

SCHOOL RESOURCE OFFICERS: INTERROGATION TRAINING, DEVELOPMENTAL
KNOWLEDGE, AND QUESTIONING PRACTICES

BY

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STATEMENT OF CONTRIBUTIONS

I hereby certify that I am the sole author of this thesis and that no part of this thesis has been published or submitted for publication. I have used standard referencing practices to acknowledge ideas, research techniques, or other materials that belong to others. Furthermore, I hereby certify that I am the sole source of the creative works and/or inventive knowledge described in this thesis.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

SRO	School Resource Officer
RIT	Reid Interrogation Trained
Non-RIT	Non-Reid Interrogation Trained
DIT	Developmentally Interrogation Trained
Non-DIT	Non-Developmentally Interrogation Trained
DKS	Developmental Knowledge Survey
PIS	Police Interrogation Survey

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ABSTRACT

Given the prevalence of School Resource Officers (SROs) in American schools, it is surprising that relatively little is known empirically about SRO training, including with regard to their questioning of students suspected or accused of offending in schools. We surveyed 287 eligible SROs from the U.S. We focused on how SROs are trained with respect to questioning students in schools and how this is related to SROs' developmental knowledge and questioning practices in the schools. We conceptualized training as reported attendance of the Reid interrogation training (RIT) or child/youth-specific interviewing/interrogation training (DIT: developmental interrogation training). Overall, RIT and non-RIT SROs demonstrated similar developmental knowledge and used similar questioning tactics. The few differences that emerged suggest that RIT SROs are using more advisable techniques than non-RIT SROs. Moreover, DIT SROs demonstrated less knowledge concerning children's comprehension of their Miranda rights, and endorsed several of the 'more advisable' tactics, at significantly higher rates than non-DIT. More knowledge is required regarding the child/youth oriented interviewing/interrogation training.

Keywords: juveniles; interrogation; school resource officers; training; REID

INTRODUCTION

Over the last few decades there has been both an increase in police presence in American schools and concern about how juveniles are questioned as suspects by police (e.g., Owen-Kostelnik et al., 2006). School resource officers (SROs) are law enforcement officers assigned by their agency to work in a school setting. SRO programs have existed since the mid-1900s; however, the amount of programs expanded rapidly in the United States (U.S.) in the 1990s following a number of high profile school shootings and increases in juvenile crime (Brown, 2006; Weiler & Cray, 2011). The number of SROs present in schools increased by 52% between the years 1997 and 2003 (from 9,400 to 14,337 SROs). In the present day, it is difficult to determine exactly how many SROs there are in the U.S., but the number is estimated to be over 20,000 (Brown, 2006), with over 42% of schools having an SRO present (Musu-Gillette et al., 2018). Given the prevalence of SROs in American schools, it is surprising that relatively little is known empirically about SRO training, including with regard to their questioning of students suspected or accused of offending in schools. The present research concerns SRO training on questioning students in schools with a particular focus on SROs who have versus have not been trained in the “Reid Technique,” the most popular interrogation method in North America, and those who have versus have not received developmental training on interviewing/interrogation (Kassin et al., 2010).

Questioning and Confessions of Juvenile Suspects

Youth as a dispositional risk factor in interrogations. Several characteristics of youth have been identified as developmental vulnerabilities which make them less culpable for their actions, including criminal behavior, and at greater risk of various negative outcomes (e.g., false confessions, coerced confessions) when questioned as suspects about their behaviour. For

example, youthfulness has been related to developmental immaturity, vulnerability to external influence, inadequate risk perception, poor impulse control, and deference to adult authority (see Steinberg, 2014, for a review). Further, research has shed light on other vulnerabilities youth present in the interrogation room, including poor comprehension of their legal rights, heightened compliance, and greater suggestibility and susceptibility to suggestive questions (Drizin & Leo, 2004; McLachlan, Roesch, & Douglas, 2011; Redlich & Goodman, 2003; Viljoen, Zapf, & Roesch, 2007). Together, these characteristics appear to increase youths' propensity to falsely confess and thus put them at risk in interrogation contexts (Cauffman & Steinberg, 2000; Drizin & Leo, 2004; Grisso et al., 2003).

Research has shown that the rates of false confessions are higher in juvenile populations than adult populations. For example, in an analysis of 125 cases of proven false confessions, Drizin and Leo (2004) found that youth (i.e., those under the age of 18) were over-represented in their study. The demographics revealed that approximately 33% of their sample consisted of juvenile false confessors; 55% of those juveniles were age 15 and under. In another field study, researchers examined 328 exonerations and found that 44% of the juvenile exonerees made a false confession in comparison to only 13% of the adult exonerees (Gross, Jacoby, Matheson, Montgomery, & Patel, 2005). Furthermore, 75% of the younger group of juvenile exonerees (ages 12-15 years) had made a false confession. Juvenile false confessions have also been studied via hypothetical vignettes. For example, Goldstein, Condie, Kalbeitzer, Osman, and Geier (2003) found that, when presented with hypothetical police interrogation scenarios, 42% of male juvenile offenders disclosed that they were inclined to provide a false confession in at least one out of the 26 interrogation vignettes and 25% indicated they would, in fact, provide a false confession in at least one of the scenarios. These studies raise significant concerns regarding the

welfare of youth and their developmental vulnerabilities when questioned as suspects.

Youth in combination with situational risk factors in interrogations. In addition to youth as a dispositional risk factor for false confession, it is important to discuss the influence of coercive, manipulative, and high-pressure interrogation techniques as situational risk factors with youth (Kassin & Gudjonsson, 2004). The Reid Technique (Inbau et al., 2013) is the most commonly used interrogation method in North America, even though many argue that the methods used in this technique are not suitable for youth (International Association of Chiefs of Police [IACP], 2012; Merryman, 2010; Spierer, 2017). It is an accusatorial, confrontational interrogation method that can involve presenting false evidence, using minimization to justify the crime, and lying to the suspect. Such confrontational environments are known to elicit an increase in false reports in both children and adults (e.g., Garven, Wood, Malpass, & Shaw, 1998; Libby, 2003; Wade, Garry, Read, & Lindsay, 2002; see Loftus, 1997, 2003 for reviews).

The Reid Technique consists of a nine-step process for questioning suspects (Spierer, 2017). In Step 1, the interrogator conveys certainty that the suspect is guilty and asserts that the reason for the interrogation is to obtain a confession. In the next several steps, the interrogator uses tactics to minimize or downplay the suspect's moral guilt and reject all denials that the suspect puts forth while attempting to manage the suspect's physical or mental withdrawal from the questioning. In Step 7, the interrogator presents two different scenarios (i.e., the alternative scenario), both of which involve the suspect admitting guilt but one in a less morally culpable way. Finally, in steps 8 and 9, the interrogator attempts to turn the suspect's oral admission into a legally appropriate and full oral and written confession.

Children's vulnerabilities and risk-factors for false confessions are not taken into account by interrogators when questioning children and youth with the Reid Technique. The

minimization tactics recommended, for example, are problematic for young suspects as they may be quick to provide a false confession in order to leave the interrogation room and the anxiety that comes with being placed in that context (Spierer, 2017). Other manipulative tactics (e.g., deception, alternative scenarios) may produce inaccurate statements and false confessions due to youths' lack of sophistication and desire to leave the uncomfortable situation (Spierer, 2017). Even though substantial evidence exists regarding the psychological and developmental vulnerabilities of youth, interrogators continue to use the Reid Technique or Reid-like methods with youth.

Scholars have categorized the interrogation methods taught by the Reid Technique into two main types: minimization tactics and maximization tactics (Leo, 2008). On the other side of the spectrum, maximization tactics are used to elicit a confession through conveying certainty in the suspect's guilt and using techniques such as presenting evidence (including false evidence), emphasizing the seriousness of the offence, and repeated assertions of guilt and disallowing of denials. Considering what is known about youth and their vulnerabilities during interrogations, it is concerning that the Reid Technique training manual recommends that the tactics be used for youth the same way they are used for adults (Inbau et al., 2013). Not only does the Reid Technique recommend its usage on youth, it even suggests, at times, that the interrogator take advantage of their adolescent characteristics (e.g., lack of supervision and decreased resistance to temptation; Kassin et al., 2010). However, in the most recent version of the Reid Technique training manual (Inbau et al., 2013), the authors have partially recognized that youth are at a higher risk for making false confessions. Thus, they suggest that the interrogator take precautions when questioning juveniles, and that deception should be avoided when interrogating a juvenile suspect with low social maturity. However, it is unclear whether police are qualified to make

judgements about youths' social maturity considering these terms are not specifically defined in the manual, nor are specific criteria suggested for use in making such judgments.

