.  
**Elements and defences**  
The relevant elements and defences for the particular offence, including but not limited to, injuries (relevant to assault), any suspicious activity prior to the offence or words spoken (provocation), the use of drugs and alcohol by the POI.  
**Offence details**  
Location, time, and date of the offence. |
Table 10
Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Closure</td>
<td>Recruit to summarise the interview and invite the witness to add information or alter the account as necessary.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confirm account</td>
<td>Provide the witness with contact details and explain how to provide more information and what happens next (e.g., statement to be signed at a later date).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formalities</td>
<td>Thank witness for attending, request the witness sign all documents and record the time the interview ends.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Inter-rater reliability.**

A random selection of five plans from each of the four occasions were coded by a second individual to assess inter-rater reliability. Further details of the process are outlined on pp. 98-99. Cohen’s Kappa Coefficients were calculated to provide an indication of agreement having taken into consideration the level of agreement expected by chance (Cohen, 1960). The Cohen’s Kappa Coefficients were .90, .92, .89 and .90 for Times 1, 2, 3, and 4 respectively. The four coefficients exceeded the score of .81 for a rating of Almost perfect agreement (Llandis & Koch, 1970).

**Statistical Analyses**

The analyses presented in this phase aimed to determine how the content of recruits’ plans relates to key interview components and whether this changes following specific points in training. The mean proportion of items in each stage and category were calculated to provide an understanding of the amount and type of relevant content recruits include in their plans. As part of the examination of what relevant content recruits include in their plans, ranks were assigned to each stage and category within each time period in order to determine where recruits place their emphasis in plans; that is, what stages and categories receive the most attention in recruits’ plans. These rankings were used as a tool to guide analysis of the data. A one-way repeated measures ANOVA was performed to determine whether there was a change in the overall amount of relevant content in plans; three additional ANOVAs were performed to determine whether there was a change in the amount of relevant content within the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages; and finally, 15 ANOVAs were performed to determine whether there was a change in the
amount of relevant content within the 15 categories, following specific points in training. Bonferroni-adjusted alpha levels were employed to reduce the risk of Type I errors.

Results

Amount and type of relevant content.

Consistent with the findings presented in Phases I and II of this chapter, recruits did not plan evenly across the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages, or the 15 categories. To facilitate an understanding of what recruits planned for, and the focus placed on particular aspects of the interview, the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages were assigned a rank between 1 and 3, and the interview categories were assigned a rank between 1 and 15. To understand the broader focus placed on categories by recruits the order can be expressed as high, medium, or low. High order categories are ranked 1 to 5; medium order categories are ranked 6 to 10; and low order categories are ranked 11 to 15. Ranks are presented in Table 11.

With regard to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages, at Time 1 recruits planned for the highest proportion of Account, followed by Engage and explain, then Closure. At Times 2 and 3 the pattern with regard to the focus of recruits was identical to that at Time 1. At Time 4 recruits planned for the highest proportion of Engage and explain, followed by Account, then Closure.
### Table 11

**Rank, Mean Proportion, and Results of ANOVAs for Components Included in Plans According to Time Period**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Engage and explain</strong></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td>.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Witness demographics</strong></td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>.41</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.432</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.3784</td>
<td>.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Introduction</strong></td>
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<td>.005</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.400</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.3784</td>
<td>.31</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>.011</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.15</td>
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<td>.65</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>.37</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Procedural instructions</strong></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>.007</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>.014</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>.19</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Account</strong></td>
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<td>.14</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td><strong>ADVOKATE</strong></td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>.47</td>
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<td><strong>Person details</strong></td>
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<td>.10</td>
<td>8</td>
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<td>.16</td>
<td>7</td>
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</tr>
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<tr>
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<td>.04</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>.20</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>.25</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Elements and defences</strong></td>
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<td>.00</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.47</td>
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<td>.03</td>
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<td>.25</td>
<td>.27</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
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<td>.07</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>.14</td>
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<td>15</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>.19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Means in a row sharing the same subscripts differ significantly where \( p < .05 \).
At Time 1 recruits planned for the highest proportion of Offence details, Witness demographics, Person details, ADVOKATE, and Elements and defences components. The low order categories were Procedural instructions, Formalities, Witness wellbeing, Account instructions, and Follow-up procedure. At Time 2 recruits planned for the highest proportion of Offence details, Witness demographics, Person details, Interview structure, and ADVOKATE. The low order categories were Procedural instructions, Formalities, Witness wellbeing, Account instructions, and Confirm account. At Time 3 recruits planned for the highest proportion of Offence details, ADVOKATE, Procedural instructions, Follow-up procedure, and Witness demographics. The low order categories were Introduction, Interview structure, Confirm account, Witness wellbeing, and Formalities. At Time 4 recruits planned for the highest proportion of Offence details, Procedural instructions, ADVOKATE, and Follow-up procedure. The low order categories were Introduction, Formalities, Confirm account, Investigative areas, and Witness wellbeing.

Looking across the four occasions, five categories remain consistent in their rank order (that is, high, medium, or low); Witness wellbeing and Formalities as low order categories, Interview technique as a medium order category, and ADVOKATE and Offence details as high order categories. The remaining categories change rank order across the four occasions.

Change in the amount and type of relevant content.

Having examined what recruits include in their plans, one-way repeated measures ANOVAs were performed to determine whether there were significant differences in the total proportion of key interview components and the proportion of stages and categories included in plans following specific points in training. One ANOVA was performed to compare the mean proportion of total components included in plans across the four occasions. Three additional ANOVAs were then performed to compare the mean proportion of components within the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages included in plans across the four occasions and a further 15 ANOVAs were performed to compare the mean proportion of components within the 15 interview categories included in plans across the four occasions. The means, standard deviations, and post-hoc relationships are presented in Table 11.

Using an alpha value of .05, there was a significant effect for time for the total proportion of key interview components: $\lambda = .13, F (3, 34) = 78.39, p < .001, \eta^2$
Post-hoc analyses revealed a significant increase in the total proportion of components included in plans between Time 1 and Times 3 and 4, and between Time 2 and Times 3 and 4.

Using a Bonferroni-adjusted alpha value of .017, there was a significant effect for time for the Engage and explain \( \lambda = .18, F(3, 34) = 50.71, p < .001, \eta^2 = .82 \); Account \( \lambda = .28, F(3, 34) = 29.44, p < .001, \eta^2 = .72 \); and Closure stages \( \lambda = .25, F(3, 34) = 34.06, p < .001, \eta^2 = .75 \). Post-hoc analyses revealed there was a significant increase in the proportion of key interview components in stages included in plans between Time 1 and Times 3 and 4 and between Time 2 and Times 3 and 4 for Engage and explain, Account, and Closure.

Using a Bonferroni-adjusted alpha value of .003, there was a significant effect for time for four of the five categories within the Engage and explain stage: Introduction \( \lambda = .41, F(3, 34) = 16.18, p < .001, \eta^2 = .59 \); Account instructions \( \lambda = .31, F(3, 34) = 25.20, p < .001, \eta^2 = .69 \); Procedural instructions \( \lambda = .12, F(3, 34) = 80.89, p < .001, \eta^2 = .88 \); Witness wellbeing \( \lambda = .25, F(3, 34) = 34.69, p < .001, \eta^2 = .75 \); six of the seven categories within the Account stage: Interview structure \( \lambda = .38, F(3, 34) = 18.62, p < .001, \eta^2 = .62 \); Interview technique \( \lambda = .32, F(3, 34) = 23.60, p < .001, \eta^2 = .68 \); ADVOKATE \( \lambda = .25, F(3, 34) = 34.08, p < .001, \eta^2 = .75 \); Investigative areas \( \lambda = .43, F(3, 34) = 14.99, p < .001, \eta^2 = .57 \); Elements and defences \( \lambda = .40, F(3, 34) = 16.93, p < .001, \eta^2 = .60 \); Offence details \( \lambda = .67, F(3, 34) = 5.65, p < .003, \eta^2 = .33 \); and all three categories within the Closure stage: Confirm account \( \lambda = .38, F(3, 34) = 18.84, p < .001, \eta^2 = .62 \); Follow-up procedure \( \lambda = .29, F(3, 34) = 27.57, p < .001, \eta^2 = .71 \); Formalities \( \lambda = .42, F(3, 34) = 15.85, p < .001, \eta^2 = .58 \). Post-hoc analyses revealed there was a significant increase in the proportion of key interview components within categories included in plans between Time 1 and Times 3 and 4, and between Time 2 and Times 3 and 4 for Introduction, Account instructions, Procedural instructions, Witness wellbeing, Interview technique, Elements and defences, Confirm account, and Formalities. With regard to Interview structure and Follow-up procedure, there was a significant increase between the proportion of categories included in plans between Time 1 and Times 2, 3, and 4, and between Time 2 and Times 3 and 4. With regard to Investigative areas and ADVOKATE there was a significant increase between the proportion of categories included in plans between Time 1 and Times 3 and 4, between Time 2 and Times 3 and 4, and between Time 3 and Time 4. With regard to Offence details,
there was a significant increase between the proportion of categories included in plans between Time 1 and Time 3.

Interim Discussion

The analysis of the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages showed recruits’ emphasis on planning for the Account stage of the interview. At Time 1, recruits planned for a greater proportion of key interview components within the Account stage, followed by the Engage and explain and Closure stages of the interview, and these findings were consistent at Times 2 and 3. In contrast, at Time 4, the difference in proportion of components was less pronounced with recruits planning for a slightly greater proportion of components within the Engage and explain stage followed by the Account and Closure stages of the interview.

A greater amount of detail was provided when considering the findings in the context of the 15 categories. As recruits had received no formal training at Time 1, those categories focused on by recruits would appear to be the most intuitive: Offence details, Witness demographics, and Person details. These findings were similar to those in Phase I, demonstrating the items recruits are planning for intuitively are also relevant to the key interview components. The limited training of recruits was reflected by the least planned categories at Time 1 being Account instructions, Witness wellbeing, and Follow-up procedure. At Time 2, the findings with regard to the highest proportion of planned components were consistent with those at Time 1. At Time 3, recruits focused on Offence details, ADVOKATE, and Procedural instructions in their plans and in Time 4, the findings were consistent with those at Time 3, showing there was a distinct shift in recruits’ focus following interview training and this was maintained.

Following interview training, there was a significant increase in the inclusion of the total proportion of key interview components, as well as in the components within the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages, and 12 of the 15 interview categories in recruits’ plans. Consistent with findings presented in Phases I and II, this pattern shows the impact of interview training on the inclusion of components in plans, but also highlights the comparatively limited impact of legal and procedural training which occurred prior to interviews at Time 2, with only the proportion of components within the Interview structure and Follow-up procedure categories included in plans increasing significantly following legal and procedural
training. Some de-training was observed with the proportion of components within the ADVOKATE and Investigative areas categories decreasing between the third and final interviews.

Chapter Discussion

The findings presented in this chapter indicate that recruits emphasise planning around the details of the incident while comparatively neglecting items relating to the more procedural and rapport building aspects of the interview. When considering the content of plans in the context of the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages, recruits consistently included more items related to the Account stage and comparatively neglected the Engage and explain and Closure stages of the interview in their plans. The consideration of the relevance of planned content to interviews was enabled by coding the plans according to the inclusion of key interview components. The coverage of the components was limited prior to interview training, with the majority of recruits covering less than a quarter of components in their plans. However, as with the findings regarding the 11 categories and the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages in Phases I and II respectively, there were significant changes following interview training. The increase in proportion of components included in plans following interview training is not confined to a specific type of component, with increases observed across all components. Encouragingly, and consistent across findings presented in all three phases, the rankings in Times 3 and 4 show a more balanced coverage of components across the broader stages of Engage and explain, Account, and Closure.

The investigative interviewing literature that has specifically examined the Preparation and planning stage of the PEACE model has provided an indication of police officers’ and benefit fraud investigators’ skill in this stage, based on researchers’ perceptions of preparedness in interviews. As such, this existing literature is of limited use in discussing the findings within this chapter. However, comparison can be made to the key components of Preparation and planning identified by Gudjonsson (1994): understanding why the interview is being conducted; identifying objectives; articulating the elements of the offence; reviewing evidence gathered; identifying opportunities to gather further evidence; understanding legal and procedural requirements of the interview; and maintaining flexibility in the interview. Recruits’ plans are consistent with a focus on procedural
aspects of the interview and ascertaining what evidence may be present. However, there is less of an emphasis on the objective of the interview, the elements of the offence, and flexibility, although with the exception of identifying elements, these would not necessarily be included in a written plan. Rather, they would be canvassed when mentally preparing for the interview.

While there is no data published concerning the content of written plans, comparison can be made between the content of plans and what police officers’ and benefit fraud investigators’ have cited as the most important aspects of the interview. In this way, there can be an understanding of whether recruits plan for those aspects of the interview perceived as important, albeit in comparison to more experienced interviewers. When considering the aspects of the interview that have been identified as being the most important, they largely relate to developing rapport (e.g., empathic style [Bull & Cherryman, 1996; Oxburgh & Dando, 2011] and rapport building [Bull & Cherryman, 1996; Hartwig et al., 2012]) and obtaining an account (e.g., appropriate questioning [Bull & Cherryman, 1996; Oxburgh & Dando, 2011], flexibility, knowledge of subject [Bull & Cherryman, 1996]). In the context of the findings presented in this chapter, in terms of the 11 categories, these aspects related to the Rapport building, Incident details, Elements, Defences, and Interviewing technique categories. In terms of stages within the PEACE model, these aspects related to the Engage and explain and Account stages, as although rapport building should be incorporated throughout the interview (Walsh & Bull, 2012), it is generally associated with the Engage and explain stage. In terms of the 15 categories, these aspects related to the Witness wellbeing, Interview technique, ADVOKATE, Investigative areas, Elements and defences, and Offence details categories. Findings in the present chapter indicate recruits’ incorporation of the relevant stages and categories in their plans increased following interviewing training. This observation tentatively suggests recruits’ plans contained increasingly more information relevant to those aspects of the interview perceived by more experienced police officers and benefit fraud investigators as being important.

The difficulty balancing competing objectives in scenario planning (Zapata & Kaza, 2015) may also provide some explanation for why recruits focus on particular areas; for example, those pertaining to the account of the witness. As recruits were aware the overall objective of the interview is to obtain and full and accurate account (see e.g., Hill & Moston, 2011), this is most likely to be the objective that takes
priority in their planning. This observation is likely to hold true regardless of the competing commentary suggesting that aspects of the interview such as Rapport building and Interview procedure are important for the account, although recruits’ increased inclusion of items relevant to these aspects of the interview following interview training suggests training was influential in shifting recruits’ focus.

While interview training has not been found to improve the skill level of Preparation and planning amongst police officers or benefit fraud investigators (Clarke et al., 2011; Walsh & Milne, 2008), the research presented in this chapter demonstrates interview training impacts the content of recruits’ plans. Broadly speaking, the majority of significant differences in the content of plans occurred following interview training at Time 3. With regard to the legal and procedural training occurring prior to Time 2, the delayed increase in recruits incorporating relevant items in their plans (at Time 3 rather than Time 2) may indicate that interview training occurring prior to interviews at Time 3 has resulted in recruits’ changing the emphasis of their plans to reflect a more holistic approach to the interview. For example, the findings with regard to items related to elements and defences (in Phases I and III) showing the delayed increase in relevant items in plans suggest recruits do not integrate their learning until they have received specific interview training. Ideally, recruits would be able to transfer their knowledge across practice areas thereby incorporating all relevant aspects of their training into interviewing without specifically being instructed. Increased emphasis on reflective learning throughout recruit training may assist this process.

A key outcome for planning is considered to be the increased flexibility that results from planning for contingencies (Mumford et al., 2001; Walsh & Bull, 2010a). While the aim of the interview may be to obtain a full and accurate account of events, it is important that interviewers are planning for how this account will be elicited, taking into account that the witness or POI may not be cooperative. As such, plans need to provide for flexibility within the interview. To this end, it is encouraging that recruits included significantly more items relating to Interview procedure and Interviewing technique following interview training.

There were a number of categories where recruits included significantly more items in their plans at Time 3 when compared to Time 4. This result may be due to recruits feeling confident in what is needed in the interview and thus choosing not to include those items in their written plans, or alternatively, it may be that during the
10 weeks between the third and final interview some of the knowledge gained in training has been lost. The possibility of the latter being true means there is a clear need for regular maintenance and feedback following initial training (Price & Roberts, 2011). However, although research has suggested that retention of knowledge decreases, this observation is in direct contrast to findings presented by McGurk and colleagues (1993). In their initial evaluation of PEACE training, McGurk et al. found that the level of skill immediately following training was maintained in assessments of skill six months post-training. The different methodology employed by McGurk et al.; for example, the analysis of more broad skills, rather than the more specific components assessed by other studies of investigative interviewing, may have contributed to the inconsistency between the findings of McGurk et al., and those of other studies.

It is clear from the literature that interviewers (both police officers and benefit fraud investigators) believe that Preparation and planning is an important aspect of the interview process. It is also clear that those surveyed in relation to planning in their own practice, do not necessarily believe it is a well-developed skill. Walsh and Bull (2011) discussed the need for interviewers to be trained in self-evaluation, as it appears to be a skill that is learnt, rather than one that is naturally occurring. In the same way, it can be argued that interviewers need to be taught how to plan. Examining the plans of recruits at such an early stage in their career provides a unique insight into their skill in Preparation and planning. As has been noted elsewhere, in order to obtain the maximum benefit of training it is important to target the training at the level of the participant, tailoring the approach where appropriate (Powell, Wright, & Clark, 2010). As such, findings from the present chapter can be used to enhance the utility of existing training programs for recruits, and to inform future training of established interviewers.

Explicit instruction in the use of plans for recruits may go some way towards addressing the limitations in the content of written plans. In the first instance, it is important recruits understand the purpose of a plan and how to engage with it in the interview. Emphasising the utility of planning in ensuring key components are addressed in the interview may encourage engagement in the planning process, including the active use of plans in interviews. In terms of addressing the content included in plans, one way to achieve this is to discuss the objectives of the interviews with recruits during their training and to engage in practical exercises to
develop plans that work for the individual. This approach recognises the individuality of interviewing, despite there being shared objectives for the interview in terms of obtaining an account and covering key components. The findings from the present chapter show recruits do not all plan in the same way, and this should be reflected in training. Further implications will be discussed in Chapter 6.

Research examining the content of plans is of increased applicability when considered in the context of research examining the content of interviews. While the analysis of the content of plans is interesting theoretically, the importance of planning is largely determined by its impact on the interview. While it has been suggested that the preparation of plans be a mandatory component of interviewing (Clarke & Milne, 2001; Clarke et al., 2011), if plans have no impact on the content of interviews, there seems little point in continuing to instruct recruits and police officers to plan before they begin interviews. Although research suggests a positive association between skill in Preparation and planning and overall interview quality (Walsh and Bull, 2012; Walsh and Bull, 2010b), no studies have considered the impact of written plans on interviews. Given recruits have been found to emphasis content related to the Account stage of the PEACE model in their plans, it might be expected that this emphasis is reflected in their interviews. To that end, the analysis presented in Chapter 4 will provide a novel examination of the impact of plans on interviews.
Chapter 4: Interviews and Plans

Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to examine how the amount and type of content in police recruits’ plans impacts the content of interviews, and whether this changes following specific points in training. As planning for interviews had not previously been examined in detail, the research presented in Chapter 3 sought to first determine what recruits include in their plans and how this changes following specific points in training. The next logical step in order to determine the efficacy of written plans is to consider how the content of plans impacts the content of interviews. This introductory section of the chapter will recap on the relevant literature and provide a rationale for the approach to analysing the relationship between recruits’ plans and interviews. Following a discussion of the research questions to be addressed in this chapter, three phases of analysis will be presented. Each phase of analysis contains a method, results, and interim discussion section, and at the conclusion of the chapter there is a chapter discussion.

Literature

More literature has examined the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages of the PEACE model than has examined the Preparation and planning stage. Research has examined the impact of skill on overall interview quality and positive interview outcomes (e.g., obtaining a confession or a full account) and the impact of training on the performance of the interview. These analyses have considered overall performance, performance of individual stages of the interview, and performance of components within the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages. Performance of the interview at PEACE standard has been positively associated with overall interview quality and obtaining a positive interview outcome (Walsh & Bull, 2010b). Further, a more skilled performance of the Preparation and planning and Account stages has been associated with increased interview quality and positive outcomes. However, although performing interviews at PEACE standard has been associated with higher quality interviews and increased likelihood of positive outcomes, Walsh and Bull (2010a) found the majority (57%) of benefit fraud investigators in their sample performed interviews below PEACE standard, with 17% receiving the lowest rating of
Further training required. Mean scores for the individual stages indicated on average recruits performed below PEACE standard across each of the stages. It is interesting to note benefit fraud investigators were most skilled in the Preparation and planning stage, followed by the Engage and explain, Account, and then Closure stages.

Studies of the impact of training on the performance of the PEACE model reveal mixed findings. McGurk et al. (1993) found the overall quality of police officers’ interviews with witnesses was significantly improved following training, and this was maintained six-months after training had concluded. Walsh and Milne’s (2008) comparison of PEACE-trained and untrained benefit fraud investigators’ interviews with POIs found a significant association with PEACE training and performing skilled or highly skilled interviews. In contrast, Clarke and Milne’s (2001) and Clarke et al.’s (2011) examination of the impact of training on police officer’s performance on interviews with POIs (and witnesses in Clarke and Milne [2001]) did not find an association between training and a positive interview outcome. Clarke and Milne, and Clarke et al. did not find training had a significant impact on the performance of any of the analysed stages, and Walsh and Milne (2008) found training only had an overall significant impact on the performance of the Closure stage, with benefit fraud investigators trained in PEACE displaying higher levels of competency. However, training had a significant impact on the performance of some individual components of interviews (Clarke & Milne, 2001; McGurk et al., 1993; Walsh & Milne, 2008). With regard to individual components relevant to the key interview components in Phase III of this chapter, McGurk et al. found training had a significant impact on the performance of introducing the interview and structuring the interview in interviews with witnesses and POIs, with training also having a significant impact on the performance of Obtaining the suspect’s version of events in interviews with POIs. Walsh and Milne found training had a significant impact on the performance of the Encourages suspect to give a version of events, Develops topics for discussion, and Explores information received from suspect components, with benefit fraud investigators trained in PEACE displaying higher levels of competency than those not trained. Clarke and Milne did not find any differences in components relevant to Phase III of this study.

Due to the relative similarity between interview schedules used in the literature, individual component comparisons can be made across studies by Clarke and Milne (interviews with witnesses and POIs, 2001), Clarke et al. (2011), Walsh and Bull (2010a), and
Walsh and Milne (2008). Comparisons of this nature cannot be made with Walsh and Bull’s sample (2010b) as the data set is split into the sample at PEACE standard and the sample below PEACE standard. With regard to individual components relevant to key interview components examined in Phase III of this chapter (and Chapter 3), within the Engage and explain stage benefit fraud investigators most competently performed the Introduces self, Purpose of interview explained, and Evidence of rapport building components (Walsh & Bull, 2010a). These findings were consistent with those found by Clarke and Milne (2001) with regard to interviews with witnesses and POIs and Clarke et al.’s (2011) samples of police officers interviewing POIs. Although there were only three relevant components in Walsh and Milne’s (2008) study, the order of competence for trained benefit fraud investigators was similar to Walsh and Bull’s (2010a) with Purpose of the interview explained the most competently performed, followed by Evidence of rapport building skills (Introduces self was not analysed).

With regard to individual components within the Account stage, benefit fraud investigators most competently performed the Keeps interview to relevant topics, Encourages suspect to give account, and Develops topics for discussion (Walsh & Bull, 2010a). These components were two of the three most skilfully performed components in Clarke and Milne (2001) with regard to interviews with POIs, Clarke et al. (2011) and Walsh and Milne (2008); however, Develops topics for discussion was replaced by Uses logical structure and sequence in Clarke and Milne with regard to interviews with POIs and Clarke et al.’s studies, and by Explores information received from suspect in Walsh and Milne’s study. With regard to interviews with witnesses, Clarke and Milne (2001) found the three most skilfully performed components were Keeps to relevant topics, Full exploration of account, and Points to prove. Clarke and Milne (2001) also analysed the performance of ADVOKATE in interviews with witnesses and found none of the components were performed at or above PEACE standard. With regard to individual components within the Closure stage, relevant components varied across the studies with only Summarises interview common across all studies. As such, comparison between the hierarchies of performance of individual components was not possible.

Research has identified police officers believe planning is an important aspect of investigative interviewing (Soukara et al., 2002), and the use of written plans for investigative interviews has been recommended (Clarke & Milne, 2001). However, there is limited
empirical data examining the relationship between planning and interviewing. To date, Clarke and Milne (2001) and Walsh and Bull (2010b) are the only researchers to have considered the association between skill level in Preparation and planning on the quality of the interview and found a positive association between skill level in Preparation and planning and overall interview quality. Both studies assessed Preparation and planning using perceptions of the interview, rather than physical evidence of preparation; for example, a written plan. To that end, the research presented in this chapter is the first to consider the impact of written plans on the content of interviews with witnesses by recruits. Understanding whether there is a relationship between planning and interviewing is important as, if there is no relationship, or the relationship is negative, further research needs to revise the approach to planning for investigative interviews. Alternatively, it may be that there is a positive relationship, but that additional training is needed to maximise the impact of planning.

Outside the context of investigative interviewing, the theories of planned behaviour (see Ajzen, 1991) and goal-setting (see Locke, 1968) suggest there is a connection between intention and behaviour, providing some support for the utility of planning. In particular, the importance of specific goals has been identified in maximising the likelihood of intention translating into performance (Locke, 1968). However, outside the theoretical context, there is limited research examining the impact of planning on outcomes and the findings are mixed. While a positive association has been found in the small number of studies examining the issue in the context of investigative interviewing, within the business context there has been no consensus as to whether planning increases performance, be it financial or otherwise (Pearce, Freeman, & Robinson, 1987; Rudd, Greenley, Beatson, & Lings, 2008).

**Rationale for Analysis**

The perceived importance of planning in investigative interviews is evident by the inclusion of the Preparation and planning stage in the PEACE model. However, it is still unclear whether planning impacts interviewing. If there is no positive relationship between planning and interviewing; that is, planning for an item does not increase the likelihood it is covered in an interview, then planning in the form of preparing written plans needs to be revisited in terms of understanding and improving its efficacy.

The analysis of the relationship between recruits’ plans and interviews is presented in three phases, mirroring the approach to the analysis of plans in Chapter 3. Phase I examines
Chapter 4: Interviews and Plans

the active coverage of planned items by recruits in interviews and whether this changes following specific points in training. The analysis presented in Phase I uses the inductive coding schedule developed for Phase I in Chapter 3 containing 11 categories: Introduction; Witness demographics; Interview demographics; Pre-existing information; Offence details; Elements; Defences; Legal procedure; Interview procedure; Rapport building; and Interviewing Technique. This phase of analysis involves the calculation of the proportion of planned items covered in each category and the total proportion of planned items covered in interviews, providing an understanding of the extent to which recruits cover particular types of content. A consideration of whether coverage changes following specific points in training provides an indication of whether recruits’ may be engaging more with their plans as they are educated throughout their training (i.e., following legal and procedural and interviewing training), or whether they engage less with the plans as they become more confident.

The analysis presented in Phase II allows for a comparison between the amount and type of content in plans and the amount and type of content in interviews with regard to the three interview stages of the PEACE model: Engage and explain, Account, and Closure. The findings from Phase II of Chapter 3 are compared with an analysis of the amount and type of content relating to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages in recruits’ interviews. Phase II also includes a discussion of the amount and type of content in interviews to complement the discussion of the amount and type of content in plans presented in Phase II of Chapter 3. In Using the coding developed in Phase II of Chapter 3, the analysis of the correlation between the amount and type of content in plans and interviews is presented to examine whether there is a relationship between the content of plans and interviews in these stages and, if so, its direction and strength.

The analysis presented in Phase III compares the content of recruits’ plans and interviews with regard to key interview components. The analysis utilises the coding schedule developed for Phase III of Chapter 3; key interview components identified using existing research and training materials from Western Australia (WA) Police. The findings from Phase II of Chapter 3 are compared with an analysis of the components covered in recruits’ interviews. Phase III also includes a discussion of the components covered in interviews to complement the discussion of the components included in plans presented in Phase III of Chapter 3.
Chapter 4: Interviews and Plans

The analysis of the relationship between key interview components included in plans and covered in interviews is confined to Time 3 as it could be hypothesised interviews on this occasion reflect the recruits’ peak skill in terms of having received all applicable training without the lapse in time experienced before the interviews at Time 4. The relationship between planned items and their coverage is explored, drawing out those components that are planned and covered, not planned and covered, planned and not covered, and not planned and not covered. Understanding these relationships provides the opportunity for targeted training in what to include in plans in order to maximise the likelihood of components being covered in interviews.

Research Questions

The analyses presented in this chapter aim to determine how the amount and type of content in plans impacts interviews. The specific research questions used to guide the analysis in individual phases are presented below.

**Phase I.**

− What is the amount and type of planned content, with respect to the 11 categories identified in Phase I of Chapter 3, actively covered by recruits in interviews?
− How does the amount and type of planned content, with respect to the 11 categories identified in Phase I of Chapter 3, actively covered by recruits change following specific points in training?

**Phase II.**

− What do proportion of content do recruits include in interviews related to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages of the PEACE model?
− How does the proportion of content related to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages of the PEACE model in recruits’ interviews change following specific points in training?
− What is the relationship between the proportion of content in plans and the proportion of content in interviews related to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages of the PEACE model?
Phase III.

- What is the proportion of key interview components covered in recruits’ interviews?
- How does the proportion of key interview components covered in recruits’ interviews change following specific points in training?
- What is the impact of the inclusion of key interview components in plans on the coverage of key interview components in interviews?

Phase I

The inclusion of Preparation and planning as a stage in the PEACE model of interviewing suggests there is a positive relationship between planning and investigative interviewing. However, very little research has explored the existence or nature of this relationship. The first phase of analysis in this chapter will consider the extent to which recruits actively cover the items in their plans, according to the 11 categories identified in Phase I of Chapter 3: Introduction; Witness demographics; Interview demographics; Pre-existing information; Offence details; Elements; Defences; Legal procedure; Interview procedure; Rapport building; and Interviewing technique. A consideration of the extent of coverage across categories will provide insight into the extent to which recruits cover items in particular categories. As with previous analyses, the findings will also demonstrate whether coverage changes following specific points in training. This section of the chapter contains and method, results, and interim discussion, each specific to the first phase of analysis. The findings of this phase will then be discussed in the context of the findings from Phases II and III in the chapter discussion at the conclusion of the chapter.

Method

The coding schedule used for the analysis of the plans and interviews in this phase was developed for the analysis of plans Phase I of Chapter 3. To determine the coverage of planned items in interviews, each of the planned items was coded according one of the following categories: Interviewer introduced; Witness introduced and interviewer followed up; Witness introduced and interviewer acknowledged; Witness introduced; Absent; or Not applicable. Operational definitions are presented in Table 12.
Table 12

Operational Definitions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of coverage</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interviewer introduced</td>
<td>The coverage of the planned item in the interview is initiated by the recruit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Witness introduced and interviewer followed up</td>
<td>The coverage of the planned item in the interview is initiated by the witness but the recruit follows this up by asking for additional information.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Witness introduced and interviewer acknowledged</td>
<td>The coverage of the planned item in the interview is initiated by the witness and the recruit parrots the information or includes it in a summary but does not ask for additional information.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Witness introduced</td>
<td>The coverage of the planned item in the interview is initiated by the witness and is not acknowledged by the recruit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absent</td>
<td>The planned item is not covered in the interview.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not applicable</td>
<td>The planned item is not applicable in the context of the interview (e.g., an item relating to assault when the offence was a theft) or coverage is not readily assessed (e.g., TEDS).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Inter-rater reliability.

