
*Abstract:* The discovery of many cases of wrongful conviction in the criminal justice system involving admissions from innocent suspects has led psychologists to examine the factors contributing to false confessions. However, little systematic research has assessed the processes underlying Human Intelligence (HUMINT) interrogations relating to military and intelligence operations. The current article examines the similarities and differences between interrogations in criminal and HUMINT settings, and discusses the extent to which the current empirical literature can be applied to criminal and/or HUMINT interrogations. Finally, areas of future research are considered in light of the need for improving HUMINT interrogation.


*Abstract:* We examined the efficacy of a new approach to detect truths and lies in expressing opinions: the Devil's Advocate approach. Interviewees are first asked an opinion eliciting question that asks participants to argue in favor of their personal view. This is followed by a Devil's Advocate question that asks participants to argue against their personal view. People normally think more about reasons that support rather than oppose their opinion. Therefore we expected truth tellers to provide more information and shorter latency times in their responses to the opinion eliciting question than to the Devil's Advocate question. Liars are expected to reveal the opposite pattern as the Devil's Advocate question is more compatible with their beliefs than is the opinion eliciting question. In Experiment 1, we interviewed seventeen truth tellers and liars via the Devil's Advocate approach and measured the difference in number of words and latency times to the two questions. Our hypotheses were supported. In Experiment 2, 25 observers were shown these interviews, and made qualitative judgements about the statements. Truth tellers' opinion eliciting answers were seen as more immediate and plausible and revealed more emotional involvement than their Devil's
Advocate answers. No clear differences emerged in liars' answers to the two types of question. We conclude that the Devil's Advocate approach is a promising lie detection approach that deserves attention in future research.

2011


*Abstract:* Police interviews of witnesses are critical for solving crimes, yet police are poorly trained and often make mistakes when interviewing witnesses who are cooperative. To overcome this limitation, researchers have developed the cognitive interview (CI), which incorporates principles of cognitive and social psychology in a face-to-face interview format. Laboratory and field research show that the CI elicits considerably more information than conventional interviews in criminal and noncriminal investigations. We explore the real-world applications of the CI.


*Abstract:* I attempt to identify the central conceptual and methodological challenges that must be overcome if the risk assessment of terrorism is to make the same progress that in recent years has distinguished the risk assessment of other forms of violence. Four principal conclusions are offered. First, clarity from the outset on what is being assessed—the risk of terrorism in the aggregate, or of specific types of terrorism, or of specific phases in the process of becoming a terrorist, or of specific roles in terrorist activity—is a prerequisite to progress in research. Second, one current approach to the risk assessment of more common violence (e.g., assault)—the approach known as *structured professional judgment*—usefully may be applied to the risk assessment of terrorism. However, given that many known risk factors for common violence are in fact not risk factors for violent terrorism, the substantive content of any instrument to assess the risk of terrorism will be very different from the substantive content of current instruments that address common violence. Third, since there is little existing evidence supporting the nontrivial validity of any individual risk factors for terrorism, the highest priority for research should be the identification of robust individual risk factors. Promising candidates include ideologies, affiliations, grievances, and “moral” emotions. Finally, it is highly unlikely that an instrument to assess the risk of terrorism can be validated prospectively. An infrastructure for facilitating access to known groups of terrorists and non-terrorists from the same populations may be crucial for conducting a program of scientifically rigorous and operationally relevant research on the individual risk assessment of terrorism.

*Abstract:* A meta-analysis was conducted to determine the overall effectiveness of deception detection training and to identify conditions that may moderate training effectiveness. The analysis was based on a total of 16 studies with 30 separate hypothesis tests, representing the behavior of 2847 trainees. Results indicated that the effect of deception detection training on detection accuracy was positive, significant, and of medium magnitude. Moreover, training effectiveness was moderated by the type of training implemented, training content, trainee expertise, and the type of lie told. Discussion centers on implications for training design and implementation.


*Abstract:* In reviewing the applications of human factors to homeland security, Cooke and Winner (2008) noted the issue of security screening, especially as it applies to the detection of deception or threat by humans. Recent world events have led to an increased emphasis on the capability to detect deception, especially in applied field settings, such as security checkpoints or screening contexts in airports, bus terminals, or train stations. The current study addresses a practical issue of considerable current concern: In a situation in which the opportunity exists to question or interview concurrently two or more suspects, how does one determine deception at a social level? In other words, if we question two persons who we believe may have been involved in some transgression, are there characteristics of speech or behavior that are exhibited between the two suspects that indicate truth or deception? Although considerable research has examined individual indicators of deception, this research is the first to examine social indicators of deception, that is, unique cues to deception that may occur in speech or behavior between two or more suspects.


*Abstract:* Identifying interrogation strategies that minimize the likelihood of obtaining false information, without compromising the ability to elicit true information, is a challenge faced by both law enforcement and scientists. Previous research suggests that minimization and maximization techniques may be perceived by a suspect as an expectation of leniency and a threat of harsher punishment, respectively, and that these approaches may be associated with false confessions. The current studies examine whether it is possible to distinguish between minimization and maximization techniques that do or do not influence a suspect’s perceptions of the consequences of
confessing. Results indicate that techniques that manipulate the perceived consequences of confessing influence both the decision to confess and the diagnostic value of confession evidence.


  *Abstract:* The present experiment examined the role of cognitive flexibility in the consistency of truth tellers’ and liars’ reports. We expected liars to be less flexible (less able to report an experience in different ways) and hence less consistent than truth tellers when asked to describe an event in different ways (e.g. verbally and pictorially). In the experiment, truth tellers entered a room and performed several tasks, whereas liars did not enter the room or perform the tasks but attempted to convince an interviewer that they did. Truth tellers and liars were interviewed twice about the room and tasks, and were asked to express their answers either the same way on both interviews (e.g. verbally then again verbally) or in different ways (e.g. verbally then pictorially). In support of the cognitive flexibility hypothesis, liars’ reports were less consistent than truth tellers’ reports, particularly when reporting in different ways across interviews. Theoretical and practical implications are discussed.


  *Abstract:* In this paper we argue that there is little need for more of the traditional deception detection research in which observers assess short video clips in which there are few (if any) cues to deception and truth. We argue that a change in direction is needed and that researchers should focus on the questions the interviewer needs to ask in order to elicit and enhance cues to deception. We discuss three strands of research into this new ‘interviewing to detect deception’ approach. We encourage practitioners to use the proposed techniques and encourage other researchers to join us in conducting more research in this area. We offer some guidelines for what researchers need to keep in mind when carrying out research in this new paradigm.


  *Abstract:* Rapport often appears in training and discussions regarding investigative interviewing, yet very little empirical research has examined rapport systematically in law enforcement or intelligence settings. Using a model of rapport developed from therapeutic settings, we address in this paper the
components of rapport and their relevance to investigative interviewing. Rapport can play a facilitating role in supporting the goals of an investigative interview, to include developing a working alliance between interviewer and source, exercising social influence, and eliciting information from a source. A better understanding of how rapport develops in these contexts and its impact on interview outcomes would enhance the effectiveness of investigative interviewing. Research on rapport in the investigative interview would enhance our understanding of the interpersonal dynamics in these situations. We identify several gaps that such research should address, including the relationship between rapport and social influence and the development of rapport in multiparty interactions.


  **Abstract:** This field observation examines 58 police interrogators’ rapport-based behaviors with terrorist suspects; specifically, whether rapport helps elicit meaningful intelligence and information. The Observing Rapport-Based Interpersonal Techniques (ORBIT; Alison, Alison, Elntib & Noone, 2012) is a coding framework with 3 elements. The first 2 measures are as follows: (i) 5 strategies adopted from the motivational interviewing (Miller & Rollnick, 2009) literature in the counseling domain: autonomy, acceptance, adaptation, empathy, and evocation and (ii) an “Interpersonal Behavior Circle” (adopted from Interpersonal theories, Leary, 1957) for coding interpersonal interactions between interrogator and suspect along 2 orthogonal dimensions (authoritative-passive and challenging-cooperative); where each quadrant has an interpersonally adaptive and maladaptive variant. The third (outcome) measure of ORBIT includes a measure of evidentially useful information (the “interview yield”) and considers the extent to which suspects reveal information pertaining to capability, opportunity and motive as well as evidence relevant to people, actions, locations and times. Data included 418 video interviews (representing 288 hours of footage), with all suspects subsequently convicted for a variety of terrorist offenses. Structural equation modeling revealed that motivational interviewing was positively associated with adaptive interpersonal behavior from the suspect, which, in turn, increased interview yield. Conversely, even minimal expression of maladaptive interpersonal interrogator behavior increased maladaptive interviewee behavior as well as directly reducing yield. The study provides the first well-define and empirically validated analysis of the benefits of a rapport-based, interpersonally skilled approach to interviewing terrorists in an operational field setting.

- Bull, R. (2013). What is ‘believed’ or actually ‘known’ about characteristics that may contributed to be a good/effective interviewer? *Investigative Interviewing Research and Practice, 5*, 128-143.

  **Abstract:** This Article presents a comprehensive overview of the published literature on (i) what is believed and (ii) what is actually known about the characteristics that may contribute to people being
good/effective investigative interviewers. It commences with a review of the beliefs concerning the particular abilities/skills that should be possessed by interviewers/investigators who are able to gain information from interviewees. Following this a review is provided of research on actual relationships between skills/abilities and information gain in interviews. Next is presented research on the beliefs of interviewers themselves. The final part contains a review of individual differences in the ability to determine if interviewees are giving truthful or deceptive information.


  **Abstract**: Adopting a social dynamics perspective on the intelligence interview results in several consequences. First, there are unique research questions that arise, as noted above, that are not addressed from an individual-level approach. Although the term “investigative interview” may evoke the mental image of a hard-nosed interrogator on one side of the table and a sweating suspect on the other, in today’s national security environment, information-gathering interviews are also likely to take place in field settings, such as checkpoints, street corners, and daily patrols. However, the predominant research perspective on the investigative interview has been at the individual level, which has resulted in less emphasis on the group dynamics of the interview context and how team-level strategies can enhance information collection in an intelligence interview environment. We propose that the gains that have been achieved from “harnessing the power of the team” in group decision making and other contexts can lead to new strategies and approaches to enhance the intelligence interview.


  **Abstract**: This research constitutes an initial empirical examination of how the introduction of a third party impacts interviewee rapport in an investigative interview setting. Whereas some have argued that employing two interviewers may be beneficial in an investigative interview setting, others have speculated that adding a “third person in the communications loop” (U.S. Department of the Army, 2006) during an investigative interview may negatively impact the establishment of rapport. This research draws on group dynamics research and adopts a content-analytic approach using the Linguistic Inquiry and Word Count (LIWC; Pennebaker, Booth, & Francis, 2007) to examine interviewee rapport in real-world investigative interviews. The comparison of dyadic interviews in which one interviewer was present and triadic interviews in which two interviewers were present revealed no significant reduction in interviewee rapport. These findings suggest that the anecdotal concern that “three is a crowd” and that the addition of a third party may result in decreased rapport may be unfounded. Further research on the group dynamics of the investigative interview is discussed.

**Abstract**: Substantial research has assessed interrogations seeking to obtain a criminal confession, and consequently much has been learned regarding the potential problems with confession evidence. However, an increasing focus on counter-terrorism, and therefore intelligence interrogations, reveals an obvious gap in the literature. Intelligence interrogations are primarily focused on collecting information from individuals as opposed to a confession linked to an alleged event, and little of the extant psychological literature can speak directly to such a scenario. The current research developed an experimental paradigm to test interrogation approaches in an intelligence-gathering context, providing a method for gathering empirical data on human intelligence collection. In the first implementation of this paradigm, accusatorial and information-gathering interrogation strategies were tested using a procedure high in psychological realism. Results indicate that an information-gathering approach yields more relevant information and leads to more diagnostic impressions by third party observers.


