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EFFECTIVENESS OF INTERVIEWS IN CRISIS PREVENTION AND DETECTION***

Abstract

This paper will highlight an interview's definition, phases, classification and characteristics as a qualitative method. Although planning and preparation are essential phases of an interview, the most crucial phase is interviewing due to various questions, such as introductory, informative, assessments and closing questions. We will stress the importance of assessment questions because by observing the verbal and non-verbal answers of the respondents, it is possible to assess their credibility with a certain degree of accuracy. In an interview with observation, we will indicate verbal and nonverbal signs of a spoken lie, which include a variety of body movements and postures accompanying a verbal response. Well conducting an interview, especially the Peace and Reid model, may prevent and detect various crises such as financial fraud, terrorist attacks, and others.

Keywords: interview, qualitative method, assessment, financial fraud, crisis management

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INTRODUCTION

After comparing different methodological views, whether an interview is a qualitative or mixed method, we will point out that the interview is a mainly used method of research and data collecting. Among many criteria of interview classifications, we would like to consider classifications based on the requirements of conducting an interview and upon criteria of preparation; we can differ from unstructured, semi-structured and structured interviews.

Although all phases of the interview are necessary, such as planning and preparation, the appointment of interviewers, and the final phase is to conduct the interview, many argue that the last phase is the most important due to the variety of questions, such as introductory, informative, assessments and closing questions. We will stress the importance of assessment questions because by observing the verbal and non-verbal answers of the respondents, it is possible to assess their credibility with a certain degree of accuracy. During the interview, it is essential to determine whether the respondent is telling the truth.

We will point out two leading interrogation models, the PEACE and REID models, for preventing and detecting various crises, such as financial fraud, terrorist attacks, etc.

DEFINITION, CLASSIFICATION AND INTERVIEW PHASES

There is an ongoing debate about interviews as a qualitative or mixed method. Some methodologists argue that an interview is a qualitative method in which the “researcher conducts face-to-face interviews with participants, telephone interviews, or engages in focus group interviews with six to eight interviewees in each group” (Creswell 2014, 239; Arežina 2021, 280). Other methodologists argue that the interview is a mixed method, combining some elements of a questionnaire as a quantitative method. “While questionnaires can provide evidence of patterns amongst large populations, qualitative interview data often gather more in-depth insights on participant attitudes, thoughts, and actions” (Harris and Brown 2017, 9–10; Kendall 2008). Also, interview is considered as well as techniques of interrogation method (Milosavljević i Radosavljević 2013, 505–512) or method for data collection (Kljajić 2016, 24). The interview mainly uses the qualitative method, which is applied when we want to

expand our basic information or knowledge about specific processes or phenomena through the participation of individuals. Therefore, an interview provides a better understanding compared to questionnaires and other quantitative methods of certain social or security phenomena such as crises (Mijalković 2018; Stajić, Mijalković and Stanarević 2013).

An interview is a mainly used method of research and data collecting. If we compare the interview and observation methods, an interview has a more significant application. The observation method can provide information only about ongoing phenomena or processes. In contrast, an interview can give information about phenomena or processes in the past, present, or which will happen in the future. Among other characteristics of an interview, it is a suitable method to research sensitive topics (Vučinić Nešković 2013, 142–143) when participants are shy or don't want to talk about specific issues in a group. However, some disadvantages of an interview include incompetent respondents and false and biased responses. Besides, if an event has happened long ago, respondents may forget some vital information. Therefore, especially in personal interviews, we can apply observation methods to provide information about non-verbal communication. Among the general characteristics of an interview, we will point out the advantages and disadvantages of different classifications of an interview. Kljajic points out more than ten criteria for interview classifications (Kljajić 2016, 74–81).

Upon criteria of conducting an interview, there are personal, telephonic, e-mail or web interviews. *Personal or face-to-face interviews are mainly used types because questions are direct, especially about sensitive topics such as crises or other security issues* (Mijalković 2018; Milošević i Stojadinović 2024; Arežina 2010).