How are youth questioned as suspects? Research shows that juveniles in the U.S. are, in fact, exposed to maximization and minimization tactics when questioned as suspects (Malloy, Shulman, & Cauffman, 2014). For example, Meyer and Reppucci (2007) surveyed community police officers about their interrogations of juvenile suspects. Their findings demonstrated that various interrogation tactics (e.g., tricking the suspect, presenting false evidence, and heightening the suspect's anxiety level) were frequently used and used at similar rates for child, adolescent, and adult suspects. A follow-up study by Reppucci, Meyer, and Kostelnik (2010) found that interrogators endorsed the usage of various techniques on children (i.e., those 13 years and under) and youth (i.e., those ages 14 to 17) that are used when interrogating adults, which included using deceit and discouraging denials. Surprisingly, the researchers also found that a greater number of police officers who reported having received child/youth focused interrogation training endorsed the use of all the Reid interrogation tactics analyzed for the study (e.g., observing body language to detect deception, deceit) with both child and juvenile suspects than those who reported having no child/youth focused training. This finding raises concerns about the nature of the child/youth focused interrogation training that they had received. This evidence demonstrates that community police officers do not appear to distinguish between youth and adults when questioning suspects, at least when it comes to self-reports of their typical practices with these different age groups.

Given the fact that Reid Technique tactics are recommended in the training manual for use on youth and adults alike, and the fact that it is the most widely used interrogation method in North America, it is not surprising that some research has focused on the behaviour of over 1800

Reid-trained versus non Reid-trained police officers with juveniles. Kostelnik and Reppucci (2009) assessed how police officers who had received Reid interrogation training (RIT) and those who had not received Reid interrogation training (non-RIT) differed in terms of their sensitivity to the developmental maturity and youthfulness of juvenile suspects. The officers completed the Police Interrogation Survey (PIS), which focuses on the officers' interrogation questioning practices and how they perceive juvenile suspects' developmental maturity during interrogation. Results revealed that RIT officers have less sensitivity to the developmental maturity of youth than non-RIT officers do. In comparison to non-RIT officers (57.8%), RIT officers were less likely to agree that youth are suggestible (44.5%). Also, RIT officers were more likely to agree that youth understand their rights and the intent of a police interrogation (83.1%) than non-RIT officers (69.9%). Furthermore, RIT officers were more likely than non-RIT officers to endorse the use of false evidence, minimization techniques, and deceit with youth. Note, however, that the study was correlational in nature, and therefore causal conclusions cannot be drawn.

Although Kostelnik and Reppucci's (2009) study is informative about interrogation training and police officer sensitivity to developmental immaturity, no study has examined these issues among SROs. This is critical because the Reid Technique is now marketed to schools and training sessions have been offered to educators in at least eight states (Starr, 2016), even though its tactics have been criticized by many as being inappropriate for youth (IACP, 2012; Merryman, 2010; Spierer, 2017), with youth being at an enhanced risk for false confessions. In general, scholars have raised concerns regarding the criminalization of student behavior and how it leads to a considerable increase in school-based arrests and serious legal consequences for students (Daly et al., 2016; Goldstein et. al, 2019). Thus, it is important to examine whether

SROs take into consideration the developmental immaturity and vulnerabilities of youth when questioning them in order to avoid false confessions and unjust consequences in schools.

School Resource Officers' (SROs) Training and Questioning of Juveniles

According to the National Association of School Resource Officers (NASRO, n.d.), SROs are trained to fulfill a “triad” role, which includes three main functions: educator, informal counselor, and law enforcer. Their role as educators includes tasks such as being a guest lecturer to inform students and teachers on topics such as bullying prevention, the law, and substance abuse. SROs can also lead in-service trainings for school personnel, educate staff about crime and justice issues, and provide training on crime prevention (NASRO, n.d.; Rosiak, 2014). Their role as informal counselors consists of building positive relationships with the students through formal and informal interactions. Lastly, their role as law enforcer consists of protecting students and staff from threats of violence, conducting criminal investigations, patrolling school property, making student arrests if necessary, and dealing with trespassers. It is this final role that is of concern in the present research, as investigating student behaviour in schools seemingly involves questioning students. Yet, we know very little about how SROs are trained generally and virtually nothing about how SROs are trained to question students specifically.

SROs are police officers who need to be properly selected and equipped. Research suggests that traditional police training does not provide sufficient instructions on topics relating to school-based law enforcement (e.g., developmental psychology; Rosiak, 2014). Thus, SRO training programs have been developed for officers taking on this role. Basic SRO training consists of a 40-hour block of instruction that includes teaching officers how to mentor, teach, and counsel students; how to foster positive relationships with educators and students; and how to follow juvenile justice and privacy laws (NASRO, n.d.; Rosiak, 2014). SROs are trained to

promote safety within schools by patrolling the school grounds inside and out, dealing with service or emergency calls on campus (e.g. managing trespassers), handling students that violate the law or school rules, and minimizing disruptions that may occur in the school. Part of the basic training also includes explanations on teen brain development, adolescents' intellectual and emotional development, and the differences between puberty and adolescence. However, there appears to be no component of this basic training focused on how to question children and youth specifically. This raises the concern that SROs may not receive appropriate training, nor may they receive developmental knowledge specifically relevant to questioning juvenile suspects in a developmentally appropriate manner

Further, very little is known about SROs' assessment of their training needs. A survey of NASRO SROs attending their annual conference (NASRO, n.d.) were asked the open-ended question: What other topics do attendees think should be added to the current NASRO training? Various topics were mentioned by the SROs, including trainings on active shooters, social media, dealing with school administrators, the mental health of youth, gang identification, and juvenile interviewing. It is important to understand what SROs perceive as their training needs in order for existing, and developing, SRO programs to incorporate important training topics they are lacking. For the purposes of this study, we focused on SRO training as it pertains to the questioning/interrogation of juvenile suspects.

The Present Study

In this study, we focused on how SROs are trained with respect to questioning students in schools and how this is related to SROs' developmental knowledge and questioning practices in the schools. We have focused on training as reported attendance of the Reid Technique training or child/youth-specific interviewing/interrogation training. Further, we explored what SROs perceive as their training needs. Drawing from the relatively small body of research regarding

Reid-trained (RIT) versus non-Reid trained (non-RIT) community police officers, we hypothesized that when compared to non-RIT SROs, RIT SROs would: (1) be less aware of the developmental immaturity of adolescents and children in the interrogation context and (2) use less advisable questioning techniques with children and adolescents. Additionally, we were inclined to hypothesize that SROs with developmental interrogation training (DIT) would be more aware of the developmental immaturity of adolescents and children in the interrogation context, and that DIT SROs would use more advisable questioning tactics with children and adolescents than those with no developmental interrogation training (non-DIT SROs; but see Reppucci et al., 2010). However, the only existing findings concerning DIT police officers indicated they endorsed the use of less advisable Reid interrogation tactics (e.g., observing body language to detect deception, deceit) with juvenile suspects more than those who reported having no DIT. In light of this, no clear predictions were established regarding participants in the DIT group. No specific hypotheses were made regarding our exploratory analyses concerning SROs' assessment of their training needs.

Method

Participants

The study sample consisted of SROs. For the purposes of this study, SROs were defined as any sworn law enforcement officer who worked in one or more schools in the U.S. The following eligibility criteria were determined via self report before participants engaged in the survey: (1) they were a sworn law enforcement officer and (2) they worked in one or more schools in the U.S. In total, 287 eligible participants completed the survey (231 males and 56 females; $M_{\text{age}} = 42.29$, $SD = 8.94$).

Participants responded to demographic questions and 93.4% indicated that they were

White, 7.0% were Hispanic or Latino, 3.8% were Black, and 1.7% were American Indian or Alaska Native (for this question participants could select “all that apply”). Participants reported their highest attained level of education, of which 2.8% had a high school diploma or equivalent, 24.0% had some college but no degree, 21.6% had an associate degree, 39.4% had an undergraduate degree, 11.5% had a graduate degree, and 0.7% had a professional degree. The majority of participants (82.6%) indicated working for a local police or sheriff’s department. The remaining participants were employed by the school district (7.0%), school police department (7%), or other (3.5%). The majority of participants (68.3%) reported having over a year of work experience as an SRO, while 31.7% had less than one year of experience as an SRO. For the SROs who indicated having over a year of experience, the average was 6.95 years ($SD = 5.56$).