A random selection of five plans and corresponding interviews from each of the four occasions were coded by a second individual to assess inter-rater reliability. Further details of the process are outlined on pp. 98-99. Cohen’s Kappa Coefficients were calculated to provide an indication of agreement having taken into consideration the level of agreement expected by chance (Cohen, 1960). For coding relating to the coverage of planned items, the Cohen’s Kappa Coefficients were .90, .91, .90, .88 for Times 1, 2, 3, and 4 respectively. The four coefficients exceeded the score of .81 for a rating of Almost perfect agreement (Llandis & Koch, 1970).

Participants.

For analysing the change in total coverage of planned items, only recruits who prepared plans on each of the four occasions were included in the analysis as calculations generating the proportion of items required data on each of the four occasions ($N = 23$).

Statistical Analyses

The analyses presented in this phase aimed to determine what amount and type of planned content recruits actively cover in interviews and how this changes following specific
points in training. Active coverage of item was defined as the addition of items coded as Interviewer introduced and Witness introduced and interviewer followed up (for further discussion see Chapter 2). The total proportion of actively covered items and the proportion of actively covered items in each category were calculated with ranks assigned to each category to determine overall coverage and to identify differences in the coverage of individual categories. These rankings were used as a tool to guide analysis of the data. Of the 11 categories identified in Phase I of Chapter 3, the categories of Elements, Defences, and Other, were excluded from the analyses. The rationale for the exclusion of these categories is discussed in Chapter 2. A one-way repeated measures Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was performed to determine whether there was a change in the coverage of planned items following specific points in training. Further statistical analyses were not performed on individual categories as the numbers of recruits who included items in these categories, and could subsequently be analysed for coverage, was limited across the four occasions to the extent that the value of the resulting analyses was diminished.

Results

**Active coverage and change in active coverage.**

The planned items were assessed for their level of coverage in the recruits’ interviews. Coverage was not equal across the nine categories included in the analyses. To facilitate an understanding of what categories were actively covered by recruits, the categories were assigned a rank between 1 and 9, with 1 representing the category with the highest proportion of actively covered items across the sample. To understand the level of coverage, the order can be expressed as high, medium, or low. High order categories were ranked 1 to 3; medium order categories were ranked 4 to 6; and low order categories were ranked 7 to 9. The ranks, means, and standard deviations are presented in Table 13.

At Time 1 recruits actively covered the highest proportion of items in Introduction, Witness demographics, and Interviewing technique. The categories with the lowest coverage were Interview demographics and Interview procedure. At Time 2 recruits actively covered the highest proportion of items in Introduction, Legal procedure, Rapport building, and Interviewing technique. The categories with the lowest coverage were Pre-existing information, Interview demographics, and Interview procedure. At Time 3 recruits covered the highest proportion of items in Introduction, Legal procedure, and Rapport building. The
categories with the lowest coverage were Interviewing technique, Pre-existing information, and Incident details. At Time 4 recruits covered the highest proportion of items in Interviewing technique, Pre-existing information, and Witness demographics. The categories with the lowest coverage were Interview demographics, Interview procedure, and Incident details.

Looking across the four occasions, none of the categories remained consistent in their rank order (that is, low, medium, or high), with all categories moving between low, medium and/or high order. However, Introduction, Interview demographics, Interview procedure, and Interviewing technique maintained the same rank order across three of the four occasions. A one-way repeated measures ANOVA was performed to determine whether there were significant differences in the total coverage of planned items following specific points in training. No significant differences were observed. The means and standard deviations are presented in Table 13.

**Interim Discussion**

While a number of categories showed decreases following different points in training, the total proportion of planned items covered in each of the time periods indicates that, on average, at least 75% of planned items were covered in interviews at each of the four time periods, and no significant differences were observed across the four occasions. The results in individual categories show much higher rates of coverage, with the highest consistent proportion of coverage in the Introduction and Witness demographic categories where at least 90% of items were covered across each of the time periods where those categories were represented, and Interviewing technique where over 90% of planned items were covered at Times 3 and 4.
Table 13

*Rank, Mean Proportion of Items, and Standard Deviations of Planned Items Actively Covered in Interviews*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
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<td>.90</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.92</td>
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<td>Rapport building</td>
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<td>1.00</td>
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<td>.17</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Only recruits who had planned for the interview were included in the analysis for each occasion: Time 1 $N = 24$; Time 2 $N = 36$; Time 3 $N = 37$; and Time 4 $N = 37$. Analysis for total coverage of planned items was performed using data from recruits who completed plans on all four occasions: $N = 23$. 

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Categories showing lower levels of coverage, for example, Incident information and Interview procedure were also those categories with high numbers of items (see Phase I of Chapter 3). Further, these were the categories where differences were found in the proportion of planned items covered over time. For example, there was a lower proportion of planned items relating to the Incident information category covered following interview training, whereas there was an increase in planned items in this category over these time periods. This increase in planned items (and subsequently reduced coverage) follows interview training prior to Time 3. It may be that in their attempts to undertake a witness-led interview, recruits are hesitant to ensure items are covered if the witness appears to have moved on from the relevant part of their account and thus the level of coverage of those items decreases.

Having received no training, at Time 1 recruits actively covered the highest proportion of planned items in categories that appear most intuitive to cover regardless of planning: Witness demographics and Introduction. The categories with the lowest coverage at Time 1 were also those that would be difficult to remember without consulting the plan: Interview demographics and Interview procedure. Recruits may not remember to state the date and time of the interview to the witness, or to recall specific instructions regarding the interview. The categories with the highest proportion of items covered in interviews at Time 2 reflected both the recruits’ intuitive coverage (e.g., Introduction), as well as the legal and procedural training received (e.g., items relating to Legal procedure). As with Time 1, recruits again did not cover planned items in the Interview demographics and Interview procedure categories.

The pattern with regard to planned items actively covered in interviews at Time 3 was consistent with Time 2, with the highest proportion of planned items covered in the Introduction, Legal procedure, and Rapport building categories (although individual ranks varied). In contrast to Time 2, proportionately less planned items within the Incident details category were covered in interviews. The most obvious changes occurred at Time 3 following interview training, with the planned number of items covered increasing in the Interview demographics and Interview procedure categories, and the planned number of items decreasing in the Incident details category. During interview training, recruits were taught a number of mnemonics to assist with interviewing including ADVOKATE (Amount of time
under observation; Distance; Visibility; Obstructions; Known or seen before; Time lapse; Error/discrepancy). The majority of recruits included this mnemonic in their plans but many failed to cover each of the eight aspects in their interview. The coverage of ADVOKATE is taught to recruits for use with all crime types as a way of ensuring enough detail is gathered about the offence itself. However, examining the content of interviews reveals some recruits appear reluctant to use the terminology in ADVOKATE and do not necessarily cover the information using alternative language. In contrast, other recruits feel comfortable informing the witness they will be asking a series of questions, and then cover each in the order of the mnemonic.

While it might be suggested recruits would be more likely to increase their coverage of planned items following interview training, it may be that the decrease in coverage is due to reliance on their plan prior to receiving relevant training. When recruits have received interview training, they may decrease their use of plans with regard to Incident details as they become more confident, or it may be that the increased numbers of items in plans following interview training means recruits find it difficult to engage properly with the plans in order to ensure all items are covered. Coverage in the Legal procedure and Interview procedure categories is higher following interview training, which may indicate less confidence with these items and a subsequent increase in their reliance on plans. Items in these categories are generally less intuitive as they relate to interview-specific requirements. Furthermore, the inclusion of interview instructions, in particular, have been included verbatim by recruits which may also account for the increased rate of coverage.

When examining those planned items in Time 4 that were not covered by recruits, commonly neglected items include those addressing victim support and general instructions pertaining to the interview. The decision not to include information regarding victim support is consistent with the type of crime being investigated at Time 4, property damage, although it could be argued that the topic should be raised regardless as a witness’ response cannot be predicted. However, there does not appear to be a legitimate reason for recruits not to provide instructions to the witness about interview procedure. There are some cases where the recruit has listed a large number of instructions (e.g., regarding taking breaks for a number of reasons) and has covered some of these instructions but not others. However, there
are cases where it would appear that instructions have largely been neglected, potentially reflecting a focus on getting the witness’ account to the exclusion of covering other items.

Having established that a high proportion of items in plans are covered in interviews, it is clear that the content of plans needs to be contemplated thoughtfully to ensure that the utility of plans is maximised. The following phase of analysis will consider the relationship between the content of plans and interviews in the context of the interview stages; Engage and explain, Account, and Closure. The analysis will assess the correlation between the proportion of items in each category included in plans and the proportion of questions and statements in each category covered in interviews.

**Phase II**

The first phase of analysis in this chapter considered the amount and type of planned content covered in interviews with regard to the 11 categories identified in Phase I of Chapter 3 and how this changed following specific points in training. This second phase of analysis will examine what recruits include in interviews related to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages of the PEACE model in order to provide a comparison with the findings regarding the content of recruits’ plans presented in Phase II of Chapter 3. The impact of the amount and type of content in plans on interviews will then be examined by considering the relationship between the content of plans and interviews related to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages. This section of the chapter contains a method, results, and interim discussion, each specific to the second phase of analysis. The findings of this phase will then be discussed in the context of the findings from Phases I and III in the chapter discussion at the conclusion of the chapter.

**Method**

Items in plans and questions and statements in interviews were coded according to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages of the PEACE model. Operational definitions are presented in Table 8 (Chapter 3). For the purposes of this chapter, the term ‘questions’ refers to questions and statements contained in the interview.
Chapter 4: Interviews and Plans

The coding of items in plans is addressed in Chapter 3 Phase II. With regard to the interviews, the coding varied according to the stage of the interview. Questions relating to the Account stage of the interview were coded first, followed by Engage and explain and Closure. Given the chronological way in which the PEACE model operates; namely, Engage and explain, followed by Account, followed by Closure, coding the Account stage first meant that all questions relating to the incident were identified as the middle section of the interview. The section of the interview appearing before Account stage was broadly categorised as Engage and explain, and the section appearing after the Account stage was broadly categorised as Closure. Further detail regarding the categorisation and numbering of questions is provided in Chapter 2.

Inter-rater reliability.

No inter-rater reliability was calculated for the coding of the questions in interviews, as the categorisation of questions contained in the Account stage was determined by reference to the opening question related to the account (generally asking the witness to recall what they had seen), and the final question relating to the account (generally summarising the interview and asking if the witness had anything else to add to their account). The inter-rater reliability for the coding of plans is presented in Phase II of Chapter 3.

Statistical Analyses

This phase of the chapter aimed to determine whether the amount and type of content in plans and interviews relating to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages of the PEACE model changes following specific points in training, as well as examining the relationship between the amount and type of content in plans and interviews relating to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stage at each occasion. Statistical analyses were performed to determine whether there was a change in the proportion of items included in each category in each plan and interview following specific points in training. The proportion of items and questions were analysed to examine the emphasis placed by recruits on particular stages. The mean proportion of items in plans and questions in interviews in each interview stage were calculated to provide an understanding of the amount and type of content recruits include in their plans and interviews. As part of the examination, ranks were assigned to each interview stage within each time period to determine where recruits
place their emphasis in plans and interviews; that is, what interview stage receives the most attention in recruits’ plans and interviews. These rankings were used as a tool to guide analysis of the data. Six one-way repeated measures ANOVAs were then performed to determine whether there was a change in the proportion of content in the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages included in plans and interviews following specific points in training. Bonferroni-adjusted alpha levels were employed to reduce the risk of Type I errors.

The third aspect of the analyses aimed to determine the nature of the relationship between the amount and type of content in plans and the amount and type of content in interviews. Spearman Rank Order Correlations were performed to determine the nature of the relationship between the proportion of items in each interview stage in the plans and the proportion of questions in each interview stage in the interviews on each occasion.

Results

Proportion of content.

The proportion of content relating to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages of the PEACE model was not spread evenly across stages in either plans or interviews. To facilitate an understanding of what recruits covered in interviews, and the focus placed on particular aspects of the plan and interview, the stages were assigned a rank between 1 and 3, with 1 representing the stage containing the highest mean number of items across the sample. Findings with regard to recruits’ emphasis in plans and interviews was identical across all four occasions with recruits focusing on Account, followed by Engage and explain, and then Closure. The ranks, means, and standard deviations are presented in Tables 14 and 15 for plans and interviews respectively.

Change in the proportion of content.

Six one-way repeated measures ANOVAs were performed to compare the proportion of items in plans and the proportion of questions in interviews in the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure categories across the four occasions. In addition to the ranks, means, and standard deviations, the post-hoc relationships are presented in Tables 14 and 15 for plans and interviews respectively.

Using a Bonferroni-adjusted alpha value of .016, there was a significant effect for time in plans for Closure $\lambda = .26 F(3, 20) = 19.07, p < .001, \eta^2 = .74$. 

Post-hoc analyses revealed there was a significant increase in the proportion of items between Time 1 and Times 3 and 4, and between Time 2 and Times 3 and 4.

Using a Bonferroni-adjusted alpha value of .016, there was a significant effect for time in interviews for Account $\lambda = .50$ $F(3, 20) = 6.68, p = .003, \eta^2 = .50$ and Closure $\lambda = .52$ $F(3, 20) = 6.20, p = .004, \eta^2 = .48$. Post-hoc analyses revealed for the Account category there was a significant decrease in the proportion of questions between Time 1 and Times 3, and 4, and for Closure there was a significant increase in the proportion of questions between Time 1 and Time 4.

**Relationship between plans and interviews.**

The relationship between the proportion of items in plans and the proportion of questions in interviews within each time period was explored using Spearman Rank Correlation Coefficient. The $r$ values for all coefficients are presented in Table 16. With regard to Engage and explain, there was a medium, positive correlation between the proportion of items in plans and questions in interviews at Time 2 ($r = .41, N = 23, p = .049$), Time 3 ($r = .45, N = 23, p = .032$), and a large, positive correlation at Time 4 ($r = .58, N = 23, p = .004$) with an increased proportion of items in plans relating to Engage and explain associated with an increased proportion of questions in interviews relating to that stage. With regard to Account, there was a medium, positive correlation between the proportion of items in plans and questions in interviews in Time 2 ($r = .44, N = 23, p = .034$), with an increased proportion of items in plans relating to Account associated with an increased proportion of questions in interviews relating to that stage. No significant correlations were found with regard to the Closure stage.
## Chapter 4: Interviews and Plans

### Table 14

**Rank, Proportion of Items, Standard Deviations, and Results of One-way Repeated Measures ANOVAs for EAC in Plans**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Time 1</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Time 2</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Time 3</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Time 4</th>
<th></th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rank</td>
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<td>Rank</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Rank</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Rank</td>
<td>M</td>
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<td>.12</td>
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<td>.26</td>
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<td>.63</td>
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<td>.02</td>
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</table>

*Note.* Means in a row sharing the same subscripts differ significantly where *p* < .05 with Bonferroni adjustments for multiple comparisons.

### Table 15

**Rank, Proportion of Questions, Standard Deviations, and Results of One-way Repeated Measures ANOVAs for EAC in Interviews**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Time 1</th>
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<td>Rank</td>
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<td>SD</td>
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*Note.* Means in a row sharing the same subscripts differ significantly where *p* < .05 with Bonferroni adjustments for multiple comparisons.
Table 16
Spearman Rank Order Correlations between Proportion of Items in Plans and Proportion of Questions in Interviews for EAC by Time Period

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Engage and explain</th>
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<tr>
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<td>Closure</td>
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<td>-.10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. *p ≤ .05 (2-tailed); **p ≤ .01 (2-tailed); ***p ≤ .001 (2-tailed).

Interim Discussion

Across the four occasions recruits consistently focused on the Account stage, followed by the Engage and explain, and then Closure stage of the interview in their plans and interviews. Recruits included proportionately more content relating to the Closure stage in their plans at Times 3 and 4 following interview training. Interview training may also have impacted the content of recruits’ interviews, as proportionately more content relating to the Closure stage was included in recruits’ interviews at Time 4. A corresponding decrease was observed in the proportion of content related to the Account stage in interviews although this was not reflected in the content of plans.

The findings with regard to the proportion of questions in interviews in each category showed more differences across time than the findings with regard to plans. In contrast to the findings with regard to interviews, only the Closure stage showed differences in plans, with the proportion of items relating to the Closure stage increasing at Time 3 following interview training. Therefore, it may be suggested that recruits’ interviews, rather than their plans, are more likely to be impacted by training. This finding highlights the need to instruct recruits explicitly regarding the use of plans, rather than relying on them to incorporate items relevant to interviews in their plans without specific guidance.

In terms of the relationship between plans and interviews, the strongest relationship was observed for Engage and explain, with significant correlations on each occasion. These findings can be compared to those in Phase I with regard to the Introduction and Witness demographics categories as these are both likely to be incorporated within the Engage and explain stage of the interview. The two categories were ranked as high order categories in terms of coverage across the four occasions, suggesting comparatively high coverage of items within the Engage and
Chapter 4: Interviews and Plans

explain stage of the interview. As the analysis in the present phase considers
correlations broadly between categories, rather than with respect to particular items,
the comparison between findings in Phases I and II provides some indication that it is
the items included in plans that are correlating with the equivalent questions in
interviews.

The change in proportion of each of the stages in plans was reflected in the
interviews, suggesting a positive association between the change in emphasis in
plans and the change in emphasis in interviews. While the relationship cannot be
considered causative, a negative or neutral finding would indicate the content of
plans does not impact the content of interviews. As such, the correlations observed
can be interpreted with cautious optimism with regard to the utility of planning for
interviews. However, additional analyses regarding aspects of the Account stage of
the interview would be useful in understanding the relationship between planning
and interviewing as this stage is less prescriptive and designed to be interviewee-led.
As such, the nature of planning and coverage is likely to be different than that
expected with regard to Engage and explain and Closure.

The findings in this phase of analysis show a positive relationship between
the proportion of planned items and questions covered in the interview for Engage
and explain across the four occasions, but they do not show whether the inclusion of
individual items has an impact on whether they are covered in the interview. The
findings presented in Phase I demonstrated high levels of coverage of planned items;
however, as with findings presented in Chapter 3, it is important to consider the
items in the context of key interview components, to understand the extent to which
recruits are planning and covering items considered relevant for interviews with
witnesses. To that end, the analyses presented in the following phase will consider
which components recruits include in their interviews and the relationship between
the planning and coverage of those components.

Phase III

Having considered the extent to which planned items in the 11 categories are
actively covered in interviews, and the relationship between the amount and type of
content related to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages of the
PEACE model in plans and interviews, the third phase of analysis in this chapter
addresses the questions of what amount and type of content recruits include in their
plans and interviews that relates to key interview components and whether this changes following specific points in training. Further analysis of recruits’ plans and interviews at Time 3 considers the impact of the inclusion of components in plans and their coverage in interviews. Analysis of recruits’ inclusion of components in interviews and whether this changes following training will provide the most comprehensive analysis of recruits’ interviewing practices to date. Further, the analysis of the impact of the inclusion of components in plans on their coverage in interviews at Time 3 can be used to inform training with regard to the use of plans. That is, identifying the components where planning appears to increase the likelihood of their coverage in interviews. This section of the chapter contains a method, results, and interim discussion, each specific to the third phase of analysis. The findings of this phase will then be discussed in the context of the findings from Phases I and II in the chapter discussion at the conclusion of the chapter.

**Method**

The coding schedule used in the analyses for this phase of the chapter was outlined in Phase III of Chapter 3. The schedule contains 75 key interview components for interviews with witnesses as identified using previous schedules published by Clarke and Milne (2001), Walsh and Milne (2008), Scott et al. (2015), and training materials provided by WA Police. To facilitate analysis, the 75 components were collapsed into the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stage and within these stages, 15 categories. A more comprehensive explanation of the development of the schedule, and the approach to analysis is included in Chapter 2. There were three approaches to analysis in this phase. Firstly, recruits’ interviews were examined against this schedule to determine the total proportion of the 75 components, and the proportion of components in each of the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages, and the 15 categories of the interview that were covered in recruits’ interviews on each of the four occasions. Secondly, the interviews were analysed to examine how the proportion of coverage changed followed specific points in training. Finally, there was an examination of the impact of inclusion of the 75 components in plans on their coverage in interviews at Time 3. Operational definitions for the 15 categories are presented in Table 10 in Chapter 3 and operational definitions for the 75 components are presented in Table 17 of the...
present chapter. In Table 17, the 75 components are presented in the context of the interview stage (Engage and explain, Account, or Closure) and 15 categories.

**Inter-rater reliability.**

A random selection of five plans and interviews from each of the four occasions were coded by a second individual to assess inter-rater reliability. Further details of the process are outlined on pp. 98-99). Cohen’s Kappa Coefficients were calculated to provide an indication of agreement having taken into consideration the level of agreement expected by chance (Cohen, 1960). The inter-rater reliability for the coding of plans is presented in Phase III of Chapter 3. For coding relating to the content of interviews, the Cohen’s Kappa Coefficients were .82, .82, .88 and .81 for Times 1, 2, 3, and 4 respectively. The four coefficients equalled or exceeded the score of .81 for a rating of Almost perfect agreement (Llandis & Koch, 1970).

After preliminary coding of a selection of plans and interviews, it became apparent that items 36 Active listening, 37 Use of pauses/silence, 65 Refers to plan in interview, and 66 Checks off items in plan, would not be relevant for analysis as there was limited capacity to plan for those items. Given the basis of analysis was comparing the plans and interviews, these items were subsequently excluded from the remainder of coding. Two additional items were excluded from the coding of interviews, items 49 Description of victim(s) and 60 Do you know the victim(s), as these relate to the victim of the offence and there was no victim in Time 4.
Table 17

**Operational Definitions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Engage and explain</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>The recruit greets the witness and introduces him/herself.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduces self</td>
<td>The recruit greets the witness and introduces him/herself.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provides date</td>
<td>Recruit states date of the interview.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provides time</td>
<td>Recruit states time of the interview.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place of work</td>
<td>The recruit informs the witness of his/her place of work (Village Police Station).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Witness demographics</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Witness name</td>
<td>The recruit asks the witness’ name.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Witness age/DOB</td>
<td>The recruit asks the witness’ DOB and/or age.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Witness telephone numbers</td>
<td>The recruit asks the witness’ contact telephone number(s).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Witness address</td>
<td>The recruit asks the witness’ address.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Account instructions</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explain purpose of the interview</td>
<td>The recruit explains the purpose of the interview is to gain as much information as possible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviewer has no knowledge</td>
<td>The recruit explains that he/she has no knowledge of the event.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Witness not to fabricate or guess</td>
<td>The recruit instructs the witness to not fabricate or guess details.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Witness to say “I don’t know”</td>
<td>The recruit instructs the witness to say, “I don’t know”, if they do not know the answer to a question.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Witness to report everything</td>
<td>The recruit instructs the witness to report everything he/she remembers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Procedural instructions</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviewer to ask questions</td>
<td>The recruit explains that he/she will ask the witness questions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estimate time for interview</td>
<td>The recruit provides an estimate of the duration of the interview.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does the witness have time</td>
<td>The recruit checks the witness has time for the interview.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviewer taking notes</td>
<td>The recruit informs the witness he/she will be taking notes during the interview.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviewer to prepare statement</td>
<td>The recruit informs the witness he/she will be compiling a statement using the information provided by the witness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May need to appear in court</td>
<td>The recruit informs the witness they may be asked to appear in court regarding the matter at a later date.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is the witness willing to appear?</td>
<td>The recruit asks the witness if they are willing to appear in court.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Witness wellbeing</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asks questions not necessary</td>
<td>The recruit asks questions not necessary for the interview in order to build rapport with the witness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Check witness comfort</td>
<td>The recruit checks the witness is comfortable e.g., asking the witness if they require a drink or wish to use the bathroom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Witness is happy to proceed?</td>
<td>The recruit asks the witness if they are willing to proceed with the interview.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Let me know if you need a break</td>
<td>The recruit makes the witness aware that they can leave or take a break during the interview.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# Chapter 4: Interviews and Plans

Table 17

**Continued**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Account</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interview structure</td>
<td>Recruit asks the witness for an account of the events using an open question. May also be characterised in terms of the ‘what’ and ‘how’ of 5W1H.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asks for uninterrupted account</td>
<td>Recruit does not interrupt the witness’ account of events.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does not interrupt</td>
<td>Recruit addresses each aspect of the witness’ account of events separately.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shows evidence of topic boxes</td>
<td>Recruit structures the interview in accordance with the witness’ initial account of events and/or follows the flow of information from the witness, rather than imposing their own structure.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Keeps to relevant topics</td>
<td>Unless the purpose is to build rapport, recruit maintains the focus of the interview on gaining a full and accurate account of the events.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Interview technique</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clarification</td>
<td>Recruit asks for clarification where terms are used that have multiple interpretations or where information provided by the witness is confusing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exploration of information</td>
<td>Recruit asks follow-up questions when requesting information from the witness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uses witness’ words/language</td>
<td>When specific terms are used by the witness, recruit uses these words when asking follow-up questions of the witness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sketch</td>
<td>Recruit asks the witness to draw a sketch.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summarises initial account</td>
<td>Recruit summarises the initial account provided by the witness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summarises regularly</td>
<td>Recruit summarises subsequent information provided by the witness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ADVOKATE</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount of time under observation</td>
<td>How long was the POI seen?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distance</td>
<td>How far away was the witness from the POI?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visibility</td>
<td>How clearly was the witness able to see what happened?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obstruction</td>
<td>Was there anything impeding the view of the witness?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Known or seen before</td>
<td>Does the witness know, or has the witness seen, the POI before?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any reason to remember</td>
<td>Is there any specific reason why the witness would remember the POI?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time lapse</td>
<td>How long has it been between when the witness viewed the POI and when they spoke to police?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Errors/discrepancy</td>
<td>Are there any discrepancies between the report of the witness and other information provided?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Table 17

*Continued*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Person details</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Were there any other witnesses?</td>
<td>Recruit asks if there were other people in the vicinity at the time of the offence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Description of offender(s)</td>
<td>Recruit asks for a description of the offender(s). May also be characterised in terms of the ‘who’ of 5W1H.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Description of witness(es)</td>
<td>Recruit asks for a description of any other witness(es). May also be characterised in terms of the ‘who’ of 5W1H.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Description of victim(s)</td>
<td>Recruit asks for a description of the victim(s). May also be characterised in terms of the ‘who’ of 5W1H.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Where did the POI go?</td>
<td>Recruit asks where the POI went after the offence was committed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you know the witness(es)?</td>
<td>Where relevant, recruit asks the witness if they know the other witness(es).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you know the victim(s)?</td>
<td>Where relevant, recruit asks the witness if they know the victim(s).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you seen POI since?</td>
<td>Recruits asks the witness if they have seen the POI since the offence took place.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investigative areas</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vehicle</td>
<td>Recruit asks for information regarding any vehicles that may have been present at or around the time of the offence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weapon</td>
<td>Recruit asks for information regarding any weapons that may have been used.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCTV/mobile phone footage</td>
<td>Recruit asks if they noticed any CCTV cameras or anyone filming using their mobile phones during or around the time of the offence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Items left behind</td>
<td>Recruit asks if there were any items left at the scene by the POI.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elements</td>
<td>Recruit asks questions that address at least some of the relevant elements of the offence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defences</td>
<td>Recruit asks questions that address at least some of the relevant defences to the offence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Injuries</td>
<td>Recruit asks whether any injuries were sustained in the course of the offence taking place.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What happened before?</td>
<td>Recruit asks what the events were leading up to the offence. This can include a discussion of any suspicious activity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Words spoken</td>
<td>Recruit asks if they heard any words spoken at or around the time of the offence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drugs/alcohol</td>
<td>Recruit asks whether the POI appeared under the influence of drugs and/or alcohol.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motive</td>
<td>Recruit asks questions regarding a motive for the offence. May also be characterised in terms of the ‘why’ of 5W1H.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offence details</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Location of offence</td>
<td>Recruit asks for details regarding location of the offence. May also be characterised in terms of the ‘where’ of 5W1H.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time of offence</td>
<td>Recruit asks for details regarding the time of the offence. May also be characterised in terms of the ‘when’ of 5W1H.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date of offence</td>
<td>Recruit asks for details regarding the date of the offence. May also be characterised in terms of the ‘when’ of 5W1H.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 17  
Continued

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Closure</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confirm account</td>
<td>Recruit summarises the contents of the interview.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interview summises interview</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Invites witness to add information</td>
<td>Recruit invites the witness to add additional information to that which has already been provided.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Invites witness to alter information</td>
<td>Recruit invites the witness to alter the account that has been summarised.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Follow-up procedure</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provides P9/contact details</td>
<td>Recruit provides the witness with a P9 card and/or gives his/her contact details for the witness to have follow-up contact.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explains IR number</td>
<td>Recruit provides the witness with the Incident Report (IR) number and explains how the number is derived (e.g., date of incident, recruit’s regimental number).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How to give more information</td>
<td>Recruit explains to the witness how they can contact him/her to provide additional information.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explains what happens next</td>
<td>Recruit explains the procedure following the interview; i.e., the recruit will take his/her notes and type them into a written statement which he/she may ask the witness to sign at a later date.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formalities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thanks witness for time</td>
<td>Recruit thanks the witness for coming and taking part in the interview.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asks witness to sign sketch/documents</td>
<td>If the witness has drawn a sketch, recruit asks the witness to sign it. Recruit may ask witness to sign any notes that have been written during the interview.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Records time</td>
<td>Recruit records the time the interview concludes.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Statistical Analyses**  
The analyses presented in this phase aimed to determine what amount and type of content recruits include in their plans and interviews that is relevant to key interview components and whether the amount and type of relevant content changes following specific points in training. Further analysis of recruits’ plans and interviews at Time 3 considers the impact of the inclusion of components in plans and their coverage in interviews.

The mean proportion of items in the Engage and explain, Account and Closure stages and category were calculated to provide an understanding of the amount and type of relevant content recruits include in their interviews. As part of the examination of what relevant content recruits include in their interviews, ranks were assigned to each stage and category within each time period in order to determine where recruits place their emphasis in interviews; that is, what stages and
categories receive the most attention in recruits’ interviews. These rankings were used as a tool to guide analysis of the data. A one-way repeated measures ANOVA was performed to determine whether there was a change in the overall amount of content related to key interview components in interviews; three additional ANOVAs were performed to determine whether there was a change in the amount of content related to the components within the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages; and finally, 15 ANOVAs were performed to determine whether there was a change in the amount of content related to the components within the 15 categories, following specific points in training. Bonferroni-adjusted alpha levels were employed to reduce the risk of Type I errors.

Chi-square Tests were performed to analyse the relationship between the planning and coverage of the 75 key interview components at Time 3. The results of Chi-square Tests were reported for the nine analyses not violating the assumption of cell size and the results of Fisher’s Exact Probability Test were reported for the remaining 65 components. The rationale for analysis is discussed further in Chapter 2.

Results

Proportion of content.