The examiner can make a list of questions; if necessary, he can explain them to the respondent. Also, the examiner can make notes regarding the respondent's answers or his body language regarding non-verbal communication. The main disadvantage of this method is that it is expensive, as it requires trained employees, offices and much time. *Telephonic interviews* are widely used in many social sciences because information is provided quickly and cheaply. Still, respondents mostly don't want to answer unknown numbers or about sensitive topics. *Email and web page interviews* are expanding, and they can almost conduct personal interviews by using some platforms with video calls. They are the fastest in obtaining and processing data, but personal interviews are best to get information on sensitive issues.

Beside, upon criteria of preparation, there are unstructured, semi-structured and structured interviews. *Unstructured interviews* are conversation between examiner and respondent upon underlying subject, but without preparation. They are also called mild and in-depth interviews because the examiner is making a bond with respondents with initial questions and uses mostly open-ended questions (Creswell 2014, 239–240; Vučinić Nešković 2013, 140). Examiners need skills and knowledge to gain information about the respondent's actions, knowledge, experiences, motives, and body language. Unstructured interviews provide data on certain subjects but offer many different views of respondents (Creswell 2012, 535). If the examiner is inexperienced, the absence of guidelines or a standardized set of questions can be a disadvantage. In most semi-structured interviews, the examiner has guidelines and a list of questions, but they are not standardized, and he can ask follow-up questions to get more information. Although semi-structured interviews are flexible, at the same time, it is their disadvantage because two questions will not have the same structure and, therefore, can't be compared as well as different answers. *Structured interviews* have a standardized, pre-decided set of questions, closed-ended or open-ended, but according to a specific subject. Therefore, the examiner has a rigid form and has to maintain uniformity in the interview, but the procedure is easy due to standardization (Milosavljević i Radosavljević 2013, 509). A predefined set of questions, especially closed-ended ones, can provide the accuracy of different answers that can be analyzed collectively, especially using some data processing programs.

The interview can be divided into the planning and preparation phase, the appointment of interviewers, and the final phase is to interview in the desired direction.

Before starting the interview, due to various crises, including those caused by financial crime, it is necessary to find out as much as possible about the case itself, that is, as much as possible to gather facts about the criminal act, the respondent and to determine the time and place for conducting the interview. Accordingly, the preparation and planning phase, one of the most critical phases of the overall interview process, must consider the determination of the respondents, the time and place of the interview, legal issues and who should be the participants in the interview. When planning and preparing for the interview, the examiner should consider the respondents' characteristics, including age, religious beliefs, cultural background, family, neighbourhood and professional

circumstances, and other characteristics (Kljajić 2016, 100–102). It is essential to determine enough time and not to accept any suggestions from the respondent to change the interview process in an undesirable direction.

The second phase is *to appoint the interviewers*. For example, in a case of financial crime, then ultimately the financial forensic scientist should be ready to interview the respondent anywhere and at any time. Collecting data and evidence (Ristić 2016, 186–193; Mijalković and Arežina 2024, 26–35; Arežina 2023, 209–210) is relevant to determine the truth in court proceedings. However, the ideal ambience would be a room with little or no objects that could distract, such as large windows overlooking interesting objects or surroundings, photographs and objects that attract attention, etc. The goal is to create an environment in which nothing distracts the respondent from the conversation with the examiner.

An interview is conducted in rooms specially intended for that purpose. There, the examinee occupies a unique position towards the examiner, expressing a particular relationship with his physical attitude. Thus the position and space that the examinee occupies about the examiner serves as a symptomatic sign. Besides, specific legal issues must be considered when the examiner, during the interview, asks the respondent for recognition to have committed criminal acts to avoid possible risks related to defamation lawsuits and violations of legal norms. During conducting interviews (Vučinić Nešković 2013, 158–169), for example, in the case of a criminal act, it is best for two people to conduct the interview and for one interrogator to ask questions while the other takes notes. Of course, examiners can switch roles, but another examiner should first and foremost observe the respondents' behaviour and consider what questions would suit such behaviour. When examiners work together for extended periods, they learn conversation patterns from each other.

Also, we can divide the interview into several phases, such as the initial contact, establishing trust, asking specific questions, obtaining a statement and ending the conversation.

For initial contact, it is very important that the examiner state his identity, position and who he represents and clearly explain the reasons for which the examination is required and the objectives to be achieved. Usually, use a phone, unannounced arrival or an official written call to make initial contact. Making initial contact by phone is a quick and convenient way to avoid wasting time and resources. Still, it is risky

because a respondent can refuse an initial conversation for many reasons, such as questioning the respondent's identity, justifying the purpose and reason for calling, and others. The initial contact significantly differs by the examiner, so if it is a criminal inspector, he has legal powers and status that vary considerably from the internal or external auditor.