Participants were also asked about the type of interviewing/interrogation training they have received (see Appendix I). Out of the 287 participants, 41.5% ($n = 119$) reported attending Reid Technique training and 46.1% ($n = 132$) reported having received training about interviewing/interrogating children/youth, and 18.1% ($n = 52$) reported having attended both Reid Technique training and training on interviewing/interrogating children/youth. Those who reported being ‘not sure’ about attending either of these trainings were excluded from the analysis. After removing the “not sure” responses, the total number of participants was 276 in the RIT vs. non-RIT group, and 251 for the DIT vs. non-DIT group.

Measures

Survey Instrument. Consistent with Meyer and Reppuci (2007), two versions of the survey were created: (1) a “Child” version (children 13 years and younger), and (2) a “Youth” version (youth 14 to 17 years of age). Participating SROs reported the student age group they usually work with; they then received the survey version that corresponded with that age group.

In total, 122 (42.5%) of participants completed the “Child” version, while 165 (57.5%) of participants completed the “Youth” version.

The survey was made available through a host website known as Qualtrics.com. The survey consisted of a slightly altered version of the Police Interrogation Survey (PIS) (Meyer & Reppucci, 2007; Reppucci et al., 2010). The modifications made to the PIS ensured that the measure adapted to a school context; however, many of the questions were kept in their original form. The Developmental Knowledge Survey (DKS) was also included (Meyer & Reppucci, 2007; Reppucci et al., 2010).

Police Interrogation Survey (PIS). The PIS assessed officers’ application of developmental knowledge to questioning children/youth. This survey consisted of 52 questions, including the extent of SROs’ agreement with various items (e.g., how well they understand their *Miranda* rights) and their reported use or endorsement of specific questioning tactics (see Appendix I). Items concerning SROs’ agreement with various items were rated on a 6-point Likert scale, ranging from ‘strongly disagree’ to ‘strongly agree’. Items concerning endorsement of specific questioning tactics were dichotomously rated as “yes” if they endorsed its use and “no” if not. This measure also contained questions about SROs’ exposure to interviewing/interrogation training. These questions and their response attributes included the following: (1) *Have you attended the Reid Interviewing & Interrogation Training?*: Yes, No, Not sure, and (2) *Have you received training about interviewing or interrogating children [or youth, depending on Age Group]*: Yes, No, Not sure. SROs were also asked open-ended questions, including one about training: “*What could be done to improve your training as a school resource officer?*” Responses to this question were coded and analyzed in the present study.

Developmental Knowledge Survey (DKS). The DKS assessed the officers' knowledge of child/youth development through 26 items (see Appendix H), such as: *Children are more likely to obey authority figures than adults; Youth will say untruthful things if they feel pressured by adults to do so; Youth are more likely to engage in risky behaviors than adults; Youth are more naïve than adults.* The response options to these items were the following: 1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Slightly Disagree; 4 = Slightly Agree; 5 = Agree; 6 = Strongly Agree.

Demographic survey. At the end of the survey, SROs responded to a questionnaire that inquired about their demographic characteristics (e.g., age, race, gender, education level, number of years of experience as an SRO).

Procedure

The invitation to participate in the study was distributed by the National Association of School Resource Officers (NASRO) to their members via email. Those interested in participating first had to complete the online informed consent form. Those who made it through the pre-screen eligibility questions were able to access the remainder of the survey. Completing the survey took approximately 35 minutes. In order to control for the potential order effects, the PIS and the DKS were presented in a randomized fashion across participants. Once participants completed the survey, they received the debriefing information and a \$10 electronic gift card.

Data Coding and Reduction

Training variables were dichotomized; the response attributes for the question 'Have you attended the Reid Interviewing & Interrogation Training?' were recoded into 0 = no and 1 = yes. Those who reported being 'not sure' ($n = 12$) were excluded from further analyses. The same dichotomization was completed for the question 'Have you received training about interviewing

or interrogating children/youth?', and those who reported being 'not sure' ($n = 35$) were also excluded from further analyses.

The responses to the open-ended question, 'What could be done to improve your training as a School Resource Officer?' were first reviewed to create coding categories. Six categories emerged: (1) interview/interrogation, (2) mental health, (3) child and youth, (4) availability and frequency of training, (5) social media, and (6) active shooter (see Table 1). All responses other responses which did not fit into the categories were coded as 'other'. Then, two coders independently scored all responses dichotomously for the presence (1) or absence (0) of each category. More than one category could be present in a single response; thus, categories were not mutually exclusive. For example, the participant who stated, "More classes on dealing with youth and interviewing youth" received a "1" for the interviewing category and a "1" for the child and youth focused category. The two coders successfully achieved interrater reliability ($Kappas \geq .80$).

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Chi square analyses examined the Age Group (child v. youth) of the survey to which participants were assigned based on the age of students with whom they typically work and whether they had experienced RIT or DIT. Regarding RIT, there was no significant difference in age group, $X^2(1, 276) = .059, p = .808$: RIT SROs worked with 13 and under (42.9%) and 14- to 17-year-olds (57.1%) at similar rates as non-RIT SROs (41.4% for 13 and under and 58.6% for 14- to 17-year-olds). However, regarding DIT, a significant difference emerged based on Age Group, $X^2(1, 251) = 7.56, p = .006$. DIT SROs were significantly more likely to work with 14- to 17-year-olds (65.9%) than children ages 13 and under (34.1%), whereas non-DIT SROs reported

working with 14- to 17-year-olds (48.7%) and children ages 13 and under (51.3%) at similar rates. Thus, we conducted all of the primary analyses with Age Group as an independent variable. Only one significant effect of Age Group was found, and we report this below. Otherwise, we no longer consider Age Group in the analyses.

Principal axis factoring was conducted separately for the DKS and PIS Likert-scale items (1 = Strongly Disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Slightly Disagree; 4 = Slightly Agree; 5 = Agree; 6 = Strongly Agree). There were 26 Likert-scale items in the DKS and 24 Likert-scale items in the PIS. Consistent with Meyer and Reppucci (2007), the DKS results were uninterpretable. That is, no clear factors emerged. Thus, we analyzed all items of the DKS individually. Also consistent with Meyer and Reppucci (2007), the Promax rotation for the PIS items revealed three factors representing the mean scores of the items making up each factor (see Table 2): (1) *Comprehension* (Cronbach's alpha = .92); which is the suspect's comprehension of their Miranda rights (2) *Deception Detection* (Cronbach's alpha = .84); the SROs' ability to distinguish innocent versus guilty suspects, (3) *Suggestibility* (Cronbach's alpha = .64); the suggestibility/fallibility of suspects (see Table 2).

Developmental Knowledge Survey (DKS)

A series of 2 (RIT: received v. not received) X 2 (DIT: received v. not received) univariate ANOVAs were conducted to examine each of the 26 items of the DKS (see Table 3). No significant main effects or interactions emerged regardless of whether we used a standard p value for significance testing ($p < .05$) or the appropriate p value to adjust for multiple comparisons ($p = .002$).

Police Interrogation Survey (PIS)

Because the three distinct factors emerged in the factor analysis of the Likert-scale items

of the PIS, we analyzed each factor separately. First, a 2 (RIT: received v. not received) X 2 (DIT: received v. not received) X 2 (Age Group: child v. youth) univariate ANOVA was conducted because, as mentioned in the preliminary analyses, Age Group emerged as significant for the Comprehension factor on the PIS only. Second, two 2 (RIT: received v. not received) X 2 (DIT: received v. not received) univariate ANOVAs compared the RIT SROs and non-RIT SROs, as well as DIT SROs and non-DIT SROs, on the deception detection and suggestibility factors of the PIS.

Comprehension. A significant main effect of RIT emerged, $F(1, 232) = 5.04, p = .026, \mu^2 = .02$. RIT SROs were significantly less likely to agree with the comprehension factor items (children/youth understand their right to an attorney, their right to remain silent, and their *Miranda* rights) ($M = 3.23, SD = 1.37$) than non-RIT SROs ($M = 3.90, SD = 1.38$). A significant main effect of Age Group also emerged, $F(1, 232) = 36.13, p < .001, \mu^2 = .14$, but was subsumed by a significant Age Group X DIT interaction, $F(1, 232) = 8.57, p = .004, \mu^2 = .04$. Follow-up simple effects analyses examined whether effects of DIT emerged within the two Age Group groups (13 and under and 14- to 17). Results revealed that among SROs who answered the survey about youth (14- to 17-year-olds), there was no significant effect of DIT, $F(1, 136) = 1.26, p = .264$. That is, DIT SROs ($M = 4.06, SD = .14$) were as likely to agree that youth comprehend their right to an attorney, their right to remain silent, and their *Miranda* rights as non-DIT SROs ($M = 4.30, SD = .17$). However, among those who answered the survey about children ages 13 and under, a significant effect of DIT emerged, $F(1, 96) = 7.87, p = .006, \mu^2 = .08$. DIT SROs were more likely to agree with the comprehension factor items ($M = 3.53, SD = .21$) than non-DIT SROs ($M = 2.77, SD = .16$).

