

Game-based learning for police training in child interviewing (2017)

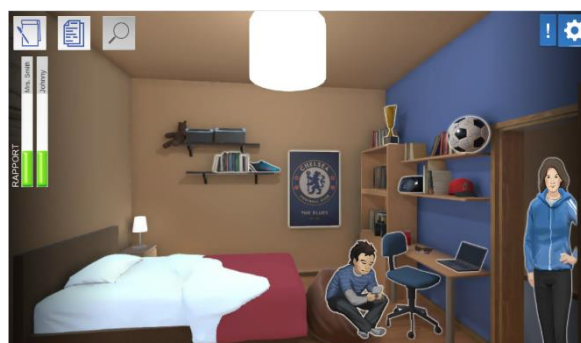
Anne Adams, Jenny Hart, and Sian Beavers (Open University)

Andy Ryan (Senior Practitioner Fellow, Thames Valley Police)

Lead partner: Lancashire Constabulary.

Other partners: Thames Valley Police; Bedfordshire Police; The Metropolitan Police Service; Greater Manchester Police; Dorset and Merseyside.

Development of the simulation game with HighSkillz.



Background

Police frequently come into contact with children, either victims who may be at risk, or child witnesses who can provide valuable evidence. When dealing with children police officers have to cope with a complex set of emotions. There is important guidance provided on how to safeguard children's welfare whilst also facilitating the collection of high quality evidence. However, there are often key barriers to effectively working with children.

Interviewing vulnerable children and using them as witnesses can be particularly challenging for new recruits and early career front line police, who may have limited training and real-life experience of interacting with children. Past research within child interviewing has often focused on the controversy around suggestibility and reliability of a child's statement, their vulnerability in the judicial setting, and a child's perception of the police as an authority figure [1]–[3]. To support police practice in this field there are important 'Achieving Best Practice' (ABP) guidelines provided on how to safeguard children's welfare whilst facilitating the collection of high quality evidence [4], [5]. However, all too often police do not adhere to these guidelines when conducting interviews with children [6].

One of the key barriers preventing the adoption of these guidelines is the training of front line police officers, making it difficult for them to develop the necessary skills that can assist them when faced with taking an initial account from a child. In the recent 2015 HMIC report entitled 'In Harm's Way', the specialist training of police in the area of child interviewing skills (especially when taking first accounts), was considered ineffective with a reliance on simplistic online training [7]. This has resulted in a police problem, with disengagement with current online training (e.g., NCALT), along with a simplistic understanding of the techniques and processes required to gain good quality initial accounts from children.

Previous child interviewing research suggests that child statements should be taken as early as possible after the alleged offence. Interviewers should encourage children to disclose as much information as possible by using open-ended prompts (e.g., 'Tell me what happened'), as opposed to focused (yes/no) questions [8], [9]. Children are capable of providing accurate information about their experiences, but the quality of communication and the types of retrieval methods used need to be carefully considered [10]. Far too often child witnesses are not interviewed by police as their abilities at remembering the events are considered poor. Research has identified various techniques, such as revisiting the context in which the event occurred, or drawing during interviews to enhance free-recall while avoiding feelings of risk and error [10]. Paine et al. [11] identified that the mode of interaction with children that includes visual prompts can positively impact upon the success of these interviews. Unfortunately, these findings have not effectively been passed through into police practice. Research has revealed that more often suggestive utterances and focused questions were used as a means to obtain accurate information due to limited time and lack of effective training [9], [12].

Both academic research and tacit police knowledge have identified the important need for effective training when taking first statement from a child, especially for front-line early career police officers. Although new recruit officers are given some training in interview procedures these are not focused towards children, and there is little time to practice these skills. One of the essential elements when interacting with a child is the ability to build good rapport. The onus is for the front line officers (who arrives first at the scene), to establish good rapport quickly. This can be very challenging, especially when time maybe limited and there are other witnesses and distractions to deal with. Current online-training courses are limited and deemed inadequate to develop these skills.

Aim and Objectives

The key aim of the project was to research the effect and effectiveness of using a simulation-based learning for training competence development within the police force.

The hypothesis was that the use of game-based techniques would improve the engagement of online training through using interactive visual media and scenario-based learning.

The main objectives were:

- To improve the understanding of new recruit police officers of the complexity of taking initial accounts from children.
- Develop a simulation-based tool that would provide an engaging learning experience with playable content for an average of 30 minutes that could be used to evaluate with the target population (new recruit police officers).
- Assess the impact in competence development providing a more engaging and valuable training experience compared to the current online police training mechanisms.
- Evaluate the simulation-based solution across more than one police force.

The Child Interview Simulator (CIS) was co-developed with the police as a serious game to support the training of UK police recruits in collecting initial witness accounts from children. In addition to conceptual understanding, the trainees develop a confidence for interacting with children, which previously was only developed through experience. The CIS provides an interactive scenario where one takes on the role of an officer that needs to interview a nine year old boy, who allegedly

witnessed a woman being attacked on his way home from school. 116 new recruit police officers from three UK forces participated in a randomized-control trial. Statistically significant increases were identified in understanding post the games-based learning $p < .001$ (large effect size). The face to face training statistically significantly decreased understanding with a small effect size although there was force variation here where with some forces the face to face training had no effect. Tricky topic breakdowns identify increased tacit understanding (e.g. empathy, attention) after games training with face to face training decreasing tacit understanding (i.e. respect). The simulation (game) was identified as police as effective because it produced a 'RELEVANT' and 'AUTHENTIC' experience.

Methodology

This research used a combination of methods, across the two main phases of *Co-development* and *Evaluation*:

Co-Development: In collaboration with the Lancashire Constabulary (Lead Partner), HighSkillz (Series-Games Company) and OU Academics, a series of co-developed workshops took place over a period of 10 months that enabled the development of the simulation-based tool. This involved 'participatory methods' where different stakeholder knowledge was pooled in order to create a viable working prototype.

Evaluation: A two-step analysis was used consisting of a *Formative* and *Summative Evaluation*.

Formative Evaluation: An initial prototype was developed and initially evaluated using a contextual method (questionnaires, observational think-aloud and focus groups), with the findings being fed back into the game development, in order to produce the final prototype.

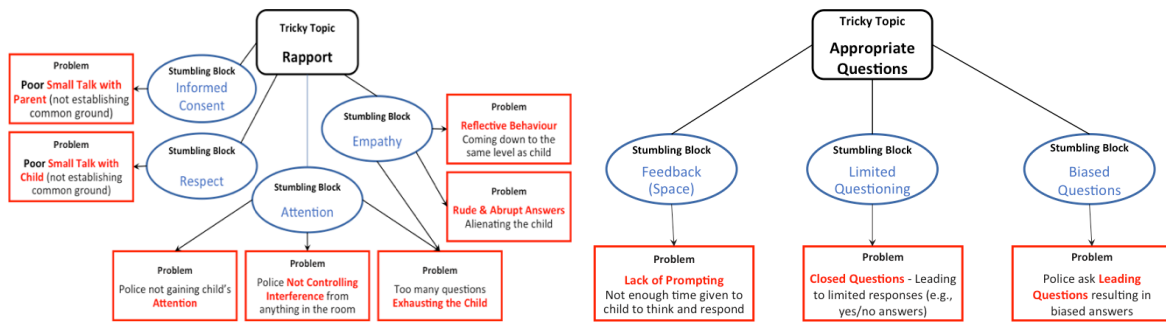
Summative Evaluation: The final prototype was evaluated with a total of 116 participants from new recruit police officers across three different UK forces that were currently on their 13-20 week 'Initial Police Learning and Development Programme' (IPLDP).

A mixed methodology was used to evaluate the final prototype, which consists of two key elements:

1. Capturing the User Experience (UX), *Perceptions of the Value* and *Effect* of the simulation-based learning in comparison to current online training.
2. Evaluating the *Learning Effectiveness* of the simulation-based training in terms of knowledge acquisition and relevance to police practice using a tricky topic questionnaire pre and post learning.

Similar methods were used for both 1 and 2, using questionnaires, observation, focus groups and interviews. In order to determine the *Learning Effectiveness* (No. 2) it was identified that a full Randomized Control Trial (RCT) was required involving at least 100 participants in order to conduct the necessary statistical analysis. In order to explore *Learning Effectiveness* a full Randomised Controlled trial was completed using a knowledge quiz-questionnaires, based upon the tricky topics of Rapport and Appropriate Questioning (see below). To counterbalance for practice effects, the RCT used A/B and C/D testing, so that the simulation training occurred both before and after the face to face training.

Co-created learning effectiveness measures were identified based upon prior research, pedagogical theories and practitioners experiences and expertise. For first response child witnesses these were:



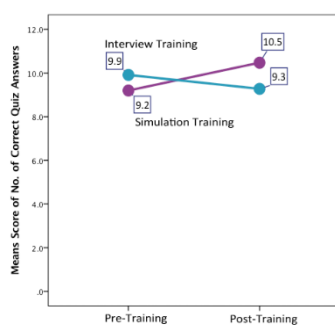
Key findings

This report focuses on a summary of the findings from *Learning Effectiveness* (No. 2) there are further publication on *Effect*, and *Perceptions of Value* trend data (No.1) reported in publications. This randomised trial will now be published in several journals.

Quantitative Findings

As there is no specific training in taking initial accounts from children, data was gathered pre/post their general (3-5 days) witness-interview training, and was used as a comparison. From a series of questionnaires, the main findings were:

- Training Ratings: Unsurprisingly, participants rated the value of *Face-to-Face* and *Role-based* training higher than the two technology based training (*Online* or *Game-based*), showing little change between post-interview and post-simulation. However, the *Game-based* training showed a higher value rating than *Online* training, which increased post-interview to post-simulation, indicating a preference to game-based training over current online-training.
- Learning Effectiveness: There was a statistically significant increase in police learners understanding after completing the simulation based training across three police forces. The face to face training decreased understanding. It was felt this was probably due to the training not being specific enough for child interviewing (vulnerable witness interviewing) and thus confused the police in relation to dealing with children.



- ▶ Pre Training
 - Interview Significantly higher
 - $P < .01$ (moderate effect)
- ▶ Post Training
 - Simulation Significantly higher
 - $P < .05$ (moderate effect)
- ▶ Interaction
 - **Between Interview & Simulation $P < .001$ (large effect)**

Level of entry requirements (i.e. degree qualifications) was found to decrease the level of effect to all the training being decreased. Breaking down the results into specific knowledge acquisition identified TACIT knowledge.