**Abstract**: The current set of studies was designed to test a new credibility assessment tool, the Psychologically Based Credibility Assessment Tool (PBCAT). Participants watched lab-generated videos of true and false alibi statements, provided while under varying degrees of cognitive load. Judges either provided a truth/lie judgment only, or also rated 11 behavioral cues on the PBCAT. When stories were told under cognitive load the effectiveness of cues at discriminating truth/deception was enhanced, with targets under higher load judged more accurately. Results regarding the new assessment tool indicate that it is capable of improving deception detection performance, even with minimally trained, non-expert observers.


**Abstract**: When eyewitnesses and criminal suspects change their sworn testimony, their credibility is challenged, either because inconsistent testimony is a sign that people have poor memories or because they are deceptive and “can’t keep their story straight.” As reviewed below, inconsistency is the most often cited reason for discrediting others (e.g., Brewer, Potter, Fisher, Bond, & Luceze,
1999; Granhag & Strömwall, 2000; Stromwall, Granhag, & Jonsson, 2003) and is often the attack point for impeaching witnesses in the courtroom. But is it justifiable? In support of this approach, research on memory warns us that changes in recollection may be the product of contamination from sources such as misleading questions, which could distort memory (Loftus, 1975; see Yarbrough, Hervé, & Harms, this volume). However, one can imagine just the opposite pattern: in an effort to sound truthful, good liars often simply repeat whatever they said earlier and, so, they may be more, not less, consistent than truth-tellers (Vrij, Granhag, & Mann, 2010). Perhaps the true meaning of inconsistency is not so obvious.


Abstract: Procedural fairness has received widespread attention in policing but is under-researched in investigative interviews. In simulated interviews in the laboratory, authorities were more focused on just outcomes than fair processes, but little research has been conducted in the field to examine practices regarding procedural fairness and variations in different cultures and jurisdictions. This study examined these issues in a sample of experienced police and military practitioners in Australia, Indonesia, the Philippines, South Korea, and Sri Lanka. In semi-structured interviews probing effective practices, 123 practitioners with expertise in criminal investigative and HUMINT interviews described the strategies they used to (a) build rapport; (b) elicit reliable information; and (c) achieve interview goals. Responses to these questions were coded by trained raters for the importance of four procedural justice components: respectful treatment, trust, neutrality and voice. Consensus emerged on the importance of procedural fairness to establish rapport, secure reliable information and achieve interview objectives. The majority of practitioners endorsed strategies respectful of suspect rights and police trustworthiness; less priority was accorded to interviewee voice and police neutrality. Differences in emphasis on voice and neutrality emerged between jurisdictions in relation to cultures High versus Low in Context and cultural variations in individualism, power-distance and uncertainty avoidance. Examples are cited reflecting police professionalism that employs procedural justice to enhance interviewing expertise and police legitimacy.


Abstract: In this study, we have presented the – to our knowledge – first scientific examination of the effectiveness of different information elicitation techniques. At the heart of the study was the so-called Scharff technique. Before discussing the outcome, we would like to underscore that the
Scharff technique is indeed a psychologically based method. In essence, it rests on the psychological notion of ‘perspective taking’, (e.g., Galinsky et al., 2008; Granhag, 2010), and by practicing perspective taking Scharff was able to anticipate the more common counter-interrogation strategies used by his prisoners. Scharff then devised a set of tactics aimed to counteract his prisoners’ counter-interrogation strategies.


  **Abstract:** With a few notable exceptions, the research on interrogation, suspect interviewing, and intelligence collection has been predominantly focused on either broad categories of their methods (e.g., information gathering vs. accusatorial models) or very specific techniques (e.g., using open-ended questions, appealing to the source’s conscience). The broad categories, however, are not meaningful enough to fully describe the dynamic between interrogator and subject, whereas the specific techniques may be too detailed to understand and research the process of interrogation. To remedy this and advance the academic and operational fields, we identified 71 unique techniques and sorted them into six domains: Rapport and Relationship Building, Context Manipulation, Emotion Provocation, Collaboration, Confrontation/Competition, and Presentation of Evidence. The resulting three-level structure consisting of broad categories, the six domains, and specific techniques form a taxonomy of interrogation methods. In addition, we propose a testable model of how the domains may interact in the process of interrogation. The taxonomy and theoretical model offer heuristic devices for both researchers and practitioners searching for a parsimonious and more meaningful way to describe, research, and understand the interviewing and interrogation of those accused of wrong-doing or possessing guilty knowledge.


  **Abstract:** Most past research on detecting deception has relied on the assumption that liars often fabricate a story to account for their whereabouts, whereas truth tellers simply recall an autobiographical memory. However, little research has examined whether liars, when free to choose the topic of their own reports, will actually choose to fabricate information rather than use a different strategy for constructing their lies. We describe two studies that evaluated liars’ strategies for selecting the content of their lies when given the freedom to choose whatever content they desired. In Studies 1 (N = 35) and 2 (N = 22) participants (a) described a truthful story in order to identify a salient event, then (b) lied about the event, and finally (c) described their strategies for choosing the content of the reported lies. Liars overwhelmingly chose to report a previously experienced event for the time period they were to be deceptive about (67% and 86% in Studies 1
and 2, respectively). The majority of discrete details reported were experienced, occurred relatively frequently, occurred relatively recently, and were typical or routine. These findings have significant implications for the development of cognitive-based interventions for detecting deception. In particular, some methods of deception that rely on content analysis may be ineffective if liars choose to report previous experiences rather than outright fabrications.


  Abstract: Previous research has demonstrated that the strategic use of evidence (SUE) approach of interviewing criminal suspects is effective at eliciting cues to deception. This study aims at expanding on the SUE approach by testing the technique of general-to-specific evidence framing. We conducted an experiment using a mock terrorism paradigm. Guilty participants took part in a simulated act of terrorism, while innocent participants performed a similar act involving no transgression. All participants (N=102) were then interviewed using one of four evidence disclosure styles (early disclosure, late disclosure, 2-step disclosure, or 4-step disclosure). We expected that disclosing evidence to the suspect gradually, with increasing specificity, would induce guilty suspects to alter their statements to a greater extent than innocent suspects. General-to-specific evidence framing effectively discriminated between guilty and innocent suspects, but results only partially supported the hypotheses.


  Abstract: In many countries, police frequently conduct suspect interviews in pairs. For example, a survey among UK police officers revealed that 68% of interviews with juvenile suspects are conducted with more than one investigator present in the room (Sim & Lamb, 2012). In addition, an experienced UK police interviewer informed us that typically one interviewer does the talking while the second interviewer mostly remains silent, sometimes taking notes. We acknowledge that such practice varies considerably from country to country. For example, in Belgium, the second interviewer types what is being said. Research papers on using pairs of interviewers, carried out in a non-police context, cite three advantages of this technique (Huber & Power, 1985; Kicaid & Bright, 1957). First, it is efficient as one interviewer can engage in conversation while the other can concentrate on recording answers accurately and completely. Second, when the interview becomes unstructured or when the first interviewer vigorously pursues one train of thought, a second interviewer can pick up on points missed by the first interviewer. Third, when analyzing the
interviews, the second interviewer can aid the recall of the first. The question we address in the present experiment is which demeanor (being supportive, neutral, or suspicious) should the second interviewer adopt to maximize verbal and non-verbal differences between truthful and deceptive suspects? We manipulated the demeanor of the second interviewer, as the second interviewer’s demeanor is probably easier to manipulate in real life than the first interviewer’s demeanor. Displaying a demeanor requires concentration and cognitive effort and the first interviewer may lack mental resources for this as he or she has to focus on the interview (Patterson, 1995).


Abstract: National security professionals have few scientifically valid methods for detecting deception in people who deny being involved in illicit activities relevant to national security. Numerous detecting deception studies have demonstrated that the Modified Cognitive Interviewing (MCI) method is one such method - yielding detecting deception rates (i.e. 80-85%) that are significantly above those achieved by chance (i.e. 50%) or by human judgments (i.e. 54-56%). To date, however, no MCI studies have involved dilemmas of ethological interest to national security professionals. This project begins to address this gap in the scientific literature. In it, we compared the efficacy of MCI to that of human judgments for detecting deception in scientists with expertise in biological materials. Sixty-four scientists were recruited for study; 12 met with a “terrorist” and were paid to make biological materials for illicit purposes. All 64 scientists were interviewed by investigators with law enforcement experience about the bio-threat issue. MCI elicited speech content differences in deceptive, compared to truthful scientists. This resulted in a classification accuracy of 84.4%; Accuracies for Human Judgments (interviewers/raters) were 54% and 46%, respectively. MCI required little time and its efficacy suggests it is reasonable to recommend its use to national security experts.


Abstract: We examined the effect of (i) a second interviewer’s demeanor and (ii) asking expected and unexpected questions on cues to deception. We predicted that liars compared with truth tellers would provide more detail to expected questions and less detail to unexpected questions, particularly when the second interviewer is supportive. Liars prepare answers for expected questions, and a supportive interviewer will encourage them to provide more detail. By definition, liars have not prepared answers for unexpected questions, and their answers to such questions will be less detailed. Participants (N =168) appeared before two interviewers: The first asked all the questions, and the
second remained silent. The second interviewer exhibited either a supportive or a neutral demeanor. As predicted, liars provided more detail to expected questions and less detail to unexpected questions, particularly when the second interviewer was supportive. In conclusion, a supportive second interviewer elicits cues to deceit.

2014


  **Abstract:** Research shows that rapport has a number of positive effects on interviewing. Defined here as a smooth, positive interpersonal interaction, rapport can increase the amount of information provided by witnesses and sources, increase trust, and produce more cooperation, and faster agreement in negotiations. Despite the importance of rapport, law enforcement and intelligence interviewers often fail to build rapport adequately. This study identifies seven tactics for rapport building supported by empirical research, such as nonverbal mimicry and self-disclosure. Other considerations for practitioners include potential trade-offs of rapport-building tactics, source resistance, and the use of interpreters. These topics also represent rich areas for future research.


  **Abstract:** The impact of rapport-based interview techniques on suspect use of counter-interrogation tactics (CITs) was examined in an operational field sample of 181 police interrogations with international (Al-Qaeda and Al-Qaeda-inspired), paramilitary, and right-wing terrorists. The observing rapport-based interpersonal techniques (ORBIT) framework was used to code rapport-based interrogator skills along 2 dimensions: motivational interviewing skills and interpersonal competence (use of adaptive interviewing behaviors and absence of maladaptive interviewing behaviors). Two components of suspect behavior were measured using the ORBIT tool: interpersonal behavior and counter-interrogation techniques (passive, verbal, passive verbal, no-comment, and retraction). Structural equation modeling revealed that adaptive interviewing was directly associated with decreases in passive CITs but, counter to expectations, increased the prevalence of passive verbal responding. Interrogator use of motivational-interviewing consistent skills was directly associated with improved adaptive interviewing; reduced maladaptive interviewing; and decreases in passive, verbal, and no-comment CITs, but was associated with higher rates of retraction. Motivational interviewing skills also had a significant indirect effect on reducing passive and increasing passive verbal CITs through its indirect effect on adaptive interviewing. Overall,
findings indicate that adopting an adaptive rapport-based interrogation style in which suspects are treated with respect, dignity, and integrity is an effective approach for reducing suspects’ use of CITs.


  **Abstract:** *Applied experimental research* is experimental research that applies or extends theory to an identified real-world problem with a practical outcome in mind. In this chapter, we distinguish applied experimental research from more basic theoretical research, discuss the linkages between basic and applied research, and describe practical considerations in conducting applied experimental research.


  **Abstract:** Despite growing interest in intelligence interviewing, there is little empirical research directly addressing interrogations conducted with the goal of collecting human intelligence (HUMINT). The current study used an experimental intelligence gathering paradigm to test the efficacy of two clusters of emotion-based interrogation approaches from the US Army Field Manual. Results suggest that both Positive and Negative Emotional Approaches increased the collection of information from both guilty and innocent participants when compared with a Direct Approach. While the emotional approaches produced similar gains in information regardless of valence, positive approaches reduced anxiety, increased perceptions of a fostering atmosphere, and enhanced the relationship between fostering atmosphere and information gain. The implications for the use of these techniques in the intelligence interviewing context are discussed.