Deception detection. DIT SROs were slightly more likely to disagree that they can

distinguish between innocent and guilty suspects ($M = 2.07, SD = .79$) than non-DIT SROs ($M = 2.40, SD = .98$), $F(1, 236) = 4.84, p = .029$. There were no significant differences found between RIT ($M = 2.36, SD = .94$) and non-RIT SROs ($M = 2.40, SD = .98$) regarding deception detection, $F(1, 236) = .072, p = .789, \mu^2 = .00$.

Suggestibility. Regarding suggestibility, no significant differences emerged between the RIT SROs ($M = 4.11, SD = .85$) and the non-RIT SROs ($M = 3.84, SD = .95$), $F(1, 234) = 1.87, p = .173, \mu^2 = .01$, or between DIT SROs ($M = 3.80, SD = .69$) and non-DIT SROs ($M = 3.84, SD = .95$), $F(1, 234) = 1.96, p = .162, \mu^2 = .00$.

Endorsement of questioning tactics. Participants were asked about their use or endorsement of 24 specific questioning tactics as part of the PIS. See Table 4 for the complete results with the questioning tactics organized into “more advisable” and “less advisable” sections according to research and guidance concerning developmentally appropriate questioning of youth (IACP, 2012; Owen-Kostelnik et al., 2006).

First, chi square analyses examined whether RIT SROs versus non-RIT SROs endorsed each tactic. Results revealed only one significant difference: RIT SROs (38.7%) were less likely to endorse asking yes/no questions than non-RIT SROs (52.2%), $X^2(1) = 5.02, p = .025$.

Second, chi square analyses examined whether there were differences in DIT and non-DIT SROs' endorsement of each of the questioning tactics. Results revealed that DIT SROs were more likely to endorse the use of videotaping interviews (38.6%) than non-DIT SROs (22.7%), $X^2(1) = 7.43, p = .006$. Significantly more DIT SROs endorsed the use of advising the child of his/her Miranda rights (62.1%) than non-DIT SROs (45.4%), $X^2(1) = 7.17, p = .008$. Furthermore, DIT SROs were more likely to endorse allowing the child to contact a parent/legal guardian (65.2%) than non-DIT SROs (47.1%), $X^2(1) = 8.34, p = .004$. The above three

techniques are among those considered “more advisable.” DIT SROs also endorsed the use of one of the “less advisable” tactics more so than non-DIT SROs. That is, DIT SROs were more likely to endorse observing speech patterns to determine if the child is being truthful or deceitful (53%) than non-DIT SROs (39.5%), $X^2(1) = 4.61, p = .032$.

Third, proportion scores were created representing the mean proportion of more advisable tactics endorsed (out of 8 total) and the mean proportion of less advisable tactics endorsed (out of 16 total). A 2 (RIT: received v. not received) X 2 (DIT: received v. not received) X 2 (Tactics: mean proportion “more advisable” tactics v. mean proportion “less advisable” tactics) mixed model ANOVA was conducted with RIT and DIT varied between subjects and Tactics varied within subjects. Significant main effects of Tactics, $F(1, 238) = 601.22, p < .001, \mu^2 = .72$ (95% CI = .56, .63), and DIT, $F(1, 238) = 10.21, p = .002, \mu^2 = .04$, (95% CI = .35, .41) emerged. These main effects were subsumed by a significant Tactics X DIT interaction, $F(1, 238) = 4.93, p = .027, \mu^2 = .02$. Finally, a significant Tactics X RIT interaction, $F(1, 238) = 4.37, p = .038, \mu^2 = .02$, was found.

Follow-up simple effects analyses first examined the Tactics X DIT interaction. These analyses revealed that a significant main effect of Tactics emerged within both the DIT ($M = .61, SD = .28$ for advisable tactics and $M = .26, SD = .15$ for non-advisable tactics) and non-DIT groups ($M = .55, SD = .24$ for advisable tactics and $M = .23, SD = .15$ for non-advisable tactics), but this effect was more robust among DIT SROs, $F(1, 122) = 412.69, p < .001, \mu^2 = .77$, than among non-DIT SROs, $F(1, 116) = 216.97, p < .001, \mu^2 = .65$. See Figure 1.

Follow-up simple effects analyses also examined the Tactics X RIT interaction. A significant main effect of Tactics emerged within both RIT ($M = .54, SD = .28$ for advisable tactics and $M = .19, SD = .18$ for non-advisable tactics) and non-RIT groups ($M = .55, SD = .25$

for advisable tactics and $M = .23$, $SD = .15$ for non-advisable tactics), but the effect was more robust among non-RIT SROs, $F(1, 96) = 338.61$, $p < .001$, $\mu^2 = .78$, than among the RIT SROs, $F(1, 142) = 287.42$, $p < .001$, $\mu^2 = .67$. See Figure 2.

SROs' Perceptions of Their Training Needs

Overall, 259 SROs provided narrative responses to the open-ended question concerning their training needs. Many SROs indicated a need for increased availability and frequency of training ($n = 93$), child and youth related training ($n = 62$), and interviewing training ($n = 37$), whereas the needs for mental health ($n = 15$), social media training ($n = 7$), and active shooter ($n = 5$) mentioned relatively rarely (see Table 5). Chi square analyses explored potential differences between RIT versus non-RIT SROs and DIT versus non-DIT SROs in their perceptions of their training needs by testing the frequency with which SROs in these groups mentioned the six categories. No significant group differences emerged based on RIT group status or DIT group status (all $ps > .05$).

Discussion

The primary goal of the present study was to gain an understanding of SROs' training in regards to questioning students in schools by analyzing how having attended Reid interrogation training or interrogation training on children/youth is related to SROs' developmental knowledge and questioning practices in schools. We also explored SROs' perceptions of their training needs. Drawing on the relatively small body of research regarding Reid-trained versus non-Reid trained community police officers, we hypothesized that RIT SROs would be less aware of the developmental immaturity of adolescents and children in the interrogation context, and that they would use less advisable questioning tactics than non-Reid interrogation trained officers (non-RIT SROs). Further, we had no clear predictions regarding participants in the DIT group and

their awareness of the developmental immaturity of juveniles, nor about SROs use of questioning tactics in the interrogation context. Results revealed relatively few differences among these two groups, as we discuss below.

The DKS assessed SROs' general developmental knowledge, measuring the extent of SROs' agreement with items such as "Children will say untruthful things if they feel pressured by adults to do so" and "Male children have a need to present a 'macho' image." In contrast with our hypotheses, results demonstrated no significant differences between RIT and non-RIT SROs or between DIT and non-DIT SROs on any DKS items. It is noteworthy that not a single significant group difference emerged on any of the 26 items. Although Kostelnik and Reppucci (2009) compared RIT and non-RIT community police officers in their study, they only examined their responses on the PIS and did not report findings concerning the DKS. Thus, it is difficult to put our lack of significant findings here in context given that their study is the only published study focused on RIT versus non-RIT officers in the juvenile interrogation context. Regarding the lack of differences based on DIT, it is important to point out that participants' responses to a single item concerning whether they had ever received interrogation or interview training on children/youth constituted the formation of the DIT and non-DIT groups. We were unable to determine further details regarding what the DIT entailed, how long ago they had received it, whether it was a course that they could pass or fail, and other relevant aspects of the training. Perhaps most importantly, we have no information on the content of such training. Still, one might expect that training focused on interviewing/interrogating children or youth would have resulted in *some* differences in developmental knowledge among those who had received it. The fact that it did not, suggests that the training was insufficient in terms of coverage or perhaps not memorable. Some may argue that the DKS is meant to focus on developmental knowledge of

children and youth *generally*; if the goal of the DIT only concerns guidance on interrogation and interviewing, perhaps the DIT does cover general juvenile developmental principles. Future research should glean more specifics about any developmental training received including its length, timing, and content.