Qualitative Findings

The qualitative findings provide rich insights and highlighted the importance of creating engaging learning experiences through what they perceived as valuable support for both procedural and tacit learning in safety critical knowledge acquisition. In particular the game provided an effective engagement in both tacit and procedural learning through targeted *feedback mechanisms, learning challenges* and *real world relevance*

- Development of a successful Simulation-based Training tool that supports the training in both procedural and tacit learning within an area of police training that currently provides no support (taking initial accounts from a child).
- The simulation (game) was identified as police as effective because it produced a 'RELEVANT' and 'AUTHENTIC' experience. The design of the game and evaluation around police tricky topics is essential to producing an effective learning experience rather than simply a fun experience.
- Quantitative and qualitative findings showed that the Simulation-based Learning provides a more engaging and effective learning experience than the current online training (NCALT).
- Although face-to-face and role-based training was the preferred method of training, it is recognised these are very expensive methods of training. The Simulation-based training provides a more cost-effective solution, which obtained high value ratings and supports training in both procedural and tacit knowledge; while the current online training (NCALT) only supports procedural training. Thus making the Simulation-based training a unique online-training tool that can supplement the current training programme.

Further work

The Open University Centre for Policing Research and Learning has contracted an expert serious game-based learning company called HighSkillz to create the game-based simulation to be used within this study. The Child Interview Simulator (CIS) is a serious game that simulates a real-life situation, allowing the learner to play the role of police officer whose goal is to obtain a first account from a child that has witnessed an alleged criminal offence, and then go on to conduct an ABE interview. Learners will engage in dialogue (via text) with characters within a storyline and will be challenged to determine what the correct processes (guidelines) are when interviewing a child. The simulation will monitor the actions of the learner, and qualify the decisions made according to an assessment matrix. At different stages during the game the learner is given detailed feedback of what was done correctly and the implications of poor decisions. Please see attached flyer for further details.

Outputs

ADAMS, A. 2016. Game-based learning for police training in child interviewing executive summary. Centre for Policing Research and Learning, The Open University.

HART, J., IACOVIDES, I., ADAMS, A., OLIVEIRA, M. & MARGOUDI, M. 2017. Understanding engagement within the context of a safety critical game. Centre for Policing Research and Learning, The Open University.

HIGHSKILLZ LTD 2017 Child witness interview simulator for UK police - trailer -
2017^https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=tYjvOpTPktM&t=4s&list=PLkq0dUntY6TE0E1oL2d-6bNO8lkP_u-GM&index=35

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Child Witness Interview Simulator

Next-generation online training for the Police

Child Witness Interview Simulator

The simulator is a powerful and innovative solution to complement existing interview training for new recruits and early career front line police officers.

Created with HighSkillz for The Open University's Centre for Policing Research and Learning, and developed with policing partners, it is the first online simulation-based training on interviewing techniques that addresses individual officers in classroom setting and on their own.



Main features

- Realistic scenarios co-developed with police trainers and practitioners
- Authentic dialogues that teach and explore 51 learning points from good practice
- When interacting with child and parent, the player needs to be mindful of rapport-building and emotional state in order to progress
- Recruits exposed to the Achieving Best Evidence process (form and interview)
- Explicit feedback on each learning point with concrete hints on how to improve

Benefits

- Decreases time taken to gain competency in child interviewing
- Promotes deeper understanding of the many factors affecting child interviewing in the real world
- Enriches traditional classroom training approach
- Enables large-scale deployment outside the classroom

For information on how to access the game in your force, please contact:

Centre for Policing Research and Learning



www.centre-for-policing.open.ac.uk



oupc@open.ac.uk

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www.highskillz.com

Practice child interviewing in two different settings



1. First Response

Obtain an initial account of an alleged crime that was witnessed by a child in the neighbourhood. When interacting with parent and child, use good practice and pay attention to rapport and engagement.

2. Achieving Best Evidence (ABE) Interview

Practice conducting an ABE interview in an ABE suite. Follow good practice and use child interviewing techniques to ensure the collated evidence may be used in court.

Three interaction modes to practice your skills

The careful observation of the environment will unveil topics for conversation with the child

Keep track of the emotional state of the child, gauging their mood and disposition

Make sense of the uncovered information and decide how to report it

Close examination reveals clues to talk with child

The child is engrossed with a game console, it is necessary to gain their attention to conduct the interview

Practice building rapport with the child

Rich non-linear dialogue with prompting to practice interviewing techniques

Multiple inputs that may be contradictory

Receive detailed feedback on your performance

The learning point was not reached: a hint is given on how to do better next time

The learning point was partially achieved: follow the hint to improve

Congratulations, you achieved successfully the learning point

The episode timeline shows the current scene and all past scenes successfully completed. One can improve any past scene

Choose to restart the current scene or to continue to the next scene

Understanding Engagement within the Context of a Safety Critical Game

Jennefer Hart¹, Ioanna Iacovides¹, Anne Adams¹, Manuel Oliveira² and Maria Magroudi²

¹Institute of Educational Technology,
The Open University, Milton Keynes, UK
{jennefer.hart, jo.iacovides,
anne.adams}@open.ac.uk

²HighSkillz,
London, UK
{manuel.oliveira,
maria.magroudi}@highskillz.com

ABSTRACT

One of the most frequent arguments for deploying serious games is that they provide an engaging format for student learning. However, engagement is often equated with enjoyment, which may not be the most relevant conceptualization in safety-critical settings, such as law enforcement and healthcare. In these contexts, the term ‘serious’ does not only relate to the non-entertainment purpose of the game but also the environment simulated by the game. In addition, a lack of engagement in a safety-critical training setting can have serious ethical implications, leading to significant real-world impacts. However, evaluations of safety-critical games (SCGs) rarely provide an in-depth consideration of player experience. Thus, in relation to simulation game-based training, we are left without a clear understanding of what sort of experience players are having, what factors influence their engagement and how their engagement relates to learning. In order to address these issues, this paper reports on the mixed-method evaluation of a SCG that was developed to support police training. The findings indicate that engagement is supported by the experience *situational relevance*, due to the player’s experience of *real-world authenticity*, *targeted feedback mechanisms* and *learning challenges*.

Author Keywords

Serious Games; Game Based Learning; Engagement; Player Experience; Business Simulation; Safety Critical; Police Training.

ACM Classification Keywords

H.5.m. Information interfaces and presentation (e.g., HCI): Miscellaneous; K.8.0. General: Games.

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INTRODUCTION

The term serious games i.e. games that are used for purposes other than pure entertainment [13] is a wide reaching one that has been applied to a vast array of games that have been used for within education, advertising, training across a range of domains [6; 13]. In relation to training specifically, games have gained increasing popularity in the recent years and have been advocated as promising technologies for the support of training within sectors such as education, the emergency services, the military and healthcare [36; 44]. Many of these games can be described as safety-critical games (SCGs) since they are used to support training in domains where mistakes can have grave psychological or physical consequences in the real-world settings (e.g. law enforcement, firefighting, healthcare etc.).

While there are many reasons why serious games can support effective learning e.g. through providing authentic contexts and safe environments [11; 43], the perception that they are engaging is perhaps the most prevalent [e.g. 2; 21]. However, in relation to SCGs specifically, there are surprisingly few studies that examine the wider player experience and the factors that influence it. This is despite widespread consensus that engagement is a necessary part of learning [14; 22; 30; 41] and without a comprehensive understanding of how engagement and learning can be supported, there is a significant risk that an SCG will not be successful in achieving its aims.

Engagement is a complex construct and it has been conceptualized in a variety of ways. Within HCI, the emphasis has primarily been on “enjoyment”, which usually describes positive cognitive and affective appraisal of a game experience [31]. Similar, within game-based learning, there is a desire to harness the motivational power of games [25] through promoting intrinsic motivation [30] and providing the “fun factor” [45]. However, as Bogost [6] notes, the “serious” component of a serious game sometimes relates to the nature of the content and, in the case of SCGs, fun and positive affect may not be the most appropriate concepts to have in mind when considering what sort of player experience you want learners to have and how best to support their engagement.

In this paper, we describe the results of an evaluation of a SCG that focused on training police officers to take initial witness accounts from children. Through doing so, our research aims to provide an in-depth exploration of the factors that influence engagement with game-based safety-critical training.

RELEVANT WORK

Within this section, we first provide an overview of how engagement has been conceptualized within the field of HCI and games, as well as in relation to game-based learning. We then discuss the literature on safety-critical games and player experience evaluation. Finally, we provide some background to the project by providing a brief explanation of police training and then introduce the SCG developed.

Engagement and learning in Games

Mekler et al. [31] indicate that there has been a primary focus on enjoyment within studies examining player experiences. In their review of the literature, they note that the focus of evaluations is generally on the positive affective and cognitive appraisal of the game experience. While there are different ways to conceptualize engagement (e.g. in relation to immersion [8], flow [10] and presence [41]), it is generally described as existing on a continuum where players can be more or less involved depending on the exact nature of their experience [7; 9].

There are also many ways to assess engagement, including such as the Immersion Experience Questionnaire [24] and a scale to measure flow [42]. However, both these examples focus on understanding very specific aspects of the gameplay experiences; the IEQ emphasizes cognitive involvement and the flow scale relates to identifying an extreme experience rather than more general engagement. Another example is the Game Experience Questionnaire [32], which was designed to provide a comprehensive evaluation of the player experience. While Cairns et al [9] point out that validation work on the GEQ has not been published they also suggest the scale covers wider aspects of the gaming experience (e.g. negative affect such as frustration). They also note it has been widely applied, including in the context of educational games [e.g. 27].

In terms of the relationship between games and learning, it has long been argued that games are intrinsically motivating [30], where they are able to engage learners through a combination of fantasy, rules/goals, sensory stimuli, challenge, mystery and control [14]. Despite the acceptance that games can provide motivating experiences, designers of educational games still face a challenge in relation to effectively blending (presumably 'boring') learning with engagement and 'fun' with, as evidence by use of the term 'serious games'. There has been research looking at frameworks that can support this process [e.g. 19] while other work has argued that, rather than how intrinsic the 'fantasy' is within a game, learning content needs to be tightly coupled with core game mechanics in order to ensure that players will experience both engagement and successful learning [17]. In the context of education and

training, the risks of not considering the overall player experience are significant; if players do not find the game to be engaging, then learning is unlikely to result and the main purpose will not be achieved.