Recruits did not plan evenly across the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages, or the 15 categories, which is consistent with findings presented in Phase II of this chapter. To facilitate an understanding of what recruits covered in interviews, and the focus placed on particular aspects, the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages were assigned a rank between 1 and 3, and the categories of key interview components were assigned a rank between 1 and 15. To understand the broader focus placed on components by recruits the order can be expressed as high, medium, or low. High order categories are ranked 1 to 5; medium order categories are ranked 6 to 10; and low order categories are ranked 11 to 15. Ranks are presented in Table 18.
### Table 18

**Rank and Proportion of Components Included in Interviews by Time Period**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time 1</th>
<th>Time 2</th>
<th>Time 3</th>
<th>Time 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rank</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Rank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engage and explain</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.17&lt;sub&gt;a,b,c&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>.23&lt;sub&gt;a,b,c&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Witness demographics</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Account instructions</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>.03&lt;sub&gt;a,b&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedural instructions</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>.03&lt;sub&gt;a,b&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Witness wellbeing</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>.02&lt;sub&gt;a,b,c&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Account</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.49&lt;sub&gt;a,b,c&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interview structure</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>.46&lt;sub&gt;a,b&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interview technique</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.54&lt;sub&gt;a,b&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADVOKATE</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>.56&lt;sub&gt;a,b&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Person details</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.51&lt;sub&gt;a,b,c&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investigative areas</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>.20&lt;sub&gt;a,b,c&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elements and defences</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.73&lt;sub&gt;a,b,c&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offence details</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Closure</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.20&lt;sub&gt;a,b&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confirm account</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Follow-up procedure</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>.18&lt;sub&gt;a,b&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formalities</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>.35&lt;sub&gt;a,b&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>.36&lt;sub&gt;a,b&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.** Means in a row sharing the same subscripts differ significantly where $p < .05.$*
With regard to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages, at Time 1 recruits planned for the highest proportion of the Account stage, followed by Closure, then Engage and explain. At Times 2, 3, and 4 the pattern with regard to the focus of recruits was identical to that at Time 1. With regard to the 15 categories, at Time 1 recruits covered the highest proportion of key interview components within the Offence details, Elements and defences, Witness demographics, Interview technique, and Person details categories. The low order categories were Investigative areas, Follow-up procedure, Account instructions, Procedural instructions, and Witness wellbeing. At Time 2 recruits covered the highest proportion of components within the Offence details, Witness demographics, Interview structure, Interview technique, and Elements and defences categories. The low order categories were ADVOKATE, Follow-up procedure, Witness wellbeing, Procedural instructions, and Account instructions. At Time 3 recruits covered the highest proportion of components within the Interview technique, Interview structure, Offence details, Witness demographics, and Follow-up procedure categories. The low order categories were Investigative areas, Account instructions, Introduction, Witness wellbeing, and Confirm account. At Time 4 recruits covered the highest proportion of components within the Offence details, Interview technique, Interview structure, Witness demographics, and Formalities categories. The low order categories were Confirm account, Elements and defences, Account instructions, Introduction, and Witness wellbeing.

Five categories remained consistent in their rank order (that is, high, medium, or low) across the four time periods: Witness demographics, Interview technique, and Offence details were consistently high order categories, and Account instructions and Witness wellbeing were consistently low order categories. In considering the lower ranked categories, it is necessary to acknowledge the possibility of floor effects. Given the limited training of recruits, it may be that the large number who neglected to cover particular components has led to the masking of findings where recruits had covered components and this had changed over time.

**Change in the proportion of content.**

Having examined what recruits include in their interviews, one-way repeated measures ANOVAs were performed in order to determine whether there were significant differences in the total proportion of key interview components and the proportion of stages and categories included in interviews following specific points
A one-way repeated measures ANOVA was performed to compare the mean proportion of total key interview components covered in interviews across the four occasions. Additional ANOVAs were then performed to compare the mean proportion of components within the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages covered in interviews across the four occasions and further ANOVAs were performed to compare the mean proportion of components within the 15 categories covered in interviews across the four occasions. The means, standard deviations, and post-hoc analyses are presented in Table 18.

Using an alpha value of .05, there was a significant effect for time for the total proportion of key interview components covered in interviews: $\lambda = .048$, $F(3, 34) = 222.66$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .95$. Post-hoc analyses revealed a significant increase in the total proportion of components covered in interviews between Time 1 and Times 3 and 4, and between Time 2 and Times 3 and 4.

Using a Bonferroni-adjusted alpha value of .017, there was a significant effect for time for key interview components included within the Engage and explain $\lambda = .09$, $F(3, 34) = 113.57$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .91$; Account $\lambda = .10$, $F(3, 34) = 98.15$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .90$; and Closure stages $\lambda = .19$, $F(3, 34) = 48.04$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .81$. Post-hoc analyses revealed there was a significant increase in the proportion of components within stages covered in interviews between Time 1 and Times 3 and 4 and between Time 2 and Times 3 and 4 for all stages. In addition, there was a significant increase in the proportion of components within the Engage and explain and Account stages covered in interviews between Time 1 and Time 2.

Using a Bonferroni-adjusted alpha value of .003, there was a significant effect for time for four of the five categories within the Engage and explain stage: Introduction $\lambda = .54$, $F(3, 34) = 9.51$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .46$; Account instructions $\lambda = .26$, $F(3, 34) = 33.00$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .74$; Procedural instructions $\lambda = .07$, $F(3, 34) = 145.34$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .93$; Witness wellbeing $\lambda = .11$, $F(3, 34) = 94.93$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .89$; six of the seven categories within the Account stage: Interview structure $\lambda = .16$, $F(3, 34) = 59.50$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .84$; Interview technique $\lambda = .07$, $F(3, 34) = 142.97$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .93$; ADVOKATE $\lambda = .26$, $F(3, 34) = 33.07$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .75$; Person details $\lambda = .32$, $F(3, 34) = 23.69$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .68$; Investigative areas $\lambda = .29$, $F(3, 34) = 28.50$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .72$; Elements and defences $\lambda = .36$, $F(3, 34) = 20.27$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .64$; and two of the three categories within the Closure
stage: Follow-up procedure $\lambda = .17$, $F(3, 34) = 53.80$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .83$; Formalities $\lambda = .31$, $F(3, 34) = 25.37$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .69$. Post-hoc analyses revealed there was a significant increase in the proportion of key interview components within categories covered in interviews between Time 1 and Times 3 and 4, and between Time 2 and Times 3 and 4 for Introduction, Account instructions, Procedural instructions, Witness wellbeing, Interview structure, Interview technique, ADVOKATE, Person details, Investigative areas, Follow-up procedure, and Formalities. In addition to these significant findings, with regard to Introduction, Witness wellbeing, and Person details there was also a significant increase between the proportion of components within categories covered in interviews between Times 1 and 2, with regard to Procedural instructions and Follow-up procedure there was a significant increase between the proportion of components within categories covered in interviews between Times 3 and 4, and with regard to Investigative areas there was a significant increase between the proportion of components within categories covered in interviews between Times 1 and 2 and between Times 3 and 4. With regard to Elements and defences, there was a significant increase between the proportion of components within categories covered in interviews between Time 1 and Times 2, 3, and 4.

**Relationship between plans and interviews.**

Having considered the broader categorisation of key interview components by the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages and then 15 categories, this aspect of analysis considered the relationship between planning and interviewing by reference to the 75 components. In order to organise the data in a digestible fashion, the components are presented in reference to the 15 categories and three interview stages (Engage and explain, Account, or Closure) to which they belong. This aspect of the analysis examined the relationship between the planning and coverage of the 75 components at Time 3. The rationale for confining analysis to Time 3 is discussed in Chapter 2.

The data for planning and coverage of the 75 key interview components is presented in total and by Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages before being analysed by individual component. In terms of the total number of components in plans and interviews at Time 3, 38% of components were planned for and covered, 27% were not planned for but covered, 26% were not planned for and not covered, and 9% were planned for but not covered. The planning and coverage of components...
Chapter 4: Interviews and Plans

in total and by Engage and explain, Account, or Closure stage is presented in Figure 1.

![Figure 1](chart.png)

*Figure 1. Planning and coverage of interview components in total and by interview stage at Time 3.*

With regard to components within the Engage and explain stage of the interview, 39% of components were planned for and covered, 22% were not planned for but covered, 33% were not planned for and not covered, and 6% were planned for but not covered. With regard to components within the Account stage of the interview, 40% of components were planned for and covered, 28% were not planned for but covered, 21% were not planned for and not covered, and 12% were planned for but not covered. With regard to components within the Closure stage, 30% were planned for and covered, 32% were not planned for but covered, 33% of components were not planned for and not covered, and 5% were planned for but not covered.

Chi-square Tests were performed on the 75 key interview components to analyse the relationship between planning and coverage. The results of the Chi-square Tests are reported for the 10 components where the assumption for cell sizes was not violated. The results of Fisher’s Exact Probability Tests are reported for the remaining 65 components. The statistics for the Chi-square Tests, $p$ values for the Chi-square and Fisher’s Exact Probability Tests, and effect sizes are presented in Table 19.
Engage and explain.

With regard to the four key interview components within the Introduction category, and the four components within the Witness demographics category, there was no relationship between planning and coverage in interviews for any of the components. With regard to the five components within the Account instructions category, there was a relationship between planning and coverage in the interview for Interviewer has no knowledge ($\chi^2 = 22.77$, $p < .001$, $\phi = .84$), Witness not to fabricate or guess ($\chi^2 = 16.95$, $p < .001$, $\phi = .73$), andWitness to report everything ($\chi^2 = 19.69$, $p < .001$, $\phi = .78$). There was no relationship between planning and coverage in the interview for the one remaining component. With regard to the seven components within the Procedural instructions category, there was a relationship between planning and coverage in the interview for Interviewer to ask questions ($p < .001$, $\phi = .70$), Estimate time for interview ($p = .003$, $\phi = .54$), and Does the witness have time? ($p = .006$, $\phi = .49$). There was no relationship between planning and coverage in the interview for the four remaining components. With regard to the four components within the Witness wellbeing category, there was a relationship between planning and coverage in the interview for Check witness comfort ($\chi^2 = 16.95$, $p < .001$, $\phi = .73$) and Let me know if you need a break ($\chi^2 = 8.71$, $p = .003$, $\phi = .54$). There was no relationship between planning and coverage in the interview for Asks questions not necessary, as this component was not planned by any recruits.
Table 19

Covered Interview Components According to Presence or Absence in Plans

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<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Not planned</th>
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<th>$\chi^2$</th>
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<td>Introduction</td>
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<tr>
<td>Introduce self</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>100</td>
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<td>.081</td>
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<tr>
<td>Provides date</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>=</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provides time</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
<td>=</td>
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<tr>
<td>Place of work</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>46.4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>88.9</td>
<td>=</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Witness demographics</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Witness name</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>90.0</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>94.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Witness age/DOB</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>80.0</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>94.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Witness telephone numbers</td>
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<td>66.7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>76.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>Witness address</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>90.0</td>
<td>16</td>
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<td><strong>Account instructions</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose to gather information</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>30.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Interviewer has no knowledge</td>
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<td>11.1</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>94.7</td>
<td>22.77</td>
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<tr>
<td>Witness not to fabricate or guess</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>88.9</td>
<td>16.95</td>
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<td>Witness to say “I don’t know”</td>
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<td>39.3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>77.8</td>
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<td>Witness to report everything</td>
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<td><strong>Procedural instructions</strong></td>
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<td>Interviewer to ask questions</td>
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<td>Estimate time for interview</td>
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<td>Does the witness have time?</td>
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<td>Interviewer taking notes</td>
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<td>Interviewer to prepare statement</td>
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<td>69.2</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>79.2</td>
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<tr>
<td>May need to appear in court</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>71.4</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>93.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Is the witness willing to appear?</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>57.1</td>
<td>26</td>
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<td><strong>Witness wellbeing</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Asks questions not necessary</td>
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<td>29.7</td>
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<td>Check witness comfort</td>
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<td>Witness is happy to proceed?</td>
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<td>Let me know if you need a break</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>88.2</td>
<td>8.71</td>
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*Note.* Chi-square statistic only reported for analyses where cell size assumption was not violated; where the Chi-square statistic is not provided, the $p$ value is for Fisher’s Exact Probability Test.
### Table 19

*Continued*

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<td>Interview structure</td>
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<td>Does not interrupt</td>
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<td>Shows evidence of topic boxes</td>
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<td>Appropriate structure</td>
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<td>Keeps to relevant topics</td>
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<td><strong>Interview technique</strong></td>
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<td>Clarification</td>
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<td>Exploration of information</td>
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<td>Uses witness’ words/language</td>
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<td>Sketch</td>
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<td>Summarises initial account</td>
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<td>Summarises regularly</td>
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<td><strong>ADVOKATE</strong></td>
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<td>Amount of time under observation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Distance</td>
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<td>Visibility</td>
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<td>Errors/discrepancy</td>
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<td><strong>Person details</strong></td>
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<td>Were there any other witnesses?</td>
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<td>Description of offender(s)</td>
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<td>Description of witness(es)</td>
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<td>Description of victim(s)</td>
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<td>Where did POI go?</td>
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*Note.* Chi-square statistic only reported for analyses where cell size assumption was not violated; where the Chi-square statistic is not provided, the $p$ value is for Fisher’s Exact Probability Test.
### Table 19

**Continued**

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<th>Item</th>
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<tr>
<td>How to give more</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>.036</td>
<td>.37</td>
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<td>information</td>
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<tr>
<td>Explains what happens</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>-.03</td>
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<td>next</td>
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<td>Formalities</td>
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<tr>
<td>Thanks witness for time</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>.036</td>
<td>.38</td>
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<tr>
<td>Asks witness to sign sketch</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>.570</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Records time</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.189</td>
<td>.35</td>
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</table>

*Note.* Chi-square statistic only reported for analyses where cell size assumption was not violated; where the Chi-square statistic is not provided, the $p$ value is for Fisher’s Exact Probability Test.
Account.

With regard to the five key interview components within the Interview structure category and the six components within the Interview technique category, there was no relationship between planning and coverage in the interview for any components. Within the interview structure category, Asks for uninterrupted account was covered in the interview by all recruits regardless of whether it was planned and Appropriate structure and Keeps to relevant topics was not planned by any recruits. Within the Interview technique category, Clarification, Exploration of information, and Uses witness’ words/language were covered in the interview by all recruits regardless of whether they were planned. With regard to the eight components within the ADVOKATE category, there was a relationship between planning and coverage in the interview for Known or seen before ($p = .011, \phi = .44$). There was no relationship between planning and coverage for Errors/discrepancy as the component was not covered in interviews by any recruits, and there was no relationship between planning and coverage in the interview for the six remaining components. With regard to the eight components within the Person details category there was a relationship between planning and coverage in the interview for Were there any other witnesses? ($p = .022, \phi = .41$) and Have you seen POI since? ($p = .005, \phi = .56$). There was no relationship between planning and coverage in the interview for Description of offender(s) as the component was covered in the interview by all recruits regardless of whether it was planned, and there was no relationship between planning and coverage in the interview for the five remaining components. With regard to the four components within the Investigative areas category, there was a relationship between planning and coverage in the interview for CCTV/mobile phone footage ($p < .001, \phi = .84$) and Items left behind ($p = .010, \phi = .56$). There was no relationship between planning and coverage for the two remaining components. With regard to the seven components within the Elements and defences category and the three components within the Offence details category, there was no relationship between planning and coverage in the interview for any components. Within the Elements and defences category, there was no relationship between planning and coverage in the interview for Elements, Explores motive, and What happened before as these components were covered in interviews by all recruits regardless of whether they were planned and Injuries was not covered by any recruits. There was no
relationship between planning and coverage in the interview for the three remaining components.

**Closure.**

With regard to the three key interview components within the Confirm account category, there was a relationship between planning and coverage in the interview for Invites witness to add information ($p = .013, \phi = .42$). There was no relationship between planning and coverage in interviews for the two remaining components. With regard to the four components within the Follow-up procedure category, the strongest relationship between planning and coverage in the interview was observed for Explains IR number ($\chi^2 = 6.58, p = .010, \phi = .48$), followed by Provides P9/contact details ($p = .036, \phi = .38$), and How to give more information ($p = .036, \phi = .38$). There was no relationship between planning and coverage in the interview for the one remaining component. With regard to the three components within the Formalities category, there was a relationship between planning and coverage in the interview for Thanks witness for time ($p = .036, \phi = .38$). There was no relationship at between planning and coverage in the interview for the two remaining components.

**Interim Discussion**

Recruits covered proportionately more key interview components in their interviews at Times 3 and 4 compared to their interviews at Times 1 and 2. This finding was consistent with those related to the inclusion of components in plans presented in Phase III of Chapter 3. The focus of recruits on key interview components in the Account stage, followed by the Closure, and then the Engage and explain stage in interviews across all occasions is in contrast to the findings with regard to plans, which also focus on the Account stage but emphasise the Engage and explain over the Closure stage. In terms of the 15 categories, the recruits’ focus in interviews prior to formal training was components within the Offence details and Witness demographic categories, which was a similar finding to that with regard to the content of plans in Phase III of Chapter 3. The categories with the least proportion of components covered at Times 1 and 2 were all in the Engage and explain stage: Account instructions, Procedural instructions, and Witness wellbeing. Recruits’ focus in interviews at Times 3 and 4 following interview training shifted to incorporate proportionately more procedural and interview categories (e.g.,
Procedural instructions, Interview structure, Interview technique, and Follow-up procedure).

Following interview training there was a significant increase in the total proportion of key interview components, in the components within the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages, and in 12 of the 15 categories in recruits’ interviews. Very few categories did not reveal a significance different following interview training: for interviews it was the Witness demographics, Offence details, and Confirm account categories that did not show any change following training; and for plans it was only the Witness demographics and Person details categories that did not show any change following training. With regard to de-training in interviews, the Procedural instructions and Follow-up procedure categories showed a decrease in the proportion of components covered in these categories between interviews at Times 3 and 4. However, there was a corresponding increase at this occasion for the Investigative areas category. In contrast, in plans it was the ADVOKATE and Investigative areas categories that showed a decrease between interviews at Times 3 and 4.

With regard to the impact of inclusion of key interview components in plans on coverage in interviews, the majority of components (64%) were either planned and covered or not planned and not covered. While this majority is small, the findings indicate there may be a relationship between the inclusion of components in plans and their coverage in interviews. With regard to specific interview stages, this pattern was most clearly observed for the Engage and explain stage with 72% of components either planned and covered or not planned and not covered, followed by the Closure stage with 63% of components, and the Account stage with 61% of components. With regard to total components, and across the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages, components were more commonly not planned but covered, than planned but not covered.

When comparing the findings of the present chapter with the existing literature, it is important to note interview quality was not assessed in the present study and, as such, comparisons are limited. The decision was made to assess presence or absence of components, as recruits were engaging in mock-interviews with multiple witnesses. As such, the assessment of presence or absence of components limited the influence of witness disclosure on recruits’ performance. However, even with comparison of skill level, consideration would need to be given
to the different level of experience between recruits and trained police officers and benefit fraud investigators. Tentative comparisons can be made between analyses pertaining to the level of coverage of key interview components with the performance of components in the existing literature. That is, comparing the most skilfully performed components as reported in the literature, with the most covered components in the present study. In terms of performance of the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages of the interview, research has found benefit fraud investigators to be most skilled in their performance of the Engage and explain stage, followed by the Account, and then the Closure stage (Walsh & Bull, 2010a). In comparison to what the literature states is performed with the most skill, the findings within Phases II and III of the present chapter show that recruits included proportionately more content and covered proportionately more components within the Account stage of the interview than in the Engage and explain or Closure stages. These findings regarding emphasis is unremarkable given the importance of obtaining an account and the comparatively shorter stages of Engage and explain and Closure. Further, it is interesting to note recruits do not emphasise the stages in which, according to the literature, they may be more skilled.

In terms of key interview components within the stages of the PEACE model relevant to the components analysed in the present chapter, in the Engage and explain stage of the interview, Introduces self, Purpose of the interview explained, and Evidence of rapport building were most competently performed (with regard to interviews with POIS in Clarke and Milne, 2001; Clarke et al., 2011; Walsh & Bull, 2010a). The components examined within Phase III of the present chapter provide a basis for comparison, although the analysis of interviews across the four occasions related to the 15 broader categories. In terms of recruits’ coverage of these components, Introduction (including the Introduces self component) was ranked as a low order category across three of the four time periods, with Account instructions (including Purpose of the interview explained) and Witness wellbeing (equated with Evidence of Rapport building) ranked as low order categories across all four time occasions. For all categories in the present research there was a significantly greater proportion of components covered in interviews at Times 3 and 4 when compared to Times 1 and 2 and for Introduction and Account instructions there was also a significantly greater proportion of components covered in interviews at Time 2 when compared to Time 1. While these still remained low order categories, the findings
Chapter 4: Interviews and Plans

suggest recruits’ incorporation of components in relevant categories improved.

In the Account stage of the interview, Keeps interview to relevant topics and Encourages suspect to give an account were two of the three most competently performed (interviews with POIs, Clarke and Milne, 2001; Clarke et al., 2011; Walsh & Bull, 2010a; and Walsh & Milne, 2008). Develops topics for discussion (Walsh & Bull, 2010a), Uses logical structure and sequence (Clarke and Milne, 2001 [interviews with POIs]; Clarke et al., 2011), and Explores information received (Walsh & Milne, 2008) were also included in the top three most skilfully performed components. With regard to interviews with witnesses, Clarke and Milne (2001) found the three most skilfully performed components were Keeps to relevant topics, Full exploration of account, and Points to prove. The Interview structure category in the present research incorporates Keeps interview to relevant topics and Encourages suspect (witness) to give an account. This category, and Interview technique (incorporating Explores information received) were ranked as high order categories on three and four of the occasions respectively. For both categories there was a significantly greater proportion of key interview components covered in interviews at Times 3 and 4 when compared to Times 1 and 2. In contrast, the Elements and defences category, incorporating Points to prove, varied across high, middle, and low order, decreasing rank over time, with a significantly greater proportion of components covered at Time 1 compared to Times 2, 3, and 4. Findings with regard to the two most commonly cited aspects of the interview as being most skilled, Keeps interview to relevant topics and Encourages suspect (witness) to give an account, are also contained within the categories with a comparatively high proportion of coverage in the present study, and increase in coverage following interview training.

With regard to individual components within the Closure stage, the performance of Summarises interview was rated as below PEACE standard (interviews with witnesses and POIs, Clarke and Milne, 2001; Clarke et al., 2011; Walsh & Bull, 2010a; Walsh & Milne, 2008). In the present research this component was contained within the Confirm account category. This category was ranked as middle order at Times 1 and 2, and low order at Times 3 and 4, with no significant difference in the proportion of key interview components covered across time. Again, while not providing a caparison of skill, the proportion of components in this category did not exceed .50 across the four occasions demonstrating there was
substantial room for improvement in recruits’ coverage of this category in interviews.

While recognising the analyses do not assess the performance of these key interview components, the large number of significant differences in the proportion of components covered following interview training contrasts with the limited impact observed on interview performance within the literature. Where differences have previously been observed following training, these are few and the majority relate to the Account stage of the interview (Structuring the interview [McGurk et al., 1993], Obtaining the suspect’s version of events, Develops topics for discussion, and Explores information [Walsh & Milne, 2008]), with the exception of Introducing the interviewer (McGurk et al., 1993) which relates to the Engage and explain stage. The coverage of components in the categories containing these components in the present research, Interview structure (Structuring the interview, Obtaining the suspect’s version of events, Develops topics for discussion), Interview technique (Explores information), and Introduction (Introducing the interviewer), increased following interview training, with Introduction also increasing between Times 1 and 2.

Although the results presented in Phase II showed the proportion of questions in interviews relating to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages, rather than the proportion of key interview components covered in interviews, it is interesting to note the difference between planning and interviewing is consistent across the two phases. This finding suggests recruits are potentially more cognisant of the need to plan for the Engage and explain stage but in the interview itself the recruits are more at ease with the Closure stage. Alternatively, it may be that recruits are more concerned about their performance in the Engage and explain stage, for example with covering specific instructions for the interview, and are therefore focusing more on this stage in their plans.

Findings tend to show the key interview components requiring specialist knowledge, and those relating to specific instructions, appear more reliant on planning to be covered than other components. For example, in the components within the Engage and explain stage of the interview, it is those aspects generally rote learned and repeated to witnesses that are more likely to be planned and covered: Provides date, Provides time, Place of work, Interviewer has no knowledge, Witness not to fabricate or guess, Witness to say “I don’t know”, Witness to report everything, Interviewer to ask questions, Estimate time for interview, Does the
witness have time, Check witness comfort, and Let me know if you need a break.

For key interview components within the Account phase, a similar pattern was observed with components requiring specialist knowledge seeming to be those that are more likely to be planned and covered: Known or seen before, Were there any other witnesses?, Do you know the other witness(es)?, Have you seen the POI since?, CCTV/mobile phone footage, Items left behind, Words spoken, and Drugs/alcohol. The exceptions in the Account stage are the Time lapse and Time of offence components, which one might expect to be covered regardless of inclusion in the plan. However, it may be that in some cases, notwithstanding the examples above, recruits are focused on the less obvious aspects of the offence in their plans.

For the Closure stage of the interview the key interview components more likely to be planned and covered again generally related to procedural and instructional aspects of the interview: Invites witness to add information, Provides P9/contact details, Explains IR number, and How to give more information. As with some components within the Account stage, it was also surprising to find Thanks witness for time was more likely to be covered when planned. While it seems obvious to thank the witness, there were a number of recruits who failed to observe this courtesy, perhaps due to a task-oriented approach to the exercise. It was suggested in the interim discussion of findings in Phase II that intuitive aspects of Closure may not be planned; for example, thanking the witness. However, the findings presented in this phase do not support this assertion. In terms of encouraging the witness to return with more information, or in the circumstances of a different offence, the simple practice of thanking the witness is very important. As such, while planning specifically for this component may seem unnecessary in the sense that it should be logical, it is important to do so if recruits may neglect it.

Nine of the key interview components were covered by at least half of the recruits, but not planned by the majority of those recruits: Does not interrupt, Appropriate structure, Keeps to relevant topics, Clarification, Uses witness’ words/language, Sketch, Where did POI go?, What happened before?, and Asks witness to sign sketch. While recruits would not be advised to neglect particular aspects of the interview in their plans, in a document with limited content, these components appear less necessary to be included in written plans or proformas for interviews. In contrast, Errors/discrepancy in ADVOKATE was the only component not covered when planned by the majority of recruits. The highest number of recruits
planning for but not covering the component was for Defences, followed by Injuries and Interviewer summarises interview. It could be argued that challenging the witness with regard to errors, covering defences, and summarising the interview are not easy aspects to perform so it may be that even when planned, recruits lacking confidence, or instruction, may not perform these aspects.

Chapter Discussion

Overall, the findings presented in this chapter show that recruits covered a high proportion of planned items in their interviews. The total proportion of planned items covered in interviews did not change significantly across the four occasions showing a consistent pattern. Although non-significant, it was interesting to note there was a reduction in the total coverage of items following interview training. This pattern was observed with regard to Incident details, the category containing the largest number of items; however, interview training appeared to increase the coverage of other categories (e.g., Interview procedure).

As with findings regarding the content of plans, recruits paid more attention in their interviews to the Account stage of the PEACE model, when compared to the Engage and explain and Closure stages. In terms of the relationship between the proportion of content in plans and interviews related to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages of the PEACE model, the strongest relationship was observed within the Engage and explain stage. A positive association was observed between the proportion of content in plans and interviews related to the Engage and explain stage at Times 2, 3, and 4. In contrast, a positive association was only observed for the Account stage at Time 2. No positive associations were observed for the Closure stage on any occasion and there were no negative associations observed relating to any stage on any occasion.

With regard to the inclusion of key interview components in recruits’ interviews, findings showed recruits covered a significantly greater proportion of components within the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages, as well as the majority of the 15 categories, following interview training. This finding is consistent with those regarding the proportion of components included in plans (Phase III of Chapter 3). However, legal and procedural training appears to have had a more substantive effect on the coverage of components in recruits’ interviews when compared to their plans. For plans, a significant difference in the proportion of
components included between Times 1 and 2 was observed for Interview structure and Follow-up procedure. For interviews, a significant difference was observed over the same time period for Introduction, Witness wellbeing, Person details, Investigative areas, and Elements and defences.

The examination of recruits’ plans and interviews at Time 3 with regard to the impact of the inclusion of key interview components in plans on their coverage in interviews revealed the majority of components were either planned and covered or not planned and not covered, suggesting there is a relationship between planning and coverage. However, examination of the individual components suggests the pattern of findings with regard to those components exhibiting a stronger relationship between planning and coverage differs according to interview stage. For the Engage and explain and Closure stages, those components with the strongest relationship between planning and coverage are generally components that are more prescriptive; for example, the provision of instructions regarding the procedure of the interview, or for providing follow-up information. In contrast, those components with the strongest relationship between planning and coverage in the Account stage were the components requiring more specialised knowledge of what is needed for the investigation; for example, CCTV/mobile phone footage, and Items left behind.

As mentioned in Phase III of this chapter, making comparisons with the findings in the literature is tempered by the different measures (i.e., performance measured in the literature and proportion of coverage measured in the present chapter) and by the sample (i.e., police officers and benefit fraud investigators in the literature and recruits in the present research). In terms of performance of the stages of the PEACE model, the findings in Phases II and III demonstrated recruits did not emphasise the stages in which benefit fraud investigators have the most skill, with recruits emphasising the Account stage over Engage and explain and Closure and investigators’ being most skilled at the Engage and explain stage followed by the Account and then the Closure stages (Walsh & Bull, 2010a).

For those key interview components performed most skilfully in the literature in the Engage and explain stage, those categories in the present research including components relevant to the components in the literature were generally low order categories across the four occasions. However, coverage of those categories increased following interview training. In contrast, those categories in the Account stage including the most commonly cited components as skilfully performed were
generally high order categories across the four occasions and increased coverage following interview training. The performance of ADVOKATE was only measured in one study (Clarke & Milne, 2001), and showed police did not perform any components at or above PEACE standard. The findings in Phase III of this chapter reflected this difficulty, with recruits’ coverage of ADVOKATE not exceeding .58 of components on any occasion. While there are not multiple components to compare in the Closure stage, the performance of Summarises interview is consistently below Satisfactory in the literature and maintained a level of coverage below .50 across the four occasions in the present research. With regard to the impact of training, findings in Phase III of the present research show an increase in the proportion of coverage of components following interview training in the majority of categories. In contrast, previous research has found limited impact of training on the performance of interview components, with the exception of Introducing the interview, Structuring the interview (McGurk et al., 1993), Obtaining the suspect’s version of events, Develops topics for discussion, and Explores information (Walsh & Milne, 2008), where significant differences were noted for police officers following training (McGurk et al., 1993) and between benefit fraud investigators who were trained in PEACE and those untrained (Walsh & Milne, 2008).

As noted in Chapter 3 when speculating about whether the content of recruits’ plans would reflect police officers’ perceptions of what is important in interviews, those perceptions are again pertinent with regard to the content of recruits’ interviews. Literature suggests police officers have identified rapport building and adopting an empathic style as being an important aspect of the interview (see e.g., Bull & Cherryman, 1996; Hartwig et al., 2012; Oxburgh & Dando, 2011; Powell et al., 2009). In light of what police officers have identified as being important in an interview, it is interesting to note recruits’ shift following interview training to further incorporate the Engage and explain and Closure stages into plans and interviews. Despite this shift in focus, there remains a comparative neglect of the Engage and explain and Closure stages in plans and interviews. While it is not expected that recruits would spend most of their time in an interview on Engage and explain and Closure, but ideally a greater proportion of time would be dedicated to these stages, particularly given findings that indicate the importance of rapport (often associated with the Engage and explain stage) in obtaining a full and accurate account (Walsh & Bull, 2008).
Chapter 4: Interviews and Plans

To combat issues associated with requiring police officers to conduct interviews using complex techniques, Dando et al. (2009a) advocated for a simplified version of the Cognitive Interview to be taught to inexperienced police officers. It is important to note that it is not just the technical aspects of the interview that may be difficult for recruits to incorporate in their plans and interviews. For some recruits, the practice of rapport building and associated communication techniques; for example, adopting an empathic approach and active listening, may prove to be more difficult than simply asking questions about an offence. Alternatively, for other recruits, it may be that the effort required asking the relevant questions pertaining to the offence means that the more intuitive aspects of the interview are not undertaken. While the approach advocated by Dando and colleagues (2009a) in simplifying the Cognitive Interview has been adopted by WA Police in their use of the Free Recall model with recruits, it may be that focused attention on a few aspects and building these across the duration of recruit training, rather than within one week of intense interview training, may increase recruits’ abilities to communicate effectively and engage in rapport building more readily in the context of interviews.

While total coverage and coverage across individual categories is high on all four occasions, it is important to note there was not a uniform increase in coverage following specific points in training. The reduction in coverage of planned items following interview training (for example, in the Interview procedure category), may relate to the increased number of items in plans following interview training. This finding may also be explained by reference to recruits’ engagement with plans. That is, whether or not recruits are consulting their plans during interviews and ensuring items are covered.