It is perhaps also noteworthy, and consistent with Meyer et al. (2007), that the factor analysis of the DKS yielded an uninterpretable solution with no clear factors emerging. This begs the question: What is the DKS measuring? Some items concern the suggestibility and deception of children and youth, whereas others are focused on their violent and risky behaviour in comparison to that of adults. Future research should focus specifically on the reliability and validity of the DKS and determine whether it is assessing the types of developmental knowledge that are crucial for police officers and police investigations.

We saw more differences emerge on the PIS than the DKS, although not always in the expected direction. For example, RIT SROs were *more* rather than *less* sensitive to the developmental maturity of juveniles than non-RIT SROs, at least in regards to the comprehension of their Miranda rights. In this way, our research did not align with past findings. Kostelnik and Reppucci (2009) found that RIT police officers were more likely to agree that youths comprehend their Miranda rights and the purpose of a police interrogation. Note that Kostelnik and Reppucci (2009) examined a sample of community police officers, whereas the present study focused on SROs specifically. It is conceivable that community police officers deal with juveniles who commit more severe crimes/offences and may encounter more juveniles with other vulnerabilities that impede their ability to understand and assert their Miranda rights (e.g., intellectual disabilities, mental illness) than SROs operating in the school context.

Regarding DIT, an interesting and unexpected pattern emerged and involved our one

significant finding concerning Age Group. DIT SROs were actually more likely to agree that children understand their Miranda rights than non-DIT SROs, although this was only found for participants responding to the survey about children 13 and under, and not for participants responding to the survey about youth aged 13 to 17. The research is very clear that youth, especially those under the age of 15, have difficulty comprehending their Miranda rights (Goldstein et al., 2003; Grisso et al., 2003; Zelle et al., 2015). Thus, it is concerning that those who had experienced interrogation/interviewing training specifically on children held these views about Miranda rights comprehension. It is possible that participants who received DIT misunderstood or misremembered the training, or that inaccurate information was presented in the training. Again, it is imperative that future research examine the details of such trainings.

We also examined the reported rates of using or endorsing various questioning tactics based on past training experiences. Only one significant difference emerged between RIT and non-RIT SROs when examining the tactics individually, which, again, was in the opposite direction of our predictions. Of the 24 interrogation tactics measured, RIT SROs were less likely than non-RIT SROs to endorse asking yes/no questions. Furthermore, when examining the proportion of more advisable versus less advisable tactics endorsed, both RIT SROs and non-RIT SROs were more likely to use or endorse the more advisable tactics. However, this finding was actually more robust among the non-RIT SROs, which stands in contrast to our hypotheses and to Kostelnik and Reppucci's (2009) findings. They found, for example, that RIT officers were more likely to endorse the use of deceit, and presenting false evidence with youths compared to non-RIT officers. There may be various reasons underlying these differences between studies, including differences in samples and timing of the training, and the officers' ability to recognize the Reid Technique training by name. Kostelnik and Reppucci conducted their study over a

decade ago, and it is also possible that the RIT itself has changed since then.

The findings concerning DIT better conformed to our expectations. Of the ‘more advisable’ tactics, DIT SROs endorsed several at significantly higher rates than non-DIT SROs (i.e., videotaping interviews, advising the child of his/her Miranda rights, and allowing the child to contact a parent/legal guardian). However, DIT SROs also endorsed the use of one ‘less advisable’ tactic - observing speech patterns to determine if the child is being truthful or deceitful - more than non-DIT SROs. This may be more telling of the widely held belief that it is possible to detect deception in others (Bond & Depaulo, 2008) than indicative of the content of the DIT that SROs experienced.

Regarding SROs’ perceptions of their training needs, increased availability and frequency of training, child and youth focused, and interviewing/interrogation training were mentioned most commonly, while active shooter training was mentioned least commonly by participating SROs. In a survey of over 300 SROs (NASRO, 2016), open-ended responses about training needs rarely mentioned interviewing/interrogation training. Because other aspects of our survey focused on this topic, participants may have had it at the forefront of their minds. No significant differences were found between RIT and non-RIT SROs, nor between DIT and non-DIT SROs, in their perceptions of training needs. The fact that participants who have received RIT and DIT are mentioning needs for child and youth focused training and interviewing/interrogation training at similar rates to those who have not received RIT and DIT suggests that those trainings have been insufficient to satisfy their perceived training needs. We posed an open-ended prompt to capture their perceived training needs, which allowed participants to respond without suggestions from our research team. However, future research may wish to consider providing SROs with checklists of training needs and having them select or rank those listed.

Limitations and Future Directions

Several limitations should be noted. First, the data were collected through self-report measures making responses susceptible to social desirability. As mentioned by Kostelnik and Reppucci (2009), it is conceivable that officers provided information that is not an honest representation of their use of certain interrogation tactics. However, the tactics measured by the PIS are legally permissible by law enforcement (this can include SROs) and often encouraged by the most commonly used interrogation method in North America. Therefore, it is unlikely that SROs were overly concerned about revealing their use in our study. Second, the analyses were correlational in nature; participants were not assigned to the training groups and we have no information regarding how participants received either training. For example, they may have selected to attend DIT because of a particular interest or concern about this topic, or it may have been made mandatory by their department. We are unable to make causal claims from our data. Third, we surveyed SROs working in the U.S. only; future research should be conducted on SRO programs and training in other countries (Duxbury & Bennell, 2019).

Furthermore, our sample consisted largely of white male participants. Although this appears to be consistent with the demographics of most SROs (NASRO, 2016), future research may benefit from developing a similar study with participants from other demographics to investigate any differences based on race/ethnicity and gender. Fourth, the present study only examined School Resource Officers who reported attending either the Reid Interrogation Training or child/youth focused interrogation training. We did not examine those who had attended both trainings. Future research may wish to include more questions about the individual trainings and regarding other specific interrogation/questioning training, such as the PEACE Model of Investigative interviewing, which claims to be based on an ethical and humane

approach (Snook, Eastwood, & Barron, 2014). Lastly, participants responded about their general perceptions and practices concerning juveniles in an interrogation context. Participants were not presented with defined situations involving a particular crime and a particular juvenile suspect. It is possible that SROs use different questioning tactics and may have varying perceptions regarding juvenile developmental maturity depending on the specifics of a given scenario. Future research may benefit from examining how SROs' beliefs and practices differ during juvenile interrogations depending on the severity of the offence, for example.

Conclusion

Our findings are the first to evaluate the differences between RIT and non-RIT SROs, and differences between DIT and non-DIT SROs, in their developmental knowledge and usage of interrogation tactics with juvenile suspects. Because schools are one of the only contexts – apart from prisons – where individuals may experience daily police supervision, it is imperative to better understand SROs' interactions with students in schools and how their training may be related to these interactions. Findings from the present study provide a first step in this direction. As articulated by the SROs in our sample, there is ample room for new and improved SRO training programs. Ideally, these training programs would involve a developmentally informed curriculum that explicitly addresses developmentally sensitive and appropriate ways to question juveniles in schools.

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Appendix A

Table 1.

Perceptions of Training Needs for SROs: Coding Categories, Definitions, and Examples of Participant Responses

Category	Definition	Examples
Interviewing	Referenced a need for interviewing/interrogation focused training	“Interview techniques training” “Juvenile interviewing training” “Children interview training”
Mental health	Referenced a need for mental health focused training	“Advanced mental health training” “Resources for mental health (suicidal) students” “Mental health classes”
Increased availability, and frequency of training	Referenced a need for more offered training opportunities, and/or recurrent training throughout the year	“Additional training during summers/school breaks” “Annual Training and refresher training in interviewing” “Annual update to legal/technique changes”
Child and youth related	Referenced a need for child and/or teen centered education	“Classes/Training that is more youth oriented” “More classes on dealing with youth and interviewing youth” “More training focused on dealing with children”
Social media	Referenced a need for training regarding the usage of social media	“Social media training regarding their platforms and how they work” “Specific training on social media for SRO's”
Active shooter training	Referenced a need for training on how to act in response to an active shooter	“More hands on training on active shooter response” “Single officer active shooter response”

Appendix B

Table 2.

Factor Loadings on Police Interrogation Survey (PIS) Items

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
<i>Factor 1: Comprehension</i>			
Children understand their right to an attorney	1.03	0.00	0.02
Children understand their right to remain silent	0.91	0.01	0.00
Miranda rights are well-understood by children	0.78	-0.03	-0.04
<i>Factor 2: Deception Detection</i>			
Only guilty children react defensively to questions	0.00	0.91	0.02
Only guilty children react with discomfort to questions	-0.03	0.98	0.03
Only innocent children are cooperative during questioning	-0.02	0.82	0.05
<i>Factor 3: Suggestibility</i>			
The reports of events given by children are more susceptible to suggestion by interviewers than are the reports of events given by adults	-0.08	0.10	0.42
Compared to adults, children are easily influenced by trickery during questioning	-0.03	-0.01	0.67
Children are more likely to confess to crimes they did not commit than adults	0.06	-0.01	0.84

Note. Although survey versions included the term “youth” or “children”, only the term “children” is included in this table for clarity.