  **Abstract:** The present experiment investigated the behavioral patterns of interviewees when comparing their baseline behavior, prior to the interview, with their behavior during the investigative interview. Similar to what has been advised in the police literature, the truthful baseline behavior was established prior to the interview through non-threatening questions. The investigative part of the interview then followed in which the interviewee was aware that they would be assessed on whether they were lying. During the investigative part, interviewees either discussed the job that they had (truth tellers, n = 128) or pretended to have (liars, n = 115). Findings revealed that both liars and truth tellers’ behavioral patterns differed between the baseline behavior and the investigative part of the interview. The findings suggest small talk should not be used as a baseline comparison with the
investigative part of the interview when determining if the interviewee is being deceitful. An alternative way of using a baseline lie detection method, the comparable truth method, is discussed.


  **Abstract:** As victims and witnesses are the main sources for solving crimes, eliciting information from them must be done professionally and with a high degree of skill (Yuille, Marxsen, & Cooper, 1999). Police investigators must be trained properly and the discipline itself must be constantly seeking to improve itself. This will happen only through the concerted efforts of both the research and practitioner communities, and most important, their sharing ideas and information with one another (Oxburgh, Walsh, & Milne, 2011). Fortunately, we have seen such increased cooperation between practitioners and researchers, as exemplified by organizations like the International Investigative Interviewing Research Group (IIRG). We trust that, after many years of having overlooked the critical skill of interviewing, the advances made in the past 20 to 30 years will set the tone for even further progress in the years to come.


  **Abstract:** Information is the lifeblood of investigations and it is the ability of investigators to obtain useful and accurate information from victims and witnesses that is most crucial for case solution and effective criminal prosecution. Yet full and accurate memory recall is difficult to achieve during a police interview. We have spent much of the past 25-30 years addressing this issue. In this chapter we begin by describing a typical police interview, followed by an overview of the origins and underpinnings of the Cognitive Interview (CI), an innovative method to enhance witness recall and the focus of this chapter. We then present a step-by-step description of the main elements of the general CI protocol for the practitioner. Following a description of the empirical tests and some practical applications, we end with a brief overview of one of the more recent extensions of the CI for use with suspects (the CIS).


  **Abstract:** Motivating cooperation in official police interviews is a central professional challenge across jurisdictions and cultures. Rapport-building is regarded as a critical antecedent of interviewee cooperation, but relatively little is known about how rapport is developed in practice. A total of 123 experienced intelligence and investigative interviewers from five Asian-Pacific jurisdictions (Australia, Indonesia, Philippines, South Korea and Sri Lanka) participated in in-depth interviews...
about rapport-building techniques used with high-value interviewees. The majority of participants had more than 10 years’ experience and 63% had conducted between 100 and 500 interviews. Responses were recorded, transcribed and de-identified for systematic deductive analysis according to the principles of persuasion outlined by Cialdini, to assess the nature and extent of forms of social influence strategies applied. Reported rapport-development techniques were classifiable as one or more of these six principles of persuasion: reciprocity, commitment, social proof, authority, liking and scarcity. Results revealed that liking and reciprocity were the principles that encompassed the most ubiquitously and frequently reported rapport-development strategies across jurisdictions. Liking was established through similarity and humor, although at times dissimilarity was effective. Few practitioners simulated liking; the majority were sincere. Techniques encompassed by the principles of authority, commitment-consistency and social proof were culture-bound and more diverse. Results confirmed the generalizability of social influence theory to the policing context across diverse legal systems and cultures. By applying psychological theory to advance understanding of rapport-building, best practices and policies were identified in a field where few standards exist. Notwithstanding the limitations of self-reports, strong practitioner support emerged for the effectiveness of non-coercive social persuasion strategies in high-stakes police interviews.


Abstract: Four types of coercive and non-coercive interview strategies (legalistic, physical, cognitive and social) used to facilitate disclosure by high value detainees were examined in an international sample of practitioners and detainees (N=64). Predictive analyses confirmed that the accusatorial approach was positively correlated with physically coercive strategies (rs =.58) and negatively with forms of social persuasion (rs=.31). In response to social strategies, detainees were more likely to disclose meaningful information [odds ratio (OR) =4.2] and earlier in the interview when rapport-building techniques were used (OR =14.17). They were less likely to cooperate when confronted with evidence (OR=4.8). Disclosures were more complete in response to non-coercive strategies, especially rapport-building and procedural fairness elements of respect and voice. These findings augmented past theory on interactional processes and the evidence-base of international best practices in suspect interviews.


Abstract: This review paper examines the growing body of research on the psych legal study of true and false intentions – a typically neglected area within the field of deception detection. The extant studies are thematically grouped into four main topics: (i) physiological measures; (ii) implicit measures; (iii) strategic interviewing; and (iv) studies examining episodic future thought (EFT) and
mental images. The benefits and limitations, and underlying theory of the respective approaches are discussed. The paper also provides a note on relevant theory, specific for intention research, and recommendations for future research directions. Findings from experimental research are related to the applied context.


  *Abstract*: The gathering of human intelligence (HUMINT) occurs across the globe 24/7. In the wake of terrorist attacks in New York, Madrid, and London, and the increased threat of terror worldwide, the need for effective HUMINT techniques is more critical than ever (Brandon, 2011; Loftus, 2011). Some of these interactions may require little in terms of tactical reasoning, whereas other interactions may require advanced strategic considerations and elaborate tactical skills. In light of this it is rather remarkable that such little research has been conducted on how such interactions are conducted and the comparative effectiveness of different HUMINT gathering techniques. This special issue will begin to remedy this serious gap in the research literature.


  *Abstract*: The purpose of this chapter is to review the available research on Human Intelligence (HUMINT) interrogations. We will argue that there has been a recent paradigm shift in the approach to HUMINT interrogations. We will describe the conceptual, methodological, and practical implications of this paradigm shift. The chapter will be structured as follows. First, we will describe the defining characteristics of HUMINT interrogations and outline the scope of our discussion. We will describe how the challenges of HUMINT interrogations may be similar as well as different from interrogations in criminal settings. Second, in order to provide a context for our claim of a paradigm shift, we provide a historical overview of practice and research on HUMINT interrogations. Third, we offer a review of the current state of knowledge about the psychology of HUMINT interrogations, with a particular focus on methods that have been shown to be effective. Finally, we will outline several challenges for future research in this domain, and discuss how research on HUMINT may proceed to fill the gap in current knowledge.


  *Abstract*: Chris Ochoa was told he would receive the death penalty for the crimes of which he was accused, but that if he confessed he would live. Eleven and a half years later, DNA testing
exonerated Ochoa of any connection to the crimes for which he was imprisoned. Keith Brown was charged with the sexual assault of a woman and her 9-year-old daughter after falsely confessing due to high levels of pressure exerted by investigators. Brown served 4 years of a 35-year sentence before he was exonerated via DNA testing. Finally, Nathaniel Hatchett falsely confessed to rape and robbery, serving 10 years in prison before he was exonerated due to DNA testing. Nathaniel was told that if he cooperated (and confessed) he would be allowed to go home. Chris Ochoa, Keith Brown, Nathaniel Hatchett; these three men are but a sample of the growing problem of false confessions within the legal system and together they served 25.5 years in prison as innocent men.


Abstract: The interviewing and interrogation of suspects can be particularly important to securing convictions against the guilty and freeing the wrongly accused. There are two general methods of questioning suspects: information-gathering and accusatorial. The information-gathering approach, used in the United Kingdom, New Zealand, Australia, and elsewhere, as more generally in Western Europe, is characterized by rapport-building, truth-seeking, and active listening. The accusatorial approach, used primarily in the United States and Canada, is characterized by accusation, confrontation, psychological manipulation, and the disallowing of denials. Which method is more effective has become a hotly debated topic as the number of false confessions identified continues to rise.


Abstract: Two experiments tested mnemonics for enhancing memory for family meeting occurrences and details. Experiment 1 Two experiments tested mnemonics for enhancing memory for family meeting occurrences and details. Mnemonics helped respondents report 70% more event occurrences than were reported during unaided free recall. Experiment 2 tested (i) a revised set of mnemonics to facilitate recollections of family meeting occurrences and (ii) a version of the cognitive interview to facilitate recollections of event details. Similar to Experiment 1, the revised set of mnemonics helped respondents recall double the number of events recalled during unaided free recall.

Abstract: In a proof-of-concept study, an expert obtained 100% deception-detection accuracy over 33 interviews. Tapes of the interactions were shown to N=136 students who obtained 79.1% accuracy (Mdn=83.3%, mode=100%). The findings were replicated in a second experiment with 5 different experts who collectively conducted 89 interviews. The new experts were 97.8% accurate in cheating detection and 95.5% accurate at detecting who cheated. A sample of N=34 students watched a random sample of 36 expert interviews and obtained 93.6% accuracy. The data suggest that experts can accurately distinguish truths from lies when they are allowed to actively question a potential liar, and non-experts can obtain high accuracy when viewing expertly questioned senders.


Abstract: We propose that suspects’ counter-interrogation strategies vary as a function of their perception of the interrogator’s knowledge about the events in question. The present study investigates the verbal behavior of guilty and innocent suspects when they are aware that there may be incriminating evidence against them. Participants (N = 143) took part in either a simulated act of terrorism or a benign task. They were then interviewed about their activities. Participants were randomly assigned to receive no additional information or to be informed that an investigative team may have collected evidence from surveillance cameras. Results suggest that when alerted to possible evidence against them, guilty suspects adopt either extremely withholding or extremely forthcoming verbal strategies. Theoretical implications of these results are discussed.


Abstract: The current study examined interview techniques aimed at eliciting intelligence from human sources. We compared two versions of the Scharff-technique to the Direct Approach (a combination of open and direct questions). The Scharff conditions, conceptualized into four tactics, differed only with respect to the ‘confirmation/disconfirmation-tactic’. The participants (N=90) received background information and took the role as a source in a phone interview. They were instructed to strike a balance between not revealing too little and too much information. As predicted, the Scharff-technique resulted in more new information than the Direct Approach. Importantly, the sources interviewed by the Scharff-technique perceived that they had revealed less new information than they objectively did, whereas the sources interviewed by the Direct Approach perceived that they had revealed more new information than they objectively did. Furthermore, the interviewer’s information objectives were better masked with the confirmation-tactic than with the disconfirmation-tactic. The results highlight the Scharff-technique as a promising human intelligence gathering technique.

Abstract: We completed a systematic review and meta-analysis of the available empirical literature assessing the influence of accusatorial and information-gathering methods of interrogation in eliciting true and false confessions. We conducted two separate meta-analyses. The first meta-analysis focused on observational field studies that assessed the association between certain interrogation methods and elicitation of a confession statement. The second meta-analysis focused on experimental, laboratory-based studies in which ground truth was known (i.e., a confession is factually true or false). We located 5 field studies and 12 experimental studies eligible for the meta-analyses. We coded outcomes from both study types and report mean effect sizes with 95% confidence intervals. A random effects model was used for analysis of effect sizes. Moderator analyses were conducted when appropriate. Field studies revealed that both information-gathering and accusatorial approaches were more likely to elicit a confession when compared with direct questioning methods. However, experimental studies revealed that the information-gathering approach preserved, and in some cases increased, the likelihood of true confessions, while simultaneously reducing the likelihood of false confessions. In contrast, the accusatorial approach increased both true and false confessions when compared with a direct questioning method. The available data support the effectiveness of an information-gathering style of interviewing suspects. Caution is warranted, however, due to the small number of independent samples available for the analysis of both field and experimental studies. Additional research, including the use of quasi-experimental field studies, appears warranted.