Safety critical games

The risk of providing an unsuccessful learning experience is especially severe within the area of safety-critical training. In these contexts (including domains healthcare, emergency services, crisis management etc.), the potential consequences of providing inadequate training could result in significant physical or psychological harm being caused to people in the real world. Though there are some exceptions [see 40 for a different approach], the majority of SCGs attempt to provide mimetic (rather than abstracted) simulations of practice due to a desire to provide realistic learning experiences within a 'safe' space [44] and to increase the chances of transferring learning outside of the game [43]. Game elements are usually used to convey different forms of information to players as a way of indicating progress and providing feedback on performance. Arguably, these sorts of games are quite different to serious games that are more abstract (e.g. that occur in a fantasy world) and which are less focused on supporting procedural forms of learning. However, despite the emphasis on safety-critical scenarios, engagement with SCGs is still sometimes considered as being about 'enjoyment', yet there are surprisingly few studies that examine the player experience in any real depth.

For instance, Di Loreto, Mora & Divitini [12] when providing an overview of serious games for crisis management highlight the importance of the "fun factor" in stimulating motivation to play and state that "a serious game is a way of providing participants with a fun experience from which they can learn more about themselves and their interaction with their world" (p 352). While the literature suggests that factors such as the level of realism, which is usually interpreted as graphical fidelity [e.g. 28, 40, 44] and feedback [e.g. 11; 18] are noted as being important to learning within a simulation-based context, it is unclear how they relate to the experience of engagement. Without a deeper understanding how these concepts relate to each other, there is a risk that learners will not spend the time and energy necessary to deeply engage in training when they are not requested to as part of an evaluation study.

With regard to police training, there are some examples of games that have been developed including one for dealing with accident investigations [4]. A 3D training environment was created for the Dubai Police force, involving a traffic accident scenario where officers are able to practice procedures such as placing traffic cones, photographing the scene etc. While they did find significant learning effects between those who used a game and a control group (who did not play the game), they did not look at comparing engagement between the game produced and any existing forms of training (as this did not exist). Additionally, they choose to focus on presence by adapting an existing

questionnaire [35] to measure the subjective experience felt by the participants of ‘being there’ in the accident scene.” [P.340; 4]. However, beyond looking at differences between novice and experts, it is unclear why they chose this measure. Since the focus of the scale is mainly on the experience of spatial habitation (which does not necessarily relate to engagement [9]) the findings do not provide much insight into whether learners actually found the game to be engaging. Though some open-ended comments were collected from participants, these do not appear to have been reported in detail. In addition to the fact that a comparison could not be made to any other type of training, it is thus quite hard to establish what it is about the game that led to learning and what factors influence player engagement.

In another example, Linssen et al. [28], present a preliminary evaluation of *Loiter* (LOitering Teenagers, an Emergent Role-play) a game that focused on training Dutch police officers in the interpersonal skills required for street interventions. In this case the emphasis was less on training officers to follow certain procedures and more on supporting the development of social interaction skills (including verbal responses and physical stance). The developers sought to represent feedback to players in the form of “thought bubbles” (that represent how game characters are reacting to the player) and flashbacks relating to previous actions. While the mechanisms appear to be an interesting way to make the effects of player actions more explicit, they did not lead to improvement in learning measures. The authors also mention they asked player to rate their experience on a number of Likert scales, but unfortunately little information is supplied about what scales were used, and the results are not presented. Some brief information is provided about open-ended comments, which suggested the game wasn’t very challenging. A further investigation into the overall player experience and how players engaged with the game may have yielded further insight into ways to improve the game and establishing how best to support player learning.

These studies indicate that engagement is often not given a significant amount of attention in the context of safety-critical games. Questions remain about what player experiences with these games actually involve and what factors seem to contribute to engagement. In order to further explore these issues, we present an evaluation of a game that was created for the UK police force to support the training of new officers in taking an initial account from a child witness.

Background to project

The Child Interview Simulator (CIS) was developed as a serious game to support the training of new UK police recruits in collecting initial witness accounts from children. In addition to learning, the trainees develop the necessary confidence to relate to children, which previously has only come from experience. The CIS provides an interactive scenario where one assumes the role of an officer that needs to interview a nine-year-old boy, who allegedly witnessed a

woman being attacked on his way home from school. The diagram in Figure 1 shows an overview of story structure, which consists of two distinct episodes. The first episode requires the trainee to take an ‘initial account’ from the child at their home, whilst the second episode takes the trainee through the process of how to conduct a full ABE (Achieving Best Evidence) interview with the child.

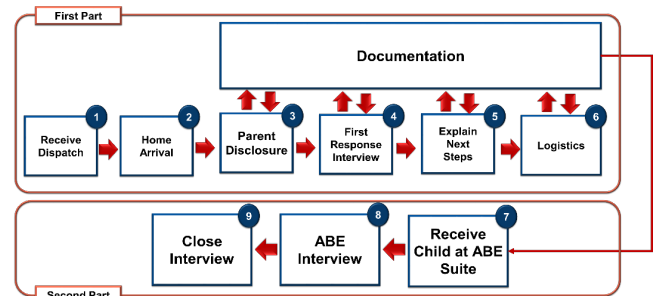


Figure 1. Story structure overview

The police domain and thus the police training experience have traditionally been driven by both empirical and experiential knowledge [33, 34]. In designing and evaluating this game we have taken insights from both the gaming and criminology literature to inform the development process. Police training is set within a safety-critical context where our focus is the training of new police officers. Engagement with learning is critical since it must lead to an embedded understanding for the police that will influence life and death decision making. To achieve effective real-world understanding the game must engage the learners in acquiring both tacit knowledge, and formal procedural knowledge.

The game was co-created with a multidisciplinary team (experts in child interviewing, police trainers, experienced police officers, game developers and academic researchers). An agile development approach was adopted, with iterative releases of the game that used storyboards, interactive mock-ups and subsequent software prototypes until the final version was produced.

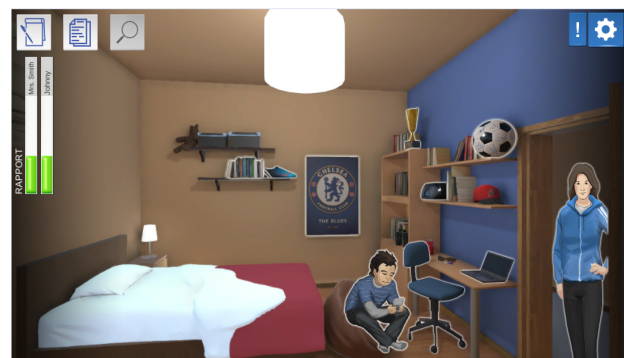


Figure 2. Screenshot of the bedroom scene (episode one)

Figure 2 illustrates a screenshot from the final game displaying the following interface elements: two parallel horizontal bars that represent rapport (indicated by a green feedback bar that moves up or down depending on the players interactions); a notepad icon, where players can refer to past conversations they have had; an ABE form

icon, which players are prompted to complete during their conversations; and the observe icon, which allows players to return to the room from the conversation menu. When entering the conversation mode, this scene is partially covered by the menu that enables players to ask questions about various topics via multiple-choice options. Different interactive objects are highlighted (with a white border), that invite players to observe these by clicking on them (thus opening up further dialogue options).

At different development stages, formative testing and validation was carried out that focused on different aspects such as game mechanics, interface design, and the dialogue engine. For example, testing was carried out to ensure that players would be able to interpret the emotions displayed by the characters [29], as this is a significant part of rapport building. The feedback collected at different stages yielded important insights that shaped many aspects of the SCG, including the storyline, aesthetics, content, dialogue and the mechanics. Further examples of these insights include:

- In an initial exploratory workshop, participants were shown existing games and interactive mock-ups with both 2D and 3D visual experiences. The conclusion was that the environment would benefit from the realism of 3D, but with the requirement of non-verbal communication cues (that associated with the emotional state of the child), would be easier to interpret with 2D.
- To contribute to rapport building, the game allows for the exploration of the environment by inviting closer observation, as a way of uncovering topics of interest to discuss with the different characters. The testing of the game demonstrated that the initial themes of football and electronic games needed to be extended as trainees had different backgrounds and required other clues to trigger their curiosity.
- The player needs to be mindful of building and maintaining rapport with the characters in the story, as this will unlock particular story branches and responses from the characters. It soon became clear that players had a low tolerance of convoluted story plots where the actions in one scene would impact on the outcomes much later in the game.
- Between each scene in a scenario, players are given detailed feedback on their performance along three dimensions (interview skills, rapport building and process). An assessment on each learning outcome was also given (fulfilled, partially fulfilled and fail), but feedback from the users indicated that it was necessary to provide further hints in the assessment of what to do differently when an outcome was not achieved.
- The dialogue interface was seen as crucial for the success of the game. With the release of the first full featured prototype, it was evident that interface difficulties created poor usability. A complete redesign of the interface was carried out, resulting in a simpler and more intuitive interaction flow.

METHOD

This research forms part of a larger Randomized Control Trial (RCT) within the UK, currently being conducted to elicit knowledge acquisition specific to collecting first accounts from child. As the RCT aims to collect quantitative data from over 100 participants, this aspect of the research is ongoing and will be reported in a later publication. The focus of this paper is on evaluating the overall player experience of the game, where data has been collected from a total of 65 participants. A mixed methods approach was adopted, that involved questionnaires and focus groups. The questionnaires provide background to the qualitative findings, which provides the main focus of the analysis.

Participants

Data was collected from a total of 65 new recruit police officers across two different UK police forces that were currently on their 13-16-week 'Initial Police Learning and Development Programme' (IPLDP). There were slightly more male (54%) to female participants, with 81% falling below the age of 35, and just under half (49%) having obtained a university level degree. Just over half the participants (52%) did not consider themselves as gamers.

Design Plan

Quantitative data was captured at two key points during the IPLDP, the first just after a 3-5 day witness interview-training course (the length depended on the force) and then again after interacting with the simulation. Although the interview training did not focus specifically on collecting first accounts from children, it provided the closest type of face-to-face training, so was used as a baseline for comparison. All UK police officers and staff are provided with a wide variety of online-learning training courses that are accessed via a Managed Learning Environment (MLE), maintained by the National Centre for Applied Learning Technologies (NCALT). Training involves a mix of mandatory and self-selected online training courses, which forms a large part of the IPLDP student training.

Qualitative data was captured post-interaction with the simulation through eight focus groups (which varied in number N=5-18) following a semi-structured interview guide. These typically lasted between 20-25 minutes and were led by one of the authors. Questionnaire data was collected via an online survey tool, while the qualitative data was audio recorded for later transcription, and took place within two police force training centers.

