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Articles



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The Role of an Interpreter in Polygraph Checking

Роль интерпретатора результатов полиграфного тестирования

Key words: polygraph in Azerbaijan, polygraph examination with interpretation

As we know the implementation of translation is a psychologically complex activity, characterizes the work of an interpreter as a complex process of thinking and realizing a thought in two languages, which occurs when he performs his duties. The translation should be seen as a means of ensuring communication between people in cases where they do not speak the same language and are equally accessible to them. This security is the main goal and task, facing the translation and activities of the persons who implement it [Kashkin 1959: 141–142].

Conducting a conversation about the accuracy, maximality in translation, specialists often compare, or rather, compare the literal translation with the free (semantic) trans-

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lation, their relation to the languages participating in the translation [Dmitrenko 1971: 22–24].

On polygraph studies, the person conducting the study is competent to evaluate the translation performed. Only he can tell if the translation is full. The interpreter can only declare the accuracy of the translation he has done. The full value of translation is an important principle of the theory of translation. It has a number of essential features that make it possible to evaluate the translation in general.

It is important to note that the requirement of full value is presented to all types of translation carried out in various branches of knowledge and social life, including in polygraph checking. Naturally, the question arises: what translation for polygraph checking should be recognized as complete or accurate and how is this determined? Russian scientist L.N. Sobolev [1970: 143] provides three factors that affect the accuracy of translation:

- 1) the purpose of the translation;
- 2) the character of the material being translated;
- 3) the subject to which the translation is intended.

It seems that the factors pointed out by L.N. Sobolev to determine the “measure of accuracy” of the translation are unequal. In particular, the third point is questionable, since in all stages of the Polygraph Translation any tests are made equally, regardless of the persons for whom it is carried out. Indeed, the procedural status, nationality, profession, education, sex, age, etc. of persons who will be familiar with the translated texts do not affect their content. The essence of the translation does not change also from the fact that the presence of citizens is possible in the room.

The interpreter takes into account the personality, its features to the extent that they are reflected in the translated text, the composition of the speech (for example, when interviewing minors, age, education, etc. are taken into account).

The translation process for preserving and conveying the thoughts of the original must pass through and passes through a series of stages that consist in perception, comprehension of words in one language and reproduction of the result obtained on another. The exact translation is strictly dependent on the correct perception of the material to be transmitted by means of another language. For a correct interpretation of the original, translator is obliged not to smooth out the shortcomings of the source, not to embellish the translation itself.

In view of what has been said, it seems that to determine the measure of the accuracy of the translation, one should bear in mind:

- A) the purpose of the translation;

- B) features of the translated text;
- C) truthfulness and objectivity of translation.

The totality of these features will allow us to outline the limit of accuracy that is required in all types of translation. To make the translation precise and objective, that it can be defined as a full-fledged one, it is also necessary to solve the language problems that are concluded in accessibility, purity of speech, selection of linguistic means, usage, preservation of auxiliary means of speech.

Operating in two languages, the interpreter also solves questions of preserving auxiliary means of speech: intonation, inclination. In fact, they determine the nature of the speech impact on participants in Polygraphic Translation. In intonation, the most delicate and complex shades of emotions manifest themselves, and the speaker's condition is revealed in it: fatigue, excitement, confidence or self-doubt, etc. All this can not but affect the intonation of speech, which significantly affects the possibility of achieving that goal of influence to which the interrogator aspires to Polygraphic Translation. The intonation is, as it were, a mirror of behavior, reflects the attitude to the fact that is being reported. Consequently, the discrepancy of intonation with those psychological experiences that should have been manifested, for example, in the interviewee when giving testimony about certain circumstances, suggests their personality.

Translation, based on the features of the original and the situation where it is carried out, as well as the tasks assigned to it, presents various forms and types. Like the material being translated, it has the following forms: a) verbal, b) written.

Interpretation is carried out in two versions – synchronous and sequential, each of which is a two-way action.

At present, bilateral translation is widely used in various meetings, negotiations, conversations, and in legal proceedings (when interrogating witnesses, victims and other participants in the process who do not know the language of legal proceedings, in the speeches of participants in the process. With applications, petitions, etc., when conducting experiments, inspections, searches.

Synchronous translation is not only the coincidence of the interpreter's speech with the speech of the speaker but also the uniqueness of the working conditions inevitably associated with the use of technical means and the constant intellectual tension and concentration of the translator.

To implement a full-fledged synchronous translation, an important factor is the correct definition of the location of the interpreter in the process of fulfilling his function. The first duty is to choose an advantageous position for listening to the original,

which should be reported to the interviewee on the Polygraph Translation. As a rule, the interpreter chooses a place (which the author also believed from his own practice during the experiments conducted at the Institute of Philosophy, Sociology and Law of ANAS), between the negotiating parties.

In the translation practice seventeen “rules” of interpretation have been worked out (both in synchronous and consecutive translation), which differ from the written one. The analysis shows that they are not all acceptable when making a translation in the Polygraph Translation, so we will focus on some of them, which fully meet the requirements of interpretation and in Polygraph Translation:

- 1) the worst translation – better than no translation;
- 2) the translator must always have a loud confident voice, a clear reaction, self-correction in explicit form is not allowed;
- 3) the begun statement must necessarily be completed;
- 4) “ekanie” and “mekanie”, etc., are inadmissible;
- 5) the interpreter translates only that which he is fully convinced (ie, that he confidently understands and can, correspondingly, express it well in another language). Everything else he either omits or replaces. But in the PFD, such omissions and substitutions are fraught with consequences, so the translator is given the right to ask again, clarify what he did not understand in order to carry out an objective interpretation;
- 6) the translation must necessarily feel the logical connection between the previous and the next. With this rule in Polygraph Translation also should be treated with care. The translator, at his own discretion, can not put on the shell of logic the incoherent speech of the interviewee. Here embellishment is unacceptable;
- 7) along the length of the translation and the original (almost) coincide;
- 8) in the translation it is necessary to use only stable word combinations, etc.

Polygraph examiners [Nabiyev 1979: 50–58] should remember that an interpreter is more than a written interpreter who is psychologically attuned to a relatively free treatment of the translated text.¹

It should be noted that along with the oral translation in the PFD, a written one is also widely used. It is used as a translation of individual tests, and the materials of the case in general.

¹ Bekir Nabiyev, an Azerbaijani scientist and doctor of philological sciences, correctly notes in his article “The Language of Translation” that the liberty of an interpreter or his ignorance of the subtleties of languages from which and to which he translates leads to the fact that sometimes after the conversion he has completed, Original, even the absolute opposite is obtained.

Written translation, being a document fixing the content of the translated material, allows checking the objectivity and completeness of the translation at any time, which is sometimes difficult in the case of an oral translation.

The interpreter should not try to guess how interrogated person could express this thought if he had mastered the language of legal proceedings. His task is to transfer the content of the facts, which is closest to the original. At the same time one should not strive for a literal translation.

To show the features of the translation in Polygraphic Translation, it is advisable to compare it with the art translation. Moreover, in the Polygraph Translation, it is necessary to translate not only texts relating to different branches of knowledge, but also texts of conversations, various questionnaires.

It should be noted that the conditions for implementing a translation in the Polygraph Translation are specific and sharply different from those available in other areas of activity. The translation takes place in the official, often in a psychologically tense environment. The translator sometimes has to work with people who have suffered severe physical or mental trauma in a complex mental state. Sometimes the place of work is medical institutions, places of crime, etc. However, from an interpreter, always, under any conditions, a quick reaction and constant switching of thinking from one language to another are required.

There are certain signs that distinguish the conditions for the implementation of translations: 1) the possibility of self-selection of the text; 2) the time for the translation; 3) availability of qualified cadres of interpreters and the ability to monitor their activities. Let us consider in more detail and make a possible comparison of these features.

An interpreter who carries out an artistic translation, himself pre-schedules or agrees with the recommendation to translate a certain work, has a real opportunity to get acquainted with its content in advance and in detail. Having weighed his knowledge in the field of the original language, the interpreter takes up the matter or refuses it.

As for these actions in the field of Polygraphic Translation, for an interpreter they are often unexpected. The specialist can not get acquainted with the content of any procedural documents in advance and receives such an opportunity only after his appointment as an interpreter. He has to translate different materials, sometimes dealing with an abundance of terms that are first encountered.

Very often in Polygraphic Translation, there are texts saturated with lexical means that lie beyond the limits of the literary language, which are not widely used and are not widely known to the majority of the population, limited by the framework of any nar-

row sphere. Naturally, therefore, when a participant in a criminal process turns to the life of a public “bottom” – the underworld – his speech begins to abound with argotic (slang) words and expressions, which immediately poses a difficult task for an interpreter. Persons faced with the need for a translation in law enforcement should have in mind that argo is a very peculiar lexical system, which, taking as a basis the vocabulary of the national language, and also dialectal, changes it almost beyond recognition through intensive use of the entire arsenal of word-building means of the language. Moreover, argo is widely used in foreign borrowings and, as a rule, such, which are unknown to the literary language.

It is also necessary [Nochevnik 1988: 32] to understand the mistakes of an interpreter related to the translation of facial expressions and gestures of participants in the Polygraph Translation.² Often translators generally miss the translation of facial expressions and gestures, counting on the fact that the injured person also sees them and can come to the appropriate conclusions himself. However, the interpreter forgets that facial expressions and gestures become understood in conjunction with speech. At the same time, sometimes every gesture or facial expression can mean an independent thought. For example, when a person is interviewed, the person says that his accomplice from a distance made a gesture to kill someone, that is, he rubbed his hands over his throat or imitated a blow with a hammer on the head. The respondent can tell in his own words or imitate them as he remembered, and the interpreter needs a clear translation of the content of the episode. As we know in the production of polygraph studies, with the participation of persons who do not speak the language on which the Polygraphic Translation is conducted, the participation of an interpreter is necessary. He is one of those who provides the necessary conditions for establishing an objective fact in the case. Thus, the comparative analysis makes it possible to distinguish the following generalized features of an interpreter:

- 1) mastering the languages, from which and to which the translation is made
- 2) disinterest in the outcome of the case
- 3) appointment by the person making the Polygraph Translation
- 4) entry into the case, if any of the participants does not know the language of the proceedings
- 5) competence

² In our opinion in literature, it is not without justification that it is noted that “the language and the gesture accompanying it have a pronounced national and racial character, connected with ethnic, geographic, professional, social, role, cultural environment.” This means that the word without gesture sometimes, in harmony with it and helping it to incarnate, to acquire meaning, as it were emptying, loses its sound.