Abstract: Three techniques for eliciting intelligence from human sources were examined. Two versions of the Scharff-technique (conceptualized as four tactics) were compared against the Direct Approach (open and direct questions). The Scharff confirmation technique used correct claims to elicit information, and the Scharff disconfirmation/confirmation technique used a mix of correct and incorrect claims. The participants (N =119) took the role of ‘sources’ holding information about a terrorist attack and tried not to reveal too much or too little information during an interview. The Scharff confirmation resulted in more new information than the Scharff disconfirmation/confirmation and the Direct Approach. The sources in the Scharff conditions had a more difficult time reading the interviewer’s information objectives. The sources in the Scharff conditions underestimated, whereas sources in the Direct Approach overestimated, how much new
information they revealed. The study advances previous work and shows that the Scharff-technique is a promising intelligence gathering technique.


  Abstract: A great deal of research in the past two decades has been devoted to interrogation and interviewing techniques. This study contributes to the existing literature using an online survey to examine the frequency of use and perceived effectiveness of interrogation methods for up to 152 military and federal-level interrogators from the USA. We focus on the who (objective and subjective interrogator characteristics), the what (situational and detainee characteristics), and the why (intended goal of interrogation). Results indicate that rapport and relationship-building techniques were employed most often and perceived as the most effective regardless of context and intended outcome, particularly in comparison to confrontational techniques. In addition, context was found to be important in that depending on the situational and detainee characteristics and goal, interrogation methods were viewed as more or less effective.


  Abstract: Laboratory research and field research have reliably shown that the cognitive interview (CI) enhances eyewitness recall in comparison with standard interview protocols in a criminal investigation context. To address some of the major criticisms of the existing CI literature, the current experiment compared the CI with the Federal Law Enforcement Training Center’s five-step interview protocol in an intelligence-gathering context using experienced interviewers and adult interviewees. The CI elicited significantly more event-relevant information from the interviewees than the five-step model, the standard training offered at Federal Law Enforcement Training Center.


  Abstract: Although analysts and interpreters have been recognized as critical members of human intelligence (HUMINT) interrogation teams, their perceptions of the interrogation process have yet to be explored in any systematic way. In a series of two studies, we interviewed a small number of highly experienced HUMINT analysts and surveyed a group of interpreters with experience supporting interrogations, about their experience with and perceptions of the interrogation process. We explored a variety of topics with each group, including training and selection, role and function, how best to utilize an analyst/interpreter, logistics (e.g., analyst models and interpreter placement),
third-party observations/feedback, perceived effectiveness of interrogation techniques, and team dynamics. The results of these studies may be used to establish, for the first time, baseline knowledge and reported best practices about the HUMINT interrogation process from the analyst and interpreter perspectives, which may ultimately influence training and practice models.

  
  **Abstract:** The task force that led to the creation of the High-Value Detainee Interrogation Group (HIG) recommended that the HIG fund a program of research aimed at establishing scientifically supported interrogative best practices. One of the ways to identify ‘best practices’ is to rely on direct reporting from subject-matter experts. In this study, 42 highly experienced military and intelligence interrogators were interviewed about their interrogation-related practices and beliefs, including such topics as training and selection, the role of rapport, perceptions regarding the techniques employed, lie detection, and the roles of interpreters and analysts. Interrogators indicated that excellent interpersonal skills on the part of an interrogator, an emphasis on rapport and relationship-building techniques, and the assistance of well-prepared interpreters and analysts are key components of successful interrogation. It is our hope that the results of this study will stimulate research, influence training models, and ultimately contribute toward an interrogative best-practice model.

  
  **Abstract:** To our knowledge this was the first experiment that examined response trends over the course of a Symptom Validity Test (SVT). We predicted that the guilty group would avoid being associated with potentially incriminating information, and that they would do this more at the beginning of the test than towards the end. The 86 participants of the guilty group carried out an illegal activity in a room and were instructed to deny having been in that room in a subsequent interview. The 82 innocent participants had never been in that particular room. During the interview the guilty and innocent groups were exposed to a 12-item SVT. As predicted, the guilty participants selected fewer correct (crime related) items than innocents, and this tendency to avoid selecting the correct items was the strongest during the first half of the SVT. The implications of the findings for using an SVT in real life are discussed.

  
  **Abstract:** A common strategy in interviewing is to repeatedly focus on the same topics, for example by asking to recall an event first in chronological order and then in reverse order. We examined the
effect of changing interviewers between the two questions or keeping the same interviewers throughout on cues to deception. Truth tellers may be most encouraged to recall again what they have witnessed when confronted with new interviewers, as these new interviewers have not heard their story before. Liars may be most encouraged to recall again their story when confronted with the same interviewers, realizing that these interviewers will check for consistency in their answers. The impact of changing interviewers should lead to more pronounced differences between truth tellers and liars in terms of detail and repetition in the ‘Changed Interviewers’ condition compared with the ‘Same Interviewers’ condition. Participants were interviewed by two interviewers about a mock security meeting they attended. In half the interviews, the same two interviewers remained throughout, and in the other half, two new interviewers took over half-way through. As predicted, differences between truth tellers and liars in terms of detail and repetition were most pronounced in the ‘Changed Interviewers’ condition. Changing interviewers during an interview effectively differentiates liars and truth tellers with respect to detail and repetition. We discuss this finding and its place within investigative interviewing and deception detection literature.


*Abstract:* The way in which interviewers balance human rights concerns in Australian investigative and intelligence interviews was examined by documenting common practices and beliefs reported by 139 seasoned practitioners (M = 16 years) employed in Australian police, military and intelligence organizations. An online survey gathered information about interviewers’ perceptions of recording practices, the duration of interviews and the number of times persons were interviewed for each matter. The majority of the participants (73%) were New South Wales Police Force interviewers. While results revealed some variability, interviewers reported that most interviews were conducted in two or three separate questioning sessions lasting approximately one hour each. Frequency analyses showed that interviewers favored strategies protective of detainees’ human rights, such as video recording of interviews. Interviewers’ open-ended responses revealed that they supported recording because it yielded more accurate information, promoted procedural fairness and transparency in compliance with legal evidentiary requirements for admissibility in court, and protected interviewer integrity. Participants reported that video recording had the added advantage of preserving interviewees’ body language, tone of voice and other perceived indicators of credibility. The majority of interviews were reported to be within length requirements and recorded as required, indicating compliance with human rights concerns of suspects and non-suspects.

Abstract: Crime scene examination is the basis of all police investigations. Specialized police officers, often called crime scene investigators, follow a strict protocol to examine where the crime took place and find clues to solve the case. The crime scene is carefully preserved because it can tell the story of what happened and often contains traces of the perpetrator. Investigative interviews should be conducted with just as much precision because they can facilitate the discovery of clues that could help solve the case through the stories collected. If it were possible, we would put a yellow ribbon around the witnesses’ heads with the words “crime scene” to preserve their memory, which does indeed make up part of the crime scene, in order to avoid any contamination while waiting for the specialists to conduct their interviews. The witnesses often know what happened and, contrary to crime scenes, they can talk about it.


Abstract: The cultural diversity of people encountered by investigators who interact with the public has increased substantially over the last decade (Giebels & Taylor, 2009; Gould, 1997). This has inevitably meant that these investigators face a harder interpersonal challenge when answering key questions such as: has the suspect understood what is at stake; why do they avoid answering the question; and why are they being aloof and distant? In cross-cultural interactions, the usual challenges of an investigator's role are compounded by the need to decipher whether the behavior of a suspect is indicative of deceit or a consequence of the suspect’s culturally unique way of interacting.


Abstract: Traditional police–suspect interviews differ from intelligence interviews in several important ways, and these differences merit new research activities. This article presents an overview of recent and innovative research into eliciting information and cues to deceit in intelligence interviews, and discusses research into new domains including 'lying about intentions', ‘undercover interviewing’, and ‘collective interviewing’. Although that research is still in its infancy, the findings reveal that truth tellers’ and liars’ answers can be distinguished from each other if the correct interview protocols are implemented, such as asking unexpected questions and introducing forced turn-taking. In addition, this new research also shows that the so-called Scharff technique is more effective for eliciting human intelligence information compared with more traditional techniques.

Abstract: Interviews are an important part of investigations, as the information obtained from interviewees generates leads and evidence. However, for several psychological reasons, even cooperative victims and witnesses do not spontaneously report all the information they know, and their accounts may incorporate errors. Furthermore, suspects often deliberately withhold information or may attempt to mislead the interviewer. First, known psychological factors promote complete and accurate reports by cooperative witnesses and victims. Such factors relate to the social dynamics between the witness and interviewer (e.g., developing rapport), the interviewee’s and the interviewer’s cognitive processes, and communication between the witness and interviewer. Empirical research examines interviewing techniques that incorporate these interviewing principles. Second, some suspects may be reluctant to volunteer information. Typically, two interview styles encourage suspects to talk: An information-gathering style seeks to establish rapport with interviewees and uses open-ended exploratory questions to elicit information and establish guilt. An accusatorial style uses closed-ended confirmatory questions to elicit confessions. The former approach performs better at eliciting accurate information and true confessions. In any interview, the ability to detect truth from deceit is important. Many lie detection techniques are based on listening to speech or observing behavior, but only some discriminate between truth and deceit.


Abstract: Deception researchers have suggested that when truth tellers and liars carry out the same activities, verbal differences in reporting such activities are unlikely to occur. We argue that liars will report these activities in less detail than truth tellers, due to a tendency to be less forthcoming with information relating to their deception. In the present experiment, truth tellers and liars carried out the same activities for benevolent (truth tellers) or malevolent (liars) reasons and were asked to report these activities in a free recall phase and in a cued recall phase. In the cued recall phase, half of the participants were asked to recall the information with their eyes closed. Liars’ accounts were less detailed than truth tellers’ accounts in the free recall phases of the interview. Eye closure resulted in the reporting of more detail by truth tellers and liars. The theoretical and applied implications of these findings are discussed.

Abstract: In this article we introduce a novel interviewing tactic to elicit admissions from guilty suspects. By influencing the suspects’ perception of the amount of evidence the interviewer holds against them, we aimed to shift the suspects’ counterinterrogation strategies from less to more forthcoming. The proposed tactic (SUE-Confrontation) is a development of the Strategic Use of Evidence (SUE) framework and aims to affect the suspects’ perception by confronting them with statement-evidence inconsistencies. Participants (N = 90) were asked to perform several mock criminal tasks before being interviewed using 1 of 3 interview techniques: (a) SUE-Confrontation, (b) Early Disclosure of Evidence, or (c) No Disclosure of Evidence. As predicted, the SUE-Confrontation interview generated more statement-evidence inconsistencies from suspects than the Early Disclosure interview. Importantly, suspects in the SUE-Confrontation condition (vs. Early and No disclosure conditions) admitted more self-incriminating information and also perceived the interviewer to have had more information about the critical phase of the crime (the phase where the interviewer lacked evidence). The findings show the adaptability of the SUE-technique and how it may be used as a tool for eliciting admissions.


Abstract: Research on implicit cognition has found that activating mental concepts can lead people to behave in ways that are consistent with the primed concept. In a pilot study we tested the effects of priming attachment security on the accessibility of disclosure-related concepts. Subsequently, we tested whether activating disclosure concepts by priming attachment security would influence people’s forthcomingness. Participants (N = 102) delivered a flash drive to a confederate who exposed them to details of a mock eco terrorism conspiracy, which they were subsequently interviewed about. Before being interviewed, half of the participants were primed; the other half were not. Results showed that primed participants disclosed significantly more information than those who were not primed. Our findings highlight the need for further research on basic nonconscious processes in investigative interviews, as such influences can affect the outcome of the interview. The operation of nonconscious influences in such contexts has implications for practitioners, who may be able to utilize priming to facilitate disclosure.