Measures

Two short questionnaires were used to capture participant's attitudes towards their different training methods. The first asked participants to rate the value of four types of training, *Face-to-face*, *Role-based*, *Online* and *Game-based* using a 5-point Likert scale (1=low, 5=high). This was administered just after students received the witness training, and then again after they interacted with the game. The second questionnaire was the 'in-game' concise 14-item version of the Game Experience Questionnaire (GEQ) scale [32], which measures seven components (*competence*,

sensory & imaginative immersion, flow, tension, challenge, negative affect, and positive affect). The same questionnaire was used to compare participants' experiences of the 3-5 day witness interview training with their experience of CIS. Although this questionnaire is aimed at player experience, using the same questions (with slight alteration) enabled us to compare the traditional face-to-face training, with game-based training. The concise version of the GEQ was selected to avoid questionnaire fatigue through having participants fill the GEQ multiple times. Additional questionnaires from the user experience field [26; 37] were collected post-interaction to capture usability, utility and overall quality.

The focus groups were guided by a series of around 12 open questions that acted as prompts to guide discussion. Questions focused on capturing five key areas, *Learning, Usefulness, Relevance and Engagement*, along with the general *Likes and Dislikes*.

QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS

Quantitative questionnaire data was collected from participants and analyzed using excel and SPSS.

Quantitative Findings

Quantitative data was collected from participants, where they were asked to rate the value of different forms of training they had experienced. The Interview-Witness training consisted of both *Face-2-Face* and *Role-based* training, while police *Online* training forms a fundamental part of the wider IPLDP training program. The online training is used to support classroom training, where students take at least 5 or more courses per week, depending on the force requirement. Out of the 65 participants who took part in the focus groups, 45 also filled in questionnaires just after the Interview-Witness training, and just after the Simulation Game-based training. Since not all participants had prior experience of game-based training, only 24 of the 45 provided value ratings for this approach.

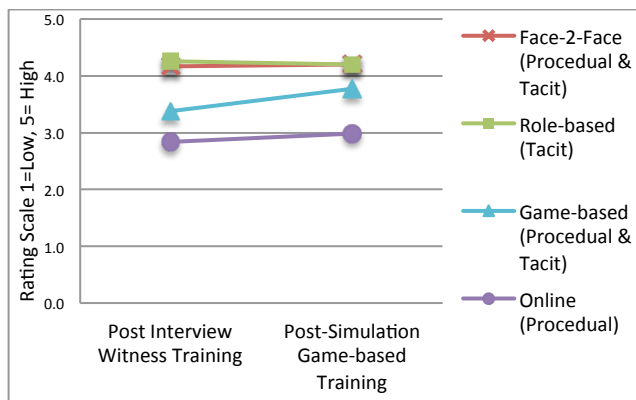


Figure 3. Value mean ratings comparing 4 different training methods between post-interview and post-game.

Participants' ratings for the value of *Face-to-Face* training (N=45) showed no change between post interview (M=4.2, SD=0.88) and post game assessment (M=4.2, SD=0.9). Similarly little difference was found for the *Role-based*

training (N=45) post-interview (M=4.3, SD=0.86) and post game (M=4.2, SD=0.75). Ratings for both *Face-to-Face* and *Role-based* training were generally higher than the two technology based training (*Online* or *Game-based*). However, the *Game-based* training (N=24) showed an increase in ratings post interview (M=3.4, SD=0.88) to post game (M=3.8, SD=1.07) after participants had interacted with the game, where a slight increase was also found for the *Online* training ratings (N=45) from post interview (M=2.8, SD=1.03) to post game (M=3.0, SD=1.17), see Figure 3.

The same 45 participants, also provided responses to the 14-item 'in-game' GEQ questionnaires for both the interview-witness training and game-based training (see Table 1). A paired-samples t-test was conducted to evaluate the difference between the witness training and game-based training ratings for each of the seven components within the GEQ. There were significant differences for 2 (out of 7) components; '*Flow*' $t(44)=-3.8, p < .001, d=0.57$, and '*Negative Affect*' $t(44)=2.24, p < .05, d=0.33$. No significant differences were found for the remaining 5 GEQ components, '*Competence*' $t(44)=1.3, p = .111, d=0.19$, '*Sensory & Imaginative Immersion*' $t(44)=-1.1, p = .283, d=-0.16$, '*Tension*' $t(44)=-1.7, p = .093, d=-0.26$, '*Challenge*' $t(44)=1.6, p = .111, d=0.24$, and '*Positive Affect*' $t(44)=-0.29, p = .775, d=-0.43$.

Five Items from in-game GEQ	Witness Training	Game-based Training
Flow**	M= 2.3, (SD= 0.89)	M= 2.9, (SD= 0.98)
Negative Affect*	M= 2.1, (SD= 0.82)	M= 1.8, (SD= 0.83)
Competence	M= 3.5, (SD= 0.66)	M= 3.4, (SD= 0.69)
Sensory	M= 3.4, (SD= 0.83)	M= 3.6, (SD= 1.00)
Tension	M= 1.8, (SD= 0.77)	M= 2.0, (SD= 0.99)
Challenge	M= 3.5, (SD= 1.01)	M= 3.2, (SD= 0.93)
Positive Affect	M= 3.3, (SD= 0.64)	M= 3.3, (SD= 0.72)

**Sig - $p < 0.01$, *Sig - $p < 0.05$

Table 1. Interview & game-based training GEQ comparison

Participants rated the game higher for *Flow*, indicating they found it more absorbing than the witness training, which was rated significantly higher for *Negative Affect*. Thus, CIS was experienced as more likely to hold attention, while the more traditional face-2-face witness training was viewed as being more boring and tiresome.

User experience ratings for the game-based training were also collected from the same 45 participants: *Usability* (M=2.9, SD=1.4), *Utility* (M=3.2, SD=1.4), and *Overall Quality* (M=3.1, SD=1.5) The ratings were all above average, indicating the CIS provided a reasonable user experience, with some areas for improvement, e.g. usability issues with the ABE form, text clarity, cross-force relevance (in relation to dispatch procedures) and problems with scrolling without using mice (as identified from the qualitative comments).

Overall the quantitative findings identified that the game-based training was more engaging than the interview witness training, as indicated by two of the components (*Flow* and *Negative Affect*) within the GEQ questionnaire. The value ratings (Fig 3.) for game-based learning also saw the largest increase (as compared to other forms of training) after participants interacted with the game. While these are useful indicators, these findings do not explain what aspects of the in-game player experience contributed to player engagement and why.

QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

The qualitative data gathered from the focus groups aimed to unpick the factors and reasons behind participants' positive quantitative ratings through addressing the following research question: What factors influence engagement with game-based training in a safety-critical setting?

Qualitative data was collected from eight focus groups (involving 65 participants in total, including the 45 participants who completed the questionnaires) where the analysis involved in two stages; top-down and bottom-up coding. Two researchers were involved in developing the codes in order to increase the reliability of the findings [1, 5] – due to the interpretative nature of the analysis, inter-rater coding was not carried out [see 5].

In the first stage, the data was analyzed and coded using a thematic analysis. The themes were pre-defined by insights drawn from the literature e.g. engagement, usefulness etc. Key quotes from the data were categorized according to these initial themes (top-down analysis). The second stage, took a grounded theory approach [16] to analyze the sub-set of the data identified during the first stage. An open coding approach was taken where the data was cross-referenced across the coding groupings to identify new categories for the quotes (bottom-up analysis). The coding was guided by the frequency and fundamentality approach [1]. In summary, the initial analysis of open-ended data put an emphasis on those issues that occurred frequently or those that were deemed in this safety critical context to be of fundamental importance. The approach followed quality guidelines for research [20] and allowed the analysis to maintain links to existing literature knowledge whilst uncovering new themes that were novel to this project [1].

Qualitative Findings

The qualitative findings identified that safety-critical engagement appeared to result from experiencing **situational relevance** via **real-world authenticity**, **targeted feedback mechanisms**, and **learning challenges**. We discuss how situational relevance cuts across each of the other three themes. (Please note, each participant quote is labeled by number and focus group e.g. P1, F2 refers to Participant 1, Focus group 2).

Real-world authenticity

Within safety-critical settings there is a particular emphasis on learning authentic and relevant procedures. In police settings, for example, players must engage with key

procedural knowledge as this will be tested in court-cases to justify that they have had the right training and know the correct legal processes. The findings identified that many of the players compared this game with current online police training – although there is no current police training for collecting 'initial accounts' from children specifically – which they described as generally focusing more on procedural knowledge and processes. Players valued the way in which the gameplay was able to represent a more authentic situation, as it related to both the tacit skills of dealing with people, as well as learning about how to apply the correct police procedures. Typical online approaches focus the police officer on accurately stepping through the procedures, but without supporting tacit understanding:

"It was really current... the {current online training} I find some of them are ancient, and cause they don't seem real life to me I don't take anything from them" [P11, F 7]

During the development process, one of the key aims was to ensure that a realistic scenario was provided, which included police verification of visual images used within the game. Police experts were also involved to help create and verify the conversation dialogue. Qualitative findings identified that players engaged with the game due to its relevance to reality. In particular it was found that the authenticity provided by the gameplay created learning points and deepened engagement, leading to reflections on how players would later replicate (or not) this behavior within a real-world setting:

"It's the scenario, like you are sat in the police car at the beginning, you have to check the log, you have to call the operator... we've not actually done anything like [that], and it makes you think...what would I actually do on the job" [P7, G5]

Players particularly valued moments where they saw how the gameplay could transfer to real-life activities that they would be likely to encounter outside of the game. Again, their engagement was supported through realistic narratives and character responses within the gameplay:

"I liked you could ask too many questions ... they (the child) just get a bit bored of you... its like realistic in that sense" [P9, G5]

Some of the trainees were aware of barriers when engaging in the activity of talking to children, especially within this safety-critical context of child interviewing. A key finding was that not only did the trainees positively engage with the game, but felt it would impact significantly on their future practice:

"I do feel a little more prepared for going out there and speaking to children" [P5, F1]

In particular, the players noted specific learning points that would guide future practice suggesting that the game could have a longer term impact on their confidence:

“I am fairly confident interacting with children... So I am okay with that side, but the legislation bit, ... that’s where the computer will give you the confidence...” [P8, F3]

Their engagement was also evidenced by comments indicating reflections on how they would apply specific learning points in future situations:

“I was thinking as I was going through, if I was to speak to a child now, I would change my type of questioning” [P8, F5]

The findings suggest that the game was able to support engagement through allowing players to take on a particular role and reflect on how this could impact actual practice. While they were aware they were playing a character within the game, they were also able to consider how their in-game identity related to their real-world identity; as one trainee explains:

“You learn to play the game, and you also develop a sort of skill base you can take to reality [P8, F3]

Feedback Mechanisms

Within safety-critical contexts such as policing, the concept of ‘wasting time’ is not only frowned upon but almost viewed as a dereliction of duty. A game for training can be seen as an inherent distractor, where gameplay could be viewed as wasting valuable time. To counteract this, yet still engage the player, relevant in-game feedback mechanisms were used explicitly to facilitate learning and as a way to make continual references to real-world practice.