- 6) incompatibility of the translation function with other functions in the legal proceedings. In addition, from the general rules on procedural and general legal incapacity there is also such sign as:
- 7) the person reaches a certain age [Rakhunov 1961: 268]³

Preparation of an interpreter for the performance of his functions. After appointing a person as an interpreter, it is necessary to prepare him for the performance of his function in the PFD. In the literature, this question is almost not considered. In the meantime, it is necessary to prepare him to fulfill his obligations and realize the powers in the Polygraph Translation in order to avoid unnecessary substitutions and to prevent or eliminate violations that can be committed by an interpreter. It is necessary to draw parallels between the participation of an interpreter in criminal proceedings since there is as yet no legal regulation of the participation of an interpreter in the Polygraph Translation. For this, as well as in criminal proceedings, in the Polygraph Translation it is necessary to clarify to the interpreter that: the interpreter is obliged to carry out the activities provided by law (interpreting during the investigative action and translating the investigative and judicial documents, into the polygraphic translation of the test questions and Conversations);

He has no right to carry out any orders from the side of the victim, the accused and other participants in the process, bypassing the investigative and trial bodies (in our case the polygraphic examiner);⁴

It is inadmissible to disclose the data of the preliminary investigation without the permission of the person conducting the investigation, the investigator or the prosecutor, in which case a subscription with a warning of liability under the relevant art. Of The Criminal Code of the Republic of Azerbaijan or the Criminal Code of Ukraine;⁵

The interpreter has no right to express his opinion to the accused, victim, witness about the completeness and truthfulness of their testimony, and even more to reproach, to shame them if, in his opinion, someone gives untrue impressions. Not the interpreter, but the person making the inquiry, the follower, the court assesses the evidence according to its own internal belief, based on a comprehensive, thorough and objective

³ At this point R.D. Rakhunov drew attention.

⁴ Of course, the participants in the process have the right to apply to an interpreter on issues arising from the task of protecting their legitimate interests. For example, to detail, specify a certain part of the transfer, etc. But these appeals are carried out only through the body (official) who conducts proceedings on the case at this stage, or with his permission. Consequently, these contacts are procedural inform.

⁵ This should be done not only about the materials of the translation, but also any data of the case, which became known to the interpreter during his participation in investigative and judicial actions or presence in the office of the investigator, judge, in the courtroom, etc.

examination of all the circumstances of the case in their totality, guided by law and legal awareness. The task of an interpreter is to fully and accurately translate testimonies to create conditions for such an assessment, regardless of your own attitude to the form and content of what is being said.⁶

Preparing an interpreter for the performance of the functions assigned to him means that the person who conducts the inquiry, the investigator (prosecutor) and the court must explain to him not only his duties, but also his rights. [Larina 1986: 1]⁷

The question of the psychological preparation of an interpreter for participation in the Polygraph Translation. Meanwhile, the success of an interpreter in his work on Polygraph Translation largely depends on his correct decision. We can not discount the likelihood of a psychological influence on the interpreter of the experiences of the accused [Soloviev, Tsentrov 1986: 45–53, 64–71; Ratinov, Efimova 1988: 44–51] the victim, etc., the more targeted attempts of these individuals or relatives to evoke his sympathy.⁸ As a result, it is possible that an interpreter may have emotions that may affect the objectivity of the translation; Feelings of pity in connection with the age of adulthood, the family situation of the accused or, conversely, hatred and contempt in connection with the brutality shown by him at the time of the crime, etc. To avoid this, the person making the Polygraph Translation does not confining himself to a formal acquaintance of an interpreter with the content of the articles of the Criminal Procedure Code of Ukraine or the Criminal Procedure Code of Ukraine on his activities, upon presentation of the relevant document of appointment in this capacity, he should explain to the interpreter the duty to approach the case not with accusation or excuse, but only from the position of the function entrusted to him.

When interrogating through an interpreter, the person who produces the VFD is obliged to explain to the interpreter also that, if the questions and answers of the interviewee are unclear, he has the right to ask again in order to clarify their content.

⁶ At the same time, without prejudice to the accuracy of the transmission of the content of oral and written speech, the interpreter has the right to transmit several provisions in one sentence, omitting interjections, linguistic words, and so on. He is allowed to squeeze, with the “addressees” of the transfer and the person-carrier of the information being translated, to seek, by asking, an adequate terminology. By not comment on the content of the translated information, emotionally emphasize those or other aspects. At the same time, if the “addressee” of the translation asks the question, with which place of the testimony, the speeches were associated emotionally expressed experiences of the person whose speech is translated, the translator must inform it.

⁷ In this context, the opinion of A. M. Larina that “to ensure the exercise of rights – means to create the conditions necessary and sufficient for the rights holder to use them. One of these conditions is knowledge of one’s rights. From this point of view, the explanation of rights is one of the elements of the security system.”

⁸ On the psychological state of the accused, the victim and the specificity of their interrogation.

In turn, the interviewee should say that the interpreter has this right and it is not a manifestation of bias at all. At the same time, it should also be explained that the interpreter does not have the right to ask questions to the interviewee on his own initiative, since his function is only to translate questions from the interviewer and the respondent's answers. Finally, in the content of the training of the person appointed by the interpreter, to the specifics of his actions (especially if he is invited for the first time), in our opinion, includes familiarization with the peculiar psychological conditions, (conflictual relations, participants of Polygraph Translation, the apparent contradictoriness of their interests, the pressure of time, the danger of attempts of pressure, the tying of familiarity with stakeholders, etc.).

Equally important [Levi, Pichkalevi, Selivanov 1987: 24] is the problem of exercising control over the activities of an interpreter i.e., for the observance by him, the requirements, completeness and accuracy of the translation.⁹

It must be said in this regard that a reliable assessment of the interpreter's conscientiousness is a rather difficult task.

Here I recall the replica of Nikolaeva Irina Nikolaevna to my question about the participation of an interpreter in the Polygraph Translation, when I studied at the Polygraph School in Krasnodar (Kuban State Technological University). Then she said: "If you believe in an interpreter, you can invite him to Polygraph Translation." After all, "the activity of an interpreter is most difficult to control and verify." Moreover, some practical workers generally deny the possibility of monitoring (checking) the work of an interpreter. Especially this opinion of practitioners is widely applied to cases of participation in the process of a person who understands the signs of the deaf or dumb (deaf-mute).

To verify the correctness of the translation, carried out by a person who understands the signs of the deaf or dumb, it is recommended to use a video recorder.

A knowingly incorrect translation can be found when acquainting the accused, the victim, the civil plaintiff and the civil defendant with all the materials of the case (articles 220–222 of the Code of Criminal Procedure of the Republic of Azerbaijan). The specified participants of the process, having sufficient time to get acquainted with all the materials of the case, can discover the distortions committed in translating their

⁹ In our opinion, the issue of procedural norms for monitoring the activities of an interpreter in criminal proceedings should be resolved at the legislative level. In this case, we consider the proposal of AA Levi, GI Pichkaleva quite well-founded. NA Selivanov, that in general during interrogation of persons with the participation of an interpreter, a sound recording should be used. This, of course, will allow us to further verify the reliability and quality of the translation.

testimonies, documents, etc.¹⁰ Undoubtedly, the specificity of the profession of an interpreter [Rezker 1978: 41], especially in legal proceedings, requires and will always require systematic, independent work, continuous and persistent improvement of his knowledge, skills and habits.¹¹ This makes it necessary to create a translation bureau and, on their basis, conduct professional training and retraining of interpreters, improving their knowledge in the field of jurisprudence.¹²

In the literature it is noted that “when choosing an interpreter, one should apply to state institutions, public organizations, institutes, special educational institutions, etc.” and only in case of impossibility to invite a specialist from there can resort to the services of individuals. However, the enumeration of state and public institutions and organizations where one can find an interpreter does not solve the problem of his search, since in each case the person making the Polygraph Translation is forced to look for a specialist who meets the procedural requirements, at least in the named collectives. And it is quite possible that there will be those who can be invited as an interpreter taking into account the circumstances of the concrete case. It is no accident that the above recommendation provides for the possibility of resorting to the services of individuals. Obviously, such a search can almost randomly invite people who actually do not meet the requirements for the interpreter. The practice of law enforcement bodies shows that even in the absence of a translation bureau, there is a real opportunity to avoid inviting casual, incompetent persons as an interpreter.

Of course, the difference in the degree of qualification and talent of persons allowed for translation in the Polygraph Translation can not be eliminated. But those who are engaged in this, it is necessary to develop beforehand skills and skills sufficient to fully and accurately translate as applied to the tasks of Polygraphic Translation.

The development of the organizational and methodological foundations of the transition in the Polygraph Translation would help prevent violations not only of the principle of the national language, but also of other democratic principles.

Thus, the best organizational form and means of improving the organizational, methodological and scientific support of the functions of an interpreter is a translation bureau for criminal and civil cases, including Polygraphic Translations. By maintaining

¹⁰ A similar possibility arises when acquainting with the materials of the case after the accused is brought to trial.

¹¹ We agree with Ya. I. Rezker that such independence is especially needed for a beginner translator who, of course, lacks the skills and vocabulary is still not large.

¹² Such bureaus exist in the central offices of law enforcement bodies in Moscow, which do a great job, serving only themselves, and because of the small number of staff, they do not have the opportunity to assist the investigative and judicial bodies.

a constant relationship with the preliminary investigation and the courts, this institution will be able to ensure the challenge of competent interpreters in the light of the specifics of concrete cases and will give advice on disputable issues arising in the course of the translation in the proceedings.

At the bureau, courses, attestation commissions can be organized. For the investigative and judicial bodies, they will maintain a file of persons who, according to their competence, meet the requirements for an interpreter in court proceedings. The establishment of a translation bureau within the International Association of Polygraph Analysts seems to be an urgent need for justice, and the earlier it is organized, the more it will benefit the interests of ensuring legality and justice in the proceedings and in the Polygraph Translation. In the presence of such bureaus, many lawyers, philologists and international translators could help legal proceedings and the Polygraph Translation in carrying out important tasks of combating crime, ensuring the protection of human rights that do not speak the language of the proceedings.