Abstract: In particular, we document a decline effect in non-verbal deception cues, isolate audible from visible components of apparent honesty showing that various cues to honesty are intercorrelated and present a meta-analytic comparison of explicit and implicit lie detection. Although deception researchers have an interest in the determinants of naive deception judgments, the public
at large focuses on a different issue: lie detection. We end this chapter by discussing contemporary issues in the accuracy of deception judgments. Here we have reviewed theories and recent research on non-verbal lie detection. We have made a few new contributions. We have documented a tendency for deception cues to decline over time. We have found that individual differences in apparent honesty generalize over deception media, and have discovered that direct judgments yield better lie detection than many indirect methods.


  **Abstract:** Teams are ubiquitous in the world of work, in part because they offer the capacity to reduce workload and enhance performance on complex tasks. One task that has taken on heightened importance in today's world is the investigative interview, an information-gathering interview that is conducted in settings as diverse as airport screening, military checkpoints, law enforcement, corporate fraud, and intelligence settings. The goal of this research is to examine how the "power" of teams may be exploited by utilizing pairs of interviewers to conduct the investigative interview. Results indicate that there are benefits and drawbacks to tandem interviews. Specifically, tandem interviewers achieved superior interview outcomes than individual interviewers, including a reduction in cognitive demand, more attention to issue-relevant information (i.e., story cues), and greater use of open-ended questions. On the other hand, the use of tandem interviewers resulted in lower interviewee rapport and tandem interviewers were no more adept at detecting deception than single interviewers. In brief, the results suggest a tangible benefit to the tandem interview. Implications for practice and application are discussed.


  **Abstract:** We examined whether the reverse order technique can be implemented when people speak through an interpreter. A total of 40 Chinese, 40 Korean and 30 Hispanic participants were interviewed in English or in their own native language through an interpreter. Interviewees were asked to tell the truth or lie about a secret meeting they viewed. They were asked to recall what they saw in chronological order and then in reverse order. The reverse order technique revealed two cues to deceit (detail and commissions) when an interpreter was present, whereas no cues to deceit emerged when interviewees spoke in English. This suggests that the reverse order technique can be used with an interpreter but possibly not with non-native speakers. Perhaps the combined task of speaking in a non-native language and reporting in reverse order is mentally taxing for liars and truth tellers, thus making differences between them unlikely to emerge.

Abstract: People all over the world make sense of their society’s groups by consulting two perceptions: What is the other’s intent (warm and trustworthy or not) and can the other enact that intent (competent or not)? Distinct stereotypes, prejudices, and discrimination follow from these warmth-by-competence combinations, themselves predicted respectively by perceived competition and status. Evidence supports the stereotypes’ hypothesized antecedents (social structure) and distinct consequences (emotions and behavior). After describing internal validity, the chapter addresses external validity and then moderating variables. Finally, the chapter takes up cultural variation: Collectivist cultures show less in group favoritism, high-status societies favor themselves on competence, whereas low-status societies favor themselves on warmth. More unequal societies describe more groups with ambivalence (high on one dimension but low on the other). More equal societies, but also more conflictual societies, show less ambivalence, in an apparently curvilinear peace-ambivalence pattern. The chapter closes with implications and future directions.


Abstract: A feature common to Indonesia, the Philippines and Sri Lanka is that all three countries have faced home-grown terrorism in the past decades on a scale exceeding that in most other nations. Interest in global best interview practices has been intensified in these communities by the need to secure the cooperation of high value detainees and informants and to communicate with them in ways that are not counterproductive. This chapter documents recent developments in investigative interviewing in those countries. A limitation of much research on interrogation is its focus almost exclusively on police samples, without taking into account the suspects’ views, or interactional aspects of interview communication between interviewer and suspect. This chapter draws on original data from interviews conducted with non-random, purposive samples of police practitioners and with suspected terrorists from the Abu Sayyaf Group (Philippines), the Liberation Tamil Tigers of Eelam (Sri Lanka), and Bali bombing terrorist attackers (Indonesia). By sampling both interviewers and suspects, a more comprehensive picture was gained of contemporary interrogation practices in those communities. In addition, practitioners who conduct de-radicalization interviews with violent extremists in Indonesia and Sri Lanka were asked about this emerging trend in police practice. Together, these interviews provided unique viewpoints on effective and ineffective interview strategies within the framework of the Interaction Process Model.

**Abstract:** Between-statement consistency is regarded as an important cue to deceit. However, research indicates that liars can be as consistent as truth tellers. The consistency of statements of intent in two mock security settings was examined. Truth tellers spoke honestly of their intentions. Liars provided a cover story to mask their criminal intentions. Participants (N= 60) were interviewed three times, and their statements were coded for repetitions, omissions and commissions. The similarities between truth tellers and liars on all three measures of consistency were striking. These findings highlight consistency as a pernicious cue to deceit.


**Abstract:** The objective was to compare the efficacy of the Scharff technique (conceptualized as 5 tactics) with the direct approach (open and direct questions) as a means of eliciting intelligence from human sources. The interview techniques were used with 4 different types of sources varying in their levels of both cooperation and capability to provide information as follows: (a) less willing/less able, (b) less willing/more able, (c) more willing/less able, and (d) more willing/more able. The sources (N=200) were given information about a notional planned terrorist attack and instructed to strike a balance between not revealing too much or too little information in a subsequent interview. Overall, the Scharff technique resulted in significantly more new information than the direct approach, particularly for the less cooperative sources. Furthermore, sources interviewed with the Scharff technique had a more difficult time reading the interviewer’s information objectives and consistently underestimated how much new information they revealed. The study substantiates the Scharff technique as an effective human intelligence gathering tool.


**Abstract:** In a country as large and diverse as the United States and one with a decentralized criminal justice system, it would be nearly impossible to have an accurate census of investigative interviewing
and interrogation practices of all – or even most – American law enforcement agencies. Interrogators across the nearly 18,000 local and state agencies who conduct the vast majority of criminal investigations operate through some combination of formal and on-the-job training. The formal training that interrogators receive can range from a few hours of in-house training to popular third-party, multi-day courses such as the Kinesic Interview, the Reid Technique, or Wicklander-Zulawski and Associates. Even at the federal level, there exists a modicum of standardization across agencies, with the Federal Bureau of Investigation hosting its own training operations at Quantico, Virginia, while other agencies participate in the Department of Homeland Security’s Federal Law Enforcement Training Center (FLETC) in Glyanco, Georgia. Unlike other countries that have standardized training and practices in investigative interviewing and interrogation, a uniform American system of interrogation is difficult, at best, to identify.


  **Abstract:** To date, research on interrogation has not given much attention to how social and cultural forces possibly influence the interactions between interrogator and detainee. In this paper, we applied the principles of Social Identity Theory (SIT) to explore interrogators’ perceptions of how effective various interrogation methods are with detainees who are similar to themselves (i.e., in-group members) versus those who are dissimilar (i.e., out-group members). The social identity characteristics measured were culture, language, gender, and age. Using a sample of 225 interrogators and investigative interviewers from 10 countries who participated in an anonymous online survey, we found support for our hypothesis that interrogators were significantly more likely to report interrogation methods (defined as the six domains of Kelly et al.’s (2013) interrogation taxonomy) as being ‘very effective’ with in-group detainees than with out-group detainees. Additionally, we found that interrogators who reported higher levels of effectiveness and comfort with detainees from other cultures were significantly less likely to demonstrate in-group bias. Implications for practice and future research were considered.


  **Abstract:** The current study sought to examine the 6 domains conceptualized in a recent taxonomy of interrogation methods (Kelly, Miller, Redlich, & Kleinman, 2013): rapport and relationship building, context manipulation, emotion provocation, confrontation/competition, collaboration, and presentation of evidence. In this article, the domains are first situated in the existing literature that has similarly examined a limited number of constructs used to describe and explain interrogation methods, and the analyses aimed to lend empirical support to what were previously only conceptual
constructs. Using data from both a survey of interrogators and investigative interviewers and a content analysis of actual recorded interrogations, we examined reported and actual rates of use of the domains, the relationship of the domains to one another, and their association with suspect confession or denials. We found that the domains were reportedly used at significantly different rates, with rapport and relationship building being the most used domain and confrontation/competition the least. We found significant, positive associations between confrontation/competition, emotion provocation, and presentation of evidence in both sources of data, and these 3 domains were also significantly more likely to be used where the suspect denied involvement. The implications of the study are that the domains are meaningful, independent constructs that can be used in future research to describe and explain interrogation.


  *Abstract:* Deception research regarding insurance claims is rare but relevant given the financial loss in terms of fraud. In Study 1, a field study in a large multinational insurance fraud detection company, truth telling mock claimants and lying mock claimants were interviewed by insurance company telephone operators. These operators classified correctly only 50% of these truthful and lying claimants, but their task was particularly challenging: Claimants said little, and truthful and deceptive statements did not differ in quality or plausibility. In Study 2, a laboratory experiment, participants in the experimental condition were exposed to an audiotaped truthful and detailed account of an event that was unrelated to insurance claims. The number of words, quality of the statement, and plausibility of the participants’ accounts were compared with participants who were not given a model statement. The participants who had listened to the model statement provided longer statements than control participants, truth tellers obtained higher scores than liars, and only in the model statement condition did truth tellers sound more plausible than liars. Providing participants with a model statement is thus an innovative and successful tool to elicit cues to deception. Providing such a model has the potential to enhance performance in insurance call interviews, and, as we argue, in many other interview settings.


  *Abstract:* Although much is known about word usage differences between truths and lies, most of the research to date involves an examination of truths and lies in low stakes situations, written statements or interviews but not both, and native speakers of a single language. We examined differences in word usage between truth tellers and liars in a moderately high stakes, real-life
scenario (mock crime) involving participants from four cultural/ethnic groups—European-Americans, Chinese, Hispanics and Middle Easterners. Each participant produced a written statement and participated in an investigative interview; word usage in both was analyzed. Word usage differentiated truths from lies in both the written statement and the investigative interview, and the effect sizes associated with these findings were substantial. For the written statement, word usage predicted truths from lies at 68.90% classification accuracy; for the investigative interview, word usage predicted truths from lies at 71.10% accuracy. Ethnicity did not moderate these effects. These findings are discussed in terms of their implications to cross-cultural applicability of the psychological demands placed on liars and in terms of their practical field utility.


  **Abstract:** The present study examines non-coercive interview techniques aimed for eliciting intelligence from human sources. Two versions of the Scharff technique were compared against the direct approach (a combination of open-ended and specific questions). The Scharff conditions were conceptualized into four tactics and differed with respect to when the confirmation tactic was implemented: before or after an initial open-ended question. Participants (D=93) took the role of a source in a phone interview and were instructed to strike a balance between not revealing too little or too much information. In general, the Scharff technique outperformed the direct approach on all important measures. The sources in the Scharff conditions revealed more new information, and found it more difficult to understand the interviewer’s information objectives. Importantly, the sources interviewed by the Scharff technique underestimated how much new information they revealed, whereas the sources interviewed by the direct approach overestimated the amount of new information revealed. Although no clear order effects of the Scharff tactics were found, we introduce an alternative method for implementing the confirmation tactic.


  **Abstract:** The past two decades of research on interrogation were spurred, in large part, by the specter of false confessions and the resulting miscarriages of justice. More recently, interest in the topic has been fueled by the need to develop evidence-based methods that improve the collection of diagnostic confession evidence and accurate intelligence from human sources. In this review, we update the research on false confessions and describe recent assessments of scientifically validated approaches for obtaining cooperation, eliciting confessions, and detecting deceit. Studies are summarized through the prism of accusatorial versus information-gathering approaches to
interrogation: The former rely on psychological manipulation and control-based methods, whereas the latter focus on developing rapport and cooperation to elicit an account that can be strategically addressed via evidence presentation. The review concludes with recommendations for additional research to further improve the effectiveness of interrogations across a variety of contexts.