When considering the relationship between plans and interviews, it is the Engage and explain stage that showed the strongest relationship when correlation analyses were performed on items planned and questions asked in interviews. Consistent with these findings, the coverage of planned items in categories generally included in the Engage and explain stage was also high; for example, Introduction, Witness demographics, Interview demographics, Legal procedure, and Interview procedure information, particularly following interview training. The increased coverage following interview training is consistent with the premise that increased perceived behavioural control and self-efficacy results in decreasing the intention-
behave gap (Sniehotta et al., 2005). Therefore, as recruits receive more training, the theories of planned behaviour and goal-setting would suggest self-belief increases and they are more able to perform in accordance with their goals (i.e., planned items).

Demonstrating the efficacy of interviewing training in the context of interviews as well as plans, recruits appeared to incorporate more items relating to Engage and explain and Closure in their interviews following interview training. Further, the change in emphasis was more evident in interviews. While influencing the interview is the ultimate aim, the findings with regard to the relationship between plans and interviews, particularly with regard to the Engage and explain stage, suggests increased planning for this stage would result in increased coverage in interviews. As such, planning may need to receive targeted attention in training in order to maximise its utility in increasing the likelihood of a quality interview that includes all necessary components. Consistent with regard to the content of plans, there was a tendency for the effect of training with regard to interviews to diminish over time. As noted by Griffiths and Milne (2006), complex skill acquisition is less likely to be maintained and refresher training is necessary to ensure these skills are not lost. As with plans, legal and procedural training did not generally have a substantive impact on the content of interviews. Promoting an integrated approach to learning, where each aspect of recruit training is used to inform other aspects, may assist recruits to view the knowledge and skills acquired in discrete areas of training as transferable.

Given the limited research examining the direct relationship between planning and performance in any context, the findings presented in this chapter are an important addition to the literature. Consideration of the relationship between plans and interviews with regard to key interview components at Time 3 suggest that recruits are generally able to obtain broader incident information following interview training, but may require plans to ensure more specialised aspects, or instructions to the witness, are covered. These findings are consistent with goal-setting theory, which holds that goals are more likely to be achieved when they have been articulated specifically (Locke, 1968). While the majority of components were either planned and covered or not planned and not covered, a substantial proportion of components were either planned and not covered or not planned and covered. These components are of practical importance, particularly those regarding the former.
relations in terms of determining how better to encourage coverage when inclusion in the plan is insufficient.

In addition to being encouraged to plan before conducting interviews, the PEACE model also advocates the practice of evaluation following interviews. While recruits are provided with external feedback regarding performance, the practice of self-evaluation has the potential to be useful with regard to improving performance using minimal resources. As with the practice of planning, there is limited research considering evaluation or, more specifically, self-evaluation, in the context of investigative interviews. The analyses presented in the following chapter will provide an understanding of what recruits identify in their self-evaluations, how this changes following specific points in training, and the impact of self-evaluations on interviewing practices.
Chapter 5: Self-evaluations, Interviews, and Plans

Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to examine the amount and type of content police recruits (recruits) include in their self-evaluations, whether the amount and type of content changes following specific points in training, and to explore how the content of self-evaluations impacts interviewing practices. At the end of each interview, recruits were asked the question, “If you could conduct this interview again, what would you do differently?” The focus of analysis in this chapter is recruits’ responses to this question and the extent to which the aspects of the interview indicated in their responses are incorporated into the plans and interviews on the following occasion. This introductory section of the chapter will recap on the relevant literature and provide a rationale for the approach to analysing recruits’ self-evaluations and the relationship between self-evaluations, plans, and interviews. Following a discussion of the research questions to be addressed in this chapter, three phases of analysis will be presented. Phase I of analysis contains a method, results, and interim discussion section, and Phases II and III contain a method, combined results and interim discussion, and conclusion. Similarly to Chapters 3 and 4 there is a chapter discussion at the conclusion of the chapter.

Literature

The emphasis placed on evaluation in investigative interviews is evident by the inclusion of the Evaluation stage in the PEACE model; in turn, police are encouraged to evaluate their practice (Oxburgh & Dando, 2011). However, evaluation practices have received limited attention in the context of research examining investigative interviewing and it is unclear whether evaluation impacts interviewing. As with the Preparation and planning stage of PEACE, examining the Evaluation stage has methodological constraints as it is a practice occurring outside the interview itself and, as the majority of research has considered recorded interviews, data around the processes occurring outside the interview is less available as a result. While third-party evaluation is helpful in the sense of providing the most objective feedback, resource constraints can make regular third-party evaluation a
practical impossibility. An integrated feedback approach advocates the use of feedback from peers, supervisors, in addition to the use of self-evaluation (Tee & Ahmed, 2014). The research presented in this chapter considers the use of self-evaluations in impacting planning and interviewing practices.

While the majority of the investigative interviewing literature does not examine the Evaluation stage explicitly, a number of studies have examined the perceptions of police officers regarding their interviewing. To some extent, these findings have provided insight into the police officers’ evaluations of the utility of particular aspects of investigative interviewing, and their performance of these aspects specifically. Variously, police have reported listening, preparation, questioning, knowledge of subject, flexibility, open-mindedness, compassion/empathy (Bull & Cherryman, 1996), rapport (Bull & Cherryman, 1996, Hartwig et al., 2012), and obtaining as much information as possible (Hartwig et al., 2012) as the most important aspects of an interview. Police officers who interview marginalised populations cited courtesy, respect, patience, and honesty as being important (Powell et al., 2009). The majority of the aspects identified as being important by the police officers surveyed in these studies relate to rapport building and basic communication, rather than any techniques that may be advocated.

Previous research has suggested people with lower metacognitive abilities are less able to accurately evaluate their own performance than those with comparatively higher metacognitive abilities, and they overinflate their capability (Dunning et al., 1999; Kruger & Dunning, 1999). The findings with regard to the ‘unskilled and unaware’ phenomenon suggest the less skilled a person is, the less able they can identify what aspects of their performance need improvement. However, further research into this phenomenon contended people are less likely to accurately self-evaluate when they are invested in the outcome of the task, rather than the inaccuracy being due to limited metacognitive abilities (Kim et al., 2015). Kim and colleagues (2015) suggested people with low metacognitive abilities may be able to accurately self-evaluate but they choose not to as a self-protective mechanism. The difficulty associated with an inability to accurately evaluate one’s performance is that not realising when and where there are deficits means individuals are not going to be engaging in behaviour to improve performance (Kim et al., 2015).

If items identified as requiring improvement can be characterised as goals, the theories of planned behaviour (see Ajzen, 1991) and goal-setting (see Locke, 1968)
become relevant to the discussion concerning self-evaluation. These theories suggest intention impacts behaviour, with increased perceived behavioural control (or self-efficacy [Bandura, 1977]) operating as a mechanism by which the intention-behaviour gap is decreased (Sniehotta et al, 2005). If items identified as needing improvement are considered goals, the aforementioned theories would suggest that difficult and specific goals are likely to result in greater improvement in performance than easy or vague goals (Locke, 1968).

Research examining the impact of self-evaluation on performance is not extensive generally, and a review of published literature to date does not identify findings specific to investigative interviewing. While it appears generally accepted that feedback improves performance, there is little distinction between the effects of different types of feedback on performance. A comparison of the effect of teacher-evaluation, self-evaluation, and peer-evaluation on the lesson plans prepared by teachers found the final plans that had been evaluated by a teacher received scores significantly higher than those having been self-evaluated or peer-evaluated. However, the plans in all conditions improved significantly following the implementation of feedback provided (Ozogul et al., 2008). These findings may suggest that individuals with more knowledge and experience provide better feedback, or it may be that individuals are more likely to incorporate feedback from someone who is perceived to be more experienced. Overall, there is some expectation that engaging in a process of self-evaluation has a positive effect on performance, although the exact nature of this improvement is not well known.

**Rationale for Analysis**

While self-evaluation is considered a key aspect of performance in a variety of contexts, it is unclear how the process of self-evaluation impacts performance in the context of investigative interviewing. The analyses presented in this chapter will provide some understanding of recruits’ natural abilities to self-evaluate and the usefulness of the process in impacting interviewing practices.

The analysis of recruits’ self-evaluations is presented in three phases. Phase I examines the number of items recruits include in their self-evaluations, the percentage of recruits identifying particular categories in their self-evaluations, and whether this changes following specific points in training. Content analysis was used to analyse recruits’ responses to the question, “If you could do this interview again,
what would you do differently?” Nine categories were identified and recruits’ responses were categorised accordingly to facilitate statistical analysis. The analysis presented in this phase provides the opportunity for an understanding of the percentage of recruits identifying particular categories in their self-evaluations and whether this changes following specific points in training.

The analysis presented in Phase II aims to examine the content of recruits’ self-evaluations using qualitative analysis. In contrast to the quantitative analyses presented in Phase I, the qualitative analysis presented in Phase II draws on examples from the data to provide a nuanced understanding of what recruits perceive as needing improvement and discusses how the items articulated by recruits change qualitatively following specific points in training.

The analysis presented in Phase III examines the self-evaluations at Time 3 and considers whether self-evaluations impact interviewing practices; namely, plans and interviews. Each item in the self-evaluations at Time 3 was assessed with regard to whether there were corresponding changes in plans and interviews between Times 3 and 4. The analysis is presented using the categories developed for Phase I, thereby providing the opportunity for an understanding of the impact of the type of content in self-evaluations on interviewing practices.

**Research Questions**

The analyses presented in this chapter aim to determine the amount and type of content recruits include in their self-evaluations, how this changes following specific points in training, and how recruits’ self-evaluations impact interviewing practices. The specific research questions used to guide the analysis in individual phases are presented below:

**Phase I.**

− What is the percentage of recruits who identify particular categories of items in their self-evaluations?
− Does the total number of items included in self-evaluations and the percentage of recruits identifying particular categories in self-evaluations change quantitatively following specific points in training?
Phase II.
− What is the amount and type of content recruits include in their self-evaluations?
− Does the amount and type of content in recruits’ self-evaluations, with regard to how items are articulated, change qualitatively following specific points in training?

Phase III.
− How do self-evaluations impact interviewing practices?

Phase I

Very little is known about self-evaluation in the context of investigative interviews. Understanding what recruits include in their self-evaluations provides insight into what recruits’ perceive as needing improvement in the interviewing process. Considering whether the amount and type of content in self-evaluations changes following specific points in training may provide insight into whether recruits’ awareness of what aspects of the interview process need improvement changes with further understanding of what is required in an interview. The first phase of analysis in this chapter addresses the question of what amount and type of content recruits include in their self-evaluations, the percentage of recruits identifying particular categories for improvement, and whether these change following specific points in training. This section of the chapter contains a method, results, and interim discussion, each specific to the first phase of analysis. The findings of this phase will then be discussed in the context of the findings from Phases II and III in the chapter discussion at the conclusion of the chapter.

Method

Recruits’ responses to the question, “If you could conduct the interview again what would you do differently” from the four occasions were studied closely to identify categories of items. Having developed a preliminary coding schedule, a selection of self-evaluations from each occasion was coded to test whether all items contained within the self-evaluations could be categorised according to the schedule. Following this process of revision, the final coding schedule contained nine categories: Questioning, Note-taking, Interview persona, Preparation and planning,
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Rapport building, Procedure, Structure, Nothing, and Other. Each item in each plan was assigned to one of the nine categories. Operational definitions for the nine categories are presented in Table 20.

Table 20

Operational Definitions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Questioning</td>
<td>Items relating to the types of questions asked, the amount of questions, and specific questions that recruits identify as being missing from their interviews.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Note-taking</td>
<td>Items relating to taking more notes, taking less notes, making notes clearer or easier to read, and items related to sketches.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviewer persona</td>
<td>Items relating to recruits’ demeanour in the interview, or particular behaviours to adopt; for example, slowing down the pace of the interview.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preparation and planning</td>
<td>Items relating generally to planning or more specific aspects of planning; for example, planning particular aspects of the interview.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rapport building</td>
<td>Items relating to the witness’ wellbeing and making them feel comfortable, as well as specific questions to ask or behaviours to adopt for this purpose.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedure</td>
<td>Items included in this category mostly relate to explaining aspects of the interview or legal process, as well as providing specific details to the witness; for example, the relevant IR number.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structure</td>
<td>Items relating to structure generally, as well as those more specifically drawing attention to particular aspects of the interview needing attention.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nothing</td>
<td>Where the recruit either did not respond, was not sure what to improve, or did not believe there was anything to improve in their interview.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>Wherever possible items were coded into substantive categories; however, some items were not relevant to the aforementioned categories, nor were they mentioned sufficiently to warrant the creation of new categories.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Inter-rater reliability.

A random selection of five self-evaluations from each of the four occasions was coded by a second individual to assess inter-rater reliability. Further details of the process are outlined on pp. 98-99). Cohen’s Kappa Coefficients were calculated to provide an indication of agreement having taken into consideration the level of agreement expected by chance (Cohen, 1960). The Cohen’s Kappa Coefficients were
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1.00, .78, .92, and 1.00 for Times 1, 2, 3, and 4 respectively. The coefficients for Times 1, 3, and 4 exceeded the score of .81 for a rating of Almost perfect agreement and the coefficient for Time 2 demonstrates Substantial agreement (Llandis & Koch, 1970).

Statistical Analyses

The analyses presented in this phase aimed to determine what recruits include in their self-evaluations, the percentage of recruits identifying particular categories for improvement, and whether these change following specific points in training. The percentage of recruits including items in each category were calculated to provide an understanding of how many recruits perceive individual aspects of the interviewing process as needing improvement. As part of the examination of what recruits include in their self-evaluations, ranks were assigned to each category within each time period to determine where recruits place their emphasis in assessing what they would do differently in another interview. These rankings were used as a tool to guide analysis of the data. A one-way repeated measures Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was performed to determine whether there was a change in the number of items included in self-evaluations following specific points in training. Eight Cochran’s Q Tests were performed to determine whether there was a change in the percentage of recruits including items in each category in self-evaluations following specific points in training. The ninth category, Other, was excluded from the analyses as the content contained therein was not relevant to the interviewing process in as far as it is examined in this chapter. Bonferroni-adjusted alpha levels were employed to reduce the risk of Type I errors.

Results

Percentage including items in categories.

The inductive coding process identified nine categories of items recruits included in their self-evaluations: Questioning, Note-taking, Interviewer persona, Preparation and planning, Rapport building, Procedure, Structure, Nothing and Other. To facilitate an understanding of what recruits included in their self-evaluations, and the focus placed on particular aspects of the interview, the categories were assigned a rank between 1 and 8, with 1 representing the category containing the highest proportion of recruits including an item in that category across
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the sample. To understand the broader focus placed on categories by recruits the order can be expressed as high, medium, or low. High order categories were ranked 1 to 3; medium order categories were ranked 4 to 5; and low order categories were ranked 6 to 8. The ranks, means, and standard deviations are presented in Table 21.

At Time 1 the highest proportion of recruits included items related to Questioning and Rapport building, with the next highest proportion including items related equally to Interviewer persona, Structure, and Nothing (those recruits who either did not include any items or stated there was nothing they would do differently). The low order categories were Note-taking, Procedure, and Preparation and planning. At Time 2 the highest proportion of recruits included items related to Procedure, Note-taking, and Nothing. The low order categories were Questioning, Preparation and planning and Structure. At Time 3 the highest proportion of recruits included items related to Questioning, Structure, and Interviewer persona. The low order categories were Preparation and planning Procedure, and Rapport building. At Time 4 the highest proportion of recruits included items related to Questioning, Nothing, and Preparation and planning. The lowest proportion of recruits included items related to Rapport building, with the next lowest proportion including items related equally to Note-taking, Interviewer persona, and Procedure.

Looking across the four occasions, no categories remained consistent in rank order (that is, high, medium, or low), with each changing across the four occasions.
Table 21

*Ranks, Proportions, and Standard Deviations of Recruits Including Items in Self-evaluations by Category*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Time 1</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Time 2</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Time 3</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Time 4</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rank</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Rank</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Rank</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Rank</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questioning</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4&lt;sub&gt;ab&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>17&lt;sub&gt;a&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>46.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>17&lt;sub&gt;b&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Note-taking</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>21.6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviewer persona</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>18.9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preparation and ...</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rapport building</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10&lt;sub&gt;ab&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0&lt;sub&gt;a&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1&lt;sub&gt;b&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedure</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>29.7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structure</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nothing</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Means in a row sharing the same subscripts differ significantly where \( p < .008 \).
Change in the number of items and percentage of recruits including items.

Having examined what recruits include in their self-evaluations, a one-way repeated measures ANOVA was performed to determine whether there were significant differences in the total number of items included in self evaluations following specific points in training. No significant differences were observed. As with regard to the low coverage of particular components in interviews highlighted in Phase 3 of Chapter 4, the lack of significant difference may be due to the very low numbers of items included in recruits’ self-evaluations. The means and standard deviations are presented in Table 22.

Table 22
Means and Standard Deviations of Number of Items Included in Self-evaluations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Time 1</th>
<th></th>
<th>Time 2</th>
<th></th>
<th>Time 3</th>
<th></th>
<th>Time 4</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of items</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>.94</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Eight Cochran’s Q Tests were then performed to compare the percentage of recruits including relevant items in each of the categories across the four occasions. The number, percentages and post-hoc relationships are presented in Table 21.

Using a Bonferroni-adjusted alpha value of .006, there was a significant effect for time for two of the eight categories: Questioning, $Q = .5616.47, p = .001$, and Rapport building, $Q = 17.71, p = .001$. Post-hoc analyses using McNemar’s Tests, and employing a Bonferroni-adjusted alpha level of .008, revealed there was a significant increase in the proportion of recruits including at least one relevant item in self-evaluations between Time 2 and Times 3 and 4 for Questioning and between Time 1 and Times 3 and 4 for Rapport building.

Interim Discussion

Similarly to the content of plans and interviews, as recruits had received no formal training prior to their interviews at Time 1, the categories focused on in their self-evaluations, Questioning and Rapport building, are those perceived as needing improvement without recruits having formal understanding of the requirements of investigative interviewing. Understanding the need to improve, or to change, aspects
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of the interview within these categories would not require training, as it could be argued that questioning appropriately and engaging the interviewee are commonly understood by lay people as important in any interviewing context. In contrast items relating to the Procedure and Structure categories feature prominently in self-evaluations following specific points in training; relevantly, items relating to Procedure are included by more recruits at Time 2 after legal and procedural training, and items relating to Structure are included by more recruits at Time 3 following interviewing training. Questioning remains a high order category across the four occasions, with the exception of Time 2. The relative ease with which to identify questioning as an area for improvement may explain its consistent prominence in recruits’ self-evaluations. While it is encouraging recruits identify this issue, changing questioning techniques is likely to prove more challenging than simply identifying it.

The proportion of recruits either not reporting anything in their self-evaluations, or explicitly stating there was nothing to improve, was ranked between 1 and 4 across the four occasions. The inability to identify areas of the interview to improve is concerning, particularly given the findings in Chapter 4 showing recruits did not cover all key interview components. One explanation for this finding is that recruits do not believe they are performing interviews perfectly but cannot identify specific aspects to improve. Alternatively, recruits may have unwarranted confidence in their own ability.

Overall, there were no significant changes in the number of items included in self-evaluations following specific points in training. This finding may suggest that recruits’ awareness of the importance of self-evaluation, or ability to reflect on areas to change, are not increasing over the duration of their course. It may also be an indication recruits require specific training in reflective practice in order to be able to identify and articulate areas for improvement.

While there were no significant changes in the number of items included in recruits’ self-evaluations, in addition to these being the most focused upon at Time 1, there were significant differences in the percentage of recruits including items relevant to the Questioning and Rapport building categories following specific points in training. As with regard to changes in the content of plans and interviews, interview training appears to have had the most impact on these categories. With regard to Questioning, the instruction during interview training would have
highlighted the importance of question types in interviewing which recruits could readily identify in their own interviews, leading to the significant increase observed following interview training. In contrast, significantly less recruits included items relevant to Rapport building in their self-evaluations following interview training. It may be that recruits are comfortable with their performance in this area and do not consider it an area to change, or it may be that additional knowledge of interviewing has provided recruits with more easily articulated areas of the interview to cite for change. Given the importance of rapport building in eliciting a full and accurate account, it is hoped that recruits do not consider aspects of the interview associated with rapport building as less important than the more investigatively-focused aspects of the interview.

Using an inductive approach to analysing the content of self-evaluations allowed for an exploratory consideration of what the recruits identify as wishing to change and how this changes following specific points in training. The small number of items included in self-evaluations provided some limitations with regard to analysing the content of self-evaluations statistically; however, qualitative analysis of the data presented in the following phase will provide a more nuanced understanding of recruits’ responses to the question, “If you could conduct the interview again, what would you do differently?” across the four time occasions.

**Phase II**

Having examined the content of recruits’ self-evaluations and how this changes following specific points in training quantitatively, the analysis presented in this phase qualitatively considered recruits’ responses to the question, “If you could conduct this interview again, what would you do differently?” Adopting a qualitative approach to analysis allowed for a more nuanced understanding of what recruits include in their self-evaluations, providing the opportunity to consider how recruits articulate the items, rather than focusing on the presence or absence of an item in a category. The analysis with regard to changes across time relates to the way recruits articulate items in their self-evaluations, rather than quantitative changes. Understanding what recruits perceive as needing improvement may assist trainers in targeting training, both in skills in self-evaluation, and in interviewing generally, as it would be hoped that recruits would articulate those aspects of the interview important for improvement in their self-evaluations. If not, trainers will need to
consider the extent to which recruits are able to self-evaluate, and whether the training provided to recruits is communicating the relative importance of different aspects of the interviewing process, including self-evaluation. This section of the chapter contains a method, combined results and interim discussion, and conclusion, each specific to the second phase of analysis. The findings of this phase will then be discussed in the context of the findings from Phases I and III in the chapter discussion at the conclusion of the chapter.

**Method**

Recruits’ responses to the question, “If you could conduct this interview again, what would you do differently?” were categorised according to the categories developed in Phase I of this chapter and closely analysed. While the analysis presented in Phase I provided an overview of what recruits include in their self-evaluations and the percentage of recruits’ identifying items in particular categories, qualitative analysis provides the opportunity to consider the types of items included within each category and how these change following specific points in training.

The results and interim discussion are structured according to the eight categories developed using content analysis outlined in Phase I: Questioning, Note-taking, Interviewer persona, Preparation and planning, Rapport building, Procedure, Structure, and Nothing. Upon close examination of each of the categories, sub-categories were identified for the largest category, Questioning, and used to facilitate analysis of recruits’ self-evaluations. In order to determine what recruits include in their self-evaluations and how this changes following specific points in training, the number of recruits including items in their self-evaluations relating to specific categories was counted. This counting was firstly to determine how many recruits who had included an item relevant to the specific category on any of the four occasions, and secondly, to determine how many of the recruits had included an item relevant to the specific category on more than one of the four occasions. While the focus of this phase is on qualitatively analysing recruits’ self-evaluations, frequency data provides a framework from which to make comparisons regarding emphasis across categories. Table 23 provides frequency data for the number of items included in each of the categories and sub-categories.

The categories are discussed in order from the category that featured in the most recruits’ self-evaluations to the category that featured in the least recruits’ self-
evaluations across the four interviews. The category, Nothing, is discussed after the substantive categories as the responses within this category do not relate to aspects of the interview recruits wish to change. The findings of the content analysis presented in this phase provide specific examples of items included in each category and show how these change following specific points in training. The conclusion following the combined results and interim discussion will draw together findings across categories.

Table 23

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category/sub-category</th>
<th>Recruits including item on at least one occasion</th>
<th>Recruits including item on more than one occasion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questioning</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>73.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question type</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>43.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount of questions</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>32.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Particular questions</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>24.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structure</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>51.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedure</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>45.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Note-taking</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>37.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preparation and planning</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>35.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rapport building</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>35.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interviewer persona</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>32.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nothing</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>48.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results and Interim Discussion

Questioning.

Twenty-seven (73.0%) recruits included items relating to Questioning in their self-evaluations across the four occasions, with 13 (35.1%) recruits including a relevant item on more than one occasion. Within the category, items could be further differentiated into those relating to question type, the amount of questions, and particular questions that recruits identified as being missing from their interviews.

With regard to the types of questions being asked, 16 (43.2%) recruits included relevant items on at least one occasion, with 7 (18.9%) recruits including a relevant item on more than one occasion. The majority of recruits including relevant items did so at Time 3 and Time 4, with only one recruit including a relevant item at each of Time 1 and Time 2. Responses varied in specificity, with recruits indicating
“look at my question asking techniques” (Recruit 6, Time 1) and “focus more on quality questions” (Recruit 26, Time 2), but increasing detail in responses was evident following training; for example, “Try [to] use more x 5W x 1M (sic) questions” (Recruit 21, Time 3) and “Use a bit more of TEDS and keep out leading questions” (Recruit 19, Time 4).

With regard to the amount of questions, 12 (32.4%) recruits included relevant items on at least one occasion, with 3 (8.1%) recruits including a relevant item on more than one occasion. The distribution of relevant items was relatively even across the four time periods and largely contained reference to increasing the amount of questions or probing for more information. For example, “Possibly elaborate on more questions” (Recruit 20, Time 1) and “drill into each topic further” (Recruit 19, Time 3). Recruits appeared to link asking more questions with eliciting more detail; however, it may be more a case of needing to change the type of questions being asked; for example, asking an open question rather than several closed questions to elicit the same amount of detail. The comparatively larger number of recruits identifying the types of questions being asked in their self-evaluations may indicate recruits are aware of the need to be strategic in their use of questions.

For recruits who included items relating to particular questions, 9 (24.3%) recruits included relevant items on at least one occasion, 1 (2.7%) recruit including a relevant item on more than one occasion. Analysis of the individual items suggests recruits were able to identify aspects of questioning to improve in a broader sense following interview training rather than thinking of particular questions that were not asked; for example, at Times 1 and 2 three recruits included an item related to asking the witness for contact details. This suggestion is also tentatively supported by the observation that only one recruit included a particular question as an item in their self-evaluation on more than one occasion. In terms of training in questioning, and self-evaluating, including particular questions that were not covered does not suggest depth of analysis or understanding regarding the process of reflective practice as recruits were not able to identify broader issues with their interviewing skills.

Structure.

Nineteen (51.3%) recruits included items relating to Structure in their self-evaluations across the four occasions, with 3 (8.1%) of recruits including a relevant item on more than one occasion. Within this category there were items relating to structure generally, as well as those more specifically drawing attention to particular
aspects of the interview needing attention. Of those recruits who included items relevant to this category, the majority (10) included them in self-evaluations at Time 3. The increased number of recruits including items relevant to this category at Time 3 is unsurprising given recruits had completed interview training prior to interviews on this occasion. As such, they were likely to be more aware of the importance of structure at this point in time than on previous occasions, specifically regarding the use of topic boxing and summarising within the Free Recall model. Five recruits at Time 1 and two recruits at Time 4 commented on improving the structure of their interviews in more general terms, whereas the responses at Time 3 included more specific areas for improvement. For example, “Stick to the topic boxes” (two recruits included a variant; Recruits 16 and 24), Summarise” (three recruits included a variant; Recruits 4, 23, and 24), “Get sketch earlier!” (two recruits included a variant; Recruits 18 and 27), and “Put ADVOKATE throughout, not [at] end” (Recruit 22). At Time 4 responses were similarly specific, but only three recruits included items relevant to this category. This observation suggests recruits had either covered all areas to their satisfaction in the interview, or the time between interview training and the interviews at Time 4 was such that they had forgotten what was required in terms of structure and could therefore not reflect accurately.

**Procedure.**

Seventeen (45.9%) recruits included items relating to Procedure in their self-evaluations across the four occasions, with 2 (5.4%) recruits including a relevant item on more than one occasion. The types of items included in this category mostly relate to explaining aspects of the interview or legal process, as well as providing details to the witness. Of those recruits who included items relevant to this category, the majority (11) included them in self-evaluations at Time 2. The increased number of relevant items at Time 2 coincides with recruits having received legal and procedural training. While relevant items were included at Time 1, in Time 2 the items appear more specific; for example, “offer victim support as she witnessed a crime” (Recruit 25), “give IR number!!” (Recruit 26), “Give voluntary person rights” (Recruit 28), “Told her she was being video recorded” (Recruit 29). The increased inclusion of items relating to Procedure indicates a corresponding increase in the awareness of procedural understanding of recruits. The decrease in the number of recruits including items relevant to this category in their self-evaluations at Time 3 and Time 4 may show a similar pattern to that suggested in relation to specific
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rapport building items; that is, on these occasions recruits are including more items in their interviews related to legal and interview procedure and would therefore be less likely to need to include them in self-evaluations.

**Note-taking.**

Fourteen (37.8%) recruits included items relating to Note-taking in their self-evaluations across the four occasions, with 5 (13.5%) recruits including a relevant item on more than one occasion. Within this category, recruits included items relating to the amount of notes, clarity and structure, and sketches.

Observations to write more were included by recruits in Times 1 and 2, whereas observations to write less were included by recruits in Times 2 and 3. This change might suggest that recruits became aware that writing notes was distracting them from actively engaging with the witness; for example, “write less, listen more…” (Recruit 17, Time 2).

Across the four occasions recruits included items relating to having clearer or better structured notes. The progression of items from Time 1 to Time 4 showed an increased awareness of the purpose of note-taking; for example, “Take down information more effectively” (Recruit 20, Time 1); “Set out my notes a bit easier to read” (Recruit 4, Time 2); “Make notes more flowing” (Recruit 7, Time 3); and “…write things clear so someone could understand it” (Recruit 4, Time 4). By Times 3 and 4 recruits appeared more aware of the purpose of taking notes and, potentially, their value in preparing a witness statement at a later date.

Finally, two recruits included items related to the quality of their sketch or map (Recruit 21 at Times 1 and 2; Recruit 7 at Time 3). As the sketches were generally witness-drawn it is unsurprising items relevant to this aspect of note-taking were not more frequent. However, recruits did not include reference to asking the witness to draw a sketch, rather the reflections were about quality. This observation suggests recruits who did not ask for a sketch did not recognise the need for one when completing their self-evaluation following the interview.

**Preparation and planning.**

Thirteen (35.1%) recruits included items relating to Preparation and planning in their self-evaluations across the four occasions, with 4 (10.8%) recruits including a relevant item on more than one occasion. Items within this category included those relating generally to “plan more” (Recruit 4, Time 4), specific aspects of planning;
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for example, “Take more time to prepare questions” (Recruit 8, Time 2), and aspects related to non-interview related preparation; for example, “Get more sleep the night before” (Recruit 35, Time 3). Specificity in the content of items varied across the four occasions with the general planning items included in self-evaluations at Times 1 and 4, while the more specific items were included across the four occasions. One explanation for the general items being included at Times 1 and 4 may be the proximity of interview training. At Time 1 recruits had not received training relevant to substantive content whereas at Time 4 the items may have been more general as there had been a 10-week gap since interview training. As with regard to the change in specificity of items in questioning, items related to Preparation and planning appeared to be impacted by training. For example, “plan my questions better” (Recruit 4, Time 1), “Try to remember more of what is required for the investigation” (Recruit 26, Time 2), “Prepare more investigative areas” (Recruit 6, Time 3), and “Alter the plan a little to suit witness free recall” (Recruit 13, Time 4). Three recruits (Recruit 7, Time 2; Recruits 30 and 35, Time 3) included items relating to general wellbeing prior to the interview, suggesting awareness that being rested and physically prepared impacts interview performance.

Rapport building.

Thirteen (35.1%) recruits included items relating to Rapport building in their self-evaluations across the four occasions, with 5 (13.5%) recruits including a relevant item on more than one occasion. Within this category were general comments relating to the witness’ wellbeing and making them feel comfortable, as well as particular questions to ask or behaviours to adopt. The majority of the items included within this category were at Times 1 and 2, with five recruits indicating they would like to make the witness more comfortable in general, and five recruits indicating they would specifically ask the witness about how they were feeling. Other specific rapport building items related to communication skills; for example, “listen more” (Recruit 17, Time 2), “keep eye contact for longer” (Recruit 31, Time 2), “have more normal, unrelated conversation” (Recruit 14, Time 2), and five recruits would ask the witness if they wanted a refreshment or let them know they could take a break if required. Given interview training occurred prior to interviews at Time 3, and would have incorporated education regarding the importance of rapport building, it is interesting to note there were no items relevant to Rapport building included by recruits in their self-evaluations at this time. However, the
interviews at Times 3 and 4 generally included more questions and statements relating to interview procedure, including instructions regarding breaks and checking the witness was comfortable and did not presently need refreshments. These items may not have been present in recruits’ self-evaluations on these occasions, as recruits were satisfied with this aspect of the interview. Consideration of the results presented in Phase I of this chapter suggest items relating to Rapport building have been replaced by items focused on Questioning and Structure, which may also be explained by recruits becoming more cognisant of the required components of investigative interviews and instead including items relating to these categories in their self-evaluations.