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Considering National, Cultural, and other Features of Kazakh-Speaking Subjects of Polygraph Examinations

Казахоязычные, как субъекты полиграфного тестирования – национальный, культурный и другие аспекты

Key words: polygraph in Kazakhstan, polygraph examination in cultural context, polygraph examination in language context

Unfortunately, there are no guidelines, manuals or recommendations considering national, cultural, and other features of Kazakh-speaking population in literature on polygraph examinations. Therefore I will try answer to some questions that may arise while polygraph testing Kazakh-speaking subjects, drawing from my experience and observations.

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From the 1920s to the 1960s the idea that the Kazakh language is like the Kazakh steppe: monotonous, monolithic, and devoid of distinctive shades was officially promoted. Differences between regional pronunciations of Kazakhs words were denied too. In addition some past scientists and politicians linked the dialectical differences in the Kazakh language to Zhuzes and tribal divisions of the Kazakh ethnic group, which they believed broke the rules of the “internationalist” Soviet system.

Professor Sarsen Amanzholovich Amanzholov proved the scientific fallacy of such pseudoscientific concepts, which are moreover harmful for the development of language, convincingly quoting numerous examples from history and linguistic theories.

Amanzholov identified 3 groups of dialects among the Kazakh population: southern, western and north-eastern:

- the southern dialect is common in Almaty, Zhambyl, South Kazakhstan, southern Taldykorgan, and Kyzylorda region
- the western dialect prevails in the West Kazakhstan, Atyrau, Mangystau, Aktope regions in Aral steppes of Kyzylorda, western area of the Kostanai Oblast, and in areas densely populated by Kazakhs in Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan and Iran
- the north-eastern dialect is common among Kazakhs living in Akmola, Pavlodar, North Kazakhstan, Karaganda, and eastern regions of Kazakhstan: eastern and northern areas of Kostanai region and in Taldykorgan.

During the Soviet period, language was a high priority. There was a significant stratum of bilingual and Russian-speaking Kazakhs. In the countries of the CIS, there are large Kazakh communities, whose representatives actively use their native language. Young Kazakh men and women who have graduated from schools offering instruction in Russian, sometimes find expressing themselves in their native language difficult, and may even fail to understand the meaning of some words. Unlike their parents' generation, some young Kazakhs belong to the so-called *dubearea*, a group who neither speak nor even understand Kazakh, and may also have problems with Russian, as they mix the two languages.

While examining subjects from this category, for successful results of polygraph testing it is necessary to use the regional differences of Kazakh. The situation in rural areas of the Kyzylorda region is quite different from that in Petropavlovsk. Today West Kazakhstan (Aktope region, Atyrau, West Kazakhstan, Mangistau region, South Kazakhstan region and Kyzylorda region) mainly communicates in Kazakh and records are conducted in the native Kazakh language.

Russian	English	Kazakh (literary)	dialectal form	regions/areas
сестра	sister	аепке	aepshe	SKR, Zhambyl region
недавно	recently	osy, zhana	zhanelde	SKR
не за что	not at all	okasy zhok	arzymaidy	SKR
низкий,	low, small	alasa,	paes	SKR
маленький		kishkentai		
худой	thin	arykh	tyrykh	SKR
закончилось	ended	tausyldy	ada boldy	SKR
ворота	gate	darbaza	darvaza	South
малюсенький	tiny, small	titymdai	kuttykhyndai	South

It is a generally accepted fact that, performing a polygraph examination, the examiner must pay attention to pre-test interview. **He or she must speak “the same language” with the respondent to be sure that the respondent clearly understands all the words and phrases.** And this is where problems start. Kazakhstan is home to 130 nationalities. There are many areas in this melting pot with differences in dialect, which a polygraph examiner should consider. In recent years Kazakhs from Mongolia, China, Turkey, and the CIS have been returning to Kazakhstan, their ancestral homeland. The language of these repatriating people is slightly mixed with the language of the countries they come from. For understandable reasons, the repatriates have transformed ethnic language, their first and last names, appearance, customs, and tastes.

In recent years Kazakhstan has paid special attention to its official language, producing assorted dictionaries and concordances. But the same words often have different meanings, which should also be considered by an examiner, **and let me emphasise once again that the expert and the examinee must understand the meaning of questions the same way.**

I take this opportunity to appeal to polygraph examiner which will be test people the state language! I recommend timely labeling and record the language differences between the regions by creating a table.

маленький		кішкентай		
дядя	uncle	koke	teate	SKR, Zhambyl region
озябнуть, замерзнуть	be cold, warm	tonu, muzdau	zhaurau	SKR, Zhambyl region
пища	food	tamakh	aukhat	SKR, Zhambyl region
полотенца	towels	sulgi	bet surtkish	South
не слишком	too much	onsha emes	shli	SKR
предлог «и»	“and”	zhane	haM	South
ладно	okay	meili	maily	South
окончание	ending	aiaghy	tughyn	South

побольше	more	kobirek	kobirak	SKR
кстати	by the way	aitpakshy	aitpakhtai	SKR
чуть-чуть, немного, через	a little bit, through	kishkene	shamaly	South
спать	sleep	uiyktau	myzghyu	SKR
утром	morning	tanerten	azanda	South
хороший, нормальный	fine, normal	zhaksy, birkalypty	tauir	South
чашка	a cup	piala	kese	South
чайник	kettle	shainek	shaugim, kuman	South
только что	just	zhana, kazir	mana, bagana	South
плакса	crybaby	zhylauyk	zhylanky	South
внешний вид	appearance	turi	Ren basy	South
хулиган, хулиганство	bully, bullying	buzik, buziktyk	buzaky,	South
маленький	little	kishkentai	kittai	Kyzylorda region
большой	big	ulken	aidek	Kyzylorda
с какого рода	what kind of	ruyn, elin	urugyn kim	Kyzylorda
тапчан	deck chair	tapshan	saki	Kyzylorda
спички	matches	sirinke, ottyk	kukirt, keuiirt	Kyzylorda
тазик	basin	tegesh	shylapshyn	Kyzylorda
большой	big	ulken	nan	Aktobe region
ведро	bucket	shelek	bedre	Almaty region
сопля	snivel	murin bokh	munkha	Almaty region
младенец	baby	bope	bopa	Almaty region
колесо	wheel	dongelek	dongalak	Almaty region
бабушка	grandmother	aje	akh mama	West Kazakhstan
родственник	relative	tuyskhan	tuma	West Kazakhstan
брюки	pants	shalbar	sym	Almaty region
муж. рубашка	husband, shirt	koilek	zheide	Almaty region
кастрюля	pan	kastriul	shunkhyr	Almaty region
дыня	melon	khauyn	dinke	EKR
огурец	cucumber	khlar	oghorshek	EKR
драться	fight	tobelesu	perisu	EKR
арбуз	watermelon	kharbyz	darbyz, arbyz	SKR, Zhambyl region

Kutu – Tosu – “where is it waiting for” and sometimes “to put a child on the pot”

Ol ne – ne zat – direct translation “what is it” but it has a more global sense in Western Kazakhstan

Usakhtau – shashu – aiyr – buzu – maidalau – various ways of exchanging money

Astau – in some places a vessel for giving water to animals, elsewhere a large plate for pilaf

Legen – tabakh – large plate for *beshbarmak*, and elsewhere a basin for washing

Juma – Friday in western Kazakhstan is understood as *Apta* – week.

A conversation lets you understand what region of Kazakhstan the respondent comes from. Sometimes it happens that a subject tested with the polygraph is not aware of the semantic content of the issues because of mixing Uzbek-Kazakh (SKO), Tatar (SD), Kyrgyz (Southern regions), and Uighur (Almaty region) words. For example, “Mother” is *Apa* in SKO, *Ana* and *Sheshe*; and in other regions *Mama* or *Ana*. Elder sister is *Apshe* in SKO, and *Tate* and *Apai* in the Almaty region. Moreover, the word *Baldyz* in SKO means “wife’s younger brother” and in EKO – “wife’s sister”. There are other examples: the word “trousers” is *Shalbar* in SKO and *Sym* in Almaty region, and the word for “shirt” in SKO is *Koilek*, and in Almaty region it is *Jide*. Just imagine the confusion in a Lykken test on how to identify hidden information or in an exploratory test.

To ask a question properly, even taking into account the simple grammatical constructions in the guilty knowledge test, one simply has to know dialectal differences between the regions. And the dialects are many indeed.

We, the polygraph examiners should be aware that the reaction of the examinee depends on how they understand the question, and not on the meaning the polygraph examiner believes to have instilled in the question. This is something many novice polygraph examiners do not realise or do not pay enough attention to.

In South Kazakhstan, Zhambyl, and Kyzylorda regions, the word “mother” sounds *Sese*. The sound elicits the specific image of someone’s mother, as this is the word used in ordinary daily life, yet there is also the word *Ana*, which instils the subject with the quality of being reverend or holy – “Mother”. Therefore, when testing subjects from SKO, Zhambyl, and Kyzylorda regions, the security question referring to mother should use the word associated with the holy quality: *Ana*.

It is also necessary to take into account the mentality of those who read *Namaz* (Supreme Worship), recalling the Quran, the holy book of Muslims. For example, the test question (the question of comparison) can be formulated as: *Buryn-sondy, boten bireudyn zatyn urlamaghanynyzydy Korangha siynyp راستايسىز ба?*, which translates into English as: “Do you swear by the Quran that you have never committed theft of somebody else’s property?” or *Buryn-sondy, Sizge sengen adamdy aldamaghanynyzygha, Siz Ananyzdyn atymen ant beresiz be?*, i.e. “Do you swear by your “Mother” that you have never lied to the people who trust you?”.

A polygrapher should also pay particular attention to particles and word endings: *khoi*, *ghoi*, and -ba, -be, -pa, -pe, -da, -de, -ma, -me, and similar. Wrong word ending could stir

intense emotions unrelated to the semantic layer of the question. For example, a polygrapher must not say *Seiften joghalgan akhsany kim algany Siz bilesiz ghoi?* as *ghoi* is a particle that defines direct charges, but should rather ask *Seiften joghalgan akhsany kim algany Sizge malim be?*

Holders of responsible positions, established, important and senior Kazakhs are respectfully addressed not by name and patronymic but rather as follows: *Abai-Abeke*, *Bolat-Bake*; *Beibut-Beke*; *Saken-Sake*; *Maksat-Make*, etc. which is pronounced *Abeke*, *Bake*, *Beke*, *Sake*, *Make*. Such a form shows respect to the man's position and must be considered while polygraph testing. Properly addressed, examinees are more likely to respect and trust the polygrapher, which makes it easier for him to discuss the progress and the order of tests.