Abstract: Until recently, most research on interrogation has focused on the interrogator’s role, actions and perceptions in the criminal law enforcement setting. However, in the past decade, due to a resurgence in the role of interrogation as a means of gathering intelligence in the ‘War on Terror’, which regrettably included several high-profile cases (e.g. Abu Ghraib) involving the use of infamous interrogation tactics, an increasing number of researchers have begun empirically studying intelligence interviewing. The differences between interrogations in law enforcement and military or intelligence settings have been recently described elsewhere. However, one of the key differences is that criminal interrogations are focused on obtaining a confession from a suspect whereas human intelligence (HUMINT) interrogations are focused on procuring reliable, actionable information from the target. In a study conducted by Russano, Narchet, Kleinman and Meissner (2014), this sentiment was expressed by an interrogator with high-value target (HVT) experience who stated that the purpose of an interrogation is to ‘…get to the truth of something. You’re eliciting information. You’re getting information. What you do with that information may be against the interests of the person you’re interviewing, or it may be on their behalf. You may be using that information to go arrest somebody, or to disrupt some sort of a terrorist activity or to arrest them, or to put them under surveillance. You’re not sure. But you’re gathering information.’ Another key distinction between a criminal and HUMINT interrogation is the frequent and direct involvement of an analyst and an interpreter in the intelligence collection process (although in both cases the interrogator plays the central role in the interview process). Interpreters facilitate communication between the interrogator and the target, whereas analysts support an interrogation through an assortment of tasks, including compiling background information about the target and vetting (i.e. fact checking) and corroborating information elicited from the target.

Abstract: We examined the effect of deliberate mimicry on eliciting (accurate) information and cues to deceit. Mimicry is considered to facilitate cooperation and compliance in truth tellers, whereas liars are constrained to provide detail. We therefore expected truth tellers to be more detailed than liars, particularly after being mimicked. A total of 165 participants told the truth or lied about a meeting they attended. During the interview, an interviewer mimicked half of the participants. Truth tellers were more detailed than liars, but only in the ‘mimicry present’ condition. Truth tellers also gave more accurate units of information than liars, and the difference was most pronounced in the ‘mimicry present’ condition. Mimicry as a tool for eliciting information and cues to deceit fits well with the emerging ‘interviewing to detect deception’ literature, particularly in the ‘encouraging interviewees to say more’ approach.


Abstract: Laboratory research shows that eye-closure during memory retrieval improves both the amount and the factual accuracy of memory reports about witnessed events. Based on these findings, we developed the Eye-Closure Interview, and examined its feasibility (in terms of compliance with the instructions) and effectiveness (in terms of the quantity and quality of reported information) in eyewitness interviews conducted by the South African Police Service. Police interviewers from the Facial Identification Unit were randomly assigned to receive Eye-Closure Interview training or no training. We analyzed 95 interviews with witnesses of serious crimes (including robbery, rape, and murder), some of whom were instructed to close their eyes during salient parts of the interview. Witnesses in the control condition rarely spontaneously closed their eyes, but witnesses in the Eye-Closure Interview condition kept their eyes closed during 97% of their descriptions, suggesting that the Eye-Closure Interview would be easy to implement in a field setting. Although witnesses who closed their eyes did not remember more information overall, the information they provided was considered to be of significantly greater forensic relevance (as reflected in 2 independent blind assessments, 1 by a senior police expert and 1 by a senior researcher). Thus, based on the findings from this field study and from previous laboratory research, we conclude that implementation of the Eye-Closure Interview in witness interviews would help police interviewers to elicit more valuable information from witnesses, which could be relevant to the police investigation and/or in court.

Abstract: A training workshop utilizing the most up to date research in cognitive lie detection was designed and evaluated. For this evaluation, 27 experienced police detectives each interviewed one mock-suspect (a truth teller or liar) before training and another mock-suspect (a truth teller or liar) after training. Different mock-crimes were used in the pre- and post training interviews. The police detectives were free to interview the mock-suspect in any way they felt appropriate but were asked to try to incorporate (some of) the taught techniques in the post-training interviews. The detectives made veracity judgements and the interviews were transcribed and coded for the amount of detail elicited and the questions asked. Trainees’ ability to distinguish truth tellers from liars improved, and so did the percentage of appropriate questions they asked. Trainees did not implement the taught techniques to an equal extent, but when they were used, the techniques enhanced the elicitation of information and discrimination between truth tellers and liars. The training study also revealed challenges, particularly difficulty in implementing the taught techniques into practice (detectives often thought they had used techniques taught in the training when they in fact not used them as they had been shown to do) and asking the right questions to elicit differences in detail between truth tellers and liars.


Abstract: Lie detection research has shown that observers who rely on nonverbal cues or on verbal cues correctly classify on average 54% of truth tellers and liars. In addition, over the years countless numbers of innocent people have made false confessions and, in analyzing the problem, researchers have implicated both a suspect’s vulnerability and the persuasive influence of certain police interrogation tactics. Levine et al. (2014) aim to contribute to these vast bodies of literature by reporting two studies purportedly showing that expert interviewers when they are permitted to question interviewees - can achieve almost perfect accuracy without eliciting false confessions. We argue that theoretical and methodological aspects of these studies undermine the reliability and validity of the data reported, that as a result the studies do not contribute to the scientific literatures on lie detection and false confessions in any meaningful way, and that the results are dangerously misleading.


Abstract: Sources that claim that non-verbal behavior is very revealing about deception vary from TV series (e.g. Lie to Me) to police manuals. Research findings shed a pessimistic light on the
relationship between non-verbal behavior and deception. DePaulo et al.’s (2003) meta-analysis, based on 116 articles, included 32 non-verbal cues that were examined in five or more deception studies. Of these 32 cues, six (19%) showed a significant relationship with deception. The average effect size (d) of these six significant cues was 0.19; d values of around 0.20 represent a barely perceptible difference, such as the difference in height between 15- and 16-year-old girls.


  *Abstract:* In the present chapter, we have presented the first conceptualization of the Strategic Use of Evidence (SUE) technique. We have identified and described the general principles upon which the SUE technique rests, and we have presented a causal model making clear how these principles are related. In addition, we have offered an array of examples illustrating how different SUE tactics may result in different outcomes. We believe that the current conceptualization offers transparency with respect to the processes explaining the effects of the different SUE tactics. In brief, we have explained why the SUE technique works. Drawing on past SUE research, we have been able to provide empirical support of our conceptual arguments. The conceptualization makes it clear that the SUE technique is an integrated system of principles; a system which may generate different outcomes, but which always draws on the very same set of general principles. Importantly, conceptual clarity will allow for a more flexible use of the SUE technique.


  *Abstract:* Our aim in this chapter is to review and organize the scientific literature that exists on suspects’ counter-interrogation strategies, and highlight directions for future research. We define counter-interrogation strategies in a broad sense, and let the term denote all attempts made by a suspect to successfully withstand an interrogation, or expressed differently, to successfully appear as truthful. Here it should also be clarified that the chapter is on the counter-interrogation strategies that influence suspects’ verbal responses. Hence, we do not review so-called countermeasures used to influence the outcome of polygraph tests, and we do not review suspects’ nonverbal strategies. The chapter is structured in the following manner. First, we will briefly introduce the concept of self-regulatory strategies and the psychology of guilt and innocence as a theoretical backdrop for the empirical research to be discussed in the latter part of the chapter. Second, we will review empirical findings acknowledging some very basic differences in the mindset of guilty and innocent suspects. Third, we will introduce a model used for illustrating the causal processes at play, as well as for
organizing the empirical research published so far on suspects’ counter-interrogation strategies. Finally, we will provide a few thoughts on possible future directions.


  Abstract: This chapter focuses on beliefs about deceptive behavior. That is, what behaviors do people associate with lying? In what ways do they believe that liars differ from truth tellers? The behaviors that people believe to be indicative of lying are called subjective cues to deception (in contrast to objective, i.e. actual cues to deception). Such beliefs are of interest for at least two reasons. First, common reasoning about deception is of interest from a basic psychological perspective. Social psychologists have long examined naive psychology, with a particular focus on how naive reasoning may be plagued by shortcomings. Second, beliefs about deceptive behavior are of interest from an applied perspective, as judgments of veracity are central in a number of settings, perhaps most prominently in the legal system. This chapter provides an overview of the available research on subjective cues to deception. We will discuss the methods employed to map beliefs about lying and the populations in which these beliefs have been studied. We will review the patterns emerging from the body of work and gauge the accuracy of people’s reasoning about deception based on the literature on objective cues to deception. The chapter also introduces and discusses a distinction between explicit and implicit knowledge about deception. We conclude with a brief discussion of areas where more empirical research may be warranted.


  Abstract: This chapter introduces a new cognitive approach to non-verbal and verbal lie detection. The starting point of this approach is that lying can be more mentally taxing than telling the truth. This starting point is far from new. It was acknowledged by Zuckerman, DePaulo, and Rosenthal (1981) in their seminal paper and has been included in most theories on deception and lie detection ever since (Vrij, 2008). The new aspect of the cognitive lie detection approach is that investigators can enhance the difference in cognitive load that liars and truth tellers experience through specific interventions. If successful, those interventions should result in liars displaying more diagnostic cues to deception and should facilitate lie detection. This chapter commences by summarizing the reasons why lying can be more difficult than truth telling and when this is the case, followed by empirical evidence that supports the notion that lying can be more cognitively demanding than truth telling. The cognitive lie detection approach has two elements, imposing cognitive load and asking unanticipated questions. The second section presents the
underlying rationale of these two elements together with brief descriptions of numerous studies carried out in this area to date. This section shows that a cognitive lie detection approach (i) results in more cues to deceit and (ii) facilitates lie detection. The final section of this chapter presents some final thoughts about the cognitive lie detection approach, including ideas for future research.

2016


*Abstract:* A training workshop utilizing recent research in cognitive lie detection was designed and evaluated. A unique feature of the training was that a practitioner (retired police detective) instead of scientists (e.g. the training developers) introduced the techniques. To evaluate the training, 27 experienced police detectives each interviewed one mock suspect (a truth teller or liar) before training, and another group of 23 experienced police detectives interviewed one mock suspect (a truth teller or liar) after training. The police detectives were free to interview the mock suspect in any way they felt appropriate, but those who had received training were asked to try to incorporate (some of) the taught techniques in their interviews. The detectives made veracity judgements, and the interviews were transcribed and coded for the amount of detail elicited and the questions asked. Training had a modest effect on the ability to distinguish between truths and lies but resulted in a higher percentage of appropriate questions asked. Trainees did not implement the taught techniques to an equal extent, but when they did, the techniques enhanced the elicitation of information. The training study also revealed challenges, particularly difficulty in implementing the taught techniques into practice and asking the right questions to elicit differences in detail between truth tellers and liars.


*Abstract:* Despite high potential value for real-life situations, detecting true and false intentions by groups of suspects have not been previously investigated. The experimental study had a set-up in which participants (N = 232), half in dyads and half in quartets, planned for either a mock crime or a non-criminal event. In structured individual interviews, all participants were asked one set of questions targeting their intentions (anticipated questions) and one set of questions targeting the planning phase of the intentions (unanticipated questions). We scored the level of detail and consistency in participants’ interview responses. As predicted, questions on the planning phase were
perceived as unanticipated and difficult to answer by both liars and truth tellers. Truth tellers’ answers to the question on intent were perceived as more detailed compared to the liars. Cells of truth tellers and liars achieved an equally high within-group consistency for their answers to the questions on the stated intentions, whereas cells of truth tellers achieved a higher within-group consistency for the answers to the questions on the planning phase. Finally, truth tellers’ descriptions of their intentions contained more information related to how to attain the stated goal, whereas liars gave more information related to why it was necessary to attain the stated goal.

Conclusions: Asking anticipated and unanticipated questions can be a successful way of eliciting cues to true and false intentions among small cells of suspects.