**Interviewer persona.**

Twelve (32.4%) recruits included items relating to Interviewer persona in their self-evaluations across the four occasions, with 6 (16.2%) recruits including a relevant item on more than one occasion. Within this category were items relating to wishing to slow down and relax, and the recruits’ demeanour in the interview. In particular, recruits identified the need to “slow down” across the four time periods. One recruit also identified the external pressure felt; “Not get pressured by the witness’ attitude and do what I have to do” (Recruit 2, Time 3). At Times 1 and 2 some recruits were conscious of appearing professional while others were conscious of appearing natural, the balance of which can be very difficult to achieve (demonstrating this need for balance, one recruit identified wanting to “be more professional in the introduction… be more personable” (Recruit 26, Time 1). The only recruit in Time 3 and Time 4 with comments regarding demeanour, to the extent of identifying a trait, suggested they needed to “be more confident!” (Recruit 18, Time 3). While confidence would not necessarily result in the impression of being more professional, it is likely to assist in creating that perception. The reduction in items following interview training may be due to recruits being more comfortable in their persona due to practice, or they may be focusing on those aspects of the interview more identifiable linked with investigative outcomes.

**Nothing.**

Eighteen (48.6%) recruits either did not respond, were not sure what to improve, or did not believe there was anything to improve in their interview on at least one of the four occasions, with 11 (29.7%) recruits indicating one of these
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responses on more than one occasion and 1 (2.7%) recruit indicating one of these responses on all four occasions. Three recruits specifically stated that at their current stage they were not sure what improvements could be made, or that they were performing to the best of their current abilities (one at Times 1 and 2). These responses are consistent with not having completed interview training which occurred prior to interviews at Time 3; the limited insight into how to improve interview performance is expected and understandable at Times 1 and 2. However, at Time 3 when asked what could be done differently, one recruit stated, "Nothing – I think I owned that interview (if I do say so myself)". For the 10 recruits who did not identify any areas for improvement at Time 3 and/or Time 4, this may be an indication they need training in self-evaluation as the findings presented in Chapter 4 show that no recruits covered all key components of the interview.

Conclusion

In terms of interpreting findings, the context of analysing recruits’ responses to the question, “If you could conduct the interview again, what would you do differently?” is different to analysing what recruits include in plans and cover in interviews. In the latter, interpretation of findings focuses on identifying what aspects of the interview recruits consider most important to plan or cover. In contrast, the interpretation of findings with regard to recruits’ responses in their self-evaluations focuses on what recruits believe is in need of improvement. This need for improvement has two components; firstly, what recruits believe they need to perform more effectively and, secondly, what recruits believe is important in conducting a quality interview.

The category with the greatest proportion of recruits including relevant items to improve (rather than Nothing) was Questioning. The next most populated categories were Structure and Procedure, with substantially less recruits including relevant items. These categories were then followed by Note-taking, Interview persona, Preparation and planning, and Rapport building which all had a similar number of recruits who had included relevant items in their self-evaluations. The higher proportion of recruits including items relevant to the Questioning category reflects the common finding with regard to the content of plans and interviews, with more recruits focusing on aspects of the interview pertaining to the account. While commonly noted, this is not necessarily a negative finding as the purpose of the
interview is to elicit a full account, and appropriate questioning is an important factor. However, in the context of analysing recruits’ self-evaluations, it is also an encouraging finding in that recruits are able to identify the need for improvement and importance of questioning in interviews. Following interview training, recruits increased inclusion of items relating to Structure and Procedure further indicate the impact of training on recruits’ interviewing practices. In contrast to the interpretation of findings with regard to plans and interviews, the decrease in items in categories (for example, Rapport building), does not necessarily indicate recruits do not place importance on those categories. Rather, recruits may believe their performance has improved such that alternative aspects of the interview require comparatively more improvement.

In terms of changes in the way recruits articulate their responses, items included in self-evaluations generally increase in specificity following specific points in training. This finding reflects recruits’ ability to simultaneously identify and articulate aspects of the interview that need to be improved and aspects of the interview that are important in ensuring a quality interview. Consistent with the ‘unskilled and unaware’ literature, recruits are able to more clearly articulate areas for improvement as they receive additional training.

Recruits’ responses to the question, “If you could conduct the interview again, what would you do differently?” provides insight into what aspects of the interview recruits believe could be improved if conducted again. While the question refers to changing the interview most recently conducted, rather than asking the recruit what they would like to improve in a subsequent interview, it is possible to interpret the responses in the context of what aspects of interviewing the recruit would like to improve upon. To that end, the final phase of analysis in this chapter considers how self-evaluation items change interviewing practices; namely, plans and interviews.

**Phase III**

Having considered the responses of recruits to the question, “If you could conduct this interview again, what would you do differently?” the third phase of analysis examines whether recruits’ self-evaluations at Time 3 impact interviewing practices at Time 4; that is, plans and interviews. While recruits (and police officers) are encouraged to engage in evaluative activities as per the Evaluation stage of the
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PEACE model, it is unclear whether these activities impact interviewing practices. With regard to self-evaluation, the benefit of recruits undertaking this activity is immense in terms of resource management as, if it is found to positively impact interviewing practices, recruits can be engaging in practices to improve performance at little cost to the police service. If self-evaluation does not positively impact interviewing practices, or only impacts certain aspects of the interview, consideration needs to be given to training recruits in reflective practice. This section of the chapter contains a method, combined results and interim discussion, and conclusion, each specific to the third phase of analysis. The findings of this phase will then be discussed in the context of the findings from Phases I and II in the chapter discussion at the conclusion of the chapter.

Method

As with the analysis presented in Phases I and II of this chapter, the categories developed through the inductive analysis of recruits’ responses to the question, “If you could conduct this interview again, what would you do differently?” have been used to structure the results and interim discussion with regard to how recruits’ self-evaluations at Time 3 impact interviewing practices at Time 4. Specifically, the analysis considers the extent to which recruits incorporate items in their self-evaluations at Time 3 in their plans and interviews at Time 4. Details of the analysis can be found in Chapter 2.

The recruits’ self-evaluation items from Time 3 were examined under the subheadings of the seven categories (no recruits recorded items relating to Rapport building at Time 3) identified through content analysis and reported in Phases I and II of this chapter. Although keeping the categories consistent across the three phases of analysis is important to contextualise findings, the development of sub-categories in this stage was completed in isolation. That is, the self-evaluation items within the broader categories were analysed to determine sub-categories, without reference to those sub-categories identified in Phase II of this chapter. The rationale for this decision was that the items included in the self-evaluations at Time 3 were more specific than when considering the self-evaluation items across the four occasions. Therefore, the sub-categories reflect the increasing specificity of recruits’ responses. The broader category Questioning contained the sub-categories of Increase questions, Decrease questions, and Particular questions to ask; Note-taking contained
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the sub-category of Clarity and structure; Interviewer persona contained the sub-categories of Slowing down and relaxing, and Demeanour; and Structure contained the sub-categories of Summarising and Order of particular aspects and backtracking. Preparation and planning, Procedure, and Nothing did not contain any sub-categories.

Results and Interim Discussion

Questioning.

Eighteen recruits included items relating to Questioning in their self-evaluations. There were a number of discernible sub-categories within Questioning: Increase questions (\(N = 7\)), Decrease questions (\(N = 7\)), and Particular questions to ask (\(N = 4\)).

Increase questions.

Seven recruits identified wanting to increase particular types of questions or wanting to ask them more effectively in their self-evaluations, with three recruits identifying questions relating to TEDS and/or 5W1H and four recruits identifying probing questions as areas to change. The specific items included by recruits in their self-evaluations were: “Work on using the TEDS / WWWWH techniques more effectively” (Recruit 6), “Drill into each topic further” (Recruit 19), “Try use more 5W x IM [sic] questions” (Recruit 21), “Use more TEDS questions” (Recruit 22), “Asked more open questions…” (Recruit 37), “Make sure I probe each topic better/in more depth” (Recruit 23), “Go into more detail of items” (Recruit 28), “Ask some probing questions” (Recruit 33).

In terms of analysing the incorporation of these self-evaluation items into plans, recruits’ plans were examined for reference to utilising particular question types. In terms of interviews, recordings and/or transcripts were examined to determine where particular types of questions were utilised. However, the context of the interview was also taken into account. For example, in some interviews the limited use of probing questions was a clear issue, whereas in other interviews the account provided was comprehensive without the need for follow-up questions to be asked.

Impact on plans.

With regard to recruits’ incorporation of self-evaluation items relating to increasing certain types of questions in the plans for Time 4, only two of the seven
recruits demonstrated changes consistent with the incorporation of self-evaluation items in their plans at Time 4 when compared to Time 3. Only one of the three recruits wanting to increase the use of TEDS or 5W1H (or to use these more effectively) made changes between plans at Times 3 and 4 that may be interpreted as being in response to the self-evaluation item. That is, the recruits included more items relevant to question type in their plans. Recruit 6, who identified needing to use TEDS and 5W1H questions more effectively, underlining 5W1H in the plan at Time 4 and not at Time 3. No substantive changes in the plans of the two other recruits identifying this area for change were noted. The four recruits’ incorporation of items relevant to asking more probing questions in their plans at Time 4 was mixed, with one recruit increasing the amount of relevant items, one recruit decreasing the amount of relevant items, and two recruits remaining consistent. Relevant items included the inverted question type triangle (the triangle visually demonstrates the need to use mostly TEDS questions, then 5W1H questions, and the least closed questions), and reference to identifying and expanding topics as part of the Free Recall model.

Impact on interviews.

With regard to interviews, no changes consistent with the incorporation of self-evaluation items were noted in the use of the identified question types between interviews at Time 4 compared to Time 3. In contrast, all recruits who identified wanting to increase their use of TEDS or 5W1H questions (or use them more effectively) appeared to ask less of the types of questions they identified. For example, Recruit 22, who identified the need to ask more TEDS questions, asked comparatively less of these questions at Time 4 when compared to Time 3. Recruit 21, who identified the need to ask more 5W1H questions, elicited a less detailed response in Time 4, although was able to cover broad aspects of the offence relating to 5W1H. However, there was opportunity for follow-up questions in Time 4 relating to areas covered by 5W1H that were not taken by the recruit. For example, the recruit asked, “And something that I didn’t ask about them before is, are they male or female?” When the witness replied they did not know, the recruit did not ask follow-up questions to gain additional information to be used for ascertaining the sex of the individual. Recruit 6, who had shown a change in planning, used less TEDS questions at Time 4 and did not increase the amount of 5W1H questions, although
the recruit managed to elicit relevant details from the witness regarding the offence. To that end, the TEDS and 5W1H techniques were not utilised more effectively.

None of the four recruits identifying the need to ask more probing questions appeared to ask noticeably more of this type of question, nor did they elicit more detail, in the interviews at Time 4 when compared to Time 3. Examination of the interviews at Time 3 shows there were opportunities where follow-up questions may have assisted in eliciting a more comprehensive account.

**Decrease questions.**

Seven recruits identified needing to minimize the use of particular question types in their self-evaluations. Four recruits cited the need to limit closed questions and three recruits cited the need to limit leading questions. The specific items included by recruits in their self-evaluations were: “I asked some leading questions would try to stop that” (Recruit 5), “Try and eliminate leading questions” (Recruit 19), “Still need to work on questioning – way I ask – not leading” (Recruit 20), “Try to remove closed / negative questions” (Recruit 26), “I used closed questions but she expanded on it for me” (Recruit 31), “I asked to [sic] many closed questions – I need to practice my questions – the way they are worded” (Recruit 32), “…avoid some closed” (Recruit 37).

In terms of analysing the incorporation of these self-evaluation items into plans, there are multiple approaches to incorporate planning to decrease the number of closed items in an interview. All four recruits who identified closed questions as an area for improvement in their self-evaluations had included TEDS in their plans at Times 3 and 4. Although recruits identifying the use of TEDS questions as a specific area to improve were analysed separately, reference to TEDS in plans is considered indicative of intention to change question type, particularly in the absence of items explicitly noting the importance of less closed questions. With regard to analysing the incorporation of planning to decrease the number of leading questions in an interview, rather than only acknowledging items directly referring to the use of leading questions, items relating to asking appropriate question types were considered relevant (e.g., TEDS, 5W1H). The analysis of the use of closed and leading questions in the interviews was not based on calculating numbers of these types of questions. Rather, the interviews were examined in context as the interviews at Times 3 and 4 concerned different offences, were conducted with different witnesses, and were different lengths. Further, while leading questions should not be
used at all, the use of closed questions is appropriate in some instances to clarify information, particularly when a witness is not forthcoming in their account. It also became apparent that self-evaluations were not always reflective of recruits’ actual performance. Examination of the interviews of Recruit 26 indicated the recruit might have distorted their perception of the prevalence of negatively phrased questions in their interview at Time 3. While this aspect of the interview did not appear to have improved at Time 4, the use of negative questions did not appear problematic in either interview.

*Impact on plans.*

With regard to recruits’ incorporation of items relating to decreasing certain types of questions in the plans for Time 4, only one of the seven demonstrated changes consistent with the incorporation of the self-evaluation items in their plans at Time 4 when compared to Time 3. While two recruits identifying the need to decrease leading questions made changes in their plans, these were not perceived as constituting an overall increase in relevant items. For example, Recruit 31 had an expanded version of TEDS in both plans but in Time 4 it was on the proforma (and not annotated, highlighted or circled), rather than at Time 3 where it was written by the recruit. Arguably, it was the plan in Time 3 that showed most attention to the inclusion of TEDS as the recruit would have intentionally written it. In contrast, the plan prepared by Recruit 37 at Time 4 appeared to show more attention to TEDS as it contained an expanded version, rather than just the mnemonic included at Time 3. The remaining two recruits were consistent with their representation of TEDS on plans at both occasions.

Of the three recruits who identified leading questions to change, the self-evaluation items appeared to have limited impact on plans. While one recruit included less items relating to questioning in the plan at Time 4, two recruits made positive changes but the cumulative result was nullified. That is, they increased the number of relevant items in relation to some aspect, while decreasing the number in relation to another; for example, one recruit included an expanded version of ADVOKATE in the plan at Time 4 when only the mnemonic was included in the plan at Time 3, and included the expanded version of TEDS at Time 3 and only the mnemonic at Time 4.
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Impact on interviews.

With regard to interviews, only one recruit appeared to make changes consistent with the incorporation of self-evaluation items between interviews at Time 4 compared to Time 3. While one of the four recruits who identified the need to decrease closed questions achieved this aim, each of the four recruits tended to increase the number of open or at least indirect questions. Similarly, the use of leading questions was not decreased by the three recruits who identified this issue in their self-evaluations. However, leading questions did not appear to form a large proportion of interview questions.

The reduction in closed questions by Recruit 37 also corresponded with noticeably more open questions in their interview at Time 4. The improvement for this recruit may have been impacted by the self-evaluation item including reference to what they would like to increase and decrease; that is, more open questions and less closed questions, rather than only referring to one type of question. With regard to the recruits identifying the need to decrease the use of closed questions, Recruit 31 explicitly indicated their intention to avoid closed questions in the interview at Time 4, “Um was there anything, um. I’m just going to ask a closed question, was there any markings on the jacket?” The recruit is not successful in removing closed questions entirely, and in the example above has also used a leading question; however, uses open questions to elicit descriptions and generally confines closed questions to requesting follow-up information.

The use of leading questions is arguably more simple to ascertain as there are no situations where using this type of question is appropriate in this context. Upon examination of the interviews, there were no substantive changes in the use of leading questions between the interviews at Times 3 and 4 by any of the three recruits citing this as an area for improvement.

Particular questions to ask.

Two recruits identified approaches to questioning, rather than question types, and two recruits identified particular questions to ask in their self-evaluations. The items included by recruits in their self-evaluations regarding approaches to questioning were: “ask questions slightly different” (Recruit 7) and “I don’t think I was clear enough when asking the witness to describe parts of the story… I needed to be clearer with parameters like “start from X, take me up to Y” (Recruit 34). The specific items included by recruits in their self-evaluations regarding particular
questions to ask were: “Go a bit further in depth about clothes description age” (Recruit 4) and “…explain the direction of the POI went a bit better” (Recruit 29).

Analysing recruits’ incorporation of the items related to approaches to questioning and particular questions to ask was simple where the direction was clear; for example, with providing parameters for the account, and asking about descriptions of people and the direction of the POI. The plans and interviews at Times 3 and 4 could be checked for reference to these items. However, the analysis of the incorporation of “ask questions slightly differently” in plans and interviews was more difficult. With regard to analysis, asking questions differently was inferred to mean asking more appropriate questions; for example, increased open questions, TEDS, 5W1H, and limiting closed and leading questions. As such, plans and interviews were examined with regard to reference to these question types.

*Impact on plans.*

With regard to plans, neither of the two recruits identifying approaches to questioning made, or the two recruits identifying particular questions to ask, made changes consistent with the incorporation of the self-evaluation item in plans at Time 4 compared to Time 3. That is, changes were made between plans at Times 3 and 4, but there were no cumulative changes consistent with the incorporation of the self-evaluation item. For example, with regard to approaches to questioning, analysis of the plans prepared at Times 3 and 4 showed Recruit 7 who wanted to “ask questions slightly differently” demonstrated more engagement with relevant items in the proforma at Time 3; however, the recruit made more additional notes regarding questioning in the plan prepared at Time 4. Neither plan prepared by Recruit 34 provides any instruction or prompting regarding specific aspects of facilitating the account of the witness. Regarding the two recruits identifying particular questions to ask, one recruit had included a relevant item in both plans and the other had not included a relevant item in either plan.

*Impact on interviews.*

With regard to interviews, one of the two recruits identifying approaches to questioning and both of the recruits identifying particular questions to ask demonstrated changes consistent with the incorporation of self-evaluation items in their interview at Time 4 when compared to Time 3. Recruit 7, who identified “ask questions slightly differently” in the self-evaluation, did not show a cumulative improvement in questioning, although it could be argued that the questions were
asked differently. However, for the purpose of analysis this recruit was identified as not showing changes consistent with the incorporation of the self-evaluation item. For example, the interview at Time 4 contained comparatively more open questions than at Time 3. However, the recruit also asked more leading questions at Time 4 when compared to the interview at Time 3, with no overall improvement observed in questioning at Time 4. In contrast, Recruit 34 was more clear with the witness at Time 4, explaining the approach to questioning prior to asking for the initial account and giving clear parameters when breaking down the account, “Okay, so can you talk to me, you said you were walking down Leeder Street, can you talk to me about a bit before that, where you were coming from, and then take me up to sort of when you were coming towards the tavern.” While the recruit was able to be specific in this first instance, the remaining attempts provided an initial parameter but did not indicate to the witness where the account should conclude. Given the specificity of the evaluation item, this recruit’s performance provides an indication of the utility of self-evaluation as the recruit has demonstrated the change unambiguously in the interview following the self-evaluation.

With regard to items relating to particular questions to ask the witness, both recruits demonstrated changes in their interview consistent with the incorporation of the self-evaluation items. Recruit 4 again failed to ask for a description of any other people involved in the offence at Time 4. However, the recruit did question the witness regarding the age and clothes of the offender. Recruit 29 persisted in questioning regarding the direction the offender went after the offence and asked the witness to draw a sketch showing the direction of travel. To that end, the questioning process appeared more structured than in the interview at Time 3.

**Summary of Questioning.**

Overall, the findings with regard to self-evaluation items relating to Questioning suggest the self-identification of items for improvement has limited impact on plans. While some recruits incorporated additional items relating to some aspects of Questioning, they often decreased the number of items relating to other aspects. In this way, the impact was nullified. Further, with regard to including items relevant to approaches to questioning or particular questions to ask in the plan at Time 4, it may be that recruits who identify such particular areas for improvement do not remember them when preparing for their next interviews. The regular review of previous interviews, in terms of notes and self-evaluations, at the point of preparing
for subsequent interviews may assist police officers in implementing changes identified following earlier interviews. The results presented in Chapter 3 suggest that recruits do include items in their plans relating to questioning, including specific aspects relating to the offence and people involved. While there is no discernible increase in relevant planning related to this category, recruits are including relevant items in their plans. As such, there is not necessarily a need to increase the amount of planning; rather, it may be more about the way items are written.

In terms of the impact of self-evaluation items relating to Questioning on interviews, it appears that the main impact was in increasing open questions and remedying specific aspects of questioning (e.g., asking particular questions). Recruits wanting to ask less leading and more TEDS questions were generally unsuccessful, whereas recruits identifying wanting to ask less closed questions and more open questions were, to some extent, able to succeed in modifying their questioning in the interview at Time 4. To that end, it may be that focusing on what not to do is more effective in influencing performance than focusing on what to do.

In interpreting the findings it is difficult to determine how much the responses to the evaluation question were impacted by training rather than actual reflection on the recruit’s behalf. It may be that recruits’ are hyper aware of the detrimental question types, and how they should be asking questions, they assume their interviews contain poor questioning. This observation may explain the recruits identifying the need to improve leading questions when the use of closed and indirect questions is more apparent. However, the limited success for recruits in making corresponding changes in their interviews suggests that it is easier for recruits to identify problems with questioning than it is to make changes.

**Note-taking.**

Six recruits included items relating to Note-taking in their self-evaluations. There were two discernible sub-categories within Note-taking: Clarity and structure (\(N = 5\)), and Amount and sketch (\(N = 2\)). For the analysis of items in this particular category, reference is made to the content of plans and notes prepared by the recruits.

**Clarity and structure.**

Five recruits identified clarity or structure of their notes as needing improvement in their self-evaluations. The specific items included by recruits in their self-evaluations were: “Make notes more flowing” (Recruit 7), “Try to write better
notes” (Recruit 13), “Make clearer topic boxes” (Recruit 20), “Structure the notes better so they’re easier to read later on” (Recruit 36).

In terms of assessing recruits’ incorporation of items relevant to clarity and structure in their plans, recruits’ plans were examined for reference to note-taking generally or reference to the statement, given the important of clarity and structure for preparation of the statement following the interview. Recruits’ notes were considered with reference to their structure and clarity for use in the preparation of witness statements following the interview.

Impact on plans.

With regard to plans, none of the recruits made changes consistent with the incorporation of the self-evaluation item in plans at Time 4 compared to Time 3. That is, changes were made between plans at Times 3 and 4, but there were no cumulative changes consistent with the incorporation of the self-evaluation item. In terms of changes between Times 3 and 4, three recruits were consistent in the types of items in this area included in plans, and two recruits included less items related to this area in their plans at Time 4 when compared to Time 3, with no recruits increasing their planning relating to any aspect of note-taking.

Impact on interview (notes).

With regard to notes, four of the five recruits’ notes demonstrated changes consistent with the incorporation of self-evaluation items at Time 4 when compared to Time 3. The structure of four of the five recruits’ notes appeared to improve at Time 4. One recruit used a similar structure for notes at Times 3 and 4, but the notes at Time 4 contained less detail. In the context of notes being easier to read later on, having the notes set out by topics (either topic boxes or just structured according to topic) would assist with writing a statement at a later date. Both sets of notes list the contact details of the witness and key words from their account and the recruit then makes notes based on the topics covered in the interview. To that end, the notes can be used to prepare a statement at a later date; however, the notes made at Time 4 are less detailed than those at Time 3 which may decrease their value.

Amount and sketch.

One recruit cited “Spend less time on my note taking” (Recruit 15) and one recruit identified wanting to prepare a “Better sketch” (Recruit 7). In terms of analysing the incorporation of these self-evaluation items into plans, with regard to “Spend less time on my note taking”, rather than assessing the time in minutes used
to write notes, the notes from Time 3 and Time 4 were analysed to determine whether there was a change in the level of detail recorded, as this would indicate the amount of attention paid to note-taking during the interview. In terms of analysing the sketches, there was difficulty with comparison as the offence depicted at Time 3 was more complicated than the offence depicted at Time 4. To that end, it would be expected that the sketch at Time 4 would be more detailed. As such, note was taken of the manner in which the recruit asked for the sketches and resulting detail.

Impact on plans.

With regard to plans, there were no changes consistent with the incorporation of self-evaluation items noted between Times 3 and 4. The recruit wishing to decrease their note-taking made no reference to note-taking in their plans at Times 3 or 4. With regard to the self-evaluation item relating to the sketch, the plan for the interview at Time 3 included the item, “Sketch” under the heading, “Account”, whereas the plan at Time 4 included the item, “Sketch” in the notes under the heading, “Closure”. Aside from the position of the item on the plan there were no other differences so it would appear the self-evaluation item affected the recruit’s planning at Time 4.

Impact on notes.

With regard to the recruits’ incorporation of self-evaluation items in interviews, the recruit wishing to decrease the amount of notes taken achieved this aim. However, there was no change consistent with the incorporation of the self-evaluation item relating to the sketch. At Time 3 the recruit who had identified wanting to write less notes listed the witness’ contact details, key words to form topic boxes, and key information under topic headings. The notes consisted of two and a half A4 pages. At Time 4 the recruit again wrote key words and then summarised areas of the interview under topic headings, but did not write the witness’ contact details. The notes consisted of one A4 page. In terms of detail, the notes included at Time 4 were briefer, but the offence itself was simpler as there were less people involved.

The recruit wanting to prepare a “Better sketch” requested a sketch in the interviews at Times 3 and 4. In Time 3 the recruit asked the witness, “Could I get you to draw on here a little sketch for me?” followed by instructions regarding what to include; for example, where the vehicle was parked, the location of the bus stop, and the relevant streets. In Time 4 the recruit also asks the witness to draw a sketch,
“I’ll just get you to do a quick sketch…” and follows this request by asking for particular details. The recruit does not ask for any additional detail than would have been the equivalent in Time 3 and the sketch produced by the witness is similar in level of detail and clarity when compared to the sketch at Time 3. It is interesting to note that it is considered good practice in England and Wales to provide the witness with a pen and paper at the beginning of the interview so they can draw a sketch when they choose, rather than the interviewer dictating the point at which a sketch is required. This process would not eliminate the need for a recruit or officer to follow up on the sketch if, for example, the witness had not spontaneously drawn one during the interview, or one was drawn but was lacking in detail. However, it may reduce some of the anxiety with trying to remember to ask the witness to draw the sketch as the presence of pen and paper would provide a prompt.

**Summary of Note-taking.**

Overall, there were limited changes in performance following reflection upon note-taking, with no observable increase in the planning for said changes. With the exception of, “Make clearer topic boxes”, the self-evaluation items within the Clarity and structure sub-category relate to the use of the notes at a later time; namely, in the preparation of the witness statement. The observation regarding topic boxes may be relevant for the preparation of a statement but it is also relevant for assisting the recruit to structure the interview around what aspects of the account need to be explored with the witness. The only item that appears to have been incorporated into the interview at Time 4 is the identification of the need to reduce note-taking which did occur between Times 3 and 4 for that recruit. As neither plan contained any reference to notes, or note-taking, the change in recruits’ practice of note-taking cannot be attributed to inclusion in the plan at Time 4. While the change may be because the offence at Time 4 was simpler with regard to the number of people involved, it appears the recruit was more conscious of note-taking, and perhaps its ability to detract from communication with the witness, and has reduced the amount recorded. Recruits including items relating to note-taking in their evaluations tended to write more at Time 3 when compared to Time 4 so for the recruit that specifically stated this intention it may not have eventuated as a result of the reflection; rather, it may have been a result of the general pattern towards writing less detailed notes. As recruits gain more confidence regarding what notes are necessary for writing...
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statements it would be expected that their notes would reflect this knowledge and they would become more succinct.

**Interviewer Persona.**

Seven recruits included items relating to Interviewer persona in their self-evaluations. There were two discernible sub-categories within Interviewer persona: Slowing down and relaxing ($N = 5$), and Demeanour ($N = 2$).

**Slowing down and relaxing.**

Five recruits cited slowing down or relaxing in their self-evaluations. The specific items included by recruits in their self-evaluations were: “Not get pressured by the witness’ attitude and do what I have to do” (Recruit 2), “Take more time” (Recruit 6), “Relax!” (Recruit 12), “Spend a bit more time in conclusion and follow up. Was in a bit of a rush” (Recruit 14), and “Slow down a bit” (Recruit 23). The analysis of these self-evaluation items in terms of their impact on plans and interviews was inherently subjective given the content of the items. However, plans were analysed for items relevant to slowing down and/or relaxing, for reference to the Closure stage of the interview for the recruits citing this as a particular aspect requiring change. With regard to the interviews, the pace of speech was noted in terms of slowing down and relaxing, as well as the manner in which the recruit presented.

**Impact on plans.**

With regard to recruits’ incorporation of self-evaluation items relating to slowing down or relaxing in their plans, only one of the five recruits showed changes consistent with the incorporation of self-evaluation items in the plans for Time 4 when compared to Time 3. Recruit 14, who stated, “Spend a bit more time in the conclusion and follow-up. Was in a bit of a rush”, demonstrated a change in their planning and included more items relating to Closure in the plan at Time 4 when compared to the plan at Time 3.

**Impact on interviews.**

With regard to interviews, all recruits citing the need to slow down or relax demonstrated changes consistent with the incorporation of the self-evaluation items in their interviews at Time 4 when compared to Time 3. While each of the recruits citing the need to slow down or relax improved in the identified aspect of their interview at Time 4, the improvement was more noticeable in some recruits’ interviews. For example, Recruit 23, who identified needing to “Slow down a bit”,

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explained instructions more completely to the witness. In the interview at Time 3, the recruit stated, “Um, feel free to say you don’t know” whereas in the interview at Time 4 the recruit stated, “Feel free to say you don’t know. I’d prefer you say you don’t know than make something up, not just make something up but take a guess, make an assumption”. It is difficult to determine the extent to which recruits improve by virtue of additional practice at interviewing, or the influence of the witness. In their self-evaluation Recruit 2 identified needing to “Not get pressured by the witness’ attitude and do what I have to do”. The recruit appeared more at ease in the interview at Time 4 as evidenced by a more casual approach, “Terrific, okay, so I’ll just write down today’s date. The second, can’t believe it’s February already”. However, the witness in Time 4 appeared more personable from the beginning of the interview and it may be that their willingness to engage was the cause of the perceived change in the recruit’s comfort levels. Recruit 14 who included additional items in the plan at Time 4 relating to Closure, provided a final summary in the interview at Time 4 that was missing at Time 3. However, the conclusion of the interview was no less rushed in Time 4.

**Demeanour.**

Two recruits cited aspects of their demeanour in their self-evaluations. The specific items included by recruits in their self-evaluations regarding demeanour were: “Try to remove ummms” (Recruit 26) and “Be more confident” (Recruit 18). As with regard to analysing plans in relation to self-evaluation items concerning Slowing down and relaxing, the analysis of self-evaluation items concerning demeanour was inherently subjective given the content of the items. However, plans were analysed for items relevant to demeanour, for example, using a particular way of speaking, or adopting a professional persona. With regard to interviews, it was easier to analyse the interviews at Times 3 and 4 with regard to the perception of “ummm” contained in the interview than it was to assess the confidence of the recruit, as this is a subjective measure based on the researcher’s perceptions. To that end, the recruit’s interviews were analysed for noticeable differences between Times 3 and 4 and these differences were analysed to determine whether they might be a result of changing levels of confidence.
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Impact on plans

With regard to incorporating self-evaluation items related to demeanour, neither recruit demonstrated changes consistent with the incorporation of the self-evaluation items in their plans for Time 4 when compared to Time 3. Neither of the recruits who had included the items, “Try to remove umms” or, “Be more confident” demonstrated changes in their plans between Times 3 and 4 with respect to including items relating to demeanour.