The Soviet Union also left its traces in Kazakh names, as they often decided to style themselves in Russian. Thus Kuanish is pronounced as Kolya, Boranbai – as Boris, Serikbai – as Sergei, Mustafa as Misha, Nurbolat as Nicholas, Maripzhan as Malik, and so are women's names: Zhanar is pronounced Zhanna, Marfuga – Mary, Assiya is Aska, Makpal is Mika, etc. So how to build a meaningful test for the name?

Another fact worth noting is that a single Russian word may have four or five different counterparts in Kazakh.

During the pretest interview, it is also necessary to know that a Muslim (who prays regularly and observes customs) and well-mannered girls are shy due to custom and therefore may show artificial (false positive) "guilt." If a girl has just once tried to smoke a cigarette with friends then a question "Have you at least once tried smoking marijuana (cannabis)?" will trigger emotions. If the same girl drank beer, even once with friends, then she will also react with emotions to the question "Do you drink hard liquor?"

Muslim women are told to keep their eyes lowered down out of respect for elders and men when meeting them in the street. Such phenomena must be paid special attention to while determining non-verbal signs.

Since ancient times, Kazakh children have been brought up by grandparents who since childhood teach them sayings and proverbs, which the young use: *Undemeu tirshilik-tin jartysy*, *Undemegen tuidei baleden khutylady*, *Baskha bale tilden*. In English, the meaning of these and similar sayings can be rendered as "keep silent – live a half-life", "keep silent and you will be saved from a problem as big as a camel", and "If you do not know, stay quiet" or "If you are not sure about the answer, be sure to answer 'no'". This leads to elimination of the sense of fear. If a polygraph examiner detects confusion and uncertainty in answers to the questions, the respondent refers to the customs and folk proverbs and believes this. Moreover, the mentality of young Kazakhs from rural

areas is quite special, as sticking to customs they rely on assorted maxims, e.g. *Umitsiz shaitan*, i.e. “the absence of hope is hell” or “hope dies last”. It is necessary to take these into account while drawing conclusions: “The subject hopes that somebody will believe his lies and answers ‘no’ to all questions, therefore he lies”. (Hope prevails over the fear of exposure). If during the examination the contrary is true, and the subject’s “hope that his lies are believed” becomes smaller than the “fear of exposing his lie” he may show strong emotions.

Therefore, you need to uncover all the examinee’s secrets with carefully prepared phrases, using sayings and proverbs they know and understand, and recalling the words of a hadith: *Kupiasy bar sandykhtaghy kulypty tis ashpasa til ashady*, i.e. “The castle chest contained hidden secrets, what teeth do not open, a word does”.

If the respondent said that the expert considered something false and remembering the saying, he starts making excuses under the pretext of *Zoz tapkhangha kolkha jok*, which means “I found a word of justification”, it is necessary to answer *Zhanylmaityn jak jok surinbeityn tuiakh jok*, i.e. “To err is human”.

Often what is a quite insignificant event in the life of the respondent can be perceived as a significant one. Interviewed pre-configured, that it is going to a specialist in something to expose and accuse. Therefore, the responses of Kazakh-speaking subjects are strongly dominated by negative answers – “no.” It is not always possible to move the most meaningful part of the sentence to the end of a question in Kazakh, as some instructions for the correct preparation of questions to polygraph tests adjusted to foreign languages suggest. It is simply better not to follow such suggestions.

Foreign experts recommend to ask questions in a gentle manner in the preparation for the test. Instead of asking “Did you kill citizen M?” they suggest “Did you deprive citizen M. of life?” Instead of asking “Did you rape citizen K?”, they propose: “Did you engage citizen K in a non-consensual sexual intercourse with you?”. For Kazakh-speaking people the use “hard” verbs is better than of the “soft” ones. It is for example normal in Russian to ask “Do you have the money missing from the safe?”, yet when addressed to Kazakhs, it should be reformulated into “Have you stolen money from the safe?”. This is due to the fact that the Kazakh-speaking respondents do not pay attention to the word “missing”. As his explanation that people working at the place constantly take money from the safe would change the perception, he therefore needs to be asked to pay attention not to the missing money but specifically to the stolen money.

Another specificity of the Kazakh language is the lack of grammatical gender (masculine, feminine or neuter). “01” is translated into Russian as “he”, “she” or “it”.

The three main business areas of Kazakhstan, Zhetysu, central and western, and northern and eastern Kazakhstan, developed in the early Middle Ages and have been isolated from one another. Since ancient times, Zhetysu was one of the main nation-forming centres of the Kazakhs. Kazakh clans that roamed the area are called Uly Zhuz (Zhuz) – this includes the clans (*ru*) of Uisuny, Kangly, Dulats, Alban, Suan, Zhalaïr, Sirgeli, Oshakty and others. The area of central and western Kazakhstan includes the Syrdarya regions of Karatau and Moinkum, and tributaries of the Tobyla, Yesil, Nura, Sary-Su rivers where another group of peoples lived – Orta Zhuz (Middle Zhuz) composed of the clans Kipchak, Argyns, Naiman, Kerey, Konrath and Uaki. The northern and eastern Kazakhstan, with the lower reaches of the Syr Darya, Zhaik, the area of Yrgyza, and the upper reaches of the Tobol at Yrgyzu in Mugojar mountains were the place where Kishi Zhuz (Junior Horde) formed; its clans have been the , Tama, Zhagalbayly, Kerderi, Ramadan Alimuly-Karakesek, Shomekei, Kete, Totkara, Karasakal, Shekti, Baiuly-Aday, Zhappas, Alchin, Alasha, Baybakty, Berisha Mascar, Taz, Esentemir, Issyk, Kyzylmurt, and Sherkesh. That ethnogenesis is still by and large preserved.

Defining the “ru”, we are able to use the word *bauryym* (brother or sister). Addressing the examinee as *bauryym* (a concept that determines the closest person whom you can trust, as yourself). A Kazakh examinee will not open to a stranger, he or she would remain closed and detached in all respects. Such people speak only with other Kazakhs who they can trust. In the case of a polygraph examination, it is necessary to establish contact, to prompt them to open to you and reveal their secrets and all what they conceal. For the use of a polygraph test, consider and adopt information about the origin so as to be able to involve the subject in an open discussion of the subject. Thus, representatives of the Great Zhuz need to be approached modestly and in a business manner. representatives of the Middle Zhuz must be handled in a good-natured manner, with quite a creative vocabulary, and representatives of the Little Zhuz must be approached openly and honestly.

In fact, “**Zhuz**”, “**ru**”, and “**Zheti ata**” are a positive value as genealogy, like the national tradition and history, is the “**intangible passport**” of the Kazakh people. When two Kazakhs meet for the first time, they first find out which ancient tribe the other and any of their immediate family relatives on paternal side belong to. Our compatriots say “**a Kazakh finds a relative everywhere**”. Family ties are still strong, so that from the early childhood Kazakhs are attached to the building of their genealogical tree, and hear stories about close and distant relatives, which make them familiar with the extended family.

Ethnicities are nations characterised by specific traits and values, and they must be recognised as a real existence. Along with the many general features of ethnic groups, there are elements associated with their material and spiritual culture, and characteristics of

their “collective psyche” manifested in character, values, preferences and tastes, and standards of conduct. These features have for centuries been determined by lifestyle, mostly on farms, and assimilated to climatic and geographical conditions. The noisy and talkative do not survive among trappers in harsh forest conditions, quiet and docile – among the shepherd dwellers of the steppe and mountains. Qualities required in agriculture – strength, patience, perseverance, diligence, and humility have built the national character of the people. These traits formed for centuries in people trying to survive and find their place in the new, changing conditions. The culture of the Kazakh people and its orientation on humanist values are expressed in traditions and mentality. The mentality of the nomadic people is closely linked with such traits as sociability, tendency to engage in dialogue, openness, tolerance, democracy, pluralism, freedom, honesty, compassion, self-criticism, respect for elders, simplicity, and many others.

As LN Gumilev noted “Close contacts with the Kazakhs have shown that to be friends with members of this nation, we simply and solely need to be genuinely helpful to them, and to respect the uniqueness of their customs. After all, they impose their style of behaviour on anyone. However, any attempt to betray their confidence would lead to a break-away. They instinctively consider such attempts as cunningness.”

Selected idiosyncrasies of Kazakhs-speaking people:

1. A respondent seeks to rationalize every question that he or she is supposed to respond truthfully to.
2. People with low intelligence have almost no experience of morality due to the fear of being considered ones who resorts to lies (they even seem unable to distinguish a lie from the truth, as well as to understand the purpose and procedure of testing). The lie detector scares the examinee at an interview rather than explains the true purpose of a polygraph test.
3. A person unduly afraid of testing procedures or with the guilt complex is particularly difficult to handle in the pre-test interview.
4. After the pre-test interview, the interviewee still reacts to the reformulated questions with “in addition” or “besides what you have told me” as to the original wording.

For example:

“Have you ever been to a police station?” If the respondent answers “yes” and says that one day he was taken there on a suspicion of theft and was released after verification, the polygraph examiner reformulate this question as follows: “Was it only once? Have you ever been at the police station?” But the respondent will still respond to the issue as it was first presented to him.

5. Sometimes the emotions are dominated not by the fear of exposure, but by mistrust and fear of the specialist and results.

6. Neutral questions on “biography” concerning the surname, first name and patronymic have a considerable emotional significance, because of what can disrupt control of the level of attention.
7. There is a high situational importance that is not related to the subject.
8. Answers to questions are often given before the question is finished!
9. The interviewee may conceal or disregard his or her exhaustion, or physical or mental fatigue (e.g.: he never admit to being tired and anxious to sleep after a night shift).
10. It is necessary to take selective attention, imagination, conventions, semantic substitution, self-hypnosis, relaxation – a general ability to use self-control – into account.
11. Presentation of exciting images in the mind, calming oneself, visual representation of the situation in question (i.e. not a conscious opposition). Individual differences should be taken into consideration especially in the matters of temperament, gender, emotional stability, level of intelligence, cultural norms and moral standards.
12. Let me once again focus on rationalisation: the subjects may convince themselves that they respond truthfully to screening questions, become involved in the constant process of inventing, experience memory lapses, inner emptiness, detachment, and maintain specific mental and physical balance.
13. Even after the pre-test interview and discussing the semantic content of the questions, the polygrapher may not realise that the respondent only claims to understand the meaning of what is said, while in fact the opposite is true. This may emerge between the presentations of the tests.
14. Sleepiness, indifference to everything, forgetfulness, frequent asking about instructions and special requirements are all part of unconscious opposition.
15. Mental playback of emotionally significant situations.
16. Artificial “guilt”, manipulation of sensual images, verbal suggestion.
17. Atypical oculomotor reaction, i.a. frequent blinking, squinting.
18. Being examined with the use of a polygraph is in itself stressful for the subject.
19. Assessment of adequacy of respondent validation procedure (i.e., busy with other external problems).
20. If even a detailed discussion of the topic of the forthcoming test in the pre-test interview does not refresh some memories in the subject, he perhaps does not find them important.
21. Remembering and semantic associations related to it: Shows how to “white screen”, it is the respondent of images in my head and if you set the screening questions, which will be ... !!! We know that the conduct of pre-test interview should help:
22. The subject’s conviction of infallibility of the polygraph test.