*Agreement with suggestibility factor indicates sensitivity to developmental maturity, whereas agreement with comprehension factor and deception detection factor indicates lack of sensitivity to developmental maturity.

Appendix C

Table 3.

Means and (Standard Deviations), of Developmental Knowledge Survey (DKS) Items as a Function of Type of Training Received

DKS Items	RIT	Non-RIT	DIT	Non-DIT	Total
Children do not understand the meanings of some words that adults understand.	$M = 4.76$ ($SD = .85$)	$M = 4.79$ ($SD = .86$)	$M = 4.74$ ($SD = .93$)	$M = 4.76$ ($SD = .85$)	$M = 4.73$ ($SD = .86$)
Male children have a need to present a "macho" image.	$M = 4.09$ ($SD = 1.05$)	$M = 4.22$ ($SD = 1.05$)	$M = 4.15$ ($SD = 1.03$)	$M = 4.22$ ($SD = 1.05$)	$M = 4.16$ ($SD = .98$)
Children make eye contact with others more frequently than adults.	$M = 3.04$ ($SD = .94$)	$M = 2.83$ ($SD = 1.13$)	$M = 3.06$ ($SD = 1.03$)	$M = 2.83$ ($SD = 1.13$)	$M = 2.94$ ($SD = 1.02$)
Children sit with slouched body postures more often than adults.	$M = 3.87$ ($SD = 1.05$)	$M = 4.04$ ($SD = 1.11$)	$M = 4.01$ ($SD = .96$)	$M = 4.04$ ($SD = 1.11$)	$M = 3.98$ ($SD = 1.00$)
Children are intimidated by adult authority figures.	$M = 3.80$ ($SD = 1.11$)	$M = 3.64$ ($SD = 1.24$)	$M = 3.82$ ($SD = 1.09$)	$M = 3.64$ ($SD = 1.24$)	$M = 3.81$ ($SD = 1.12$)
Compared to adults, children are more concerned with immediate outcomes than with future outcomes.	$M = 5.11$ ($SD = .85$)	$M = 4.63$ ($SD = 1.28$)	$M = 4.67$ ($SD = 1.19$)	$M = 4.63$ ($SD = 1.28$)	$M = 4.76$ ($SD = 1.19$)
Children are frequently unaware of long-term consequences of their actions	$M = 4.85$ ($SD = .73$)	$M = 4.88$ ($SD = 1.22$)	$M = 4.90$ ($SD = 1.02$)	$M = 4.88$ ($SD = 1.22$)	$M = 4.85$ ($SD = 1.07$)
Children are more impulsive than adults.	$M = 5.00$ ($SD = .92$)	$M = 5.14$ ($SD = .78$)	$M = 5.17$ ($SD = .89$)	$M = 5.14$ ($SD = .78$)	$M = 5.11$ ($SD = .88$)
Children are more easily influenced by their peers than adults.	$M = .96$ ($SD = .79$)	$M = 5.11$ ($SD = .78$)	$M = 5.13$ ($SD = .67$)	$M = 5.11$ ($SD = .78$)	$M = 5.04$ ($SD = .73$)

Children are more competent in their decision making than adults.	$M = 2.37$ ($SD = .93$)	$M = 2.19$ ($SD = .99$)	$M = 2.41$ ($SD = .77$)	$M = 2.19$ ($SD = .99$)	$M = 2.37$ ($SD = .92$)
Adults are less likely than children to feel remorse for their actions.	$M = 3.59$ ($SD = 1.48$)	$M = 3.40$ ($SD = 1.29$)	$M = 3.29$ ($SD = 1.24$)	$M = 3.40$ ($SD = 1.29$)	$M = 3.43$ ($SD = 1.32$)
Children will say untruthful things if they feel pressured by adults to do so.	$M = 4.30$ ($SD = 1.07$)	$M = 4.36$ ($SD = 1.08$)	$M = 4.08$ ($SD = .96$)	$M = 4.26$ ($SD = 1.08$)	$M = 4.20$ ($SD = 1.05$)
Adults make riskier decisions than children.	$M = 3.24$ ($SD = 1.43$)	$M = 2.82$ ($SD = 1.20$)	$M = 2.88$ ($SD = 1.07$)	$M = 2.82$ ($SD = 1.20$)	$M = 2.91$ ($SD = 1.21$)
Adults are less empathic than children.	$M = 3.35$ ($SD = 1.04$)	$M = 3.21$ ($SD = 1.15$)	$M = 3.21$ ($SD = 1.11$)	$M = 3.21$ ($SD = 1.15$)	$M = 3.26$ ($SD = 1.09$)
Children will say untruthful things to please adults.	$M = 4.15$ ($SD = 1.03$)	$M = 4.60$ ($SD = 1.00$)	$M = 4.35$ ($SD = .84$)	$M = 4.60$ ($SD = 1.00$)	$M = 4.34$ ($SD = .97$)
Children are more likely to be dangerous to society than adults.	$M = 2.24$ ($SD = .87$)	$M = 2.71$ ($SD = 1.14$)	$M = 2.44$ ($SD = .96$)	$M = 2.71$ ($SD = 1.14$)	$M = 2.50$ ($SD = 1.03$)
Children are more likely to engage in risky behaviors than adults.	$M = 3.83$ ($SD = 1.14$)	$M = 4.33$ ($SD = 1.22$)	$M = 4.36$ ($SD = 1.09$)	$M = 4.33$ ($SD = 1.22$)	$M = 4.24$ ($SD = 1.13$)
Children are less able to consider other people's points of view than adults.	$M = 4.15$ ($SD = .87$)	$M = 4.30$ ($SD = 1.01$)	$M = 4.26$ ($SD = 1.04$)	$M = 4.30$ ($SD = 1.01$)	$M = 4.23$ ($SD = .98$)
Children will often repeat things that adults say.	$M = 4.74$ ($SD = .88$)	$M = 4.90$ ($SD = .81$)	$M = 4.96$ ($SD = .74$)	$M = 4.90$ ($SD = .81$)	$M = 4.82$ ($SD = .81$)
Adults use better judgement than children.	$M = 4.16$ ($SD = .85$)	$M = 4.26$ ($SD = 1.10$)	$M = 4.26$ ($SD = .96$)	$M = 4.26$ ($SD = 1.10$)	$M = 4.22$ ($SD = .95$)
Children are more likely to obey authority figures than adults.	$M = 4.11$ ($SD = .90$)	$M = 3.75$ ($SD = 1.15$)	$M = 3.83$ ($SD = .93$)	$M = 3.75$ ($SD = 1.15$)	$M = 3.88$ ($SD = .99$)
Children are more naive than adults.	$M = 4.63$ ($SD = .97$)	$M = 4.72$ ($SD = .97$)	$M = 4.68$ ($SD = .91$)	$M = 4.72$ ($SD = .97$)	$M = 4.63$ ($SD = .90$)

Children are more honest than adults.	$M = 3.98$ ($SD = .91$)	$M = 3.99$ ($SD = 1.04$)	$M = 4.03$ ($SD = 1.06$)	$M = 3.99$ ($SD = 1.04$)	$M = 3.95$ ($SD = .98$)
If adults want children to be honest, they should give children permission to talk openly without interruption.	$M = 4.83$ ($SD = .74$)	$M = 4.57$ ($SD = .92$)	$M = 4.74$ ($SD = .75$)	$M = 4.57$ ($SD = .92$)	$M = 4.73$ ($SD = .82$)
Adults are more violent than children.	$M = 4.17$ ($SD = 1.02$)	$M = 3.67$ ($SD = 1.14$)	$M = 3.69$ ($SD = 1.21$)	$M = 3.67$ ($SD = 1.14$)	$M = 3.84$ ($SD = 1.12$)
Children will say untruthful things if they feel pressured by parents to do so.	$M = 4.48$ ($SD = .92$)	$M = 4.43$ ($SD = .96$)	$M = 4.54$ ($SD = .82$)	$M = 4.43$ ($SD = .96$)	$M = 4.42$ ($SD = .92$)

Appendix D

Table 4.