Impact on interviews

With regard to interviews, neither recruit citing aspects of their demeanour demonstrated a change consistent with the incorporation of the self-evaluation items in their interviews. In terms of changes in interviews between Times 3 and 4 with regard to the use of “umm”, this was more pronounced when the recruit was speaking at length. During the Engage and explain and Closure stages of the interview when the recruit provides instructions regarding procedure, the recruit used “umm” to punctuate sentences, and this was not noticeably reduced at Time 4. With regard to assessing the incorporation of the self-evaluation item, “Be more confident”, the recruit appeared confident in both interviews, with no noticeable differences between the two occasions. The same issue regarding instructions was present in both interviews, when the recruit informed the witness they would be writing notes after the initial account was given, rather than beforehand. To that extent, the disorganisation may have reflected a lack of confidence but this was observed in both interviews. It also may be that the recruit was not describing the need to project a confident persona in the interview; rather, it may have been about their inner confidence, in which case it would not necessarily be detectable in the interview if the recruit were able to appear confident without feeling confident.

Summary of Interviewer persona.

In terms of planning for aspects related to Interview persona, none of the recruits identifying this as an area for improvement included relevant items in their plans. While one recruit included additional items relating to the area for improvement, the Closure stage of the interview, there were no items included that relating to slowing down. With the exception of Recruit 26’s use of “umms”, recruits demonstrated improvement in their ability to appear confident and at ease regarding the interview process between the interviews at Times 3 and 4, but this improvement
may be due to the additional practice in interviewing and increased confidence as recruits concluded their training at the Academy.

Preparation and planning.

Three recruits included items relating to Preparation and planning in their self-evaluations. However, only one of these was assessable using the plans and interviews collected. Two of the recruits included items pertaining to events outside the interview process itself; namely, “Do it when I am well fed and not tired as I’d be more on the ball” (Recruit 30) and “Get more sleep the night before” (Recruit 35). It is obviously not possible to determine whether the recruits did incorporate these items for their final interviews but the third recruit included a response that was assessable, identifying the need to “… prepare more investigative areas” (Recruit 6).

This self-evaluation item was only examined by reference to its impact on the plan at Time 4, as it pertained to preparation, rather than incorporation of the item in the interview. While the response, “Prepare more investigative areas”, may not have been referring to formal planning, the plans from Time 3 and Time 4 were compared to determine if there was a change in planning with regard to investigative areas.

Impact on the plan.

With regard to the incorporation of the self-evaluation item in the plan, no change consistent with the incorporation of the self-evaluation item were noted in the plan at Time 4 when compared with Time 3. The plan at Time 3 utilised the police-generated proforma and included additional annotations; the 5W1H section contained two example questions and investigate areas were written in the Investigatively important section of the proforma. The plan at Time 4 also utilised the proforma, with individual items of 5W1H underlined on the proforma and investigative areas to be explored written in the 5W1H section rather than in the Investigatively important areas section. Plans for both interviews included the additional instruction to “probe”. Overall, there were similar numbers of items relating to investigative areas at Times 3 and 4 suggesting the inclusion of the item in the recruits’ self-evaluation at Time 3 did not impact their planning, to the extent that the written plan would be representative of this, at Time 4. Rather than including more items in their plan, the recruit may have spent more time thinking though investigative areas prior to the interview or been more mindful of investigative areas to explore during the interview.
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Procedure.

Three recruits included items relevant to Procedure in their self-evaluations. The specific items included by recruits in their self-evaluations were: “Forgot to tell him was being recorded but for a compliant witness it probably wouldn’t be recorded anyway” (Recruit 8), “Explain that it could go to court” (Recruit 18), and “Victim support… witness to sign diagram + collect at end” (Recruit 22). As the items were related to specific aspects of procedure, these were able to be analysed as either present or absent in plans and interviews.

Impact on plans.

With regard to plans, none of the recruits’ demonstrated changes consistent with the incorporation of self-evaluation items in their plans at Times 3 or 4. However, the recruit identifying the need to tell the interviewee it was being recorded did include “Explain procedure” in their plan at Time 4, which may be considered to incorporate this information.

Impact on interviews.

With regard to interviews, one recruit demonstrated a change consistent with the incorporation of the self-evaluation item in their interview at Time 4 when compared to Time 3. Recruit 22, who included the items, “Victim support” and “[Get] witness to sign diagram + collect at end” did not notify the witness of support services but did ask the witness to sign their sketch immediately after it was completed. Given the offence at Time 4 related to graffiti, the recruit may have assumed the witness did not require support, in contrast to the offence at Time 4 that was arguably more stressful as it involved a person stealing from a vehicle. In contrast, Recruit 8, who identified not informing the witness of recording the interview in their self-evaluation, did not inform the witness in Time 4, although the wording of the item itself suggested the recruit did not necessarily consider it to be problematic as the interview was not likely to have been recorded in the context of an actual interview. Recruit 18 also did not incorporate their item in the interview at Time 4; again not informing the witness the matter could end up in court.

The findings showed recruits were able to identify aspects of procedural detail not conducted, but they did not tend to incorporate these items into plans or interviews.
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Structure.

Ten recruits included items relating to Structure in their self-evaluations, with one recruit including two items relating to Structure. There were three discernible sub-categories within Structure: Summarising ($N = 3$), Topic boxes ($N = 2$), and Order of particular aspects and backtracking ($N = 6$).

Summarising.

Three recruits included items relating to summarising in their self-evaluations. The specific items included by recruits in their self-evaluations were: “Summarise” (Recruits 4 and 23) and “… summarise a bit better” (Recruit 24). To analyse the impact of self-evaluation items relating to summarising on plans and interviews, plans were examined for reference to summarising and interviews were examined for initial, topic, and final summaries.

Impact on plans.

With regard to recruits’ incorporation of items relating to summarising in the plans for Time 4, two of the three recruits demonstrated changes consistent with the incorporation of the self-evaluation item in their plans at Time 4 when compared to Time 3. Only one recruit’s plan included additional reference to summarising at Time 4 when compared to Time 3. However, another recruit’s planning changed to include reference to summarising in their notes at the bottom of designated topic boxes at Time 4, rather than in the content of the plan as at Time 3. As such, there appeared to be a cumulative increase in the representation of summarising in their planning. In contrast, the remaining recruit utilised a proforma containing “Summarise” at Time 3 but did not utilise this proforma at Time 4, nor did they include reference to summarising in their plan.

Impact on interviews.

With regard to interviews, only one of the three recruits demonstrated a change consistent with the incorporation of the self-evaluation item in their interview. There was limited cumulative improvement by recruits, although the recruit whose plan changed between Times 3 and 4 to include reference to summarising at the bottom of designated topic boxes included an additional topic summary during the interview. Similar to aspects of questioning, where one aspect is improved another deteriorates, the recruit who had reference to summarising in the proforma at Time 3 but no corresponding reference in their plan at Time 4 included
an additional summary half-way through the interview but did not include a final summary.

**Topic boxes.**

Two recruits included items relating to topic boxes in their self-evaluations. The specific items included by recruits in their self-evaluations were: “Stick to the topic boxes” (Recruit 16) and “Topic box… a bit better” (Recruit 24). To analyse recruits’ use of topic boxes, the notes taken by recruits were examined in addition to their plans and interviews. Plans were examined for reference to topic boxes and interviews were examined with regard to their structure. The recruits’ notes were examined to determine whether topic boxes had been used to organise the content of notes.

**Impact on plans**

With regard to plans, neither recruit demonstrated changes consistent with the incorporation of the self-evaluation item, and one recruit decreased the amount of relevant planning between Times 3 and 4. Recruit 16, who identified, “Stick to topic boxes”, did not include reference to topic boxes in their plan on either occasion. Recruit 24, who identified needing to “Topic box… a bit better”, utilised a police-generated proforma at Time 3 containing the items, “identify topics” and “expand on topics using probing questions” but there was no additional reference to topic boxes in the plan. The recruit did not utilise a proforma at Time 4 and the plan did not contain reference to topic boxes.

**Impact on interviews**

With regard to interviews, neither recruit demonstrated changes consistent with the incorporation of the self-evaluation item between Times 3 and 4. However, although there were no changes observed individually between Times 3 and 4, there was a distinct difference between the recruits’ interviews. That is, the interviews conducted by Recruit 16 appeared more structured than those conducted by Recruit 24. While the analysis presented in this research did not assess recruits performance per se, the interview by Recruit 16 at Time 3 appeared to be more comprehensive than at Time 4. As this change was also noted by the recruit in their interview, it may be that external factors may have contributed rather than de-training. While there were positive changes in summarising and questioning by Recruit 24, there were no noticeable changes in the use of topic boxes between Time 3 and Time 4. However, the interview itself appeared more structured, which is largely impacted by the
incorporation of additional summaries, also likely to delineate topics more effectively.

*Impact on interviews (notes).*

With regard to notes, neither recruit demonstrated changes consistent with the incorporation of the self-evaluation between Times 3 and 4. The notes written during the interviews by both recruits appeared to lose detail between Times 3 and 4, with Recruit 24 using the notes section as a drafted witness statement at Time 4 that was then signed by the witness.

*Order of particular aspects and backtracking.*

Five recruits included items relating to changing the order of particular aspects of the interview in their self-evaluations and one recruit also included an item relating to backtracking over material. The specific items included by recruits in their self-evaluations were: “Get sketch earlier… give P9 earlier” (Recruit 18), “Get personal details at the beginning” (Recruit 20), “Put ADVOKATE throughout not @ end” (Recruit 22), “Change the topics around slightly, asking about the car owner first” (Recruit 25), “Less backtracking (going over material already covered)” (Recruit 26) and “I would have asked for sketch earlier on in interview” (Recruit 27).

The analysis pertaining to the order of particular aspects of the interview required examination of plans and interviews for reference to these specific aspects. The analysis pertaining to the self-evaluation item related to backtracking was more complex, as it involved analysis of what may be referred to as backtracking and whether it was appropriate in the context of the interview.

*Impact on plans.*

With regard to plans, two of the five recruits made changes consistent with the incorporation of the self-evaluation items between Times 3 and 4. Recruit 18 identified wanting to “get sketch earlier!... Give P9 earlier”. The recruit does not include any items relating to sketches in the plans at Times 3 or 4. However, the items, “P9 – Incident number /contact details” are included in the plan at Time 4 in contrast to only the Incident Reference number at Time 3, showing an increase in representation in the plan at Time 4. Recruit 20, who identified wanting to “Get personal details at the beginning”, does not include any items relating to witness details in the plan at Time 3 but includes the item, “Witness details” in the plan at Time 4. While there is no reference to the timing of when to provide the P9 card or request contact details, the prompts on the plan may encourage recruits’ to think
further about their timing of these aspects of the interview. With regard to the incorporation of the item relating to less backtracking, the plans at Times 3 and 4 do not contain reference to the item specifically, or to any items assessed as relevant.

**Impact on interviews.**

With regard to interviews, there were no changes consistent with the incorporation of the self-evaluation items at Time 4 when compared to Time 3, although there are instances when the item was no longer relevant as it related to a specific aspect of the offence at Time 3. The order of aspects of the interview as identified by the recruits should have been relatively simple to incorporate in plans and interviews as they are specific instructions to the recruit and do not require practice or increased skill (e.g., in comparison to question types). A clear example is with regard to Recruit 20 wanting to ask the witness for contact details earlier. The recruit did not achieve this at Time 4 even though it is arguably one of the more intuitive aspects of the Engage and explain stage.

With regard to the incorporation of the item related to backtracking, there did not appear to be anything that may be described as backtracking sitting at odds in the context of either interview at Time 3 or 4. The interview at Time 3 did not appear to contain illogical backtracking (more than would be expected in terms of eliciting an account) but showed the recruit asking the witness to pause when she began describing a person and requested she elaborate later. For this particular recruit, there may have been a sense that the material was being covered multiple times whereas in reality it was requested, heard, and summarised which perhaps made it feel like it was repetitive.

**Summary of Structure.**

The incorporation of self-evaluation items related to Structure in the plans or interviews at Time 4 were those in the Summarising and Order of particular aspects sub-categories. The items identified as relating to Structure appear to be the type of items that could be relatively simply addressed in plans so it is surprising that so few recruits included prompts relating to those items in their plans at Times 3 or 4. This lack of incorporation may be due to the items being straightforward, as recruits may have believed the change would come without prompting. However, the incorporation in plans of items relating to summarising and the corresponding change in interviews (albeit limited) provides an indication that there is a need to
incorporate self-evaluation items into plans, and not just rely on the recruits’ memory of what they need to improve.

**Nothing.**

Five recruits indicated there was nothing they would improve, one recruit indicated they were not sure of what they would improve, and one recruit did not include any items in their self-evaluation at Time 3. One recruit was particularly confident when responding to the question of what they would do differently, stating, "Nothing – I think I owned that interview (if I do say so myself)” (Recruit 1).

Examination of the interview performance according to findings presented in Chapter 4 Phase III demonstrates that there were areas in which performance could be improved for all recruits. However, the percentage of recruits choosing not to include items in their evaluation decreased following interviews at Time 2, suggesting recruits are more readily able to reflect on their performance having completed interview training prior to interviews at Time 3.

**Conclusion**

Where recruits identified an aspect of their interview to conduct differently in their self-evaluations at Time 3, the most common categories were Questioning and Structure, with Interviewer persona, and Note-taking also featuring comparatively prominently. Considering the findings presented as a whole, it is evident that self-evaluations have limited impact on the content of plans and interviews. Where there was a discernible change, it generally related to performance in the interview rather than changes in the content of plans.

Examination of the incorporation of self-evaluation items in plans, not just interviews, is important because it may be that it is the plans that impact the interviews, rather than the self-evaluation. However, where items do not appear to have been incorporated into plans, the relationship between self-evaluation and interviews is more apparent. As there was no strict experimental design employed to isolate the impact of particular variables, it is important to note that change in plans or interviews that corresponds with self-evaluation items may be due to factors other than the process of self-evaluation. In particular, the impact of training and the use of proformas. The findings presented in Phases I and II of this chapter suggest interview training prior to interviews at Time 3 had an impact on items included in recruits’ self-evaluations and findings presented in Chapters 3 and 4 suggest interview
training had an impact on the content of plans and interviews. The potential impact of proformas is discussed in Chapter 2, as there is the possibility that recruits were impacted by the content of proformas rather than the process of reflection engaged in with regard to their self-evaluations.

In terms of changes in interview performance of aspects included in self-evaluations, recruits interviews appeared to change with regard to items relating to Questioning and Interviewer persona, with limited cumulative change corresponding with items related to Note-taking and Structure. There did not appear to be any corresponding change with regard to items relating to Preparation and planning and Procedure. The small number of recruits incorporating items relating to Procedure in their self-evaluations suggests that recruits are not identifying specific aspects of their interview to improve; rather, the focus is more around Questioning and Structure, which are more abstract areas for improvement, with the exception of those items identifying particular questions or structural areas to change. These observations tend to support the notion that recruits are able to reflect more broadly around performance, but it may also be that their reflections are based on what they have been taught to improve, or areas that may commonly be performed poorly, rather than focusing on their own performance. Alternatively, recruits may be confident in their performance of the procedural aspects of the interview. In terms of the content of plans and interviews, recruits increased their inclusion and coverage of items related to providing instructions to the witness regarding procedural matters at Time 3. As such, these may not have been areas perceived as needing improvement when completing their self-evaluations.

The corresponding change in interviews relating to specific aspects of questioning identified in self-evaluations is consistent with the findings presented in Phase III of Chapter 4 regarding the increased likelihood that there is a stronger relationship between the planning and coverage of the more specific or prescriptive components of the interview. The consistency of these findings, although limited to one occasion, suggests recruits are more able to implement changes where a specific aspect has been identified. As such, recruits should be encouraged to plan and self-evaluate specifically, rather than globally, to ensure the greatest impact on their interviews.
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Chapter Discussion

The findings presented in this chapter showed recruits did not identify many aspects of the interview to change in their self-evaluations. In contrast to the findings presented in Chapters 3 and 4 with regard to the content of plans and interviews, the mean number of items included in recruits’ self-evaluations was not impacted significantly by interview training. Consistent with findings in Chapters 3 and 4 regarding the broad content of plans and interviews, the category most commonly featured in recruits’ self-evaluations was Questioning, the category most connected to the Account stage of the interview. In terms of focus on process, rather than just content, it is encouraging to note the next most commonly featured categories in self-evaluations were Structure and Procedure. The prominence of these three categories indicate a focus on obtaining an account of the incident, but more importantly, awareness of the importance of the way this task was undertaken and its impact on the outcome of the interview. Although there were no significant changes with regard to the mean number of items included in self-evaluations, two categories, Questioning and Rapport, demonstrated changes following interview training. The percentage of recruits including items related to Questioning increased following interview training and the percentage of recruits including items related to Rapport building decreased.

A qualitative change was observed across the four occasions in the way recruits’ articulated their responses to the question, “If you could conduct this interview again, what would you do differently?” While the number of items relating to each category did not change significantly across time for most categories, items included in self-evaluations generally increased in specificity. This finding demonstrated the impact of training on providing recruits with the ability to more clearly identify aspects of the interview that need improving.

Analysis of the impact of self-evaluation items in Time 3 on plans and interviews at Time 4 revealed self-evaluations generally did not impact plans and had limited impact on interviews. There were changes consistent with the incorporation of self-evaluation items related to Questioning and Interviewer persona observed in interviews. With regard to the changes in Interviewer persona it was not clear whether the changes may be attributed to additional training and experience interviewing. The self-evaluation items that appeared to impact recruits’ interviews related to particular aspects of questioning, indicating recruits were more able to
implement changes when they were expressed specifically, rather than more broadly. This finding is consistent with those in Phase III of Chapter 4 indicating there was more likely to be a relationship between planning and coverage for the more specific or prescriptive components of the interview.

The inclusion of Evaluation as a stage in the PEACE model suggests the practice is considered important in the context of investigative interviewing. Arguably the most effective feedback provision is an integrated approach combining supervisor-, peer-, and self-evaluation (Tee & Ahmed, 2014). While other literature in the investigative interviewing context has examined the effect of supervision on interviewing (see e.g., Lamb, 2002), there is limited research examining the impact of self-evaluation on planning or interviewing practices. Self-evaluation is considered a learned behaviour that requires training (Sawdon & Finn, 2014; Schunk, 2003). In terms of facilitating self-evaluation, providing clear guidelines of what is expected is essential, in addition to ensuring the individual is aware of expectations (Schunk, 2003). Without providing the guidelines, there is no sense of what is required and no anchor upon which to base the self-evaluation. Requesting individuals to complete a structured self-evaluation and then having a third party provide feedback on the self-evaluation is one way to teach this skill (Schunk, 2003), and would be a relatively simple task to incorporate in the context of interviewing training. The findings presented in this chapter showed limited changes in the content of self-evaluations following training, indicating the need for recruits to be provided with guidance in the practice of self-evaluation and the incorporation of feedback to improve performance.

The number of recruits either not identifying any areas for improvement, or articulating that there are no aspects of their interview that needs improving, suggests a need for training in self-evaluation. These findings, along with the very small numbers of items identified by recruits as needing improvement, are consistent with the ‘unskilled and unaware’ phenomenon. Here, the suggestion is that those people who lack skill in an area, also lack the metacognitive ability to accurately perceive their own performance (Dunning et al., 2003; Kruger & Dunning, 1999). An alternative explanation, other than low metacognitive ability for limited capacity to accurately self-evaluate, is that individuals will over-inflate their abilities when they perceive the task to be important (Kim et al., 2015). In that way, the individual’s sense of competence is not compromised. In the context of recruits’ interviews with
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witnesses, the observation regarding the motivation for self-evaluation may manifest in two ways; either the recruits were invested as they were aware of the need to practice their skills and they wished to impress their instructors, or they were aware the interviews were in a mock-context and only used for training and research purposes, rather than in the field. If the former was true, those recruits may have overinflated their abilities in self-evaluation and would have been less likely to self-evaluate in a useful sense. However, if the latter was true, recruits’ self-evaluations may reflect their actual performance more closely.

In terms of the identifying particular aspects of the interview to improve, the importance of rapport building cannot be overstated in terms of interview outcomes (see e.g., Walsh & Bull, 2012), and police officers have consistently identified rapport related aspects of the interview as being important (Bull & Cherryman, 1996; Hartwig et al., 2012; Powell et al., 2009). The apparent shift by recruits to increase their focus on Questioning and decrease focus on Rapport following interview training is in contrast to the general pattern observed with regard to the content of plans and interviews, where recruits seemed to become more focused on aspects of the interview other than those related to the incident following interview training. However, it may be that recruits found it comparatively easier to identify and articulate aspects of the interview related to Questioning following interview training where this aspect of the interview would have been one of the main focuses. The finding that related items decreased following interview training does not necessarily mean recruits are not valuing its importance; rather, recruits may feel more comfortable in how they are engaging with the witness and do not see it as an area for improvement.

Research has suggested instruction will improve the ability to self-evaluate (Kruger & Dunning, 1999). Given the findings that evaluation, regardless of mode (be it supervisor, peer, or self) improves performance (Ozogul et al., 2008), it is surprising that greater improvement was not noted, or at least improvement across a larger number of categories. With regard to the improvement in Questioning and Interviewer persona in the close analysis of self-evaluations at Time 3, the improvement seen by recruits in both of these categories may have been due to the additional practice of conducting the interview, rather than as a result of reflection through the self-evaluation. However, the limited findings of improvement may in part have been a result of confining the sample analysed to determine the relationship.
between self-evaluation and interviewing practices to one occasion. The findings presented in this chapter suggested that recruits’ maintain their focus on the Account stage of the interview in their self-evaluations, but that improvement was also seen in aspects of the interview that are not related to the Account stage; namely, Interviewer persona.

The average number of items in self-evaluations was less than those in plans which, according to the goal-setting theory, should result in greater likelihood to perform the task (Locke & Byron, 1969). However, recruits demonstrated limited incorporation of self-evaluation items in either plans or interviews. The finding that recruits were more likely to incorporate specific self-evaluation items into their plans and interviews was consistent with the theory of goal-setting which suggested specific rather than vague goals were likely to result in greater improvement in performance than vague goals. Locke and Byron (1969) further stated that harder goals were more likely to result in improved performance than easier goals. However, the difficulty of goals was not assessed in the context of the present research.

The low numbers of items included by recruits in their self-evaluations may have been due to recruits’ limited ability to reflect on their performance and articulate aspects needing improvement, or perhaps they were able to reflect but did not believe many aspects required attention. It is also important to note recruits completed a number of additional items in the self-evaluation, and only the item pertaining to what they would do differently was analysed in this chapter. Further, the item included in the analysis for this chapter was the last item in the self-evaluation. As such, recruits may have been fatigued and lacking motivation to respond thoughtfully to the question. The finding of low numbers of items articulated in self-evaluations suggests there is scope for targeted training regarding the importance of self-evaluation and how to implement feedback, both from self-evaluation and external sources. While sample size is relevant for all chapters, there were a particularly small number of responses in the self-evaluation item evaluated for the present chapter. As such, findings should be interpreted with caution, taking into account that it is an exploratory study of what recruits identify as areas for improvement, how this changes following specific points in training, and whether self-evaluations impact interviews with regard to the specific item being analysed.
Recruits’ responses to the question, “If you could conduct this interview again, what would you do differently?” do not necessarily equate to recruits identifying what aspects of the interview they felt they performed poorly. It may be they focused on identifying aspects that would be easy to improve, or that they felt could realistically be improved. However, for the purposes of the present chapter, the responses were analysed using the interpretation that recruits identified areas for improvement. There may also have been a broad improvement in the quality of interviews that was not reflected in the analysis of the specific items included in self-evaluations. That is, the process of reflection engaged in by recruits may have led to an overall improvement that has not been noted as it was not the focus of analysis, rather than a change in the particular areas articulated in the self-evaluation. Further, it is also relevant to note there may have been changes in recruits’ subsequent plans and interviews had they been conducted as part of the research, as it has been noted than intention can have a delayed impact on behaviour (Locke, 1968).

While external evaluation of recruits’ and police officers’ interviewing is essential, the efficacy of self-evaluation has clear implications for policing resources as it is not cost-effective to provide individual feedback to recruits and police officers on a continuous basis. Close analysis of the impact of self-evaluations completed at Time 3 on the plans and interviews at Time 4 revealed recruits appeared most able to implement corresponding changes in their interviews relating to specific aspects of questioning. This relationship mirrored that with regard to plans and interviews, where a stronger relationship between planning and coverage was observed for the more specific or prescriptive components. These findings suggest recruits should be encouraged to engage in self-evaluation practices that identify more specific aspects of the interview to address, rather than identifying more global aspects, in order to maximise the impact of self-evaluations.
Chapter 6: General Discussion

Summary of Findings

The research presented in this thesis aimed to provide insight into the Preparation and planning and Evaluation stages of the PEACE model of investigative interviewing. In order to do so, a number of exploratory studies were conducted regarding the content of police recruits’ (recruits’) plans and self-evaluations, in addition to an exploration of how the content of plans impacts interviews and how the content of self-evaluations impacts plans and interviews. In order to provide a structured summary, the findings will be summarised and presented according to the chapters in which they appeared in the thesis.

Chapter 3

The findings presented in Chapter 3 show a consistent pattern of recruits focusing on content related to the offence, or the account of the offence, in their plans. Statistical analysis of the 11 categories indicated recruits focused on those categories related to the account of the witness; that is, Incident details, Legal procedure, and Interview procedure. When the content of plans was then analysed by reference to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages of the PEACE model in Phase II of Chapter 3, these findings were triangulated as recruits focused on the Account stage in their plans, to the exclusion of the Engage and explain and Closure stages. Having gained an understanding of what recruits include in their plans, and how the content relates to the model of interviewing in practice, it was important to identify the extent to which recruits’ plans include key interview components deemed necessary for interviews with witnesses. The analysis of recruits’ plans with respect to the inclusion of key interview components revealed recruits include a very small proportion of components in their plans and those that were included, again related most closely to aspects of the interview concerned with the witness’ account of the offence.

Overall, the findings presented in Chapter 3 relating to the amount and type of content in plans and how this changed following training, suggest recruits consistently planned most for those aspects of the interview relating to obtaining the account. While there were some changes following interview training, particularly
with regard to the increased inclusion of items related to the more process-oriented aspects of the interview (e.g., rapport building, and procedural information), the focus on obtaining an account was maintained.

Chapter 4

Findings presented in Phase I of Chapter 4 showed the active coverage of planned items was high, although this percentage varied according to the category and level of training received by the recruit. Categories with finite planning and interview coverage (e.g., Introduction and Witness demographics) were consistently covered by recruits. In contrast, other categories were more responsive to training. For example, coverage increased in the Interview demographics and Interview procedure categories, and decreased in the Incident details category.

The findings in Phase II of Chapter 4 showed recruits place emphasis on the Account stage of their interviews, followed by the Engage and explain and Closure stages. Following interview training, proportionately less questions in interviews related to the Account stage, while proportionately more related to the Closure stage. The findings in Phase III of Chapter 4 were consistent with Phase II with regard to the emphasis placed on the Account stage. However, when analysed with regard to key interview components within the interview stages, recruits covered proportionately more components in the Closure stage than in the Engage and explain stage. For the majority of components within the 15 categories, there was an increase in the proportion of components covered following interview training, with most categories having over half of components covered in interviews at Times 3 and 4.

When the 75 key interview components were grouped according to the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages, there was variation with regard to the relationship between planning and coverage. For the Engage and explain and Account stages, the greatest proportion of components were planned for and covered in interviews. However, for the Closure stage, the greatest proportion of components were not planned for and not covered. These findings reflect the existence of a relationship between planning and coverage, but suggest components within the Closure stage required additional planning. For the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages, the least proportion of components were planned for but not covered.
Findings showed that key interview components in the Engage and explain stage of the interview appear to be more impacted by planning than components in the Account or Closure stages. Considering the coverage in plans and interviews of the 75 individual components shows that for the Engage and explain and Closure stages, those components with a stronger relationship between planning and coverage were generally components that are more prescriptive. In contrast, those components with a stronger relationship between planning and coverage in the Account stage were those components requiring more specialist knowledge. These findings suggest that following interview training, recruits were generally able to obtain broader incident information, but may require plans to ensure more intricate details are covered.

Overall, the findings presented in Chapter 4 regarding the impact of the amount and type of content in plans on interviews suggest recruits cover a high proportion of the items they plan in interviews. Further, there was a stronger correlation between the proportion of items in plans and the proportion of questions in interviews related to the Engage and explain stage, than existed for the Account or Closure stages. When considering the plans and interviews at Time 3 in isolation, the strongest relationship between planning and coverage was for those items that are more prescriptive and those requiring specialist knowledge.

**Chapter 5**

Phases I and II of Chapter 5 presented the content analysis of recruits’ responses to the question, “If you could conduct this interview again, what would you do differently?” The largest number of recruits included items in the Questioning category, followed by Structure, Procedure, Note-taking, Preparation and planning, Rapport building, and Interviewer persona. While Questioning relates clearly to obtaining an account from the witness, the remaining categories suggest upon reflection recruits focused on more process-oriented aspects of interviewing, rather than those related to content.

Overall, recruits emphasised Questioning in their self-evaluations. However, there was variation across the four occasions. Statistical analysis of the change in specific categories following specific points in training presented in Phase I of Chapter 5 revealed the percentage of recruits including an item related to Questioning increased following interview training while the percentage of recruits
including an item related to Rapport building decreased. As with the content of plans, legal and procedural training did not appear to affect the content of self-evaluations; rather, changes in content appeared to occur following interview training. The content analysis of the categories and how these changed following specific points in training revealed that following training, particularly interview training, recruits were more specific about what they wished to change and began using language specific to policing, rather than more generic terms that were used in the self-evaluations at Times 1 and 2.

The plans and interviews at Time 4 were compared to those at Time 3 to determine whether those aspects identified as needing improvement in the self-evaluations at Time 3 had been incorporated in the plans and interviews at Time 4. The analysis of the self-evaluation items revealed there was very little substantive change in the planning regarding those items identified in the self-evaluations, aside from the incorporation of items relating to summarising during the interview. Encouragingly, there was some change in the interviews, although these changes were confined to two categories; Questioning and Interviewer persona. With regard to Questioning, recruits identifying aspects of questioning to increase, rather than to eliminate, appeared to be more successful in implementing these changes; for example, increasing the use of open questions. With regard to Interviewer persona, recruits appeared more confident and professional in their interviews at Time 4, but it is unclear whether this change was a result of their self-evaluation at Time 3, or whether it was a result of confidence following further experience as a recruit.

Overall, the findings suggest there was limited impact of self-evaluation items on the content of plans, but that some changes consistent with the incorporation of self-evaluation items were noted in interviews. The category where the greatest impact was noted for plans was Structure and the categories where the greatest impact was noted for interviews were Questioning and Interviewer persona. Generally, recruits demonstrated the greatest capacity to incorporate self-evaluation items when the items were specific.

**Literature**

This section of the chapter will contextualise the findings presented above within the literature. The focus of this section is on comparing the findings in this thesis with empirical research, and a discussion of the theoretical and practical
Chapter 6: General Discussion

Implications of the findings will be presented in the next section. Although the research presented in this thesis has demonstrated plans, interviews, and self-evaluations are inter-related; to assist in exploring the findings in the context of the literature they will be discussed separately. Firstly, the content of plans will be compared to those aspects of the interview police officers and benefit fraud investigators have identified as being most important; secondly, the content of interviews will be compared to the existing research examining interview performance, with a focus on the those studies examining the PEACE model; thirdly, the impact of plans on interviews will be briefly discussed with regard to the limited literature exploring the association between Preparation and planning and interview quality; fourthly, the findings with regard to the content of self-evaluations and the impact on interview practices will be discussed in the context of literature examining perceptions of police officers and benefit fraud investigators, and the ‘unskilled and unaware’ literature. While the impact of training is discussed with regard to plans, interviews, and self-evaluations individually, there will be a discussion of the impact of training on plans, interviews, and self-evaluations generally at the end of this section.