23. Mobilization of memory;
24. Actualisation in the consciousness of the subject of personal meanings related to screening or control topics;
25. Formation at the surveyed high subjective importance of checking the situation;
26. Introduction of the subject in the best psycho-physiological corridor. Not involved person has increased anxiety even in the presence of adequate control question.
27. If the interviewee has performed the action described in the test question: «Have you ever was in police station?)), whether the respondent remembers that. If he/she not guilty, whether he/she is confident in this.



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The Deceptive Human and the Detection of Deception**

Нечестный человек и детекции лжи

Key words: detection of deception, lie and deception

If *The Bible* is a genuine representative of mankind history than lying is as ancient as human mankind. Already in Chapter 3 of Genesis Adam and Eve try to conceal from God the fact that they had eaten from the forbidden tree. When asked by God where they are, Adam lies and answers “I was afraid, because I was naked: and I hid myself” [Genesis 3, 10]. It is the first known lie because neither was he naked nor was there a reason to hide.

The need to detect lies emerged with the advent of lying, which in return produced different techniques of detection. Old world suspects were subject to an array of horrendous ordeals using mostly fire and water alike. The idea behind the ordeals was that God will guide the truthful successfully through them.

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** A chapter from the book *Practical Polygraph* soon to be published.

Thousands years later the need to detect deception has not changed. Notice the term “detection of deception” rather than “detection of lies”. The reason for using the first term rather than the latter is simple: a common practice among liars is deceiving rather than resorting to a straightforward lie, a practice already described in the book of Genesis when God asked Cain “Where is your brother Abel?” and Cain answered “Am I my brother’s keeper?” [Genesis 4, 9].

Deception amongst animals

It seems that deception is not a unique trait among humans only, as animals exercise it too. Some types of deception in animals are completely involuntary but others are under voluntary control and may involve an element of learning. Most instances of voluntary deception in animals involve a simple behaviour, such as a cat arching its back and puffs up its hair on the neck, to appear larger when attacked. There are relatively few examples of animal behaviour which might be attributed to the manipulative type of deception which we know to occur in humans, i.e. “tactical deception”. It has been argued that true deception assumes that (1) the deceiver knows that other animals have minds, (2) minds of different animals can believe different things to be true (when only one of these is actually true), and (3) it can make another mind believe that something false is actually true. True deception requires the deceiver to have the mental capacity to assess different representations of reality. Animal behaviour scientists are therefore wary of interpreting a single instance of behaviour as true deception, and explain it with simpler mental processes such as learned associations. In contrast, such human activities as military deception are certainly intentional, even when they involve such methods as camouflage, which are physically tantamount to methods animals use for camouflage [Wikipedia].

Mitchell and Thompson [1986] list four levels of deception in animals includes:

1. False markings on animals, such as butterfly markings that indicate their heads are at the back end of their bodies to help them escape; markings to make predators appear safe
2. False behaviour, such as a predator acting so as to hide its predatory nature while around the prey
3. Feigned injury to get or divert attention; for example, a parent bird feigning a broken wing to attract a predator away from its defenceless offspring
4. Verbal deception such as a chimp misleading other chimps to hide a food source, or a human lying in order to deceive another.

When does a human start to lie?

According to a developmental psychology model of lying suggested by Talwar and Lee [2005] children around the age of two to three tell lies designed to conceal, yet fail to account for the mental state of the listener. Around the age of four, children learn to tell *lies* that are more plausible, and by the age of seven or eight also to tell lies which are more consistent with known facts and follow-up statements.

Lies told by toddlers are considered to be an important stage of development. Most toddlers think that their thoughts are transparent to the surroundings, and it is only lying that proves that they realise they are not,

Why do children lie?

Children lie for various reasons, with the most common being [Amsel 1994]:

- to avoid punishment or unpleasant consequences
- the conflict between gaining social status and the actual ability
- impossibility to adapt to the social behaviour
- the need to be in control
- imitation of adults
- to avoid confrontation
- victory of Id over Superego.

The development of Moral Judgment

The philosophical question whether humans are born good or bad, or as blank cards (*tabula rasa*) is well represented in the three main psychological approaches to human moral judgment i.e. honesty and integrity. According to the psychoanalytical theory postulated by Freud, humans are born bad i.e. all they want is to satisfy their needs and instincts, which in return pushes them to resort to lies as a means of achieving their needs. The cognitive theory proposed by Piaget explains that humans are born good but their life experience teaches them to lie. And the social learning theory maintains that men are born *tabula rasa* but their experience as toddlers and youngsters shape their behaviour making them either honest or dishonest adults.

The effect of lies on human behaviour

Lying is a complex process. Unlike the truth teller that just has to retrieve information from his memory, a liar has to cover up the true story, make up a convincing

fictitious version, memorise it, cover up his fear of detection and so forth. All these put a mental burden on his mind, a burden that produces the deceptive cues and signs that we are looking for. Yet caution should be taken when looking for these cues; simply because lying *per se* does not produce any physical and/or psychological and/or behavioural cues or signs. What produces the cues are the emotions that accompany the lie.

There is a controversy between scientists as to which emotion or emotions generate the cues, but most believe that the fear of detection with the ensuing consequences is dominant here.

In addition, it should be emphasised that deceptive cues and signs are distinctive not only to deception. Each and every deception cue can be considered non-deceptive as well. For example, if someone avoids looking at the interviewer it does not necessarily mean that he is lying; it may as well be a cultural mannerism. Repeating different phrases that are considered deceptive might be a personal regular pattern of expression. For this reason, we should first establish the person's standard verbal and nonverbal manner and *only once we did so* can we start discussing the issue and look for deceptive cues deviating from the standard.

Practicing lies

What follows is a common case study of a theft in an office, the statement given by an alleged thief, and its analysis:

Fred's wallet, which was left on his office table, went missing. All of the employees that were present on the day and had access to the table were interviewed, including the employee who stole the wallet. When the thief heard the question: "Have you stolen Fred's wallet?" instead of answering "No," he replied: "As far as I recall I was so busy with the end-of-the-year report that I haven't even left my room; besides, I trust all the employees here, and I have no doubt that they are honest, and none of them is involved. It is either that Fred misplaced it and forgot about that or it must have been a messenger or a guest who visited the office. Besides, none of us will be lured by a mere 200. Anyway, ask around and everyone will tell you how many times I have returned missing objects to their owners."

Now, let's analyse the statement to have a better understanding of the liar's way of thinking: His opening statement, "As far as I recall", is a typical expression used by liars to avoid commitment. It comes in different shapes and includes "to the best of my knowledge", "unless I am mistaken", and similar phrases. They all, however, serve as an "emergency escape" in case he is confronted and told that he has been seen near

the table, from which the wallet was stolen. In that case he can always back up and answer “I told you that it is ‘as far as I recall!’”

The next expression: “I was so busy with the end-of-the-year report that I haven’t even left my room” has the speaker remove himself from the scene of crime, thus making us assume that as he was not there he had no opportunity to steal the wallet. Similar expressions include “I don’t know where Fred’s desk is” and “I wasn’t in the office when it happened”.

He then proceeds to say “I trust all the employees here, and I have no doubt that they are honest, and none of them is involved. It is either that Fred misplaced it and forgot about that or it must have been a messenger or a guest who visited the office”. What the speaker does now is to shift the suspicion from the office personnel and to speculate that either there was no theft at all or the fault lies with an anonymous person only visiting the office. By doing so he indirectly removes the suspicion from himself, as he is one of the office employees.

His next sentence: “Besides, none of us will be lured by a mere 200” is an indirect way of saying: “200 is too small amount for me” which can be translated into “I lack the motive to steal”.

Last but definitely not least he says “Anyway, ask around and everyone will tell you how many times I have returned missing objects to their owners”, and now he is pleading to be an honest person who does not have the right personality to steal. Similar expressions I have heard aplenty, include “I am a volunteer policeman” or “I am an orthodox religious person who follows God’s commands to the iota”.

An additional yet extremely important aspect of the analysis is what *was not said*. The thief did not bluntly deny the allegation. He did not answer “No.” as innocent people do. Instead of giving us the short version, he baffles us up with his long and tedious statement. Analysing carefully his words, you find no denial of the allegation but rather statements that lead the *listener* to the conclusion that he denied the allegation, and therefore he is innocent. It is the listener’s personal conclusion but not a denial, and that establishes the rule that says: *if it was not said it never happened*. Innocent suspects deny the allegation straightforwardly, without giving such long statements. The only exception to this rule is an unstructured interview yet, this rule is valid as long as you follow the structured interview. Moreover, the statement as a whole serves as a diversion.

These cues and signs are but tactical expressions of the deceptive strategy which is: *keep the statement as logical as possible*.

The rationale behind this strategy is basic: people doubt illogical statements. Illogical statements raise doubt and disbelief, which in return raises lots of questions, and questions are the guilty person's mine field, one that the guilty desperately tries to avoid.

Please do not infer that innocent people do not make logical statements. But logic is the least concern of an innocent truthful teller. They just report what happened and they are not concerned with logic simply because they are not afraid of being asked questions – they have all the answers.

Because of this strategy, questioned guilty people commonly use such phrases as: “doesn't that make sense?” or “isn't it logical?”. Like an interviewee describing an accident that he was involved in: “While driving I entered the junction and a vehicle that came from my left hit my door with its front part. As a result I was thrown forward, and hit the front windshield with my forehead”. The puzzled interviewer asks: “Are you sure you were thrown forward? Because, if you got hit from the left side, you should have been thrown to your right and not forward.” A truthful interviewee will think for a second, digesting the information, and then answer: “You know I never thought of it, you are absolutely right but this is exactly what happened”. A deceptive respondent will by now have realised there is a logical flaw in his statement and will quickly formulate a new physics law of motion to be added to Newton's Laws, and answer along the lines: “Wrong. Wherever there is a combination of velocity and angle, objects move forward.”