Percent of SROs' Reported Endorsement of Various Questioning Tactics as a Function of Type of Training Received

Tactics	RIT	Non-RIT	DIT	Non-DIT	Total
<u>More Advisable</u>					
Videotaping interviews	31.1%	31.8%	38.6%	22.7%	31.1%
Building rapport with the child	89.1%	86.6%	90.9%	83.2%	87.5%
Advising the child of his/her Miranda rights	53.8%	53.5%	62.1%	45.4%	54.0%
Asking the parent(s) of the child for permission to interview the child	64.7%	63.7%	60.6%	65.5%	63.6%
Presenting evidence	63.0%	66.2%	70.5%	59.7%	64.9%
Asking non-accusatory questions before asking accusatory questions	60.5%	50.9%	55.3%	52.9%	54.9%
Asking open-ended questions	70.6%	70.7%	75.0%	64.7%	70.3%
Allowing the child to contact a parent/legal guardian	57.1%	56.7%	65.2%	47.1%	57.1
<u>Less Advisable</u>					
Physically restraining the child (e.g., using handcuffs)	8.4%	8.1%	12.9%	5.9%	9.1%
Observing body language to determine if the child is being truthful or deceitful	75.6%	79.6%	80.3%	74.8%	78.4%
Presenting false evidence	4.2%	4.5%	3.0%	5.0%	4.2%

Using deceit	7.6%	3.8%	6.8%	3.4%	5.6%
Observing speech patterns to determine if the child is being truthful or deceitful	47.1%	48.4%	53.0%	39.5%	48.1%
Heightening the child's anxiety level	3.4%	3.2%	2.3%	2.5%	3.1%
Asking questions repeatedly	14.3%	21.7%	16.7%	14.3%	18.5%
Suggesting what may have happened	15.1%	22.3%	18.2%	18.5%	18.8%
Discouraging the child from making denials	11.8%	17.2%	15.2%	12.6%	14.3%
Asking two incriminating questions, such that a positive response to either would indicate that the child is guilty	5.9%	4.5%	4.5%	3.4%	4.9%
Tricking the child	1.7%	0.6%	0.8%	0.8%	1.0%
Emphasizing the seriousness of the offense	61.3%	66.9%	65.9%	57.9%	63.1%
Asking yes/no questions	38.7%	52.2%	49.2%	42.9%	70.4%
Using only one interviewer	40.3%	38.9%	44.0%	33.6%	39.2%
Using more than one interviewer	35.3%	39.5%	38.6%	35.3%	37.2%
Having the verbal confession witnessed by another person	33.6%	38.2%	40.2%	33.6%	36.4%

Appendix E

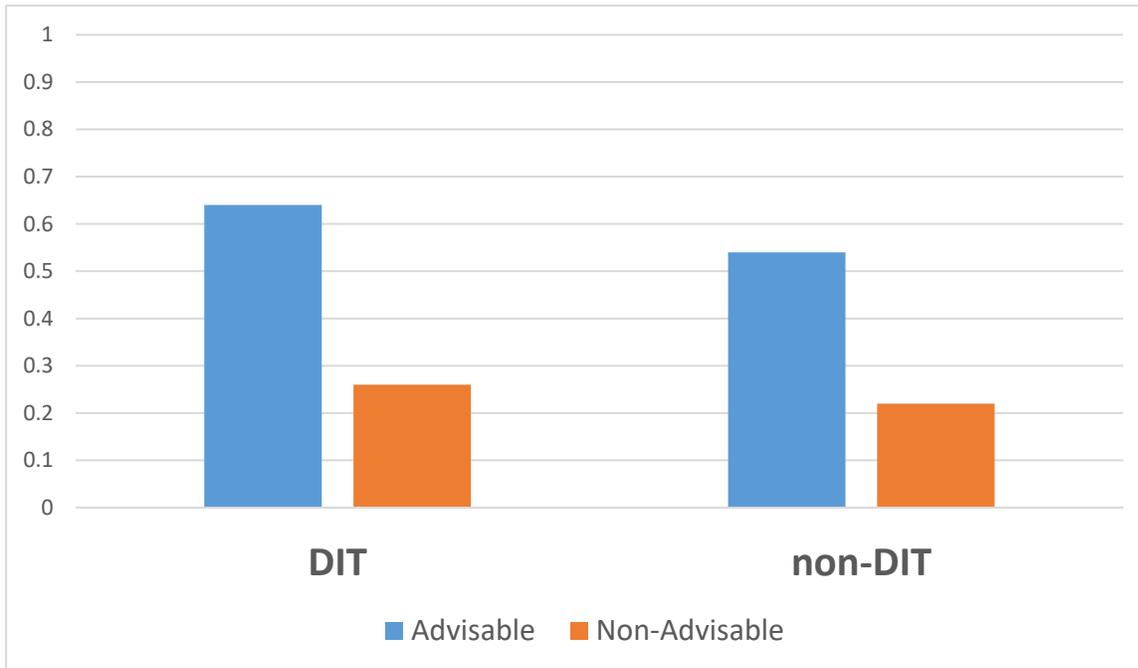
Table 5.

Percent of SROs' Mentioning Categories of Training Needs as a Function of Type of Training Received

Training Need	RIT	Non-RIT	DIT	Non-DIT	SRO Total
Interviewing	10.9% (n = 13)	15.3% (n = 24)	10.6% (n = 14)	17.6% (n = 21)	14.3% (n = 37)
Mental health	5.0% (n = 6)	5.7 % (n = 9)	6.1% (n = 8)	4.2% (n = 5)	5.8% (n = 15)
Increased availability and frequency	32.8% (n = 39)	32.5% (n = 51)	37.1% (n = 49)	31.1% (n = 37)	36.0% (n = 93)
Child and youth related	19.3% (n = 23)	22.3% (n = 35)	17.4% (n = 23)	26.1% (n = 31)	24.4% (n = 62)
Social media	4.2% (n = 5)	1.3% (n = 2)	2.3% (n = 3)	2.5% (n = 3)	2.7% (n = 7)
Active shooter training	1.7% (n = 2)	1.9% (n = 3)	.75% (n = 3)	3.4% (n = 4)	2.0% (n = 5)
Other	38% (n = 45)	32% (n = 51)	34% (n = 45)	31% (n = 37)	38.2% (n = 99)

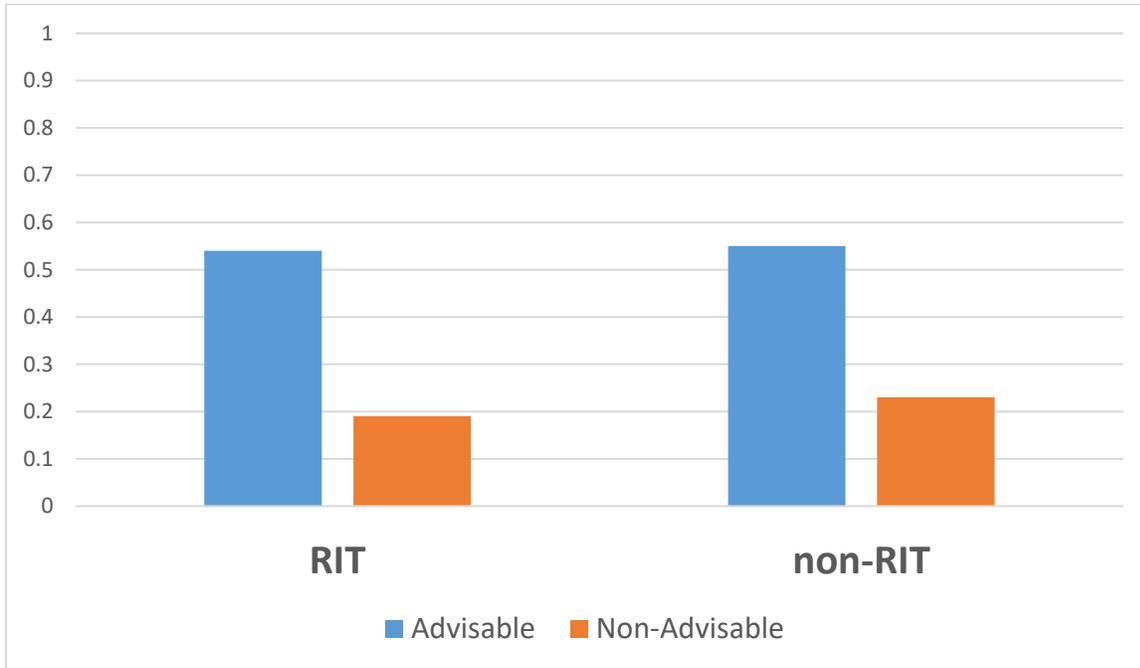
Appendix F

Figure 1. *Mean proportions of 'more advisable' and 'less advisable' techniques endorsed by DIT and non-DIT SROs.*



Appendix G

Figure 2. Mean proportions of 'more advisable' and 'less advisable' techniques endorsed by RIT and non-RIT SROs.