Abstract: Between-statement consistency is regarded as an important cue to deceit. However, research indicates that liars can be as consistent as truth tellers. The consistency of statements of intent in two mock security settings was examined. Truth tellers spoke honestly of their intentions. Liars provided a cover story to mask their criminal intentions. Participants (N= 60) were interviewed three times, and their statements were coded for repetitions, omissions and commissions. The similarities between truth tellers and liars on all three measures of consistency were striking. These findings highlight consistency as a pernicious cue to deceit.


Abstract: The present experiment examined how the presence of an interpreter during investigative interviews affects eliciting information, cues to deceit and rapport. A total of 60 native English speakers were interviewed in English and 183 non-native English speakers were interviewed in English (a foreign language) or through an interpreter who interpreted their answers sentence by sentence (short consecutive interpretation) or summarized their answers (long consecutive interpretation). Interviewees discussed the job they had (truth tellers) or pretended to have (liars). Interviewees who spoke through an interpreter provided less detail than interviewees who spoke in their first language and a foreign language (English) without an interpreter. Additionally, cues to deceive occurred more frequently when interviewees spoke without an interpreter. The presence of an interpreter had no effect on rapport. The findings suggest that at present there are no benefits to using an interpreter with regard to eliciting information. Future research should investigate how best to utilize an interpreter to gain maximum detail from an interview.

  **Abstract:** As the Strategic Use of Evidence (SUE) technique becomes more widely taught to practitioners, it is important to investigate possible countermeasures to the technique. It is possible that guilty suspects who are aware of the SUE technique will employ forthcoming verbal strategies to make themselves appear innocent. Mock suspects committed a richly detailed simulated transgression (or a benign analogue) and were interviewed about their activities. Prior to questioning, some suspects received information about SUE tactics the interviewer was likely to use. Guilty suspects who were informed about the SUE technique employed more verbally forthcoming strategies than their uninformed counterparts. Guilty suspects who were given SUE information also reported planning for the interview in different ways. However, guilty-informed suspects did not become as forthcoming as innocent suspects overall. In sum, it appears that information about the SUE technique induces guilty suspects to alter their strategies, but only to a relatively small degree.


  **Abstract:** We examined how the presence of an interpreter during an interview affects eliciting information and cues to deceit, whilst using a method that encourages interviewees to provide more detail (model statement, MS). Sixty native English speakers were interviewed in English, and 186 non-native English speakers were interviewed in English or through an interpreter. Interviewees either lied or told the truth about a mock security meeting, which they reported twice: in an initial free recall and after listening to the MS. The MS resulted in the native English speakers and those interviewed through an interpreter providing more reminiscences (additional detail) than the non-native English speakers interviewed without an interpreter. As a result, those interviewed through an interpreter provided more detail than the non-native English speakers, but only after the MS. Native English participants were most detailed in both recalls. No difference was found in the amount of reminiscences provided by liars and truth tellers.


  **Abstract:** In many forensic investigations, witnesses to the critical event (e.g., crime or accident) will be interviewed several times. For example, a witness might be interviewed initially by a police officer, later by a more senior detective or investigator, and then one or more pre-trial depositions or
other attorney interviews, and, if the case proceeds to trial, eventually, on the witness stand (via direct, cross-examination, redirect, and re-cross). Given these multiple opportunities for witnesses to recall and describe events, witnesses may change elements of their testimony.


  Abstract: The use of cognitive interview techniques with crime witnesses has been criticized as similar to the use of hypnosis, which can raise legal issues. CI techniques and hypnosis do have some elements in common; for instance, in both, interviewers need to develop rapport with witnesses, witnesses are instructed to close their eyes, and witnesses are asked to re-create in their minds the contexts of the original events. Scientific research shows, however, that the cognitive interview and hypnosis function differently: The cognitive interview enhances recall more reliably than does hypnosis; the accuracy of the information collected during cognitive interviews is relatively high, whereas hypnosis may promote fabrication; the cognitive interview does not influence witness confidence, whereas hypnosis elevates confidence; and the cognitive interview reduces witness suggestibility to leading and suggestive questions, whereas hypnosis increases suggestibility. The legal problems associated with hypnosis thus do not plague the cognitive interview.


  Abstract: The practitioners agreed that interpreters changed the interview dynamic, and identified benefits and risks of interpreter use. The responses revealed misconceptions about interpreter codes of practice regarding neutrality. Major concerns were maintaining control of the interview, accuracy loss, maintenance of nonverbal communication, interview duration and fatigue. Strategies used to manage interviews were the selection of the interpreter, advance preparation regarding ground rules and content, and placement of the interpreter (behind/ adjacent to the interviewee). The key to a successful interview was a skilled, experienced interpreter.


  Abstract: While research on interrogation has traditionally focused on problematic practices that lead to false confessions, more recent research has addressed the need to develop scientifically validated techniques that lead to accurate information from both suspects and sources. In the present review, we summarize this recent research on building and maintaining rapport, eliciting information, presenting evidence, and assessing credibility. Research is described in the context of accusatorial (guilt-presumptive and psychologically manipulative) versus information-gathering(cooperative and evidence based) approaches to
interviewing and interrogation. We also suggest future directions for research to continue to improve the efficacy of interviews and interrogations.


  *Abstract:* Building on a substantial body of literature examining interrogation methods employed by police investigators and their relationship to suspect behaviors, we analyzed a sample of audio and video interrogation recordings of individuals suspected of serious violent crimes. Existing survey research has focused on the tactics reportedly used, at what rate, and under what conditions; observational studies detail which methods are actually employed. With a few notable exceptions, these foundational studies were static examinations of interrogation methods that documented the absence or presence of various approaches. In the present study, we cast interrogation as a dynamic phenomenon and code the recordings in 5-min intervals to examine how interrogation methods and suspect cooperation change over time. Employing the interrogation taxonomy framework, particularly 4 discrete domains—rapport and relationship building, emotion provocation, presentation of evidence, and confrontation/competition—we found that the emphasis of the domains varied across interrogations and were significantly different when suspects confessed versus when they denied involvement. In regression models, suspect cooperation was positively influenced by the rapport and relationship building domain, though it was negatively impacted by presentation of evidence and confrontation/competition. Moreover, we found that the negative effects of confrontation/competition on suspect cooperation lasted for up to 15 min. The implications of the findings for practice and future research include the benefits of a rapport-based approach, the deleterious effects of accusatorial methods, and the importance of studying when, not just if, certain interrogation techniques are employed.


  *Abstract:* In past research, the Scharff technique has consistently outperformed different comparison techniques with respect to the elicitation of human intelligence. This study extends previous work by examining the efficacy of the Scharff technique applied to small cells of sources. The sources worked in triads (N = 180), and were given information about a planned terrorist attack. They were then interviewed individually with either the Scharff technique (conceptualized as five tactics) or the Direct Approach (open and direct questions). The two techniques resulted in an equal amount of new information. As predicted, the sources in the Scharff condition underestimated, whereas the sources in the Direct Approach condition overestimated, their own contribution of new information. Furthermore, the Scharff tactics resulted in the sources overestimating the amount of information revealed by their fellow group members, whereas this was not the case in the Direct Approach. The paper advances the knowledge on elicitation techniques on several accounts: with
respect to the context (focusing on small cells of sources), measures of efficacy (introducing a new dependent measure) and tactics (introducing novel context-dependent tactics). The outcome of the study marks the Scharff technique as a promising technique for eliciting information in intelligence settings.


  **Abstract:** This study is the first to investigate police investigators’ adherence to, and the effectiveness of, a training program for detecting true and false intentions. Experienced police investigators (N = 53) were either trained or not trained in how to interview to discriminate between true and false intentions. All investigators interviewed mock suspects (N = 53), of which half lied and half told truth about their intentions. Both subjective and objective measures showed that the trained investigators interviewed in line with the training received. That is, a large proportion asked about the planning of the stated intentions. Noteworthy, none of untrained investigators reported to have posed such questions for strategic purposes. The trained investigators reached a higher detection accuracy level (65 %) than their untrained colleagues (55 %), however not significantly. Given that the investigators adhered to the training, this training package is a viable starting point for developing more effective training programs.


  **Abstract:** How do people communicate with others once they begin harboring a major life secret? Of over 1,100 people who completed an online screening questionnaire, 61 eligible adults who started keeping major secret within the past several years agreed to have their email correspondence analyzed. Changes in emailing frequency and word use between secret keepers and their contacts were identified from before and during secret keeping. Surprisingly, there was no evidence for social withdrawal during secret keeping. Instead, the findings support a hypervigilance hypothesis in which secret keepers communicated more frequently and exhibited more engagement with contacts in an attempt to monitor their social interactions. Most striking was that keeping a secret led to deeper social bonds between secret keepers and confidants. We discuss the use of archival emails and other social media as a naturalistic source for examining the social effects of psychological phenomena.


  **Abstract:** For entirely valid reasons, practitioners urge researchers to develop within-subjects lie detection methods. This article highlights some problems with the existing and popular nonverbal baseline lie detection method and with the use of the Validity Checklist in SVA. The article further
suggests how verbal within-subjects lie detection methods can be introduced in interview settings by implementing verbal lie detection interview protocols designed in recent years. The article concludes that these within-subjects methods do not provide the ultimate solution as clear cut-off scores cannot be established, but they are a step forward in verbal lie detection.


  **Abstract.** The Strategic Use of Evidence (SUE) approach is a framework for planning and executing suspect interviews with the aim of facilitating judgments of truth and deception. US law enforcement officers (N = 59) either received training in the SUE approach or did not. Each officer interviewed a mock suspect (N = 59) who had either committed a simulated security breach or had completed a benign task. The officers who received SUE training interviewed in line with the training: They questioned the suspect systematically, withheld the evidence and critical case information until after questioning, and relied on statement-evidence inconsistency to detect deceit. Consequently, SUE-trained interviewers achieved a higher deception detection accuracy rate (65%) compared to untrained interviewers (43%).


  **Abstract.** The present experiment examined how the seating position of an interpreter during investigative interviews affects information elicitation and cues to deceit. A total of 60 native English speakers were interviewed in English and 200 non-native English speakers were interviewed in English (a non-native language) or through an interpreter who either sat next to the interviewer, behind the interviewee or interpreted via the telephone. Interviewees either lied or told the truth about a mock security meeting they watched. Interviewees who spoke in their native language provided more detail than interviewees who spoke in their native language through an interpreter or in a non-native language (English) without an interpreter. The latter groups did not differ. Additionally, the amount of detail differentiated truth tellers from liars in all conditions and interviewees found the presence of an interpreter to be a largely positive experience. The interpreter’s seating position had no effect on the findings,

Abstract: The present experiment examined how the seating position of an interpreter during investigative interviews affects information elicitation and cues to deceit. A total of 60 native English speakers were interviewed in English and 200 non-native English speakers were interviewed in English (a non-native language) or through an interpreter who either sat next to the interviewer, behind the interviewee or interpreted via the telephone. Interviewees either lied or told the truth about a mock security meeting they watched. Interviewees who spoke in their native language provided more detail than interviewees who spoke in their native language through an interpreter or in a non-native language (English) without an interpreter. The latter groups did not differ. Additionally, the amount of detail differentiated truth tellers from liars in all conditions and interviewees found the presence of an interpreter to be a largely positive experience. The interpreter's seating position had no effect on the findings.


Abstract: A cross-national study, 49 samples in 38 nations (n = 4,344), investigates whether national peace and conflict reflect ambivalent warmth and competence stereotypes: High-conflict societies (Pakistan) may need clear cut, un-ambivalent group images distinguishing friends from foes. Highly peaceful countries (Denmark) also may need less ambivalence because most groups occupy the shared national identity, with only a few outcasts. Finally, nations with intermediate conflict (United States) may need ambivalence to justify more complex intergroup-system stability. Using the Global Peace Index to measure conflict, a curvilinear (quadratic) relationship between ambivalence and conflict highlights how both extremely peaceful and extremely conflictual countries display lower stereotype ambivalence, whereas countries intermediate on peace-conflict present higher ambivalence. These data also replicated a linear inequality–ambivalence relationship.