The liar's reason to deceive rather than tell a blatant lie is very practical: he does not know what type of information the interviewer possess so to avoid getting caught lying he must have an “emergency escape” should he be confronted with facts denying his statement.

Practicing detection of deception

The process described here is simple yet it takes training and more than that: a great deal of practice. Yet everyone can get there as long as they perform within the boundaries of the structured interview and if and only if they *totally* ignore their first impression as well as any bias and/or prejudice. As long as someone follows the detection rules and concentrates on the interviewee's words, their detection of deception will be accurate.

The rules are simple: open the discussion with small talk and establish what the speakers verbal and nonverbal norms are by looking for the deceptive cues and signs.

If such a sign as avoiding eye contact comes up, ignore that sign when discussing the relevant issue. If it does not, look for it while discussing the relevant issue. Look for as many (at least ten) deceptive clues as possible surfacing when making a relevant statement.

Look for the following groups of deceptive sign and clues:

- Constant control
 - Reason: avoiding any slips of the tongue and/or suspicious moves
 - Result: unspontaneous behaviour
 - Examples:
 - in verbal communication
 - stalled answers or changing the subject
 - in nonverbal communication
 - verbal unsynchronized with nonverbal
- Guilty feelings
 - Reason: telling lies
 - Result: physical and psychological uneasiness
 - Examples:
 - in nonverbal communication
 - Breaking eye contact
 - Excessive movements
- Persuasion
 - Reason: argument in favour of the deceptive version
 - Result: using various persuasive phrases
 - Examples:
 - in verbal communication
 - “I have no reason to do it” (lack of motivation)
 - “I have never been investigated before”
 - “I am an honest person”
 - “I swear to you... on my kids\The Bible\etc.
 - “To tell you the truth”
 - “I was not in the neighbourhood” (opportunity)
 - “I have an alibi”
 - logical explanations
 - lack of feelings
 - over descriptive
 - in nonverbal communication
 - smile
 - laughter

- Flattery
 - Reason: softening the investigator
 - Result: using various flattering phrases
 - Example:
 - in verbal communication
 - “What a lovely office”
 - “What a beautiful family”
 - “What an interesting work you have”
 - “Jo says hello”
 - “An excellent question”
 - super friendly
- Stalling
 - Reason: looking for the right answer
 - Result: delaying the answer to the question
 - Example:
 - in verbal communication
 - “Can you explain please”
 - “This reminds me of...” – changing the subject
 - “Please repeat the question”
 - repeating the question
 - not answering - silence or indirect answers
 - in verbal communication
 - biting lips
 - closed mouth
- Physical stimulation
 - Reason: tension, stress, anxiety
 - Result: physical stimulation
 - Example:
 - verbal communication – over talkative
 - in nonverbal communication
 - scratching
 - accelerated pulse
 - perspiration
 - blushing
 - stuttering
- Attack
 - Reason: “offense is the best defence”
 - Result: aggressive behaviour
 - Example:
 - in verbal communication
 - “Your questions make me nervous”

- “Don’t you believe me?”
 “It’s very cold\hot here” - complaints
 “What kind of questions are they?”
 in nonverbal communication
 pointing with fingers
- Pity
 Reason: softening the investigator
 Result: emotional phrases
 Example:
 in verbal communication
 reporting death\sickness\problems
 “Don’t ask what I’ve been going through lately”
 “They always blame me”
 in nonverbal communication
 faked weeping
 - Evasive behaviour
 Reason: avoiding the investigator and\or lying
 Result: evasive phrases
 Example:
 in verbal communication
 “I have no idea”
 “I don’t recall”
 “I don’t know”
 does not commit himself\herself
 in nonverbal communication
 whistling
 sitting on a part of the chair
 standing aside

Remarks about body language

The clarity and significance of body language, or nonverbal communication as we call it, is exaggerated. Body language contains a great deal of clues about nervousness and uneasiness but very few deception cues and sign *per se*. Yet the lack of quantity is compensated by quality. Concentrate therefore on the words. that is what is called verbal communication cues, and listen carefully and attentively to every word spoken as well as unspoken, because sometimes what has not been said is very meaningful.

Words of caution:

Some polygraph examiners consider the examinee's verbal and nonverbal deceptive clues and signs and the examinee's behavioural symptoms additional channels of information that help them to make the final decision. There are also some polygraph techniques to help that. This approach may, however, bias the examiner and her/his decision making process to the point where instead of "believing the chart" the examiner "ignores the chart".

We do not factor the examinee's verbal and nonverbal behavioural clues and signs into our decision making process, nor do those clues serve us operationally in our decision making process. The only practical implementation of this practice is to:

- understand the deceptive individual's psychological state of mind
- in the pre-test – to assess the veracity of the examinee's answers to the comparison questions in order to evaluate the effectiveness of the question
- in the post-test – to assess the veracity of the examinee's explanations of why s/he responded to the relevant questions and in return to decide whether an extra chart (with questions changes resulting from the explanation) is necessary or whether to start asking questions.

The verbal and nonverbal detection of deception can *only* be applied during the pre-test interview and in the immediate post-test stage. In other words only when the examinee is not being confronted, and her/his version is not received in disbelief. Once the examiner displays disbelief and mistrust in the examinee's version, such a behaviour may have an effect on the examinee's behaviour to the point of distorting the analysis.

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Main Features of Polygraph Examiners Training

Основные характеристики программы подготовки специалистов-полиграфологов

Key words: polygraph training, polygraph in Russia

The qualification of polygraph examiners is one of the most important factors that influence the efficiency of polygraph usage in Russia and all over the world.

Regardless of apparent simplicity of principles, underlying polygraph testing, its effective use is possible only by professionally trained specialists with sufficient practical experience as polygraph examiners. The quality, the accuracy and the reliability of the results of polygraph examinations directly depend not only on their conscientiousness and decency, but on the theoretical and practical skills they have obtained in the course of professional training.

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The education of polygraph examiners requires detailed study of the whole range of modern polygraph techniques, methods of countermeasure detection, psychology and physiology basics, application of adequate psycho-technologies during communication with an examinee, accumulation of practical experience and obviously some personality traits of a person being trained such as interpersonal communication skills, mental flexibility and adaptivity etc.

Prior to the nineties of the last century this profession was actually absent in Russia, which is why there were no system of training of this kind of specialists. Polygraph examiners existed only in special agencies.

Unfortunately, today because of the increasing demand for this profession, it has been appeared many initiative self-educated persons that do not manage methodological, legal, professional and ethical aspects of the polygraph testing well enough.

Many problems are often encountered during polygraph examinations by Russian polygraph examiners who graduated from numerous polygraph schools existing now in this country. First, they are related to the supply of insufficient amount or long-outdated learning material to polygraph trainees. This happens predominantly because the lecturers often do not possess the necessary professional skills but hold themselves out as super professionals, thereby disorienting their students.

Today our National School for Lie Detection (NSLD) is well-equipped and teaches its students such modern techniques as:

- Single-issue (single-facet and multi-facet) techniques, developed in the Utah university, USA;

- Test of actual awareness, originally proposed by D. Lykken;
- Multiple (ART) and single issue (DLST) screening tests etc.

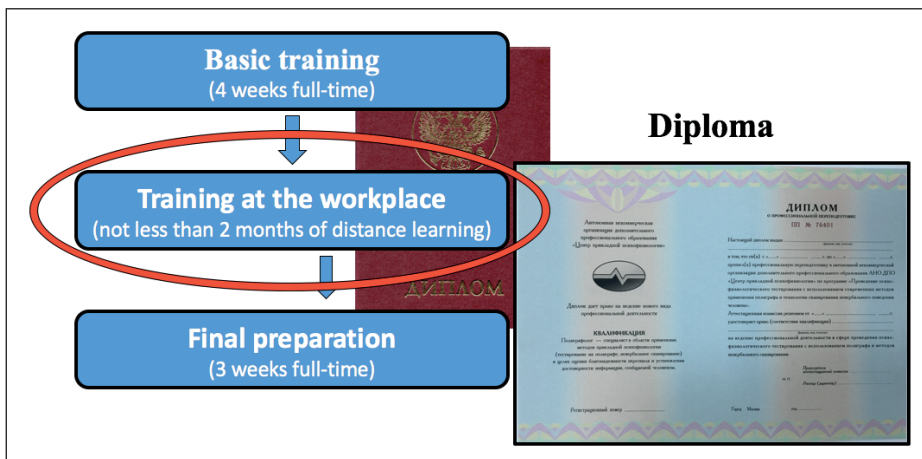
All these techniques are described in details in a special 4 volumes training manual “Modern technologies of polygraph practice” (Authors: Pelenitsyn A.B. and Soshnikov A.P., Moscow, 2015) published especially for the students of NSLD.

According to the results of the Meta-analysis, fulfilled in the USA, all the techniques included in this manual demonstrated the highest accuracy, reliability and efficiency compared to many other methods used by polygraph examiners.

The process of polygraph examiners training in NSLD, finished afterwards with receiving the diplomas, consists of 3 stages:

- Basic training – 4 weeks, full-time stage;
- Training at a workplace – external stage;
- Final training – 3 weeks, full-time stage.

The external stage, as a rule, lasts approximately for 2 months. This period allows our students to reinforce their skills as future polygraph examiners, practicing at their own working places, and to prepare their graduation diplomas that are defended during the qualification examination.