Appendix H

DEVELOPMENTAL KNOWLEDGE SURVEY (DKS)

Youth Version

(Note that the version for children was the same except that the term “youth” would be replaced by “child” or “children” as appropriate.)

- **The following questions ask about general differences between youth and adults. These questions do NOT necessarily refer to youth and adults involved in criminal procedures or interviewing. The term “YOUTH” refers to minors between 14 AND 17 YEARS of age, and the term “ADULTS” refers to individuals 18 YEARS AND OLDER.**
- **All of the information that you give will be completely confidential. You will not be asked to provide any identifying information.**

The following statements ask you to indicate the extent to which you currently agree or disagree with the statements. Please circle the number “1” if you strongly disagree, the number “2” if you disagree, etc.

	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Slightly Disagree	4 Slightly Agree	5 Agree	6 Strongly Agree
1. Adults are less likely than youth to feel remorse for their actions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Youth are intimidated by adult authority figures.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Compared to adults, youth are more concerned with immediate outcomes than with future outcomes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Youth are more impulsive than adults.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Youth will say untruthful things if they feel pressured by adults to do so.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Youth are frequently unaware of long-term consequences of their actions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Adults make riskier decisions than youth.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Adults are less empathic than youth.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Youth are more easily influenced by their peers than adults.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Youth will say untruthful things to please adults.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Youth are more likely to be dangerous to society than adults.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. Youth are more likely to engage in risky behaviors than adults.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. Youth are less able to consider other people’s points of view than adults.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Youth will often repeat things that adults say.	1	2	3	4	5	6

15. Adults use better judgment than youth.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. Male youth have a need to present a "macho" image.	1	2	3	4	5	6
	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Slightly Disagree	4 Slightly Agree	5 Agree	6 Strongly Agree
17. Youth do not understand the meanings of some words that adults understand.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. Youth are more likely to obey authority figures than adults.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. Youth are more naive than adults.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. Youth are more honest than adults.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. Youth are more competent in their decision making than adults.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. If adults want youth to be honest, they should give youth permission to talk openly without interruption.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. Youth make eye contact with others more frequently than adults.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. Youth sit with slouched body postures more often than adults.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. Adults are more violent than youth.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. Youth will say untruthful things if they feel pressured by parents to do so.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix I

**POLICE INTERROGATION SURVEY (PIS)
YOUTH VERSION**

(Note that the child version involves replacing the word “youth” with “child” or “children” as appropriate.)

The questionnaire is designed to gather information on your thoughts, attitudes, and practices regarding a variety of issues concerning interviewing procedures. Please try to make each judgment to the best of your ability, based on your current opinions, thoughts, and beliefs.

- **All of the information that you give will be completely confidential. You will not be asked to provide any identifying information.**
 - **In this questionnaire, the term “YOUTH” refers to minors between 14 AND 17 YEARS.**
-

1. When a youth is questioned about a potential criminal offense, who is *most likely* to question that youth and where is the questioning most likely to occur?

I will question the youth at school

I will question the youth at the police station

Someone else will question the youth at school. Who?

Someone else will question the youth at the police station. Who?

Other (please specify)

Does your employer have a policy or requirement of notifying parents when a youth is questioned about a potential criminal offense?

_____ yes _____ no

2. How often is a parent or guardian present when you question youth?

_____ % of the times I question youth

- Please remember the term “YOUTH” refers to minors between 14 AND 17 YEARS.
 - In the remaining parts of the questionnaire, the youth are SUSPECTED of committing a FELONY crime and are brought into the police station for criminal interviewing procedures.
-

*We realize there are many different techniques that officers use to elicit a confession from someone whom they believe might be guilty.

During the past year, have you been involved in questioning a YOUTH (between 14 and 17 years) suspected or accused of committing a potential criminal offense at school?

YES NO

If YES, which of the following techniques have you used in the past year when questioning YOUTH (between 14 and 17 years)?

If NO, please indicate which techniques you will use if you question a youth in the future

- _____ Building rapport with the youth
- _____ Advising the youth of his/her Miranda rights
- _____ Asking the parents of the youth for permission to *interview* the youth
- _____ Observing body language to determine if the youth is being truthful or deceitful
- _____ Presenting evidence
- _____ Presenting false evidence
- _____ Using deceit
- _____ Observing speech patterns to determine if the youth is being truthful or deceitful
- _____ Asking non-accusatory questions before asking accusatory questions
- _____ Videotaping interviews
- _____ Heightening the youth's anxiety level
- _____ Emphasizing the seriousness of the crime
- _____ Minimizing the seriousness of the crime
- _____ Using only one interviewer
- _____ Observing speech patterns to determine if the youth is being truthful or deceitful, and to make a subsequent decision to begin a custodial interrogation
- _____ Asking questions repeatedly
- _____ Discouraging the youth from making denials
- _____ Suggesting what may have happened
- _____ Observing body language to determine if the youth is being truthful or deceitful, and to make a subsequent decision to begin a custodial interrogation
- _____ Having the verbal confession witnessed
- _____ Asking two incriminating questions, such that a positive response to either one would indicate that the youth is guilty
- _____ Tricking the youth

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements. Please select the number "1" if you strongly disagree, the number "2" if you disagree, etc.

***Note that "SRO" = "School Resource Officer"**

	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Slightly Disagree	4 Slightly Agree	5 Agree	6 Strongly Agree
SROs should make a youth (between 14-17 years) comfortable during questioning	1	2	3	4	5	6
Youth understand their right to remain silent.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Youth understand their right to an attorney.	1	2	3	4	5	6
SROs should maintain rapport with youth throughout questioning.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Miranda rights are well understood by youth.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Questions posed to youth by SROs should be asked in a compassionate and understanding tone of voice.	1	2	3	4	5	6
If a youth denies committing a crime many times before confessing, it is likely that the confession is still accurate.	1	2	3	4	5	6
SROs should explain to youth why they are being questioned.	1	2	3	4	5	6
SROs should take precautions to ensure that youth fully understand their Miranda rights.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Innocent youth do not confess to crimes they did not commit.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Trickery may elicit true, valid confessions from youth.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Only guilty youth react defensively to questions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Trickery may elicit true, valid confessions from youth.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Only guilty youth react with discomfort to questions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Only innocent youth are cooperative during questioning.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Most confessions by youth represent accurate and complete descriptions of what happened.	1	2	3	4	5	6
SROs should try to comfort youth who appear to be distressed during questioning.	1	2	3	4	5	6

*** Please remember, the term "YOUTH" refers to minors between 14 AND 17 YEARS who are involved in criminal interviewing procedures.**

	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Slightly Disagree	4 Slightly Agree	5 Agree	6 Strongly Agree
Youth commit more crimes than adults.	1	2	3	4	5	6
The reports of events given by youth are more susceptible to suggestion by interviewers than are the reports of events given by adults.	1	2	3	4	5	6
It is more difficult to get a youth to confess than an adult.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Compared to adults, youth are more easily influenced by trickery during questioning.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Youth do not have the maturity or life experience to understand their Miranda rights.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Youth are more likely to confess to crimes they did not commit than adults	1	2	3	4	5	6
Having a parent/guardian present during questioning decreases the likelihood that a guilty youth will confess.	1	2	3	4	5	6

***Please select "yes", "no", or "not sure" to answer the following questions, and then provide your responses to questions that ask for more information..**

Have you attended the Reid Interviewing & Interrogation Training? YES NO NOT SURE

Have you attended interviewing & interrogation training outside your department, other than Reid? YES NO NOT SURE
 What type of training? _____

Has your employer trained you to use Reid interviewing & interrogation techniques? YES NO NOT SURE

Has your employer trained you to use interviewing and interrogation techniques other than Reid techniques?
YES NO NOT SURE

Have you received training about interviewing YOUTH? YES NO NOT SURE
 How many hours of training about youth have you received? _____

Is there a lower age limit at which a youth should never be interviewed or interrogated without a parent, guardian, or lawyer present?
YES NO NOT SURE
 If yes, please provide the age limit: _____