In-game mechanisms were used to focus the learners’ attention on specific learning points. Players noted the value of these learning points especially when poor procedural decisions within the game resulted in negative consequences. Many of these pathways resembled real life decisions, and players recognized that wrong decisions caused problems later, thus helping to embed their understanding. One example was when players failed to check the correct information (i.e. the address) in the log before making a house call, which results in them being attacked by an axe murderer. It is interesting to note that although this was recognized as being somewhat unlikely, the procedural learning point was perceived as relevant and thus reinforced and remembered.

“I got to the door, and I was like I don’t even know which flat I’m supposed to be visiting, and it just made me think then, now when I go to a job, I need to know exactly where I’m going and what I’m going into” [P8, F1]

This particular quote highlights that for engagement in gameplay, the relevance of the learning point was more important than that of a realistic narrative.

In addition, the placing of interactive objects within the gameplay environment was intended to inspire realistic curiosity for potential police officers and provide prompts for discussion with the characters. Whilst interacting with

these objects achieved the in-game objective, we also found that this mechanism inspired players to see themselves as investigative police officers looking for ‘clues’ within the environment:

“Clues in like the trophies, football, you could click on it and it tells them what they’re interested in...” [P6, F2]

Again, these sorts of examples show that the players are engaged in the narrative and immersing themselves in the role they are playing.

One of the key learning points of this game (that is critical for police when collecting a first account from a child) was for players to focus on the tacit skills of building trust and understanding the characters. This formed an important part of gameplay, where the players’ attention was focused on the need to establish rapport through various feedback mechanisms. For example, by observing (through clicking on) various objects within the environment the officer can find topics of interest to communicate with the different characters prior to questioning, thus simulating being observant and picking up clues in the real-world. Through selecting various topics of interest the police officer gains the child’s attentions and respect (if the appropriate questions are selected). Again it was the real-world relevance of this gameplay activity that made it engaging for the police trainees.

“Having a look around the room... that’s what you do when you normally go into a room... you look around” [P7, F2]

To focus player attention on this learning more explicitly and to provide in-game feedback a Rapport Bar (the green level that increased or decrease according the players’ gameplay – see Figure 2) was used to show the players’ current rapport levels. This mechanism provided valuable in-game feedback that changed as a result of objects and responses, thus focusing attention on developing tacit social skills. Comments showed that the rapport bar increased player interest and aided motivation:

“You were conscious of that green bar, so it kept you alert the whole time” [P10, F7]

Even in cases where the player found the gameplay less interesting, the feedback provided by the Rapport Bar was able to positively influence involvement by providing a counterbalancing focus for attention and further stimulation:

“Cause you do want that green bar to go up, even if you’re bored you want that bar to go up” [P4, F5]

In addition, this stimulating of attention also seemed to motivate some players to think more deeply about their learning through their gameplay, thus indicating a continued sense of engagement:

“You’ve got like a target, you concentrate on that green bar, and I thought... I’ve got to think about my answers here...” [P2, F4]

Learning challenges

The final theme concerns how engagement related to experiencing relevant learning challenges within the game. The players talked about the relationship between frustration and learning, which once they had overcome, produced a rewarding experience. When making decisions within the game, players were able to engage in safety-critical learning through the feedback mechanisms and different storylines (e.g. when they were faced with an axe murderer after following incorrect procedures). Arguably, engagement and learning were successfully woven together, as players became aware of their responsibility and took ownership for their learning journey by putting effort into the game:

"It does make you think... because it makes people actually do their own research" [P11, F1]

Similarly, players were able to clearly identify engagement as the pathway to successfully learning from the game. Several players also stated that while this was not a simple process, they valued the learning that resulted from overcoming challenges in the game:

"You have to engage in it to do well ... people may find that frustrating but ultimately you're forcing that person to learn" [P9, F8]

For some this engagement was a simple relationship between feedback mechanisms reinforcing what they did and didn't know. The feedback produced at the end of each scene would indicate if players had missed something, thus creating a further challenge for them to engage in:

"I just wanted to get all my stars but the thing that got me down was the process that I didn't know, but then it got me dead annoyed... but it made sense"[P8, F7]

For others, the gameplay could produce a deeper more dynamic interaction between engagement, ownership and motivation, thus highlighting the value of sustained learning:

"It makes it more memorable... cause you can actually refer it back to the game, I would remember it" [P12, F8]

Ultimately the game was able to generate effective engagement that incited learner reflections around key learning points:

"Gaining your rapport. It's common sense, if you think about it but you don't always think about it." [P2, F7]

DISCUSSION

Engagement is frequently provided as a rationale for the use of serious games. However, within the context of games that provide safety-critical training, the literature lacks a clear understanding of what sort of experiences players are having and what factors influence their engagement. In this paper, we explore these questions through presenting the player experience evaluation of a SCG that aims to train new police recruits in obtaining 'initial accounts' from child

witnesses. A mixed-methods approach was used that captured quantitative survey data on usability and game experience, while qualitative findings provided a deeper understanding of player engagement through identifying the factors that influence engagement and potentially learning.

The quantitative value ratings suggest that players preferred game-based learning to online-training, while the UX ratings suggested that the game was able to provide a reasonable user experience that was unlikely to get in the way of deeper levels of engagement. The GEQ results also indicated that participants found a 45-minute play session with CIS to be more absorbing than the 3-5 day training events, as well as being less boring and tiresome. While these results do suggest the game was somewhat engaging when compared to other forms of training, the qualitative findings were able to provide more in-depth insights into the experiences of players and how intrinsically learning and engagement were intertwined. In the context of SCGs engagement appears to be less about 'enjoyment' and more about the relevance of the game to players. The findings illustrate how situational relevance was supported through providing real-world authenticity, targeted feedback mechanisms, and learning challenges.

In relation to real world authenticity, previous research has investigated how the level of realism can influence learning [e.g. 38]. However, the focus tends to be on the level of graphical fidelity - with a consideration of whether higher realism can improve learning or even distract novices due to creating additional complexity [e.g. 39]. During the development phase, testing suggesting that 2D animation would be more effective in a safety-critical context, as it enabled players to focus more specifically on learning points. Furthermore, the qualitative findings indicated that relevance was more important than realism for engagement. Through providing a scenario based on the real world, the players were able to relate their gameplay experience to their practice. The authenticity of the game narrative may have helped players narrow the gap between their virtual and real-world identities (through adopting what Gee [15] refers to as a 'projective identity') where they could reflect on their own learning.

In addition, the relevance of the learning points seemed to be more important to players than attempting to provide them with a completely realistic environment. For instance, the fact that players would encounter an axe-murderer if they did not check the address properly was not a particularly realistic outcome but it did provide a valuable learning point that emphasized the value of following particular procedural steps.

These learning points were also facilitated through feedback mechanisms that helped to focus a player attention on the relevance of both tacit and procedural learning. Feedback is seen as an important way to support learning in games [18], though these findings also illustrate how feedback can support engagement through indicating in-game progress. While the rapport bar is obviously not

something that exists outside of the game, it was able to provide relevant real-time feedback on player actions that they could use to progress in the game. In addition, the interactive objects also supported engagement by prompting players to explore the environment and think about how they could create rapport with the other characters.

Feedback mechanisms are also closely linked to the learning challenges provided within the game. Players were required to try and build rapport and carry out the correct procedures, in order to effectively collect an initial witness account from the child. As in real-life, they had to engage in decision making, where their actions could result in different consequences. While wrong decisions may have caused short-term frustration, this also led to a stronger embedding of learning as players were provided with information about how to improve their performance. Challenge is generally seen as important for facilitating engagement in games [14; 30, 31], but also plays a role in learning, where, for example, Iacovides et al [22] illustrate the ways in which breakdowns provide opportunities for players to develop deeper understanding. While the feedback in the CIS may have challenged players, arguably this led to more rewarding experiences in the longer term where players learned how to improve their performance not online within the game, but in the real-world setting.

Through a combination of creating authentic experiences, delivering informative feedback and providing learning challenges the game was able to effectively engage players and create an absorbing learning experience. Both engagement and learning appeared to result from the merging of procedural tasks and tacit in-game feedback-mechanisms (e.g., active objects, rapport bar), which were interwoven with decision-making within the storyline (e.g. selecting appropriate questions, paying attention to information). In relation to creating a game within a safety-critical context, it is particularly important to ensure that relevance related to each of the three factors outlined – where engagement appeared to result from how players valued their in-game experiences for informing their practice as police officers.

Design implications

In relation to developing an engaging SCG, we suggest adopting a 3-step design approach: (1) identify the contextual relevant learning points (both tacit and procedural) for the game, (2) create relevant scenarios to represent those learning points and then (3) develop game mechanisms that produce and guide players through the scenario and key learning points. To ensure relevance, key stakeholders should be involved throughout the process and iterative testing will need to be carried with experts and members of the target population. This process can help to ensure that authentic experiences are provided along with informative feedback and appropriate learning challenges.

Based on our experience, we present the following design recommendations for guiding players through key learning points within an SCG (step 3):

Avoid assumptions about the gaming literacy of the target population: while the popularity of gaming has increased within society, not all trainees will be familiar with gaming controls and mechanics. The initial dialogue system had to be replaced, as it was too complicated for those who did not regularly play computer games. The audience for SCGs is likely to consist of people who have different degrees of familiarity with games. If basic controls can be mastered by non-gamers easily, then a much wider proportion of the target audience will be likely to experience engagement.

Players welcome complexity, but ensure sufficient support to solve the challenges: although players accept responsibility for wrong decisions that lead to failure, the learning experience does not terminate with completion of the narrative. It is important to adequately support reflection concerning mistakes through providing sufficient insight as to how to perform better next time, thus mitigating the short-term frustration. Doing so will help to ensure that players find feedback relevant and understand how it relates to their real-world practice. In some cases, this will be a matter of careful calibration, but in others, it may require a redesign of the narrative.