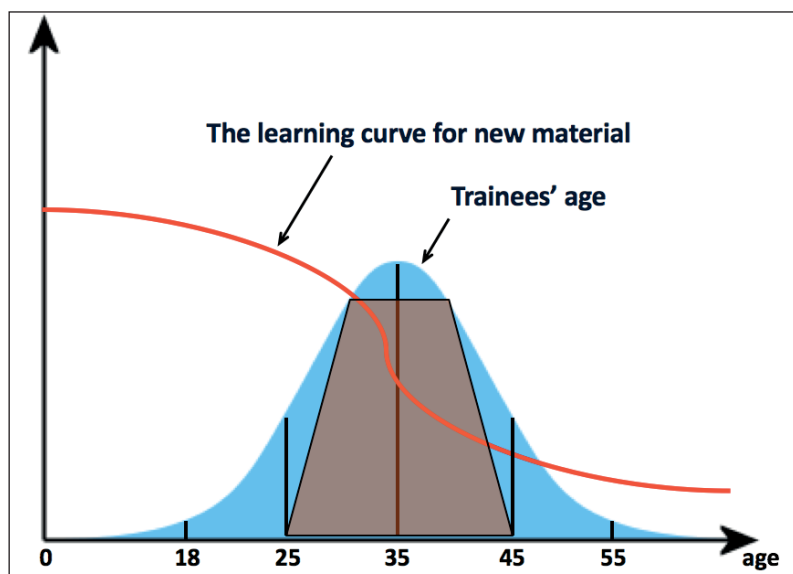


The total volume of the program of polygraph examiners' training in NSLD amounts to 514 academic hours.

Unfortunately, besides the stated subjective reasons, the quality of polygraph examiner training is influenced by a range of external objective factors, related to the methodical peculiarities of the training process. Let's consider them in more details:

1. The problem of age of the trainees.

By the generally accepted requirements a polygraph examiner is a specialist with higher education and at the age not younger than 25. In fact, as a rule, most of people that decide to practice in the field of polygraph are aged from 30 to 40 and older and have big life experience and long-term skills of communication with people. Often they are former military people, those who left military service and wish to devote themselves to a new type of activity. At this age the process of learning new training material is significantly slower. Moreover, the cognitive process itself arouses emotional tension in students. To overcome this problem, it is recommended, firstly, to transfer new knowledge to trainees in the maximum understandable form and, secondly, to conduct constant, day by day control of the acquired knowledge through the whole training process. We conduct this type of control, for example, in the form of every day written testing (5–10 minutes) of the recently learnt material. On the one side, it stimulates the future polygraph examiners to repeat steadily the lecture material, and, on the other side, it helps to recollect repeatedly the learnt material that encourages memory improvement and quick learning of new knowledge.



2. Tactical-methodological problem.

The essence of this problem is that learning of the theoretical and practical knowledge in the field of polygraph should take place simultaneously, complementing one another in a natural way. During the training, every stage of theoretical material delivery should be accompanied by its practical implementation and acquisition of primary skills to use the just learned material. In practice, this methodology results in conducting practical work on the same day for the reinforcement of theoretical knowledge, gained during the preceding lectures. This structure of teaching process allows reinforcing in the memory the working skills of a polygraph examiner soundly and for a long period of time.

3. The problem of learning of different polygraph techniques.

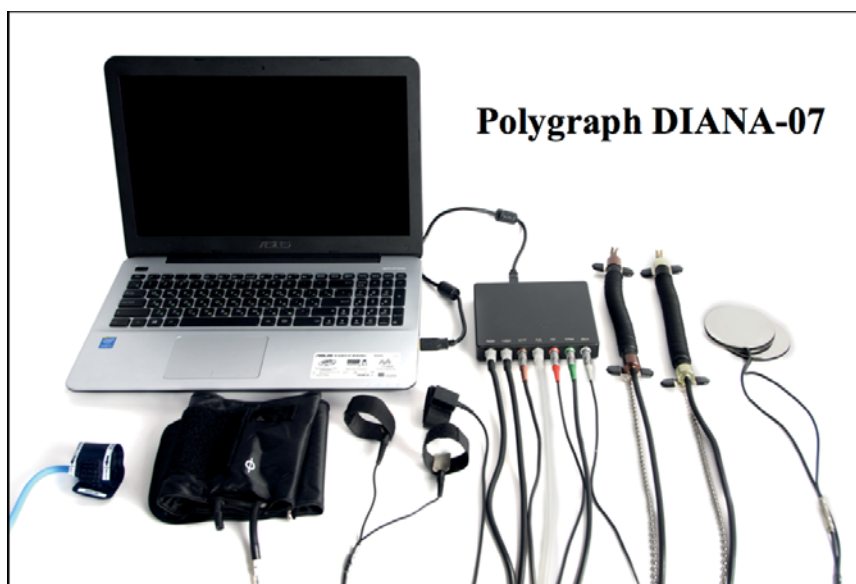
To run polygraph examinations of high quality, the polygraph examiner must know and operate professionally all testing techniques taught in our School to the full extent. It is necessary to know the real possibilities of each technique, their step-by-step implementation, advantages and disadvantages and recommended areas of their application. It is very important to distribute all the techniques within the training program in such a way that makes their learning maximum effective. We consider as correct and efficient the teaching techniques in the following sequence:

- ***At the stage of basic training*** the following areas are gradually studied: the history and scientific principles of the polygraph profession, basics of psychology and physiology, the single-issue single-facet test, the test of actual awareness, and the multiple-issues screening test.
- ***At the final stage*** the following areas are gradually studied: the single-issue multi-facet test, the single-issue screening test, methods of countermeasure detection, the basics of polygraph examinations, and several additional topics, related to the professional activity of a polygraph examiner.

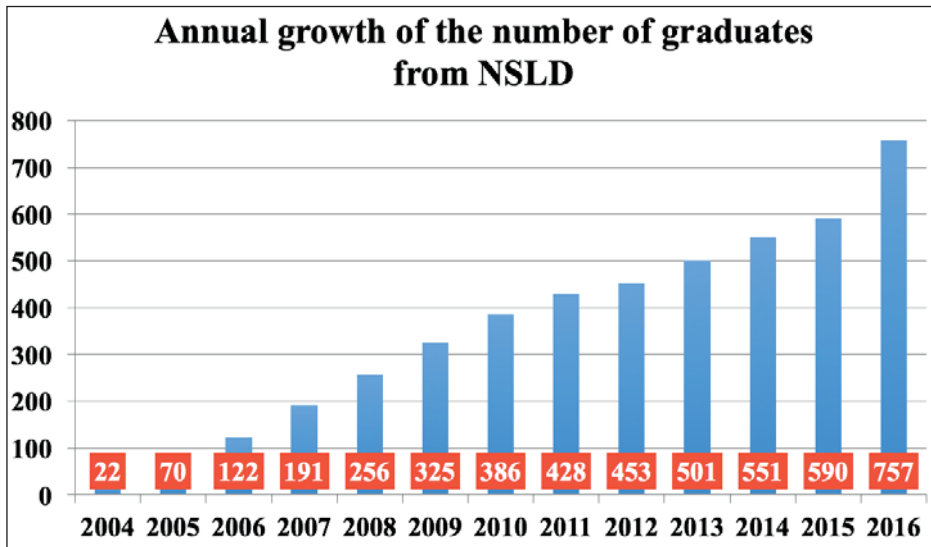
When looking carefully at the training program, the following question immediately arises: “Why are the specified topics not listed in the order of the increasing complexity for their learning by the students, but vice versa, the most difficult methods are studied at first?”. According to the traditionally accepted logics of the study of new material «from the easiest to the most difficult» it is evident that they should be included in the training program in this order. Unfortunately, in this case it appears not quite right. The matter is that a specialist, who consider and calls himself a polygraph examiner and knows at least one method from the listed above, can already take on to resolve most of practical tasks. In this case, the quality of fulfillment of these tasks decreases significantly. Therefore, while offering the methods for studying in the stated sequence we ensure their uniform learning in the sufficient volume.

In the course of basic and final training of polygraph examiners, for the consolidation of the obtained primary skills for practical work, it is mandatory to conduct role games, during which the process of the real testing is imitated for the solution of different specific task.

This can be either the task of human resources evaluation, or any single-issue investigation. Every student consequently plays the role of an examinee or conducts the testing as a polygraph examiner. It is necessary for the future polygraph examiner to play the role of an examinee in order to feel the experience of those people with whom he/she will work in the near future. The results of this game naturally sum up the obtained knowledge and serve as a so-called exam intended to check the efficiency of the practical part of studies.



All practical trainings in NSDL are run using Russian polygraphs DIANA-07. At present these instruments are the most sophisticated, have extended functionality, including proprietary decision making algorithm ChanceCalc®, and can be used to solve practically all the tasks in the field of credibility assessment.



Taking into account the above-mentioned recommendations, the training of polygraph examiners has been conducted in NSDL since 2004. During this period, we prepared more than 700 specialists, the experience of which, their professional knowledge, skills and practical performance provide clear evidence of the correctness of the chosen learning method.

Literature review

Look from the West...



*Nelson R., Handler M., Smitley B.,
(2017), "Practical Polygraph:
FAQ on Electrodermal Activity and
the Electrodermal Sensor",
APA Magazine 2017, 50 (3), 60–76.*

If you ever had any questions concerning the Electro Dermal Activity (EDA) aka the Galvanic Skin Response (GSR) this article will have the answer. It is an extensive review concerning the major contributor to polygraph test results, as, in the authors' words: "a number of studies have shown that EDA data has a stronger correlation with the external criterion compared to other data recorded during comparison question testing".

The term EDA was coined and emerged along with the new millennium and it refers to the electrical characteristics of the skin. In the past this activity was known as: skin conductance, galvanic skin response (GSR), electrodermal response (EDR), psychogalvanic reflex (PGR), skin conductance response (SCR), sympathetic skin response (SSR), and skin conductance level (SCL).

The traditional theory of EDA holds that skin resistance varies depending on the state of sweat glands in the skin. Sweating is controlled by the sympathetic nervous system, and skin conductance is an indication of psychophysiological arousal. If the sympathetic branch of the autonomic nervous system is highly aroused, then sweat gland activity also increases, and this in turn increases skin conductance. In this way, skin conductance can be a measure of emotional and sympathetic responses.

This article belongs to the “everything you ever wanted to know about the EDA but were afraid to ask” type. Which is why it asks the questions and answers them extensively, in a high resolution and detailed manner, and provides an extensive reading list for those who want to expand their knowledge. Although the main focus of the review is the EDA, it goes beyond the key issue to explore skin and sweat as well. If you have ever asked one of the following questions about the EDA, you will find it answered in this article:

- What is EDA?
- What is the difference between EDA and GSR?
- How is EDA measured?
- What are constant-current and constant voltage circuits, and why do we care about them?
- Should EDA be measured as resistance or conductance?
- What is the normal range of skin resistance and skin conductance?
- This tech stuff is nice but what is actually happening to the skin and EDA during polygraph testing?
- What is the difference between EDA and skin potential?
- What do we know about the skin?
- Everything you ever wanted to know about sweating but were afraid to ask.
- How much electricity is involved in the polygraph EDA sensor?
- What if a person has an artificial pacemaker or defibrillator?
- What is the unit of measurement for EDRs in the displayed or printed polygraph chart data and extracted scores?
- Should we use metal plates or wet electrodes?
- Should we clean the skin with soap and water or alcohol?
- Can we conduct a polygraph test with a subject with problematic EDA data?
- Is it possible to fix or rectify problematic EDA data?
- Should we use the automatic or manual EDA mode?
- Do medications affect the EDA?
- What can we tell the subject about the EDA data and EDA sensor?
- Why should field practitioners be concerned with all these technical details?