Abstract: Premised on a body of literature suggesting target-interviewer rapport is a critical component of successful interviews, we explored the effect of two interpreter-related variables – the physical placement of the interpreter in the room, and the nature of the relationship between the interpreter and the target – on target-interviewer rapport. A total of 125 bilingual (Spanish/English) participants viewed a mock crime video and were then interviewed, via an interpreter (or not). Interpreters either built rapport with the participant immediately prior to the interview or did not, and were either seated beside the interviewer or behind the target, commensurate with recommendations from training manuals. When the interpreter and target engaged in a short rapport-building session prior to an investigative interview, the target rated their interaction with the interviewer less negatively compared to when rapport-building did not occur. Furthermore, when the interpreter sat behind the target, the target viewed the interaction more negatively than when the interpreter sat beside the interviewer (triangular configuration). These findings suggest ways in which interpreters can be utilized more effectively, especially in terms of seating configuration, rapport development between a target and interpreter, and importantly, the potential for that target-interpreter rapport to transfer to the target-interviewer relationship.


Abstract: In high-stakes interviews on matters of national and international security, interpreters are essential when interviewers and interviewees lack a common language. Although rapport-based interviews are effective in eliciting more complete and accurate information from witnesses and suspects in monolingual interviews, little is known about an interpreter’s influence on rapport in interpreter-assisted interviews. Experienced interviewers (N = 121) drawn from policing, intelligence and military organizations in Australia, Indonesia, the Philippines, Sri Lanka and South Korea participated in structured interviews about interpreter-assisted interviews with high-value targets. Interview transcripts were coded for categorical information and analyzed thematically. The reported challenges included concerns arising from poor adherence to professional ethics for interpreters and difficulty in establishing rapport with interviewees. Practitioners discussed the ways in which they responded to these challenges. Advance briefing of interpreters to better prepare them for the interview and adherence to sound interview practices were generally seen as beneficial. Implications of the findings for rapport-based interviews are discussed in terms of professional codes of ethics and conduct for interpreters. Aspects of policy, practice and research are identified for further attention to foster effective high stakes interpreter-assisted interviews.

Abstract: Past empirical studies comparing the performance of trained interpreters and untrained bilinguals in police interviews have focused on the accuracy of the propositional content. Little is known about the relative skill of these two groups regarding other key tasks performed by interpreters such as the management and coordination of turn-taking and compliance with ethical protocols. These skills were empirically tested in a realistic simulated police interview. A total of 100 English-Spanish bilinguals and trained interpreters in the greater Sydney area interpreted for 20-30 minutes while professionally-trained actors role-played the detective and suspect for each participant. Raters who were blind to the interpreters’ background evaluated each interpretation in terms of the effectiveness of management of the interaction, use of correct interpreting protocols and professional credibility. Convergent results from quantitative analyses and discourse analysis of 17 illustrative excerpts confirmed that interpreters with specialized training outperformed the untrained bilinguals. Ad hoc interpreters were less confident, used inappropriate colloquial and powerless speech styles, failed to explain their role or establish ground rules that all statements would be interpreted, use of first and second person, breached ethical guidelines on impartiality, and did not interpret all utterances. The trained interpreters were rated as more trustworthy, confident, likeable and knowledgeable than their untrained counterparts. Although skills in managing turn taking and ethical dilemmas fall outside the scope of propositional accuracy, they are integral to professional interpreting and distinguished the performance of the two participant groups. Implications of the findings for interpreter training and police policy and practice in investigative interviews are discussed.


Abstract: We examined the effect of encoding quality and retention interval on the verbal accounts of truth tellers and liars. Truthful and deceptive participants (n = 149) reported a social interaction immediately or after a three-week delay. To manipulate encoding quality, the content of the exchange was important for, and intentionally attended to by, all liars and half of truth tellers (intentional encoding) but unimportant for half of truth tellers (incidental encoding). In the immediate condition, truth tellers in the intentional condition reported more details than liars and truth tellers in the incidental condition. All truth tellers reported fewer details after a delay (cf. immediately) whereas liars reported equivalent detail at both retrieval intervals. No differences by veracity group emerged in detail reported after delay. The oft-reported finding that truth tellers provide more detail than liars holds true when the event is intentionally encoded by truth tellers who are interviewed without delay.

Abstract: Research examining how truth tellers’ and liars’ verbal behavior is attenuated as a function of delay is largely absent from the literature, despite its important applied value. We examined this factor across 2 studies in which we examined the effects of a hypothetical delay (Experiment 1) or actual delay (Experiment 2) on liars’ accounts. In Experiment 1—an insurance claim interview setting—claimants either genuinely experienced a (staged) loss of a tablet device (n = 40) or pretended to have experienced the same loss (n = 40). Truth tellers were interviewed either immediately after the loss (n = 20) or 3 weeks after the loss (n = 20), whereas liars had to either pretend the loss occurred either immediately before (n = 20) or 3 weeks before (n = 20) the interview (i.e., hypothetical delay for liars). In Experiment 2—a Human Intelligence gathering setting—sources had to either lie (n = 50) or tell the truth (n = 50) about a secret video they had seen concerning the placing of a spy device. Half of the truth tellers and liars where interviewed immediately after watching the video (n = 50), and half where interviewed 3-weeks later (n = 50; i.e., real delay for liars). Across both experiments, truth tellers interviewed after a delay reported fewer details than truth tellers interviewed immediately after the to-be-remembered event. In both studies, liars failed to simulate this pattern of forgetting and reported similar amounts of detail when interviewed without or after a delay, demonstrating a stability bias in reporting.


Abstract: The present paper reports the development of an information sheet designed to aid interpreters in police interviews in recognizing, conveying and inadvertently obstructing rapport-building efforts by police interviewers. The contents of this sheet were informed by past research defining rapport, and rapport uses in police interviews. We used a mixed experimental design to test the information sheet. One group (Intervention, n = 35) was randomly assigned to read an information sheet before responding to short vignettes of police interviewing foreign non-English speaking suspects about international crimes, while another (Control) group (n = 37) simply responded to the vignettes. Perceptions of rapport cues by the intervention group exceeded that of the control group. However, the groups performed equally well at identifying appropriate methods to convey/avoid obstructing rapport. Feedback from the intervention group on the helpfulness of the information sheet was largely positive. The findings were used to improve the information sheet which can be used to alert interpreters to the importance of rapport in suspect interviews.

Abstract: Research on investigative interviewing has only recently started to compare the efficacy of different techniques for gathering intelligence from human sources. So far the research has focused exclusively on sources interviewed once, thus overlooking that most sources are interviewed multiple times. The present study attempts to remedy this gap in the literature. Students (N = 66) took on the role of semi-cooperative sources, holding incomplete information about an upcoming terrorist attack. The sources were informed that they would be interviewed at least once, and that additional interviews might follow. Half of the sources were interviewed on three occasions with the Scharff technique (consisting of five tactics), and the other half was interviewed on three occasions using the so-called Direct Approach (i.e., open-ended and specific questions). Collapsing the outcome over the three interviews, the Scharff technique resulted in significantly more new information compared to the Direct Approach. Furthermore, sources interviewed by the Direct Approach overestimated how much new information they had revealed, whereas the sources interviewed by the Scharff technique underestimated their contribution (although not significantly so). The current study advances previous research by further contextualizing the tests of the efficacy of human intelligence gathering techniques.


Abstract: This study is the first to investigate police investigators adherence to, and the effectiveness of, a training program for detecting true and false intentions. Experienced police investigators (N = 53) were either trained or not trained in how to interview to discriminate between true and false intentions. All investigators interviewed mock suspects (N = 53), of which half lied and half told truth about their intentions. Both subjective and objective measures showed that the trained investigators interviewed in line with the training received. That is, a large proportion asked about the planning of the stated intentions. Noteworthy, none of untrained investigators reported to have posed such questions for strategic purposes. The trained investigators reached a higher detection accuracy level (65 %) than their untrained colleagues (55 %), however not significantly. Given that the investigators adhered to the training, this training package is a viable starting point for developing more effective training programs.


Abstract: A range of studies have examined what should be said and done in crisis negotiations. Yet, no study to date has considered what happens when an error is made, how to respond to an error,
and what the consequences of errors and responses might be on the negotiation process itself. To develop our understanding of errors, we conducted 11 semi-structured interviews with police crisis negotiators in the Netherlands. Negotiators reported making errors of three types: factual, judgment, or contextual. They also reported making use of four types of response strategy: accept, apologize, attribute, and contradict. Critically, the negotiators did not perceive errors as solely detrimental, but as an opportunity for feedback. They advocated for an error management approach, which focused on what could be learned from another person’s errors when looking back at them. Suggestions for improvement of the communication error management experience in crisis negotiations are discussed.


  *Abstract:* Research on embodied cognition and priming show that human behavior is influenced nonconsciously by the environment in metaphoric ways. Previous research has shown that conceptual priming can lead people to disclose sensitive information (Davis, Soref, Villalobos, & Mikulincer, 2016; Dawson, Hartwig, & Brimbal, 2015). Here, we sought to examine whether concepts of openness can be activated to promote disclosure within the interview itself, through the physical setting. In two laboratory studies, participants were exposed to details of a mock environmental terrorism conspiracy through a courier task, which they were subsequently interviewed about in different settings. In Study 1, participants were interviewed in either a room designed to activate openness, or a prototypically enclosed, bare custodial interview room. In Study 2, we manipulated both architectural and interior features of both rooms. Challenging the status quo that a small room is optimal for investigative interviewing, our findings offer compelling evidence that the spaciousness of an interview room can influence a person’s tendency to be “open” with or “closed” about information.


  *Abstract:* In this research, we examine how the cultural dimension of uncertainty avoidance impacts interpersonal dynamics in police-civilian interactions. Data were transcriptions of dialogue from 54 crisis negotiations from a joint Dutch-German police training initiative, where a professional police negotiator interacted with a relatively high (German) and low (Dutch) uncertainty avoidant perpetrator. Generally, negotiators tend to achieve more alignment in within-culture interactions, and this effect is particularly driven by alignment in motivational frame. Furthermore, and as expected, German negotiators, who scored higher on uncertainty avoidance than the Dutch negotiators, were found to use more legitimizing as a persuasion technique and to use more formal language than their Dutch counterparts. Moreover, the practice of these behaviors was a significant moderator of the degree to which negotiator and
perpetrator aligned their communicative frames: using legitimizing and formal language helped with German perpetrators but had no effect on Dutch perpetrators.


Abstract: This article describes the development and psychometric properties of the Rapport Scales for Investigative Interviews and Interrogations 2, Source Version (RS3i-2, Source Version), a multidimensional self-report questionnaire intended to measure interviewees' perceptions of rapport in forensic and intelligence interviews. Two studies are described. In Study 1, 80 simulated investigative interviews were conducted regarding a supposed case of domestic terrorism. Afterward, video recordings of these interviews, randomly sorted into pairs, were viewed by 187 observers who rated them on rapport-related questionnaire items. Exploratory Factor Analysis of the 374 ratings identified five rapport-related factors and a set of items related to them. In Study 2, data were analyzed from 174 participants who were interviewed about the simulated terrorism incident and then rated their interviewers on the set of items identified in Study 1. Exploratory and Confirmatory Factor Analysis were then used to construct a 21-item measure, the RS3i-2, Source Version, comprising five Rapport Scales (Attentiveness, Trust/Respect, Expertise, Cultural Similarity, and Connected Flow) and a sixth scale, Commitment to Communication, that assesses an interviewee's motivation to be cooperative. Good concurrent validity was demonstrated for most scales. Furthermore, scores for several RS3i-2 scales were found to be higher when interviewers used rapport-based tactics, and to correlate with the amount of information disclosed by interviewees during questioning. We conclude that the RS3i-2 can be a useful tool for rapport research and in the training of forensic and intelligence interviewers.