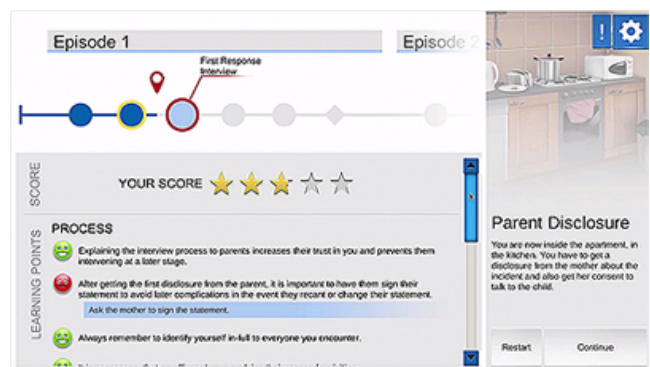


Figure 4: Feedback after one of the in-game scenes

Keep scoring as simple as possible: initially performance was represented by an overall score, decomposed further into the three dimensions (interview skills, rapport building and following process). However, players had difficulties interpreting the feedback so this was replaced with a simpler system (see Figure 4) that provided clearer feedback for what players needed to go back and focus on.

Limitations and future work

One of the main limitations of the study relates to the lack of equivalent police training in the collection of first accounts from children, which means direct comparisons could not be made with non-game based training. However, it is important that when developing novel approaches that at least a relative comparison is made, so we looked instead to more general forms of witness training.

Another potential limitation concerns the fact that we did not explicitly consider the impact of prior gaming experience outside of development testing. While engagement may have been influenced by how players

identified as gamers [23], this was not something that seemed to come out of the focus groups. However, future research could be carried out to explicitly focus on the influence of prior gaming experience on engagement and learning within a SCG.

In addition, we did not report any measures of learning within this paper, as the work is still ongoing. This research forms part of a larger body of current work that investigates the effectiveness of game-based training, involving a full randomized-control-trial that will collect knowledge ratings from over 100 participants. Instead we focus on understanding player engagement as a necessary component of the wider learning experience.

This research has created great interest within the police, with possibilities of developing further police-related game-based simulations that focus on a range of topics e.g. dealing with vulnerable people, online grooming, stop and search. There is also further potential to adapt the current prototype to achieve different learning goals. Additionally, there has been interest in the wider 'blue-light' (i.e. ambulance, fire-brigade) and disaster recovery contexts. The aim would be to develop a suite of game-based training packages that provide a cost-effective, engaging and effective approach that compliments current training needs. This would then provide further opportunities to examine player engagement and learning across a range of SCGs. The main three areas that require further research are 1) how to effectively design games for learning across a range of safety critical settings; 2) how best to evaluate any learning has occurred and 3) to examine the role of SCGs in future training practices.

CONCLUSION

Through the evaluation of CIS, we have been able to explore the factors related to player engagement in the context of games used for safety-critical training. While engagement is important to consider in relation to serious games in general, it has further ethical considerations for SCGs, where a lack of engagement and inadequate training could have severe consequences in the real world. These findings highlight how engagement is supported by experiencing situational relevance, due to a focus on real-world authenticity, targeted feedback mechanisms, and learning challenges. We also present a summary of a three-step design approach, which emphasizes the importance of incorporating both procedural and tacit learning points, and consider specific design recommendations for developing engaging SCGs.

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Exploring Emotion Representation to Support Dialogue in Police Training on Child Interviewing

Maria Margoudi^{1(✉)}, Jennefer Hart², Anne Adams², and Manuel Oliveira¹

¹ HighSkillz, London, UK

{maria.margoudi,manuel.oliveira}@highskillz.com

² Open University, Milton Keynes, UK

{jennefer.hart,anne.adams}@open.ac.uk

Abstract. Police officers when dealing with interviewing children have to cope with a complex set of emotions from a vulnerable witness. Triggers for recognising those emotions and how to build rapport are often the basis of learning exercises. However, current training pulls together the full complexity of emotions during role-playing which can be over-whelming and reduce appropriate learning focus. Interestingly a serious game's interface can provide valuable training not because it represents full complex, multimedia interactions but because it can restrict emotional complexity and increase focus during the interactions on key factors for emotional recognition. The focus of this paper is to report on a specific aspect that was explored during the development of a serious game that aims to address the current police-training needs of child interviewing techniques, where the recognition of emotions plays an important role in understanding how to build rapport with children. The review of literature reveals that emotion recognition, through facial expressions, can contribute significantly to the perceived quality of communication. For this study an 'emotions map' was created and tested by 41 participants to be used in the development of a targeted interface design to support the different levels of emotion recognition. The emotions identified were validated with a 70 % agreement across experts and non-experts highlighting the innate role of emotion recognition. A discussion is made around the role of emotions and game-based systems to support their identification for work-based training. As part of the graphical development of the Child Interview Stimulator (CIS) we examined different levels of emotional recognition that can be used to support the in-game graphical representation of a child's response during a police interview.

Keywords: Facial expressions · Serious games · Police interviewing · Emotion recognition

1 Introduction

Interviewing vulnerable children and using them as witnesses is a difficult and sometimes challenging issue, especially for new recruits and early career front line police, who may have limited training and real-life experience of interacting with children. Past research within child interviewing has often focused on the controversy around

suggestibility and reliability of a child's statement, their vulnerability in the judicial setting, and a child's perception of the police as an authority figure [1–3]. To support police practice in this field there are important 'Achieving Best Practice' (ABP) guidelines provided on how to safeguard children's welfare whilst facilitating the collection of high quality evidence [4, 5]. However, all too often police do not adhere to these guidelines when conducting interviews with children [6]. One of the key barriers preventing the adoption of these guidelines is the training of front line police officers, making it difficult for them to develop the necessary skills that can assist them when faced with interviewing a child. In the recent 2015 HMIC report entitled 'In Harm's Way', the specialist training of police in the area of child interviewing skills (especially when taking first statements), was considered ineffective with a reliance on simplistic online training [7]. This has resulted in a police problem with disengagement and simplistic understanding by the police of child interviewing techniques and processes.

This paper documents research into the use of Game-Based Learning (GBL) to support police training and engagement to develop a deeper understanding in child interview training. This is sought through the use of a serious game to focus on specific learning aspects (e.g., rapport and emotional recognition), to support and enhance police tacit experiential knowledge. The result is a serious game, Child Interview Simulator (CIS), which can assist front-line police officers in developing a deeper understanding of effective practices and provides a more engaging mode of the training of early career police officers when they interact with a child. The particular focus of this paper is to research how emotional recognition can be used to support the training within rapport building when police officers interact with a child during an interview.

2 Challenges of Child Interviewing

Child interviewing research evidence suggests that child statements should be taken as early as possible after the alleged offence. Interviewers should encourage children to disclose as much information as possible by using open-ended prompts (e.g., 'Tell me what happened'), as opposed to focused (yes/no) questions [8, 9]. Children are capable of providing accurate information about their experiences, but the quality of communication and the types of retrieval methods used need to be carefully considered [10]. Far too often child witnesses are not interviewed by police as their abilities at remembering the events are considered poor. Research has identified various techniques, such as revisiting the context in which the event occurred, or children drawing during interviews to enhance free-recall while avoiding feelings of risk and error [10]. Paine et al. [11] identified that the mode of interaction with children that includes visual prompts can positively impact upon the success of these interviews. Unfortunately, these findings have not effectively been passed through into police practice. Research has revealed that more often suggestive utterances and focused questions were used as a means to obtain accurate information due to limited time and lack of effective training [9, 12].

In policing, practice communication with children can be difficult for police officers, especially for those unfamiliar with dealing with children. Tactic police practices have identified that one of the essential elements in a successful interview is the ability to

build good rapport. The onus is for the front line police officer (who arrives first at the scene), to establish good rapport quickly. This can be very challenging, especially when time may be limited and there are often other witnesses and distractions to deal with. Furthermore, police officers also have to judge the child's cognitive and language abilities, along with assessing their emotional state [3]. As a result, during initial contact police officers often do not allow appropriate time that is needed for rapport building, and so fail to gain good quality statements from a child.

Both academic research and tacit police knowledge have identified the important need for effective training in how to take the first statement from a child, especially for front-line early career police officers. Training of new recruit police officers within the UK combines an intense initial tutor-lead phase, followed by a 2-year community-based probationary period. Although new recruit police officers are given some training in child-interview procedures there is little time to practice these skills, and the online-training courses are limited and deemed inadequate to develop these skills. It is not until police officers have been practicing for a number of years that they may be selected to attend an intensive 2–3 week child interviewing training course that largely consists of role-play. Practice-based learning and training aim to replicate real world interactions to enable a transfer of understanding from the learning activity to real world experiences. For example, inquiry learning suggests learning through doing [13, 14]. Problem-based learning highlights the value of real world problems as a focus for testing learning [15]. Role playing provides a valuable approach to learning through enacting experiences [16]. However, recent findings have identified that often the complexity of real world interactions can distract and reduce the effectiveness of realistic approaches to learning and training [17]. The aim of the CIS serious game is to focus the learners on specific tacit skills that can support them during their 2-year probationary period, prior to attending a more specialist child interviewing course.

3 Representation of Emotions in Games

3.1 Categorizing Emotions

Children, whilst vulnerable have been recognized by the police internationally as witnesses to crime who should not be undervalued and ignored. The ability to assess a child's emotional state during a police interview would be a huge advantage for the interviewer, as they can adapt the interview technique in order to build rapport and aid communication. There are many cues of nonverbal behavior that are used to assist communication. Recognizing and responding to non-verbal behavior is central to building rapport and achieving a successful interview. Communication usually consists of a mix between verbal communication and several types of nonverbal behaviors, such as gestures, body language, tone of voice and facial expression. Sometimes the verbal and nonverbal language conflict with each other, which often results in the nonverbal cues being perceived as being more authentic than the verbal, as these are harder to control [18]. Nonverbal information has been termed as 'leaky' clues, as they can reveal the true feelings or intensions of the speaker [19]. Therefore, it is important for an interviewer to be able to pick up and recognize the nonverbal cues, as this provides insights

in the emotional state of an interviewee, and can have big implications that can either have a positive or negative impact as to how well an interview may progress. While technology cannot replicate the full complexity of human interactions, we argue that this maybe an advantage for training purposes. By restricting these cues during police training we could increase the potential for more effective cognition and internalizing of these tacit interviewing behaviors. Furthermore, by restricting and simplifying the cues it could be argued that this may increase awareness of these factors by those being trained. The face, in particular, allows us to express in visual form our feelings and emotions, and plays an invaluable role in social interactions and communications [20]. For example, facial cues have been argued as the most important behavior to focus research on when developing rapport for those with Asperger's syndrome who have problems recognizing emotions [21].