The list below comprises very short answers to some of the questions most frequently asked by practitioners. Extensive answers can be found in the article:

Q. “What if a person has an artificial pacemaker or defibrillator?”

A. “It is highly unlikely the applied current could travel beyond the skin region.”

Q. “Should we use metal plates or wet electrodes?”

A. “Psychophysicologists prefer and recommend wet electrodes.”

Q. "Should we clean the skin with soap and water or alcohol?"

A. "Cleaning the skin with alcohol-based cleaners is contraindicated."

Q. "Should we use the automatic or manual EDA mode?"

A. "Field polygraph professionals who do not interpret EDL data may want to use the Automatic EDA mode (...) making it easier to manage and extract EDRs from the recorded test data."

Q. "Do medications affect the EDA?"

A. "Although some medications may cause an increased risk of inconclusive results, their use causes no known increase in the risk of test error."

Tuvya T. Amsel

Literature review

Look from the East...



*“Enciklopedia poligrafa”
[in Russian] (Encyclopaedia
of the Polygraph),
by Andrei V. Losev, Andrei
A. von Miller, Konstantin
I. Ryabov, Rustem R. Sadekov,
Rustem F. Latipov; Naslednie,
Moscow 2016, pp. 454.*

Not an encyclopaedia such, the publication is rather a handbook or a compendium of polygraph-related knowledge.

The basic terms are briefly explained in the glossary on pp. 22–30. A discussion of psychological and physiological grounds for polygraph examinations follows, with a brief history, a handful of information on the construction of contemporary devices, which serves as a starting point for the discussion of individual channels (pneumo, cardio, and GSR) and the physiological phenomena they register. Physiological correlates of emotions registered by contemporary polygraphs are covered comprehensively. Authors examine in depth the basic techniques of polygraph examinations (control questions test, Lykken technique). The description of the technique of ap-

plying control questions does not go beyond Baxter, as authors do not describe later modifications of control question tests. In turn, they describe Losev-Miller Russian “mutual exclusion technique” (pp. 138–156).¹ Further, the “Encyclopaedia” considers the methods of polygraph examinations and use of polygraph examinations in practice. The last part of the book consists of a discussion of legal regulations governing the application of polygraph examinations in the Russian Federation.

Jan Widacki

¹ The technique will be discussed extensively in one of following issues of *European Polygraph*.

Report Discussions, Polemics



*Report from the International
Conference on Polygraph
Examination in Central and
Eastern Europe after 1990,
Krakow, Poland.
12–13 June 2017*

Instrumental lie detection with the use of a polygraph has been relatively well investigated in both scientific and practical terms. Even recently a monographic work devoted to the history of the polygraph examination has been published in Poland (see Widacki 2017), which demonstrates that the issue has a tradition, and the polygraph and its potential use are not phenomena lying “on no man’s land”. Yet the practical use of polygraph examinations in various countries, and especially in Central and Eastern Europe, has not received sufficiently broad recognition on an international scale. That is why the organisation of various meetings devoted to such issues should be commended.

Without running into the jeopardy of serious charges, one can assume that the conference organised recently by the Department of Criminology, Criminalistics, and Police Science of the Faculty of Law, Administration, and International Relations was one of Poland’s first conferences devoted to applied polygraph examination in selected countries of Central and Eastern Europe. Just for this one reason, the initiative should deserve praise. The event was international in its nature, and the participants represented nine countries: Ukraine, Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, Russia, Lithuania, Belarus, the US, Slovakia, and Poland. They were primarily scientific experts and

polygraph examiners, including members of the Ukrainian Polygraph Association, American Polygraph Association and the Polskie Towarzystwo Badań Poligraficznych (Polish Society of Polygraph Examination). Moreover, the guests included officers of Polish and foreign police and other uniformed forces.

The meeting followed the typical conference pattern, and the sessions arranged over two days were held in four content sections concerning The Legal Status of Polygraph Examination, Polygraph Examination in Criminal Cases, Polygraph Examination in Private Business, and Scientific Research in Polygraph Examination. The languages of the conference were Russian and Polish.

The conference was opened by the Rector of the Andrzej Frycz Modrzewski Kraków University (KAAFM), Professor Jerzy Malec, who emphasised the role and significance of such meetings for the development of science and exchange of experience. The keynote speaker was the Dean of the Faculty of Law, Administration, and International Relations, Professor Jan Widacki, who pointed to the reasons for organisation of the conference. Explaining the main theme of the meeting, he explained that polygraph examinations became highly popular in many countries of the former USSR, as well as in many countries of Central and Eastern Europe after 1989. This was connected with the introduction of acts of law that regulated the operation of police and other uniformed services, and legislation on polygraph examinations in recruitment purposes. Moreover, the market of private services in instrumental detection of deception opened at the time. Furthermore, the legal status of polygraph examinations in the criminal trial changed from inadmissibility of the use of results of polygraph examinations as evidence to the acceptability of the polygraph both for screening and evidence.

Presided over by Jan Widacki and Sergei Aleskovskiy (Kazakhstan), the first session began with an address by Bakhtiyar Aliyev (Azerbaijan), who reported on the use of polygraph examinations in the Republic of Azerbaijan. The speaker presented types and areas where polygraph is routinely applied. The following paper concerned the history of polygraph examinations in Kazakhstan. Sergei Aleskovskiy pointed to the Polish contribution to the area, consisting in the academic achievements of Zienkiewicz (?). The analysis of practical application of the polygraph in the Republic of Belarus was presented by Kristina Knazeva (Belarus). The following presentation concerned the legal regulation of polygraph testing in the Republic of Belarus. Vitaliy Shapovalov from Belarus discussed in detail the current legislation regulating field. The next speaker was Aleksandr Motlach from Ukraine who presented how science has contributed to the endorsement of polygraph in Ukraine. The first session closed in a paper by Ihor Usikov (Ukraine) concerning practical use of polygraph for psychophysiological forensic expertise in Ukraine.

Devoted to polygraph examinations in Poland, the following session, was chaired by Milan Kormos (Slovakia) and Ihor Usikov, and opened with a paper by Ewa Plebanek (Poland), concerning the Polish procedures for the use of polygraph in criminal trials from the perspective of current jurisprudence and judgements. Subsequently, Marcin Gołaszewski (Poland) and Anna Szuba-Boroń (Poland) discussed the legal and practical aspects of polygraph examinations of civil servants in Poland. The following presentation was devoted to a fairly controversial issue concerning the legal status of polygraph examinations in labour law. Kinga Piwowska expressed the opinion that currently binding regulations do not allow polygraph examinations at the stage of recruitment, as – in the speaker's opinion – the principle of “what is not forbidden is permitted” does not apply to private employers.

The third session, presided over by Marcin Gołaszewski and Vladimir Knazev (Belarus), began with a paper by Oksana Stevenson and Bruce White from the US. Representing Axciton Systems Inc. the speakers discussed the process of interpretation of difficult polygrams by analysing individual polygraph channels. The following case-study type presentation concerned investigations into murders perpetrated in Ukraine in the past. Oleh Rybalchenko (Ukraine) presented his two proprietary polygraph tests were to provide a solution for such cases. The following paper was delivered by Vitas Saldziunas from Lithuania, who described the practice of applying Utah Probable Comparison Test and discussed the use of the technique in Lithuania. The last paper in the session was presented by Oleh Rybalchenko and concerned the use of the GSR channel for effective demonstration of deliberate distortions of the polygraph examination.

The last, fourth session was chaired by Bakhtiyar Aliyev and Vitaliy Shapovalov. Viktoriya Larina (Russia) discussed details of the training for professional polygraphers at ANO DPO “CPP”. Later, Olga Aleskovskaia (Kazakhstan) interestingly discussed the methods and advantages from profiling for polygraphers. The subsequent speaker, Vladimir Knazev from Belarus presented the methodological aspects of polygraph examinations of law enforcement structures in the Republic of Belarus. Then Milan Kormos pointed to the potential use of the polygraph for staffing purposes at the Ministry of the Interior of the Republic of Slovakia. The last paper was presented by Vitaliy Kirvel from Belarus who discussed the practice of performing psychophysiological expertise with the use of polygraph in examining criminal cases concerning sexual liberty and physical integrity of minors in the Republic of Belarus. The conference was rounded up by Jan Widacki.

The conference, and especially its content and organisation, must be highly commended. Its international character made it possible to exchange information and experience concerning the application of polygraph examinations in Central and

Eastern Europe. Professional polygraphers had an opportunity to compare the range of use of the instrument in a number of countries in three areas, namely, criminal cases, private practice, and examinations conducted for police, law enforcement and other uniformed services. Moreover, the substantial issues presented at the conference included the descriptions of legal regulations of the status of polygraph examinations in various jurisdictions. It must be noted that the use of polygraph in the countries represented by conference participants is highly popular, and the private polygraph market is well developed. One can only hope that appropriate control mechanisms will be implemented to support the quality of the services provided by polygraphers of various nationalities, and that the organisers arrange a similar meeting in near future.

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Anna Ibek

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For example (in references):

Reid J., Inbau F. (1966), *Truth and Deception: the Polygraph ("Lie-detector") Techniques*, Williams & Wilkins, Baltimore.

Abrams S. (1973), *Polygraph Validity and Reliability – a Review*, Journal of Forensic Sciences, 18, 4, 313.

and (Reid, Inbau, 1966), (Abrams, 1973) inside text.

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IBAN PL 24 1020 2892 0000 5102 0222 8161

KOD BIC (SWIFT): BPKOPLPW

Name of the bank: Powszechna Kasa Oszczędności Bank Polski Spółka Akcyjna.

Payment by €: 19 1020 2892 0000 5002 0222 8203

IBAN PL 19 1020 2892 0000 5002 0222 8203

KOD BIC (SWIFT): BPKOPLPW

Name of the bank: Powszechna Kasa Oszczędności Bank Polski Spółka Akcyjna.

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