Plans

Gudjonsson (1994) identified key aspects of the Preparation and planning stage: understanding why the interview is being conducted, identifying the objectives of the interview, articulating elements and defences relevant to the offence, reviewing evidence gathered, determining evidence that may yet be obtained, understanding the legal and procedural requirements, and designing the interview with flexibility in mind. The findings in Phase I of Chapter 3 showed recruits focused on Incident details, Interviewing technique, Interview procedure, and Legal procedure following interview training. The findings in Phase II of that chapter further demonstrated recruits’ focus in plans was on the Account stage of the interview, and analysis of the 15 categories in Phase III identified Offence details, ADVOKATE, and Procedural instructions as the categories with proportionately more key interview components included in plans. These findings were all consistent with Gudjonsson’s (1994) suggestions regarding the focus of planning for investigative interviews, given that interviews in the context of the present study did
not provide the option for planning around evidence, as well as the limited ability to plan explicitly for flexibility.

The findings presented with regard to the content of recruits’ plans were consistent with the aim of an interview to obtain evidence (Hill & Moston, 2011). However, changes in the content of plans following interview training in particular demonstrated a shift towards those aspects of the interview police officers identify as being important in achieving that objective; that is, rapport building and adopting an empathic approach (see e.g., Bull & Cherryman, 1996; Powell et al., 2009). Following training, recruits incorporated additional aspects of the interview into their plans that related to specific content taught in training; for example, regarding procedural information and interviewing techniques.

Interviews

When comparing the findings of the research presented in Chapter 4 with the existing literature, it is important to note interview quality was not assessed in the present research and, as such, comparisons are limited. However, tentative comparisons can be made between analyses pertaining to the level of coverage of key interview components with the performance of components in the existing literature. In terms of performance of the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages of the interview, research has found benefit fraud investigators to be most skilled in their performance of the Engage and explain stage, followed by the Account, and then the Closure stage (Walsh & Bull, 2010a). In comparison to what the literature states is performed with the most skill, the findings within Phases II and III of Chapter 4 showed that recruits included proportionately more content and covered proportionately more components within the Account stage of the interview than in the Engage and explain or Closure stages.

The key interview components examined within Phase III of Chapter 4 provide a basis for comparison with the literature, although the analysis of interviews across the four occasions related to the 15 broader categories. The findings in the literature state Introduces self, Purpose of the interview explained, and Evidence of rapport building were most competently performed (interviews with POIs, Clarke and Milne, 2001; Clarke et al., 2011; Walsh & Bull, 2010a). These findings contrast with those presented in the present research with Introduction (including the Introduces self component) ranked as a low order category across three of the four
time periods, and Account instructions (including Purpose of the interview explained) and Witness wellbeing (equated with Evidence of Rapport building) ranked as low order categories across all four time occasions.

In the Account stage of the interview, Keeps interview to relevant topics and Encourages suspect to give an account were two of the three most competently performed (interviews with POIs, Clarke and Milne, 2001; Clarke et al., 2011; Walsh & Bull, 2010a; Walsh & Milne, 2008). Develops topics for discussion (Walsh & Bull, 2010a), Uses logical structure and sequence (interviews with POIs, Clarke and Milne, 2001; Clarke et al., 2011), and Explores information received (Walsh & Milne, 2008) were also included in the top three most skilfully performed components. With regard to interviews with witnesses, Clarke and Milne (2001) found the three most skilfully performed components were Keeps to relevant topics, Full exploration of account, and Points to prove. These findings were consistent with those presented in the present research with the Interview structure (incorporating Keeps interview to relevant topics and Encourages suspect [witness] to give an account) and Interview technique (incorporating Explores information received) categories in the present research ranked as high order categories on three and four of the occasions respectively.

With regard to individual components within the Closure stage, the performance of Summarises interview was rated as less than satisfactory (interviews with witnesses and POIs, Clarke and Milne, 2001; Clarke et al., 2011, Walsh & Bull, 2010a; Walsh & Milne, 2008). Consistent with these findings, the findings of the present research indicated recruits consistently neglected to cover those components contained within the Closure stage of the interview.

Plans and Interviews

The examination of the relationship between recruits’ plans and interviews provided tentative support for the general assumption that planning affects performance. Although the research examining planning has generally been limited to one scale item measuring perceived preparedness, studies have suggested Preparation and planning affects flexibility in the interview (Walsh & Milne, 2008) and have found performance at or above PEACE standard in Preparation and planning is associated with higher interview quality (Walsh & Bull, 2010b). While the relationship is recognised, the literature is sparse with regard to the examination
of this relationship, resulting in limited scope for the comparison between the findings presented in Chapter 4 and the literature. The coverage of components does not equate to performance; however, tentative comparisons can be made, as the components are those aspects of the interview identified as being important in both the literature and in interview training materials. Comparison of the data pertaining to the inclusion of components in plans and the coverage of components in interviews suggested that the increased planning following specific points in training (as evidenced in Chapter 3), corresponded with an increased proportion of components being covered in interviews. To that end, increased planning was associated with recruits covering a greater proportion of the key aspects required in interviews with witnesses.

**Self-evaluations**

Aside from those items related to questions (e.g., type and amount), the items recruits included in their self-evaluations were predominantly focused around process-oriented aspects of the interview. This finding is consistent with the literature regarding police officers’ perceptions of the most important aspects of the interview (Bull & Cherryman, 1996; Powell et al., 2009), and are encouraging with regard to the importance of rapport building in ensuring a quality interview with the best likelihood of a full account (Collins et al., 2002; Roberts, 2011a; Walsh & Bull, 2012). The findings also lend support to the efficacy of interview training with regard to the recruits’ reflection on aspects of the interview not directly related to obtaining an account. The increased specificity with which recruits were able to articulate the items in their self-evaluations provides some support for the assertion that knowledge assists individuals to make more accurate self-evaluations (Kruger & Dunning, 1999). Whilst the accuracy of self-evaluations was not analysed in the present research, the increased specificity indicates recruits had greater insight into both what was expected, and what they did not achieve to the extent they believed was necessary.

The high number of recruits either choosing not to identify any areas for improvement in their self-evaluations, or articulating that there were no areas needing improving, provides support for the suggestion that individuals are less able to accurately self-evaluate when they are invested in the outcome; that is, when their performance of the task being assessed is important to them (Kim et al., 2015).
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However, it cannot be assumed that recruits were invested in the outcomes of these interviews. To some extent, the recruits not identifying areas to improve were the only participants where the accuracy of their self-evaluation was assessed, as all recruits could have improved. Therefore, their self-evaluation that there were no improvements to be made was clearly flawed. The benefit of improving performance as a result of accurate self-evaluation must be seen to outweigh the discomfort of identifying areas of weakness, without negatively impacting an individual’s sense of self.

The findings with regard to the incorporation of self-evaluation items at Time 3 into plans and interviews at Time 4 demonstrated recruits’ limited ability in this area. As with the idea of integrating information across training into interviewing, it may be that recruits’ ability to reflect and incorporate the self-evaluation items was too limited at this stage in training due to the already immense cognitive load (Dando et al., 2009). However, some capacity to incorporate self-evaluation items was noted in interviews with items related to Questioning and Interviewer persona. As questioning forms an important part of interview training, and requires recruits to change how they form sentences, it may be that this aspect of the interview is viewed as a priority and was therefore able to be integrated into the interviews.

Impact of Training

The empirical literature examining the impact of training on interviewing practices reveal mixed findings. While Aldridge and Cameron (1995); Clarke and Milne (2001) and Clarke et al. (2011) found training had limited impact, McGurk et al. (1993) and Walsh and Milne (2008) found training had a significant impact on interviewing performance. Comparison at the component and category level was provided with regard to the content of interviews in the present research; however, broadly speaking, there were large numbers of significant changes in the total content of plans, interviews, and self-evaluations following specific points in training, as well as in regard to individual categories. As the first study to examine the impact of training on recruits’ interviewing, it may be tentatively suggested that the impact of interview training is greater when individuals have received very limited relevant training.

Concern has been raised regarding the high cognitive load placed on inexperienced police officers learning interviewing skills (Dando et al., 2009a). In
the context of recruits’ integrating all aspects of their training and identifying transferable knowledge and skills for use in conducting interviews prior to receiving formal interview training, it could be suggested that the cognitive load of integrating and applying this information was too great at such an early point in their careers. Statistical analyses of the content of plans and interviews across the four occasions tended to show a greater change following interview training at Time 3 than was observed following legal and procedural training at Time 2. This finding was observed across plans, interviews, and self-evaluations and may have reflected recruits’ tendency to compartmentalise their learning. As interview training was clearly the most relevant for learning how to conduct interviews in accordance with the policies and procedures of Western Australia (WA) Police, it would appear that recruits may have ignored, or minimised, the value of legal and procedural training in terms of integrating the information learned into their interviews before Time 3.

The literature has suggested regular refresher training for police officers and benefit fraud investigators after their initial PEACE training (Fisher, 2010; Fisher et al., 2011). This suggestion is supported by literature showing difficulty retaining knowledge after training (Lamb et al., 2002). However, not all studies have shown this decrease in knowledge with McGurk et al. (1993) finding police officers trained in PEACE retained similar levels of proficiency in assessments six-months after training concluded. To some extent this finding by McGurk and colleagues is contrary to what would be expected, although there may be differences observed in knowledge retention depending on the type of training received and the amount of time that has elapsed since training. The findings of attrition in content for plans, interviews, and self-evaluations between Times 3 and 4 was consistent with the literature stating there can be a decrease in the retention of knowledge following training. Further, as the interviews at Time 4 were only 10 weeks after the interviews at Time 3, it is concerning that an effect was observed after such a minimal time lapse. The findings provide additional rationale for the current requirement at Victoria Police that recruits complete a one-day refresher at the conclusion of their probation, and that recruits in WA and Queensland complete an additional interviewing assessment in the field (Tudor-Owen & Scott, 2015).
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Implications

The implications of the findings presented in this thesis are twofold, relating to theory and practice. In terms of theoretical implications, the findings will be discussed with regard to the theories of planned behaviour, goal-setting, and temporal self-behaviour, along with the concepts of the ‘intention-behaviour’ gap, perceived behavioural control, self-efficacy, and the ‘unskilled and unaware’ phenomenon. As there is some overlap with theories relevant to both planning and self-evaluation, rather than discussing the theoretical implications with regard to each theory discretely, those theories with implications for planning will be discussed first, followed by those with implications for self-evaluations. The practical implications for the findings largely relate to the training of recruits and police officers and these will be addressed following the discussion of theoretical implications.

Theoretical Implications

Plans.

The theories of planned behaviour and goal-setting operate on the premise that intention impacts behaviour (Ajzen & Madden, 1986). While acknowledging these theories are not typically applied in the context of investigative interviewing, the content of written plans may be considered an expression of intention. The findings in Chapter 4 provide support for this statement in the context of investigative interviewing, with recruits covering a high proportion of planned items in their interviews, and a correlation between the content of plans and interviews, particularly with regard to the Engage and explain stage. However, the strongest indication of this relationship was in the findings presented in Phase III of Chapter 4, with the analysis of planning and coverage of key interview components in interviews at Time 3.

The theory of planned behaviour suggests intention is determined by a combination of attitudes, social pressures, and perceived behavioural control (Ajzen, 1991). The context of the present research would suggest recruits had individual attitudes aspiring to achieve well in the interviews. This assumption is made as participation was voluntary and those recruits’ whose interviews were analysed had all participated on each of the four occasions, indicating some motivation to engage in the process. With regard to social pressures, the recruits participating in the
present research were in an environment encouraging proficiency in interviewing. While the interviews did not form part of the recruits’ assessment, there was substantial proportion of recruits in each squad participating in the research, which would contribute to social pressure to perform well and translate their learning into practice.

The final component of intention, according to Ajzen (1991), is perceived behavioural control, which has similarities to Bandura’s (1977) concept of self-efficacy (Locke & Latham, 2006). Understanding perceived behavioural control and self-efficacy in the context of the present research requires consideration of the repeated measures design of the research. An individual’s perceived behavioural control is influenced by the individual’s own skills and abilities and how difficult the task is considered (Ajzen, 1991; Ajzen & Madden, 1986). In a similar vein, self-efficacy refers to an individual’s belief they can achieve a goal or complete a task (Bandura, 1977). In the present research, it could be suggested that recruits’ perceived behavioural control or self-efficacy would have increased over the duration of the study as they engaged in additional training. The impact of this increase is especially pertinent given the suggestion that perceived behavioural control may also impact behaviour independently of intention (Ajzen, 1991). To that end, an improvement in the strength of the relationship between plans and interviews would be expected following specific points in training. The findings presented in Chapter 4 provide some support for these suggestions, although there are limitations in the interpretation as only analyses in Phase I and II were conducted over more than one time period. The analysis of the coverage of planned items in interviews presented in Phase I of Chapter 4 showed no significant changes in the total coverage of planned items. However, correlation analyses in Phase II showed the strength of the association between the proportion of items in plans and questions in interviews related to the Engage and explain stage of the interview increased following specific points in training. There were insufficient significant findings in the Account and Closure stages to make comparisons across time periods. While the relationship between plans and interviews was demonstrated in the findings presented within this thesis, there is limited support for the suggestion that perceived behavioural control, insofar as it can be inferred in the context of the present research, impacts behaviour. However, it would be interesting to note any differences between the findings presented in Phase III of Chapter 4 regarding the planning and coverage of key
interview components and further research examining more experienced police officers’ coverage of the same components.

While operating on the same premise that it is intention that impacts behaviour, goal-setting theory considers this relationship with regard to performance (Locke & Latham, 2002). Research examining the intention-behaviour gap has attempted to understand why intentions do not always translate into behaviour, and what practices may increase the likelihood of this translation. Formulating implementation intentions, articulating a specific way to achieve a goal, is associated with an increased likelihood to engage in the intended behaviour (Gollwitzer, 1993; Sniehotta et al., 2005). Further, goal-setting theory suggests that higher levels of performance are observed when more difficult goals are set (even when they are not achieved), and the goal itself is more specific (rather than a vague intention to ‘try your best’; Locke & Latham, 2006). In the present research, plans may be considered as the implementation intentions of the broader goal intention to elicit a full and accurate account from the witness, or comprising individual goals in the form of items in plans. The analysis of the relationship between planning and coverage of key interview components presented in Phase III of Chapter 4 is consistent with the suggestion that performance with regard to set goals is associated with the specificity of those goals. The findings in Phase III of Chapter 4 showed that those components that were more prescriptive, or required specialist knowledge were those components with the strongest relationship between planning and coverage in interviews. The difficulty associated with attempting to achieve multiple goals simultaneously (Locke & Bryan, 1969) may provide some explanation for recruits’ not increasing their coverage of planned items over time. The increased number of items in plans following specific points in training indicated recruits may have been attempting to focus on too many different aspects of the interview, and could only address a small number in practice. However, this observation needs to be balanced with the understanding that there are a large number of components that must be covered in an interview, as noted in the formulation of the key interview components schedule utilised in Phase III of Chapters 3 and 4.

It is important to note that the expected increase in performance as a result of goal-setting may be delayed (Locke, 1968). This observation provides a possible explanation for why there were few changes observed in recruits’ plans following legal and procedural training. Rather, the majority of changes were noted after
interview training. While it may be that recruits found it difficult to transfer knowledge acquired in legal and procedural training into their interviews without it explicitly relating to interviews, it may also be that recruits’ improvement in performance with regard to these aspects of the interview was delayed.

**Self-evaluations.**

Given the self-evaluation question analysed in the present research asked recruits what they would do differently, recruits’ responses could be characterised as intentions, providing the opportunity to discuss the application of the theories of planned behaviour and goal-setting. The discussion of the three components of intention (attitudes, social pressures, and perceived behavioural control) with regard to recruits’ plans is mirrored with regard to recruits’ self-evaluations, in that the same discussion regarding the training environment and training itself applies. It is difficult to determine whether increased perceived behavioural control, as a result of training, impacted recruits’ ability to behave consistently with their intentions, as the direct impact of self-evaluation items on interviewing practices was only measured between Times 3 and 4. However, given the limited incorporation of self-evaluation items into plans and interviews at that time, it may be suggested that additional training specific to self-evaluation and implementing feedback was needed before recruits’ perceived behavioural control and self-efficacy was such that it impacted behaviours. If the identification of aspects of the interview to improve was also considered a goal, the findings presented in Phase I of Chapter 5 suggest recruits’ training did not impact their ability to identify areas of the interview to improve. There were no significant increases in the number of items included in recruits’ self-evaluations which, if there had been, may have demonstrated behaviour consistent with intention. However, qualitative analysis of recruits’ self-evaluations show recruits’ responses increased in specificity following specific points in training. Although the number of items did not increase significantly, the increased specificity may be characterised as a behaviour impacted by intention.

The analysis of the impact of self-evaluation items on interviewing practices showed proactive (i.e., suggesting an action) and/or specific self-evaluation items appeared to be more likely to be incorporated into plans and interviews (e.g., “summarise”). This finding is consistent with goal-setting research suggesting specific goals are more likely to be attained than vague goals (Locke & Latham, 2006). However, the findings with regard to the incorporation of self-evaluation
items into plans and interviews are not consistent with Locke and Bryan’s (1969) observation regarding the difficulty in attempting to achieve multiple goals simultaneously. While self-evaluations generally contained more than one aspect of the interview to change, it would be expected that the low number of items identified for improvement should have resulted in changes in performance. Instead, the findings in Phase III of Chapter 5 showed very limited incorporation of self-evaluation items at Time 3 in plans and interviews at Time 4. As with regard to the impact of plans on interviews, it is important to note that the expected increase in performance as a result of self-evaluations may be delayed in accordance with Locke’s (1968) observation. To that end, it may be that recruits’ performance in identified areas for improvement may have changed in subsequent interviews, although changes were not observed in plans and interviews between Times 3 and 4.

The theory of temporal self-appraisal suggests people view their past self as inferior to their present self, in order to feel more positive in the present (Wilson & Ross, 2001). Researchers examining this theory have also suggested that the passing of landmarks results in a distancing from one’s previous self (Haddock, 2004). In the context of the present research, the idea that recruits’ reflections of themselves would be negative, would suggest that they would articulate unnecessarily harsh responses, or they would identify a large number of aspects to improve. However, the number of items included in self-evaluations was low across all occasions. Moreover, in terms of the self-evaluations at Time 3, there were few occasions where analysis of the plan or interview at Time 3 revealed the recruit had been unnecessarily harsh with respect to their analysis. For example, the recruit who stated he/she needed to reduce ‘backtracking’ in their interview and examination of the interview revealed this behaviour was not problematic in terms of structure or flow. To that end, the recruits did not appear to be overly critical of their performance which would have been consistent with the theory of temporal self-appraisal. However, the idea that landmarks create further distance with one’s previous self may provide some explanation. The achievement of graduating from the Police Academy is likely to create more distance with their previous self as a recruit, than passing particular stages in training. Although the various stages of recruits’ training may be characterised as landmarks for the purposes of the theory, it is more likely that a police officer who has completed their training would identify their performance as a recruit more negatively.
The ‘unskilled and unaware’ phenomenon posits that people who are not performing well may also be unable to recognise their underperformance (Dunning et al., 2003; Kruger & Dunning, 1999). In the present study, the accuracy of recruits’ self-evaluations was not assessed, with the exception of when an identified behaviour was not present. However, recruits’ limited ability to identify aspects of the interview to improve indicates they may not have been aware of their own limitations. While recruits improved in their ability to incorporate key interview components into plans and interviews following specific points in training, the plans and interviews prepared by recruits were not perfect. To that end, if recruits were able to accurately self-evaluate, it could be argued they would have included more items in response to the question of what they would do differently.

Critics of the ‘unskilled and unaware’ phenomenon suggest that the perceived inability to accurately self-evaluate is a protective mechanism when an individual is invested in the outcome of the task (Kim et al., 2015). This suggestion may provide some explanation as to why recruits did not identify more to improve in their interviews, although this would assume recruits were invested in the task. To some extent, the investment may be assumed on the basis that participation was voluntary and recruits whose plans and interviews were analysed in the present research has attended on each of the four occasions. Therefore, recruits’ limited identification of aspects of their interviewing practices to improve may be because they were unable to identify areas to improve, or they may not have been able to as a self-protective mechanism.

**Practical Implications**

For some, planning may be considered a discrete task occurring in preparation for an event. In contrast, there is benefit in viewing planning as an iterative process. As interviews with witnesses should be witness-led, the use of written plans is maximised when the interviewer has planned for multiple outcomes. Such planning will increase the interviewer’s ability to be flexible within the interview, as they have prepared for a number of different outcomes. The use of strategic plans in organisations is widespread. This type of planning is an example of the interactive and iterative approach outlined above. For example, a strategic plan might be set for a five-year period with reviews conducted regularly. Intermittent assessments of the utility of the plan and how outcomes are being met is a common
way of measuring success in the business context. In terms of an interview, this process would look similar, albeit on a smaller scale. Interviewers should feel comfortable assessing their plan part way through an interview in order to ascertain their progress in relation to the points contained therein. If interviewers do not consult their plan, under the mistaken impression that it should be committed to memory, the plan is then moot. There is an argument that preparing the plan itself would encourage memory of its contents, but in the potentially anxiety producing context of an interview it may be suggested that better practice is to refer to the document itself.

The decrease in coverage of some planned items across the four occasions suggests recruits had either increased in confidence and did not believe they required the plans, there were too many items to cover, or recruits felt by consulting their plans it would appear that they were not sure of themselves or the task at hand. While the latter may be the case for some witnesses, the strategic use of a plan, and discussing its purpose with the witness, is an opportunity for the interviewer to build rapport and engage the witness in the interview process. The self-evaluation items related to Interviewer persona tended to suggest some recruits felt they needed to appear more professional or more confident. While these are important attributes, rapport building occurs when the witness gets a sense of the interviewer as a person, not just as an agent of a particular organisation. Comments like, “I have a plan with me to ensure I don’t forget to ask you anything important” is a simple way to build rapport with the witness and put them at ease. It is likely to be different in the context of a hostile witness or POI, but a cooperative witness is likely to feel more comfortable following this type of interaction. However, it is important to note that the use of instructions at the beginning of the interview has been suggested to reduce the ability to build rapport (Wright & Alison, 2004). To that end, recruits and police officers need to be cognisant of how instructions are given, including regarding the use of plans, and not just focusing on the content of those instructions. In terms of ensuring rapport is built with witnesses, having a discussion about expectations for the interview and the use of plans will provide a positive start to the interview process, in contrast with listing off instructions without engaging with the witness. Training of recruits, and officers, should therefore focus on how to use the plans comfortably in the interview context. This training would assist in reducing any
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perception that to refer to the plan is poor practice, or indicates the interviewer is not prepared sufficiently.

The analysis of the relationship between key interview components included in plans and covered in interviews in Phase III of Chapter 4 provided some insight into those outcomes whose coverage in interviews was most impacted by inclusion in plans. To that end, it could be suggested that items relating to Account instructions (Interviewer has no knowledge, Witness not to fabricate or guess, Witness to report everything), Procedural instructions (Estimate time for interview, Is the witness willing to appear [in court]?), Witness wellbeing (Check witness comfort), ADVOKATE (Amount of time under observation, Distance, Time lapse), Person details (Description of witness[es]) and Offence details (Time of offence) should be included in interview proformas provided to recruits and police officers interviewing witnesses. The police-generated proformas provided to recruits at the time of data collection was not specific to interviews with witnesses and consequently contained items not relevant to the interview. Ensuring components with the strongest relationship between planning and coverage are included in the proforma will maximise the likelihood of the relevant components being covered, providing there is engagement with the plans during the interview. In addition to modifying existing proformas to reflect the findings presented in this thesis with regard to specific aspects of content, recruits should be provided with an explanation of why certain items are included in proformas. Understanding why proformas are used, and why content has been included, may encourage engagement with the proforma itself.

Findings with regard to the inclusion of items in recruits’ self-evaluations demonstrate recruits’ cognitive or intuitive understanding that process-orientated aspects of the interview are important in determining the quality of the interview, an observation tested empirically (Walsh & Bull, 2012) and identified in surveys of police officers’ perceptions (Bull & Cherryman, 1996; Powell et al., 2009). The numbers of items included by recruits’ in response to the question, “If you could conduct this interview again, what would you do differently” was low across the four occasions. This low number is positive in that it means recruits have distinct targeted areas upon which to improve; however, it may also be an indication that recruits are not able to identify areas for improvement and/or articulate these. As mentioned with regard to the ‘unskilled and unaware’ phenomenon, the inability to provide a critique of their interviews may be due to their investment in the process and unwillingness to
concede their performance was not optimal (Kim et al., 2015), concern their instructors would use the information to inform their assessment, or they do not have the capacity or skill to reflect sufficiently on their own performance. The latter reason may be addressed by ensuring recruits understand the expectations for interviews (in any context; e.g., with witnesses or POIs) and are encouraged to practice evaluating their peers (Tee & Ahmed, 2014), as well as being provided with the opportunity to compare their own self-evaluation with the evaluation by a third party.

The literature regarding self-evaluation highlights the importance of individuals being aware of expectations in order to provide a marker from which to compare their own performance (Schunk, 2003). The increased specificity of recruits’ responses in their self-evaluations suggested recruits had a clearer idea of the expectations for the interview following interview training. The small number of recruits who articulated they did not know what to improve as they had not received appropriate training provides support for this assertion, as they did not have the necessary information to compare their interview to what is expected.

Recruits showed limited ability to incorporate items included in their self-evaluations at Time 3 in their plans or interviews at Time 4. While this may simply have been due to forgetting the aspects of the interview previously identified as being important, or compartmentalising those items as being relevant for the previous interview and not for future plans or interviews, the lack of incorporation is discouraging. In the field, police officers can be provided with third party evaluation from their partners in the interview or from supervisors; however, the ability to accurately self-evaluate and to incorporate these reflections into practice is an invaluable tool for professional development and is clearly cost-effective for the police service.

Interview training that encompasses multiple role-play opportunities with self, peer, and supervisor-evaluation may assist recruits in becoming more accurate in their self-evaluations. While supervisor evaluation is key in identifying flaws in interviewing due to the experience of the supervisor, if recruits are not self-evaluating at the same time, they will not have an understanding of their own perceptions of performance. The longer term goal of having reflective officers who are able to regularly and accurately self-evaluate and incorporate feedback must
begin with recruits being taught the process of self-evaluation and having opportunities to test their own perceptions against those of others’.

Considering plans, interviews, and self-evaluations together, the findings presented in this thesis suggest recruits are not ‘blank slates’ when they begin their training at the Academy. It is important trainers are cognisant that a ‘one size fits all’ approach is unlikely to result in optimal learning by recruits as findings clearly demonstrate the difference between recruits’ understanding and application of the Engage and explain, Account, and Closure stages, in terms of their inclusion of relevant items in plans, interviews, and self-evaluations. In their plans and interviews at Time 1, recruits focus on the Account stage of the interview and aspects related to the offence, prior to any formal training undertaken at the Academy. Ensuring trainers are aware of what skills and knowledge recruits bring with them to the Academy is essential for maximising the utility of training as there is no need to spend time focusing on aspects of the interview (or any other part of the investigative process) already familiar to recruits. There must also be an awareness that the knowledge and skills brought with recruits will not be uniform across the group; however, these differences can be considered in the context of being mindful of different learning styles when instructing recruits. Addressing recruits’ individual knowledge and learning styles could be incorporated in recruits’ first week at the Academy as a way of providing insight to trainers with regard to what aspects of policing (or interviewing more specifically) recruits may already be familiar with, in addition to what ways of learning may be most effective. Although this process would require time and some training on the part of the trainers, the benefit in terms of efficient training for recruits is likely to outweigh the cost.

The limited changes in plans, interviews, and self-evaluations following legal and procedural training at Time 2 suggests recruits may need assistance to transfer their knowledge and skills across contexts. With regard to training, this may be as simple as trainers identifying aspects of learning at different stages in training that are relevant across contexts. For example, in legal and procedural training, ensuring recruits are aware of those aspects that are relevant in the context of interviews in addition to any other settings.

While not a uniform finding across plans, interviews, and self-evaluations, there were a number of analyses demonstrating a decrease in the inclusion of items or coverage of questions between Times 3 and 4. This finding is not surprising given
the 10-week period between the third and fourth interviews; however, it provides justification for the assertion that periodic refresher training would be useful for inexperienced police officers. Although it is outside the scope of this research, it has been suggested elsewhere that refresher training is important for more experienced police officers (Fisher, 2010; Fisher et al., 2011). The difficulty in maintaining performance, insofar as it can be inferred from the findings presented in this thesis and consistent with suggestions in the literature (Dando et al., 2009a), provides rationale for the simplified model of interviewing taught to recruits in WA. It may be hoped that recruits and less experienced police officers provided with the opportunity to gain experience interviewing in contexts requiring less sophisticated techniques (e.g., interview with cooperative witnesses regarding volume crime), will more able to consolidate and extend their skills to incorporate challenging aspects of interviewing in refresher courses at a later time (e.g., context reinstatement).

Requiring probationary officers to send interviews from the field for analysis, along with their own self-evaluations would ensure interviewing skills are being practiced and reflected upon regularly. In addition, a refresher workshop could be made mandatory for officers at the conclusion of their probation. A system whereby officers need to attend interviewing workshops regularly in the form of professional development would reduce the likelihood of skills being lost. This program would allow for those officers who would like to engage in higher level training, as well as those receiving a refresher course for their current level. Incorporating this type of training also signifies a positive cultural shift towards continuing professional development.

The skill of self-evaluation is one that is learned and feedback from others (e.g., supervisors and peers) is important in its development (McCarthy et al., 1985). As such, there is a need for recruits to be trained in this skill in order to utilise it effectively in improving performance (Sawdon & Finn, 2014; Schunk, 2003). While planning and self-evaluation can be taught, a focus in training on reflective practice more generally, and the development of skills usually associated with human service professionals, may provide a grounding for recruits to interview more confidently and effectively. The concept of reflective practice, or reflexivity, promotes the use of time to consider behaviour and processes prior to taking action and applies equally to planning and evaluation. These skills would also improve other aspects of police work, as the role requires a large amount of communication with various
stakeholders. While not all relevant for recruit training, previous research has shown experiential exercises, reflective discussion, and assigned reading, have been used to increase students’ ability to self-reflect (Chow et al., 2011). These skills may be taught by police officers within the police service, or by bringing in external parties trained specifically; for example, psychologists or social workers. The difficulty in integrating additional content into an already full schedule of training is acknowledged; however, the potential benefit to police officers’ practices in a number of contexts goes some way for justifying this additional aspect of training.

According to the premise behind the theories of planned behaviour and goal-setting, increasing recruits’ self-efficacy (and perceived behavioural control) is central to bridging the intention-behaviour gap (Sniehotta et al., 2005). Bandura (1977) identifies four domains to increase self-efficacy in the context of a therapeutic relationship: use of performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal. However, these four domains can be extrapolated into the interview training context. The simple activity of role-playing to practice interviewing skills can address each of these domains. When the activity is set up in groups of three with an interviewer, interviewee, and observer, there is the opportunity for performance accomplishment (for the interviewer), vicarious experience (for the interviewee and observer), verbal persuasion (observer provides feedback and encouragement), and emotional arousal (the practice is in a less stressful environment than if it were in the field). In defining the ideal conditions for investigative interviewing training, Fisher (2010) and Fisher and colleagues (2010) suggest the need for motivated participants, material conveying the principles informing the protocol, demonstrations and opportunities to engage in role play, provision of feedback, and refresher training. These components of successful interview training are also consistent with those activities that will assist in increasing self-efficacy amongst recruits. While the overview of training in Australian jurisdictions provided in Chapter 1 suggests these components are present in training across the jurisdictions, more intensive and extensive training incorporating these components, in addition to targeted training in planning and self-evaluation, may assist recruits in developing the self-efficacy needed to bridge the intention-behaviour gap.
Limitations and Further Research

Limitations specific to individual phases of analysis are discussed in the relevant chapter; however, there are broader limitations relevant to the research as a whole. This section outlines the broader limitations of the research presented in this thesis. The process by which the limitations were addressed within the research are outlined, in addition to suggestions for further research addressing these limitations. For ease of discussion, the limitations are grouped according to those relating to research design and sample. Suggestions for further research that are separate to those addressing limitations are provided at the conclusion of this section.