Facial expressions are the most obvious emotional indicators providing initial indications of how a person is feeling at any given time. The visual nature of emotional expressions makes it a very good method for incorporating nonverbal clues into a game design. The study of emotions has been of great interest to various scientific fields, ranging from psychology and neuroscience, to machine learning and computer vision. Emotions have been widely viewed in psychology as categorical, in that there are certain basic emotions that is governed by individual neural networks [22]. Past researchers have suggested different lists of basic emotions, with Ekman and Friesen [23] being in the forefront in the measuring and validation of facial expression. Their theory is based on the premise that emotional expressions are formed by changes in different facial muscle actions that create emotional patterns that can be recognized as different emotions. Many of these patterns of muscle movements within the face have been coded by Ekman and Friesen [23] to form the basis for the Facial Action Coding System (FACS). A database of over 200 facial images of different expressions were created [24], by breaking expressions down into Action Units (AU). Since then, FACS has become one of the most widely used and validated method of measuring, analyzing and describing facial behavior. In a recent paper by Ekman [25], a survey of experts in emotion related research was conducted to identify the most salient emotions. There was a very high agreement (75–90 %) that the top most recognizable emotions were anger, fear, sadness, happiness and disgust. Less salient emotions found were shame, surprise and embarrassment (40–50 %), followed by guilt, contempt, love, pain, envy and compassion, being less recognizable. This is reflected in further literature, where the primary 6 emotions (with the addition of surprise) are identified as being the most recognizable, while the secondary emotions (such as guilt, contempt etc.), being considered more difficult to define [26, 27].

In contrast, the dimensional *Circumplex Model of Affect* (CMA) theory [22] see emotions organized on a two-dimensional level of *valence* and the intensity of *arousal* (*activation*), which map emotions onto an *Affective Space Model*, (see Fig. 1). Different emotions are understood on each of these two linear dimensions, or varying degrees of valence or arousal. Although the CMA allows for a variety of emotions across a wide spectrum, it does not determine the most (or least) recognizable emotions. We argue, that for police interview training, using the most recognizable emotions (identified by Ekman & Friesen), rather than all the complexities of less salient emotions (provided

by the CMA), is valuable for enhancing awareness of rapport. Whilst role-play training cannot restrict and focus on these issues, the CIS can focus on specific key emotions that are relevant to the game storyline, thus assisting the learner in rapport building.

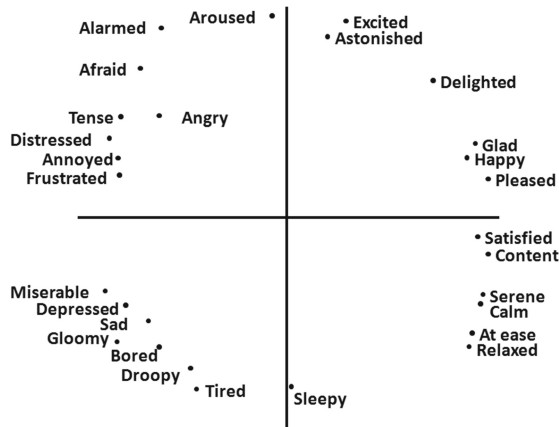


Fig. 1. A graphical representation of the Circumplex Model of Affect showing the horizontal axis (valence), and the vertical axis (arousal)

It has been argued by facial recognition research [26] that the lack of any contextual information (social situation in which the emotion occurred) and any causal information (events that may have caused the emotion) could increase the effective emotion recognition. Again whilst this may not be a true representation of reality, it does provide a way to focus training and increase its effectiveness. By providing an initial awareness of these cues for the police during training it is argued that this would allow an awareness of these basic emotions before they become over-complex and harder to interpret with situational and emotional intensity. For example, the intensity of the emotion has been identified as providing an impact on its effective identification, with some emotions at full intensity (such as anger and disgust) looking very similar, thus causing confusion [28].

The value for the police to enable a more focused route to training cannot be underestimated. The ability to assess a child's emotional state during the interview would offer a huge advantage for the police interviewer. Providing effective and engaging training in this area can allow the police to adapt their interview technique, to build rapport and aid communication, and ultimately increase their potential to solve crimes and bring perpetrators to justice. Enhancing the tacit skills of early police officers to identify the emotional states of a vulnerable witness will enable them to respond appropriately to their needs.

3.2 Emotion Recognition in Games

Emotions' recognition is a basic social skill and is identified as the ability to recognize the major group of human emotions. It is associated not only with effective peer

relationships and social development, but also with children's preparation for learning in a formal setting [29]. Emotions conveyed by facial expressions, gestures, words or situations contain critical information for the regulation of social interactions. Significant research has been conducted during the last three decades within the field of serious games, in the development of systems that attempt to mimic human cognitive processes by automatically analyzing and interpreting facial expressions. In order to address the challenges related to this particular field of research, facial expression analysis has been distinguished between two main streams: facial affect analysis and facial muscle motion analysis [23, 30]. Most facial expression analysis systems focus on facial expressions to estimate emotion related activities. In addition, many studies have introduced the interpretation of real-life situations based on the correlation of multiple channels, such as both speech and facial expressions [31].

As humans perceive a lot of emotional information through visual communication, several research projects have investigated the different aspects of affect recognition through facial characteristics [29, 30, 32, 33]. The majority of serious games developed around this scientific field mainly focus on health studies and affect recognition for individuals with Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD). The use of virtual humans as a way to teach emotion recognition through games enables the contextualization of emotions, as they simulate real conversation without the actual social interaction that people with ASD find difficult [32]. In addition, the review of current literature on emotion recognition in gaming contexts verifies the use of the widely accepted model of Ekman and Friesen [23] which supports the universality of facial expressions (described in previous section).

In the gaming field, the development of embodied conversational agents (ECAs) and talking heads with a focus on accurate gaze targets have been in the center of recent research efforts [34–36]. The use of ECAs in different contexts and purposes in games has revealed the importance of facial expressions and non-manual facial signals in speech and language understanding. Consequently, avatars are required to portray at the same time emotion and facial non-manual signals [37]. Furthermore, there is an emergent need for expressive avatars that will mainly contribute to Collaborative Virtual Environments (CVEs). The use of avatars as simple placeholders doesn't contribute to the communication process and it has been proved that even a single expressive behavior that reflects the conversation can contribute significantly to the perceived quality of communication [38].

4 A Serious Game for UK Police Force

The Child Interview Simulator (CIS) consists of a serious game developed to enable and complement current police training practices in the field of child interviewing, targeting mainly new recruits. The CIS simulates a real-life situation that allows the player to be a police officer whose goal is to obtain a first statement from a child that has witnessed an alleged criminal offence, and then conduct an interview. This serious game bases its structure on dialogue mode and utilizes interview types applied in previous games like "Global Conflicts: World Collections" [39].

The game was co-developed with one UK police force with the context being inspired by an actual real life case that formed the backstory to the CIS. A nine-year old boy is walking on his way back home from school, when he witnesses a man grabbing a lone female from the bushes and attempting to drag her off the common pathway. As the woman screams, the attacker notices the child watching him and in panic, runs away. The gameplay is based on Experimental Learning Theory [40], which uses the learner's experiences in order to facilitate learning. Following Kolb's four stages of learning theory, the player learns about the incident and collects information on the witness through various sources (State 1: Concrete Experience), then reflects on the obtained information (State 2: Reflective Observation), in order to develop his/her own understanding (Stage 3: Abstract Conceptualization), and finally act accordingly by making the correct choices in gameplay (Stage 4: Active Experimentation).

The CIS has two main parts (see Fig. 2), the first begins when the police trainee receives a dispatch call about the incident and visits the child at his home in order to take a first response statement. The second part consists of the police trainee conducting an interview in what is known as Achieving Best Evidence (ABE) suite. Although, in reality a trainee will need to have undertaken specialized child interview training to conduct an ABE suite interview with a child; the experience given by engaging in the 2nd part of the CIS will allow them to experience the importance of gathering effective data from the first response interview, and how this may impact on the success of the ABE interview.

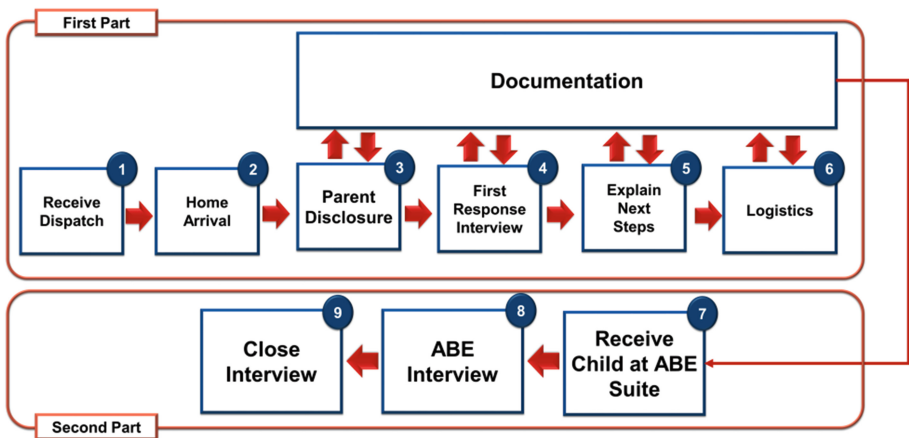


Fig. 2. The Child Interview Simulator (CIS) showing the two parts broken down in episodes

In the first part, the key episodes are the parent disclosure (episode 3) where the police trainee needs to obtain a statement of account from the parent, without the child present, and the first response interview (episode 4) where the police trainee obtains the first account statement of the alleged offence from the child. In the second part, the key episode is documenting the police interview with the child, which is captured on video (episode 8), and used as evidence in court, thus not requiring the child to be present

within the judicial court procedure. In all the episodes, it is necessary for the police trainee to engage with the child in verbal communication (see Fig. 3 for a snapshot of the dialogue interaction within episode 4). However, the hard challenge to master is the recognition and interpretation of the non-verbal communication cues, which are complex and difficult to implement in the form of a serious game. The use of 3D was discarded early in the development precisely because believable non-verbal communication would be difficult to support, and consequently 2D was adopted as a credible alternative to representing the emotional state of the characters with whom the police trainee will engage with. To support the trainee further, a ‘Rapport bar’ was conceived to convey how successful the trainee is in building trust, affinity and empathy with each stakeholder (mother and child). The decision of making rapport visually explicit in the form a gauge (top left corner of Fig. 3) was due to the difficulty of capturing the non-verbal subtleties even in 2D.

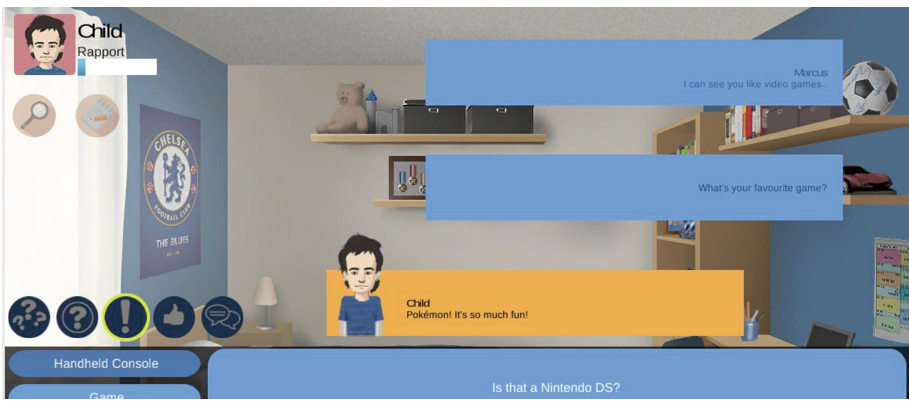


Fig. 3. Partial snapshot of the CIS in the first response interview (episode 4)

The CIS uses the child’s facial expression to make explicit the emotional state of the child, and to convey their mood which provides an indication as to how the interview is proceeding. For example, Fig. 4 illustrates the case when the child changed his emotional state from neutral to angry because the police trainee decided to take by force the gaming device that the child was playing with in order to gain their attention.



Fig. 4. Partial snapshot of the CIS demonstrating change of child’s emotion

To ensure that the emotions are recognizable, a set of facial expressions were generated for the child-witness character and these were tested with different stakeholders, ranging from experienced police officers to interviewing experts. The initial set of 17 facial expressions included a set of basic emotions validated by relevant literature [25], were used within the evaluation test.

The different emotions were organized into an Emotions Map (Fig. 5) consisting of eight different branches of emotions. The categorization was done based on the intensity of each emotional state. Consequently, the facial expressions marked in dark blue are the most easily recognizable by people (Level 1) and those marked in light blue are less easily recognizable (Level 2). Following this approach, we formed an Emotions Map consisting of eight pairs of emotions (ranging from more to less intense facial expressions) and a neutral one.

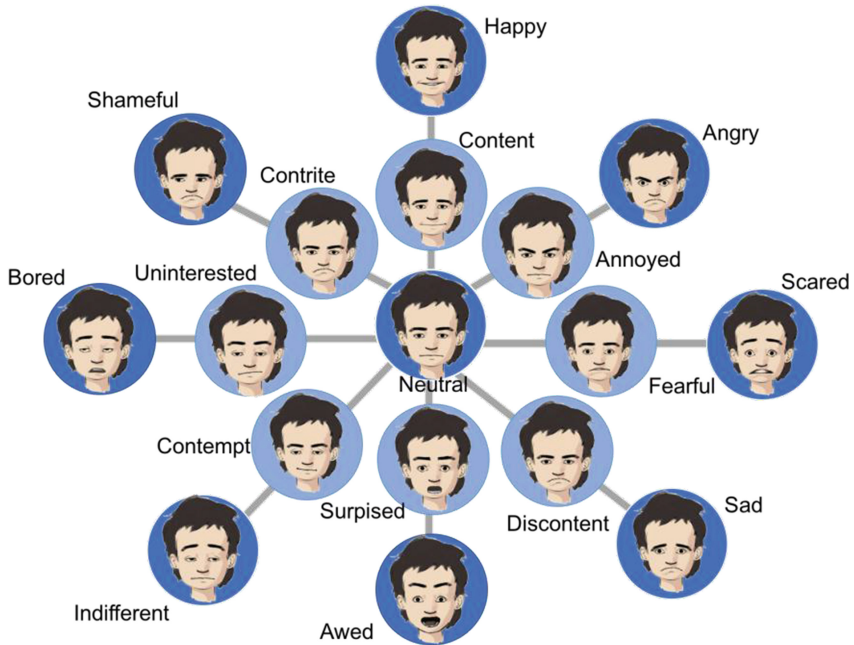


Fig. 5. Emotions Map

5 Methodology and Validation Results

In order to evaluate the emotions map created to support in-game learning, an iterative evaluation process was adopted. The process consisted of two consecutive rounds of evaluation in May 2016, where a set of different facial expressions were tested. The first round was piloted using a digital evaluation method whereby an email was sent to participants, which resulted in a slow response rate. So a paper-based method was

adopted for the final evaluation method as it provided a faster response and enabled more control over the quality of participant completion.

The sample of the participants that contributed to the evaluation consisted of two different groups of people: ‘experts’ and ‘non-experts’. The experts consisted of psychologists (recruited from three different UK universities) who were experts in visual expression research, police experts within child interviewing (recruited from one UK police force), and usability experts, (recruited from one UK university). The second group we termed ‘non-experts’ refers to participants recruited from the general public (in this case university staff). The justification for recruiting expert participants was to improve the validation of the results gained from the general public (non-experts). A total of 41 participants took part in the evaluation, with a split between non-experts (56 %) and experts (44 %). Participants’ age ranged from 25–55, with a slightly higher female (59 %) to male (31 %) gender split.

The same paper-based survey was employed in both iterations of the evaluation and it consisted of 17 different 2D graphic images depicting different types of emotional expressions. A predefined multiple choice format was used with the addition of an open-ended response, as depicted in the examples shown in Fig. 6. Participants were given a paper booklet that consisted of 17 different 2D graphical representations of a facial expression that elicited a particular emotion that could be used within the game. Prior to evaluation, participants were asked to spend a few seconds looking at each face and select from the three choices given, which expression best matched the image. The aim was to illicit participants’ initial impression of each expression. They were also given an open-ended response that allowed participants to add any further comments. The results of both rounds were used for the validation, improvement and final choice of the set of facial expressions to be used in the game.

What is the emotional state of the child?



- Bored
- Annoyed
- Angry
- Other:

Comments:

—

Fig. 6. Facial Expressions Survey

In order to extract the results of the first round of evaluation, the answers of the two different groups of participants were separated. In case of disagreement between the two groups, the experts’ choice was favored above the non-experts’ choice. However, there was 70 % agreement between experts and non-experts, which further validates the results, indicating the innate role of emotion recognition. The result of each round was

listed showing the approved, rejected and undefined facial expressions. As approved was considered an expression that either both groups agreed on for more than 50 % each, or that only the experts agreed on for more than 50 % [41]. Rejected expressions didn't manage to collect the 50 % of either group's acceptance and undefined expressions collected only the 50 % of non-experts' acceptance. The results of both rounds indicated that –in accordance to relevant literature (see Sect. 3.1) there is a certain group of facial expressions that are globally recognized by people. Based on the intensity of the emotional state, we observed that all facial expressions in the outer circle of the emotions map (Level 1) –plus neutral emotional state, in the middle of the map- scored high among all participants and were approved. On the other hand, less intense facial expressions – in the inner circle of the emotions map (Level 2)- weren't that easily identified by all the participants and some of them were marked as undefined or were even rejected.

Analytically, the results of each evaluation round are presented together with the final results of the evaluation procedure in colour-code (green-approved, blue-undefined, red-rejected), as shown in Table 1 below.

Table 1. The Emotions Map Validation Results

N	Level	Emotion	Round 0 - Experts	Round 1 – Non-Experts	Round 2 – Non-Experts	FINAL results
1	1	Neutral	100%	78,2%	100%	Approved
2	1	Happy	100%	91,3%	84,6%	Approved
3	2	Content	60%	34,7%	46,1%	Approved
4	1	Angry	60%	56,5%	53,8%	Approved
5	2	Annoyed	60%	52,1%	53,8%	Approved
6	1	Scared	80%	73,9%	76,9%	Approved
7	2	Fearful	40%	56,5%	69,2%	Undefined
8	1	Sad	60%	56,5%	53,8%	Approved
9	2	Discontent	20%	56,5%	53,8%	Undefined
10	1	Surprised	40%	52,1%	53,8%	Undefined
11	2	Awed	40%	56,5%	38,4%	Rejected
12	1	Indifferent	20%	21,7%	15,3%	Rejected
13	2	Contempt	60%	47,8%	38,4%	Approved
14	1	Bored	60%	60,8%	46,1%	Approved
15	2	Uninterested	80%	60,8%	69,2%	Approved
16	1	Shameful	80%	30,4%	30,7%	Approved
17	2	Contrite	0%	0%	23%	Rejected

In detail, 11 out of the 17 facial expressions were approved by the participants, with the *neutral* expression scoring higher than all the rest. In addition, *happy* and *scared* also scored very high among the participants. The complete list of approved emotions is the following: *neutral*, *happy*, *content*, *angry*, *annoyed*, *scared*, *sad*, *contempt*, *bored*, *uninterested* and *shameful*. The facial expressions that were marked as undefined consisted of 3 emotional states; *fearful*, *discontent* and *surprised*. Finally, there were 3 emotions rejected by both groups of participants: *awed*, *indifferent* and *contrite*.

6 Conclusions

This paper reports on the development of the CIS serious game that incorporates triggers for emotional recognition to support the training of rapport building of early career front-line police officers when interviewing children. By using a 2D serious game interface the aim is to increase the focus on some of the key learning skills required for conducting a successful interview. Whilst there is ample literature in emotion recognition, the results are not easily applicable within the context of a serious game due to the limitations of representing the subtleties of the human face without encountering the uncanny valley [42]. Some of the attempts of crossing the uncanny valley using computer graphics and photorealistic rendering are discussed in [43], which supports the decision for adopting 2D for the recognition of emotions. This paper reports on the process of designing an ‘emotions map’ for the purpose of developing a child interviewing game-based learning solution. The results of the study support the existing literature in the field of facial emotion recognition, that there are different levels of high and low saliency of emotional recognition. From the 17 facial expressions evaluated, 11 were approved, 3 were marked as undefined and 3 were rejected. Little difference was found between experts and non-experts with a 70 % agreement indicating the innate aspect of emotional recognition. It should be noted that even though the whole set of facial expressions was tested and evaluated, only a part of them were included in the game. The selection of these expressions will be based on their relevance to the game’s episodes.

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