Research Design

The broader research project utilised recruits undertaking their training at the WA Police Academy. This approach was advantageous as it offered access to a largely under-researched population, and had the potential to provide important insight into the impact of training on recruits’ planning, interviewing, and self-evaluation skills. Of particular value was the access to recruits on multiple occasions throughout their training. While the interview scenarios were mock, the broader context of recruits in their training environment provided a rare opportunity for research. However, while there were a number of positive aspects to the research design, there were also a number of issues that will be discussed below.

The repeated measures design of the study posed some challenges when discussing the implications of the findings. While the research considered the impact of training on the content of plans, interviews, and self-evaluations, it is unclear the extent to which these changes were a result of the impact of training at specific points, or whether it was the additional practice in interviewing (as well as planning and self-evaluating) that was the cause of any changes observed. The use of different offences at each time period limits the extent to which recruits’ change in planning, interviewing, and self-evaluating occurred as a result of increased practice interviewing. However, it may also be suggested the triviality of some offences compared to others may account for the differences, rather than these being attributed to training (see e.g., Walsh & Milne, 2008). In the present research the offence depicted at Time 3 (theft from a vehicle) was the most complex and this occurred immediately following interview training. If it were a more simple offence depicted at this point in recruits’ training there may be more concern with regard to
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the triviality of the offence impacting recruits’ interviewing practices; however, the fact that it was the most complex provides some mitigation for this concern.

Analysis of the impact of training was further hampered by the absence of a control group. Previous research examining the impact of training has used two groups, with only one group receiving training (e.g., McGurk et al., Walsh & Milne, 2008). However, for the present research it was not possible to deny training to one of the squads in order to provide a control group, although the repeated measures design with interviews conducted prior to interview training provides some level of comparison. Comparison with a group completing training according to a different schedule, who had not yet completed training, would provide some indication of the influence of training. The difficulty with this approach would be that there may be other variables not controlled, for example, different timing of training, or different trainers. To that end, a study utilising a control group would need to assess the impact of PEACE training on individuals not required to undertake training according to a pre-determined schedule.

Research in the area of investigative interviewing generally involves the analysis of videorecorded interviews or mock interview scenarios. The mock interview context of this study presents some limitations with regard to witnesses and recruits. Firstly, witnesses have not witnessed an actual crime and may not have the answers to questions posed by recruits, potentially causing some interruption to interviews, or limiting questioning opportunities. Secondly, witnesses are likely to be more cooperative than actual witnesses of an offence. Witnesses were instructed to be cooperative but at times provided recruits with details not requested; for example, at the end of the interview reminding the recruit to ask for their contact information. There is some discussion concerning the difference between witnesses who are suggestible and witnesses who are compliant (Roper & Shewan, 2002). In the context of the mock interview scenario, it is likely that interviewees are, at least to some extent, going to be compliant given the circumstances. That is, their awareness that recruits’ performances are being analysed, and they may wish to assist the process. The knowledge that recruits will become police officers may also subconsciously play a role in witness’ compliance during the interview, above and beyond that expected following the instruction from the chief investigators to be cooperative. Thirdly, some witnesses participated on multiple occasions which may have impacted their attitude towards the process and expectations of the recruit as
they were aware recruits were receiving training.

With regard to recruits, firstly, the mock interview scenario is likely to have influenced recruits’ performance in the interviews. Although it may mean they are less stressed and perform better as a result, some aspects of the interviewing process may be neglected. For example, recruits may not believe it is necessary to spend time establishing rapport or providing comfort to the witness given they watched a film, rather than witnessed an actual offence. This neglect of some aspects may also relate to planning and self-evaluations as although these processes are suggested to improve performance, which was the overall goal of the exercise, as recruits were not graded on their performance they may be less likely to engage in these seemingly peripheral processes. Research conducted in the field would address the above limitations. However, interviews with witnesses are not typically recorded and, even for those that are, the planning and self-evaluation aspects of the study are not necessarily carried out as part of routine practice.

Further issues with regard to ecological validity may be raised with regard to the time allocated to planning, and the materials provided to the recruits prior to the interview. Time was not limited for interviews or the completion of self-evaluations. However, recruits were only provided with 10 minutes to prepare for the interview. The time limit may have restricted the amount of items recruits included in their plans and reduced the ecological validity of the resulting plans. However, in their study of Queensland police officers’ perceptions of interviewing, Hill and Moston (2011) found 46% of respondent police officers reported spending 10 to 15 minutes planning for interviews with POIs. To that end, the 10 minute limit in the present research is relatively consistent with interviews in the field, particularly given the greater complexity typically associated with interviews with witnesses in comparison to interviews with witnesses.

When interviewing in the field, police officers would be provided with evidence and information prior to the interview that may introduce bias in their approach (Wright & Alison, 2004). The information provided to police officers prior to the interviews would assist in planning for the interview, but may also increase the difficulty in maintaining a witness-led interview as the police officer has sufficient information to formulate an interview agenda. With regard to the present research, some information regarding the offence was provided to recruits, but this was limited to the nature, time, and date of the offence. The limited information provided to
recruits is likely to be insufficient in formulating a recruit-led agenda. Further research could provide recruits with material consistent with that available in the field; for example, a case brief containing other witness statements and evidence collected as part of the investigation. Providing these additional materials would add to the ecological validity of findings and would allow for the analysis of how police officers incorporate this information into their interviews; for example, the point at which evidence is introduced, and the way in which recruits challenge witnesses regarding inconsistencies with previous reports.

Sample

There are general limitations of the present research that can be attributed to various characteristics of the sample. Large samples for studies not utilising previously collected data (e.g., videorecorded interviews on file) are difficult to obtain, particularly when the participants are required to attend on four occasions over an extended period of time. The sample in the present research consisted of 37 recruits which may be considered a small number when discussing the generalisability of the sample. While 60, or two squads, of recruits were invited to participate in the research, 44 actually participated and only 37 completed interviews on each of the four occasions. However, there remains insufficient numbers in the sample to analyse the content of plans, interviews, and evaluations according to sex and age. Although previous research suggests gender does not impact the ability to self-evaluate (Kim et al., 2015; Sawdon & Finn, 2014), which is encouraging in terms of the limitations of the present research, a larger sample, more evenly distributed across these demographic characteristics would allow for scope to understand how sex and age may impact the interviewing practices of recruits.

A second difficulty with regard to the generalisability of the findings relates to the geographic location of the sample. The sample for the present research was taken from a particular cohort of recruits at the WA Police Academy. Notwithstanding the limitations described, as highlighted in Chapter 1, the similarities in interviewing practices and, to some extent, training across jurisdictions, indicate that the findings will be relevant to most jurisdictions in Australia. In addition, although policing practices in England and Wales have tended to develop more quickly than in Australian jurisdictions, the broad framework used
for investigative interviewing, PEACE, is consistent across these nations, allowing for meaningful comparisons to be made.

The existing research examining the PEACE model has used police officers and benefit fraud investigators who have completed training in their field, although not necessarily PEACE training. To that end, it is appropriate to assess their performance of interview components with regard to skill level. However, as recruits in the present study were untrained for the first interview, and did not receive interview training until the third interview, assessment of their skill was not pertinent. As such, the language used in the analysis of plans, interviews, and self-evaluations intentionally avoided the word ‘quality’ as recruits’ skill level was not assessed. However, the analysis presented in Phase III of Chapters 3 and 4 of recruits’ planning and coverage of key interview components provides some assessment of quality as the inclusion and coverage of the individual components is a requirement for investigative interviews with witnesses. While the absence of skill level provided limitations with regard to comparison between the findings in the present research and those in the existing literature, tentative comparisons were made between the proportion of components planned and covered in the present research and skill level in the existing literature.

**Further Research**

As research examining planning and self-evaluation has been limited, there is generally scope for further research with most populations. For example, interviews with POIs, children, culturally and linguistically diverse people, and interpreters. Further, research could be conducted with recruits as well as with inexperienced and experienced police officers with regard to each of the above populations. Comparing the interviewing practices of these populations would provide an indication of the evolution (or devolution) of these skills in a police officers’ career. In addition, research examining more experienced police officers’ planning and self-evaluation practices would allow for the analysis of Cognitive Interview components that was not possible with recruits. These findings would provide the opportunity for greater comparison with the existing literature.

Planning, in the sense that it occurs in thought as someone mentally prepares to do something, has not been analysed in the present research. The measurement of planning in the present research consists of that which was written down during the
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10 minutes provided prior to the interviews, in addition to the content of personal proformas brought into the interviews by recruits. Further research of recruits’ (and police officers’) planning could include surveys and interviews with recruits and police officers’ to understand the processes employed before interviews. This type of research could be conducted separately to interviews for more abstract discussion of planning practices, or in conjunction with interviews to gain insight into examples of Planning and preparation undertaken with reference to a specific case.

As discussed in Chapter 2, recruits’ use of police-generated proformas posed difficulty with regard to the analysis of the impact of their content on plans, interviews, and self-evaluations. An alternative approach to the one taken in the present research (to exclude items in the proformas from analysis unless there was related annotation), is to incorporate the proformas into the analysis itself, in order to explicitly analyse their impact on interviewing practices. The analysis presented in Phase III of Chapter 4 highlighted key interview components, which exhibited a significant relationship between planning and coverage. Within the Engage and explain stage of the interview: Interviewer has no knowledge, Witness not to fabricate or guess, Witness to report everything, Interviewer to ask questions, Estimate time for interview, Does the witness have time?, Check witness comfort, Let me know if you need a break. Within the Account stage of the interview: Known or seen before?, Were there any other witnesses?, Have you seen POI since?, CCTV/mobile phone footage, Items left behind. Within the Closure stage of the interview: Invites witness to add information, Provides P9/contact details, Explains IR number, How to give more information, Thanks witness for time. As discussion with regard to practical implications of the findings, it could be argued that these components should be included in a proforma for interviews with witnesses. Further research could analyse the incorporation of these items in interviews by limiting the printed material taken by recruits or police officers into the interview to the proforma, in order to analyse its effectiveness in prompting interviews to cover these key interview components.

With regard to the analysis of self-evaluations, this was confined to recruits’ responses to the question, “If you could conduct this interview again, what would you do differently?” There are limitations in assuming recruits responses to this question can be interpreted as a reflection of their view regarding their performance generally. While recruits completed additional questions in their self-evaluations, the
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analysis of the self-evaluations in their entirety was outside the scope of the present research. However, the question chosen for analysis provided the opportunity for an exploratory study of what recruits identify as areas for improvement and whether these items are incorporated into plans and interviews. Further research examining the remainder of recruits’ responses in the self-evaluations collected for the broader research project would provide the opportunity for the analysis of recruits’ abilities to accurately evaluate their own performance. Further, discussion of the theory of goal-setting acknowledges there may be a delayed effect of intention on behaviour (Locke, 1968). A repeated measures study of the potential for self-evaluation items to impact subsequent plans and interviews (not just those immediately following the self-evaluation activity) would provide an understanding of the extent to which self-evaluations have a delayed effect, in addition to the ability of reflection at one point in time to result in a sustained change in interviewing practices.

As this research is the first of its kind to provide a close examination of the Preparation and planning and Evaluation stages of the PEACE model, there is much scope for extending this research with regard to examining the influence of training on these practices. In particular, the present research focuses on two very specific aspects; the preparation and use of written plans and self-evaluations. Further research is needed to consider the impact of other types of planning and self-evaluations, notwithstanding methodological difficulties with measuring largely abstract processes. Given the limited support for the application of the theories of planned behaviour and goal setting and, in particular, the importance of self-efficacy and perceived behavioural control, further research could examine the effect of the further integration of self-efficacy enhancing practices in interview training on recruits’ ability to formulate and implement goals in the form of planning and self-evaluation practices. With regard to understanding the relationship between evaluation and interviewing, further research could consider the usefulness of peer-evaluation in conjunction with self-evaluation and evaluation by a supervisor, consistent with comprehensive feedback discussed by Tee and Ahmed (2014). More broadly, given the suggestion that training in reflective practice may encourage the planning and self-evaluation practices of recruits, it is important that future research considers the impact of this type of training on interviewing practices.
Conclusion

The research presented in this thesis aimed to determine the amount and type of content recruits include in their plans for investigative interviews with witnesses and how this changes following specific points in training; how the amount and type of content in plans impacts interviews; the amount and type of content recruits include in their self-evaluations and how this changes following specific points in training; and how recruits’ self-evaluations impact interviewing practices.

Recruits’ plans, interviews, and self-evaluations were collected on four occasions during their training at the WA Police Academy. The data were analysed using quantitative and qualitative methods of analysis. The content of recruits’ plans, interviews, and self-evaluations focused on aspects of the interview relating to obtaining the account from the witness. Using analysis of plans, interviews, and self-evaluations across four occasions, the research demonstrated changes in content following specific points in training. The completion of legal and procedural training appeared to have less of an effect on content than interview training, with the majority of changes in content occurring at Times 3 and 4.

Detailed analysis of the data collected at Time 3 provided an opportunity to examine the impact of plans on interviews, and self-evaluations on interviewing practices (plans and interviews). Findings revealed a relationship between the planning and coverage of some key interview components for witness interviews. There were proportionately more components within the Engage and explain and Closure stages that exhibited a relationship between planning and coverage in the interview when compared to components in the Account stage. The more prescriptive components, and those components requiring specialist knowledge, were generally the components demonstrating a stronger relationship between planning and coverage.

Analysis of the impact of self-evaluations in Time 3 on plans and interviews at Time 4 revealed limited incorporation of self-evaluation items into plans and interviews. Those self-evaluation items that were incorporated into plans and interviews tended to be those that were specific and readily operationalised. However, the time between the completion of self-evaluations and the opportunity for the incorporation of these items into plans and interviews necessarily limits the attribution of behaviour to the intention articulated in self-evaluations.
Findings with regard to the impact of plans on interviews and the impact of self-evaluations on plans and interviews were consistent with a non-traditional application of the theories of planned behaviour and goal-setting, in that the greatest impact was observed when the goals (planned components or self-evaluation items) were specific. However, those theories also posit that increased self-efficacy (or perceived behavioural control) should decrease the gap between intention and behaviour. The analyses of these relationships were conducted with recruits when they had arguably attained the greatest knowledge and practice with regard to their interviewing training and this would be expected to correspond with self-efficacy. In particular, the limited incorporation of self-evaluation items at Time 3 in plans and interviews at Time 4 suggests recruits’ self-efficacy may have been insufficient to translate intention into behaviour.

The research presented in this thesis provides limited support for the utility of written plans and self-evaluations for use by recruits in interviews with witnesses. These findings are tentative due to the exploratory nature of the studies and the paucity of relevant research in the area in which to contextualise the findings. To that end, the focus must be on determining if the utility of these stages can be increased, and by what means. Further research examining the role of self-efficacy in the implementation of plans and self-evaluations is important to further understand and enhance how the Preparation and planning and Evaluation stages are undertaken by recruits and police officers. Specific training in the use and preparation of plans and self-evaluations would be beneficial in examining these relationships, in addition to identifying ways to facilitate training that increases recruits’ self-efficacy.

Growing awareness of the potential for miscarriages of justice resulting in the conviction of innocent individuals and the acquittal (or non-identification) of guilty individuals has provided unprecedented motivation to examine investigative practices. The sustained effort to improve interviewing practices internationally has resulted in increasingly effective partnerships between researchers and police. Research agendas continue to be developed to consider all aspects of interviewing. While the focus until now has largely been around the content of interviews themselves, the establishment of an evidence-based protocol regarding the Cognitive Interview and Conversation Management model means there can now be a focus on understanding, and then improving, practices associated with planning and evaluating for interviews. Some of the difficulty in improving the quality of
interviews lies in the separation between the academic and professional worlds; research findings with regard to recommended interviewing practices are not always communicated effectively to the profession and where they are, they are not always implemented accordingly by practitioners (Fisher, 2010). Therefore, the onus is on academics and practitioners to develop research agendas that are both rigorous and relevant to ensure the evidence gathered by police officers is of the best possible quality.

The usefulness of research in the area of investigative interviewing lies in the relationships built between practitioners and academics and in how the research is used to inform practice. The findings from the present research have been communicated in peer-reviewed journals, practitioner journals, conference presentations, and in informal meetings between academics and police officers. To that end, the messages contained herein are being heard by people who can make changes. However, this continuing relationship relies on both parties, academics and practitioners, being able to see the value of research, in addition to the more logistical issues of resourcing. The move towards evidence-based policing has created a positive environment for this relationship to flourish, and bodes well for the improvement of policing practices, both within and outside the context of investigative interviewing.
References


Criminal Investigation Act, Western Australia (2006)


References


References


References


References


References


Appendices

Appendix A: Information Letter (Recruit)

SQUAD NAME

School of Law and Justice  
Faculty of Business and Law  
Edith Cowan University

WA police training and witness interviews

Dear Potential Participant,

My name is Researcher name and ... I am investigating the influence of WA police training on the quality of witness interviews. If you agree to participate in this research you will conduct four witness interviews about four unrelated mock crimes. You will also complete four questionnaires regarding the interviews. Participation will take about four hours of your time for which you will receive a Certificate of Participation. The research will take place during the weeks commencing the Week commencing 1, Week commencing 2, Week commencing 3 and Week commencing 4.

This research has the approval of the Edith Cowan University Ethics Committee. Your participation is completely voluntary and you are free to withdraw your consent at any time. All information that you provide will be kept confidential. There will be a video and audio recording of your interview, but this will only be accessed by myself and researchers from Edith Cowan University. No names or identifiable information will appear on any interview transcripts. Furthermore, in the event that this research is published, no identifiable personal information will be released.

If you have any questions regarding this research please feel free to contact either myself on Email address, or my supervisor (Dr Adrian Scott) on Telephone number, Email address. If you wish to speak to an independent person regarding the research process please contact the University Research Ethics Officer on 6304 2170, research.ethics@ecu.edu.au.

Thank you for taking time to read this information letter. Your assistance in this research is greatly appreciated.

Researcher name.
Appendix B: Information Letter (Witness)

Dear Potential Participant,

My name is Researcher name and ... I am investigating the influence of WA police training on the quality of witness interviews. If you agree to participate in this research you will view a recording of a mock crime, be interviewed by a police officer in training about the mock crime and complete a questionnaire regarding the interview. Participation will take about an hour of your time for which you will receive a $20 Coles Group & Myer Gift Card.

The research will be conducted at the Police Academy Learning Centre and take place on Day, Date at Time. Further details regarding the location of the research are provided on the reverse of this letter.

This research has the approval of the Edith Cowan University Ethics Committee. Your participation is completely voluntary and you are free to withdraw your consent at any time. All information that you provide will be kept confidential. There will be a video and audio recording of your interview, but this will only be accessed by myself and researchers from Edith Cowan University. No names or identifiable information will appear on any interview transcripts. Furthermore, in the event that this research is published, no identifiable personal information will be released.

If you have any questions regarding this research please feel free to contact either myself on Email address, or Adrian (my supervisor) on Telephone number, Email address. If you wish to speak to an independent person regarding the research process please contact the University Research Ethics Officer on 6304 2170, research.ethics@ecu.edu.au.

Thank you for taking time to read this information letter. Your assistance in this research is greatly appreciated.

Researcher name.
Appendices

Appendix C: Consent Form (Recruit)

Name of research: 
Name of researcher:  
Name of supervisors:  
Affiliation:  
Purpose of data collection:  
Contact details:  

Please read the statements below and then sign and date the form if you consent to participate in this research.

I, ______________________________, hereby state that:

• I have been provided with an information letter explaining the research, and I have read and understood the information provided.
• I have been given the opportunity to ask questions regarding the research and any questions I had have been answered to my satisfaction.
• I am aware that if I have any further questions I can contact the researcher and/or his supervisors at any time.
• I understand that participation in this research will involve conducting four witness interviews about four unrelated mock crimes, and completing four questionnaires regarding the interviews.
• I understand that there will be a video and audio recording of the interview and that this recording will be deleted after the completion of the research.
• I understand that the information provided will only be used for research purposes and will be kept confidential.
• I understand that information from this research may be published; however no identifying information will be included in any associated publications.
• I understand that I am free to withdraw my participation at any time, without explanation or penalty.
• I freely agree to participate in this research.

Signature: _______________________________ Date: ____________________________
Appendix D: Consent Form (Witness)

Name of research: ____________________________
Name of researcher: __________________________
Name of supervisors: __________________________
Affiliation: __________________________________
Purpose of data collection: _____________________
Contact details: ______________________________

Please read the statements below and then sign and date the form if you consent to participate in this research.

I, ____________________________, hereby state that:

• I have been provided with an information letter explaining the research, and I have read and understood the information provided.
• I have been given the opportunity to ask questions regarding the research and any questions I had have been answered to my satisfaction.
• I am aware that if I have any further questions I can contact the researcher and/or his supervisors at any time.
• I understand that participation in this research will involve viewing a recording of a mock crime, being interviewed by a police recruit about the mock crime and completing a questionnaire regarding the interview.
• I understand that there will be a video and audio recording of the interview and that this recording will be deleted after the completion of the research.
• I understand that the information provided will only be used for research purposes and will be kept confidential.
• I understand that information from this research may be published; however no identifying information will be included in any associated publications.
• I understand that I am free to withdraw my participation at any time, without explanation or penalty.
• I freely agree to participate in this research.

Signature: ____________________________ Date: ____________________________

• I also confirm that I received a $20 Coles Group & Myer Gift Card as a thank you.

Signature: ____________________________
Appendices

Appendix E: Police-generated Proforma

### Investigative Interviewing Example Interview Plan

**V. 1.0.0**

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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Account/ Clarify</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Challenge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Closure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Evaluation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Incident details
- Who
- What
- Where
- When
- Why
- How

**Investigatively important areas/Police agenda**

[e.g. any suspects, any suspicious activity, prior incidents, items left, actions taken by offender but not necessary to commit offence i.e. MO etc]

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<tr>
<th>Challenges</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Facts already established</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Free recall model
- Obtain account
- Identify topics
- Expand on topics using probing questions
- Investigatively important questions
- Summarise

### Conversation management model
- Address/review agents
- Police agenda
- Challenge
Appendices

Appendix F: Recruit Instructions Time 1

**INTERVIEWER INSTRUCTIONS**

You have been asked to act as an interviewer for a research project being undertaken by [researcher]. You will be given brief details of an alleged crime that has taken place, and of a person who has witnessed that crime.

You are to interview this witness and to treat them as you would a real witness throughout the process.

Please ensure that anything you write on including this instruction sheet is marked with your regimental number and handed to the researchers following the interview.

**INTERVIEWER INFORMATION**

You are working at the Village Police Station. A male or female is waiting in an interview room to give information about an assault that occurred at 1.00pm today. They are not the victim but have witnessed the assault.

You are to interview the witness in order to obtain as much information as possible. Pens and paper will be provided. Please label all items of paper with your regimental number and hand back to the researcher following the interview.
Appendix G: Witness Instructions Time 1

**WITNESS INSTRUCTIONS**

You have been asked to act as a witness for a research project being undertaken by [researcher]. You will view a short video depicting a crime that may include simulated violence. If you feel uncomfortable at any time during the film simply walk out of the room and bring it to the attention of one of the researchers.

When interviewed, you will provide information from the perspective of the witness. The witness information provides you with some basic details. However, please feel free to make up details that are not given in either the video or the instructions.

The interviews will be conducted by police recruits who may or may not be in uniform. We will be monitoring the interviews, but if at any time during the interview you feel uncomfortable simply walk out of the room and bring it to the attention of one of the researchers.

It is important to note that we will be examining the interviewing styles of the police recruits, not the information provided by the witnesses.

Finally, please make sure that all materials (including this instruction sheet) are returned to the researchers following the interview.
Appendix H: Recruit Instructions Time 2

**INTERVIEWER INSTRUCTIONS**

You have been asked to act as an interviewer for a research project being undertaken by [researcher]. You will be given brief details of an alleged crime that has taken place, and of a person who has witnessed that crime.

You are to interview this witness and to treat them as you would a real witness throughout the process.

Please ensure that anything you write on including this instruction sheet is marked with your regimental number and handed to the researchers following the interview.

**INTERVIEWER INFORMATION**

You are working at the Village Police Station. A male or female is waiting in an interview room to give information about a theft that occurred at around 12.00pm today. They are not the victim but have witnessed the theft.

You are to interview the witness in order to obtain as much information as possible. Pens and paper will be provided.
Appendix I: Witness Instructions Time 2

WITNESS INSTRUCTIONS

You have been asked to act as a witness for a research project being undertaken by [researcher]. You will view a short video depicting a crime. We would like you to imagine that you are there witnessing what is shown in the video.

When interviewed, you will provide information from the perspective of the witness. The witness information provides you with some basic details. However, please feel free to provide additional information if you are asked about aspects of the crime that you should realistically have known, but was not given in either the video or the witness information.

The interviews will be conducted by police recruits who may or may not be in uniform. We will be monitoring the interviews, but if at any time during the interview you feel uncomfortable simply walk out of the room and bring it to the attention of one of the researchers.

It is important to note that we will be examining the interviewing styles of the police recruits, not the information provided by the witnesses.

Finally, please make sure that all materials (including this instruction sheet) are returned to the researchers following the interview.
Appendix J: Recruit Instructions Time 3

INTERVIEWER INSTRUCTIONS

You have been asked to act as an interviewer for a research project being undertaken by [researcher]. You will be given brief details of an alleged crime that has taken place, and of a person who has witnessed that crime.

You are to interview this witness and to treat them as you would a real witness throughout the process.

Please ensure that anything you write on including this instruction sheet is marked with your regimental number and handed to the researchers following the interview.

INTERVIEWER INFORMATION

You are working at the Village Police Station. A male or female is waiting in an interview room to give information about a theft from a car that occurred at around 9.00am today. They are not the victim but have witnessed the theft.

You are to interview the witness in order to obtain as much information as possible. Pens and paper will be provided.
Appendix K: Witness Instructions Time 3

WITNESS INSTRUCTIONS

You have been asked to act as a witness for a research project being undertaken by [researcher]. You will view a short video depicting a crime. We would like you to imagine that you are there witnessing what is shown in the video.

When interviewed, you will provide information from the perspective of the witness. The witness information provides you with some basic details. However, please feel free to provide additional information if you are asked about aspects of the crime that you should realistically have known, but was not given in either the video or the witness information.

The interviews will be conducted by police recruits who may or may not be in uniform. We will be monitoring the interviews, but if at any time during the interview you feel uncomfortable simply walk out of the room and bring it to the attention of one of the researchers.

It is important to note that we will be examining the interviewing styles of the police recruits, not the information provided by the witnesses.

Finally, please make sure that all materials (including this instruction sheet) are returned to the researchers following the interview.
Appendix L: Recruit Instructions Time 4

INTERVIEWER INSTRUCTIONS

You have been asked to act as an interviewer for a research project being undertaken by [researcher]. You will be given brief details of an alleged crime that has taken place, and of a person who has witnessed that crime.

You are to interview this witness and to treat them as you would a real witness throughout the process.

Please ensure that anything you write on including this instruction sheet is marked with your regimental number and handed to the researchers following the interview.

INTERVIEWER INFORMATION

You are working at the Village Police Station. A male or female is waiting in an interview room to give information about some property damage they witnessed today.

You are to interview the witness in order to obtain as much information as possible. Pens and paper will be provided.
Appendices

Appendix M: Witness Instructions Time 4

**WITNESS INSTRUCTIONS**

You have been asked to act as a witness for a research project being undertaken by [researcher]. You will view a short video depicting a crime. We would like you to imagine that you are there witnessing what is shown in the video.

When interviewed, you will provide information from the perspective of the witness. The witness information provides you with some basic details. However, please feel free to provide additional information if you are asked about aspects of the crime that you should realistically have known, but was not given in either the video or the witness information.

The interviews will be conducted by police recruits who may or may not be in uniform. We will be monitoring the interviews, but if at any time during the interview you feel uncomfortable simply walk out of the room and bring it to the attention of one of the researchers.

It is important to note that we will be examining the interviewing styles of the police recruits, not the information provided by the witnesses.

Finally, please make sure that all materials (including this instruction sheet) are returned to the researchers following the interview.
Appendix N: Self-evaluation

INTERVIEWER POST-INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE

Please complete the following questionnaire, taking your time to respond to each question. Most questions require some form of explanation. Please provide your initial thoughts or feelings. You may continue on the back of the questionnaire if necessary (please just indicate the number of the question your additional response relates to).

Your regimental number: ______________________________

What is your sex?
☐ Male
☐ Female

What is your age? _______________ years

Were you a police cadet?
☐ Yes
☐ No

If yes, how long were you a police cadet, and how often were you involved in interviewing people and/or taking statements?

☐ Very frequently  ☐ Frequently  ☐ Occasionally  ☐ Rarely  ☐ Very rarely  ☐ Never
Have you received any previous interview training?

☐ Yes
☐ No
If yes, what interview training have you received, how long was the training, and what techniques did you learn?

Please indicate the highest education level you have achieved? (Select one only)

☐ Completed Year 10 or less
☐ Completed Year 11 or 12
☐ An Apprenticeship
☐ Some TAFE but did not complete
☐ Completed a TAFE program
☐ Some university but did not complete
☐ Completed an undergraduate university degree (please specify the discipline)
☐ Completed a postgraduate university degree (please specify the discipline)
☐ Other (please specify education level achieved)
What was your occupation group prior to joining the WA Police? *(Select one only)*

- Manager/administrator
- Professional
- Tradesperson
- Clerical, sales and service
- Production and transport
- Labourer
- Home duties
- Unemployed
- No prior occupation group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1.</th>
<th>What steps did you take prior to starting the interview?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>How did you start the interview?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>What instructions/explanations did you give the witness prior to and during the interview?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Question</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>How did you structure the interview?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>What types of questions did you use during the interview (please give an example of each type of question)?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>What (if any) listening techniques did you use during the interview?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>How did you record the information provided by the witness during the interview?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
8. What steps did you take to make the witness feel comfortable?

9. How did you end the interview?

10. Please indicate how well you think the interview was conducted on the following scale from 0 to 10?

   0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
   Poorly Average Excellently

11. Please indicate how well you think the witness would think the interview was conducted on the following scale from 0 to 10?

   0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
   Poorly Average Excellently

   If these ratings are different, why do you think they are different?
12. Do you think you got the witness to provide all the information he or she had? □ No □ Yes
   If not, why not?

13. If you could conduct this interview again, what would you do differently?
Appendix O: Results of Friedman Tests

**Mean Rank and Results of Friedman Tests for Plans (Chapter 3 Phase I)**

<table>
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<th>Time 1</th>
<th>Time 2</th>
<th>Time 3</th>
<th>Time 4</th>
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*Note.* Means in a row sharing the same subscripts differ significantly where $p < .008$. 
Appendix P: Results of Friedman Tests

Mean Rank and Results of Friedman Tests for Plans (Chapter 3 Phase II)

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Note. Means in a row sharing the same subscripts differ significantly where $p < .008$. 
## Appendices

### Appendix Q: Results of Friedman Tests

Mean Rank and Results of Friedman Tests for Plans (Chapter 3 Phase III)

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*Note.* Means in a row sharing the same subscripts differ significantly where $p < .008$. 

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## Appendix R: Results of Friedman Tests

Mean Rank and Results of Friedman Tests for Plans (Chapter 4 Phase II)

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Time 2</th>
<th>Time 3</th>
<th>Time 4</th>
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<td>Engage and explain</td>
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<td>2.61</td>
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*Note.* Means in a row sharing the same subscripts differ significantly where $p < .008$. 
### Appendix S: Results of Friedman Tests

**Mean Rank and Results of Friedman Tests for Interviews (Chapter 4 Phase II)**

<table>
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<th>Time 4</th>
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<td>2.83</td>
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*Note. Means in a row sharing the same subscripts differ significantly where *p* < .008.*
### Appendix T: Results of Friedman Tests

**Mean Rank and Results of Friedman Tests for Interviews (Chapter 4 Phase III)**

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*Note.* Means in a row sharing the same subscripts differ significantly where $p < .008$. 

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