At the beginning of the conversation, the examiner, with his verbal and non-verbal behaviour, should establish a relationship of trust with the respondent, which can be of great importance for later obtaining information and eventual recognition if the respondent has committed a crime. At this stage, important are questions to prepare the respondent for a more significant phase of the conversation but questions that may cause discomfort or threat should be avoided. Therefore, at this stage, the examiner should break the ice concerning the respondent to gather all the information and data relevant to the procedure.

ASSESSMENT AND OTHER QUESTIONS IN THE INTERVIEW

The examiner can ask five types of questions in the questioning phase: introductory, informative, assessment questions, final questions and recognition questions (S. Albrecht and C. Albrecht 2004, 183). When conducting interviews with persons without basis for suspicion that they have committed criminal acts and who are willing to provide information that may be relevant in a case, usually are used introductory, informative and concluding questions. On the contrary, if the examiner reasonably suspects the respondent is dishonest, he approaches the assessment questions. Finally, if the examiner assesses that there are grounds for suspicion that the respondent has committed a crime, in that case is possible to ask questions that require the recognition of the crime.

Although introductory questions in informative interviews are often considered optional, a preliminary interview can be key for building trust between respondents and interviewers (Kljajic 2016, 180). Once the examiner establishes a relationship of trust with the respondent, barriers fall, confidence grows, and a free exchange of information follows. In many cases, the examiner and the respondent had never met before. In that case, it is necessary to consider certain guidelines regarding conducting a preliminary interview and to ask introductory questions (Vučinić Nešković 2013, 142–145). Those questions relate to establishing physical contact, informing about the purpose of the interview, avoiding

conversations with more than one person, conducting interviews without other people, asking questions that are not too sensitive nature, encouraging the respondents to cooperate during the interview, making a transitional statement, seeking permanent consent and preserving body space.

The primary purpose of informative questions is to collect impartial data and facts, and they are not accusatory or confrontational. These questions should not provoke a defensive attitude or hostility in the respondent but must be open and honest, leaving enough time for the respondent to answer. For informational questions, it is appropriate to help the respondent recall the event without giving suggestions to the respondent regarding the answers. To remember and provide answers, examiners should provide respondents copies of documents, data and available information (Creswell 2014; Termiz, Milosavljević, and Arežina 2010, 97–98). Informative questions can be repeated or reformulated to ensure the examiner understands their essence. The examiner should also determine whether the respondents present their knowledge based on personal experience, called first-hand (Mijalković i Arežina 2021, 10–11) or whether they have heard information from someone else. The goal of informative questions is to get answers to specific questions, such as understanding the system of accounting controls, material and financial documentation, and collecting information regarding business transactions and events. Informative questions can be divided into six categories: open, closed, quoting, double negative, complex and attitude questions (S. Albrecht and C. Albrecht 2004, 194).

If the examiner believes the respondent is deceiving, he may ask specific hypothetical non-accusatory questions. By observing the verbal and non-verbal answers of the respondents to such questions, it is possible to assess their credibility with a certain degree of accuracy (Mijalković i Arežina 2021, 19–21); assessment questions are applied only when the examiner considers that the previous statements or answers of the respondents are inconsistent due to deception and lying. The assessment determines a phenomenon or process's quantity, frequency, diffusion, probability, and value. Assessments and assessment questions are made by a defined procedure, where comparison is critical. Therefore, assessments are prognostic (Arežina and Spasojevic 2020, 128–129).

If the respondent has to answer all the important questions regarding the event, the examiner has reason to believe that the statements are not factual. Still, with the intention of deception, he should ask assessment questions. The transition to asking these questions should be inconspicuous

with the frequent use of phrases such as – *if you don't mind, I would ask you a few more questions*. However, the examiner can successfully formulate and use assessment questions. Still, it is necessary to understand the physiological aspects of the lies told, the standardization technique, and the methodology of asking assessment questions.

At the end of the interview, the interviewer should conclude it in a positive tone and *leave the door open* for further contact. This is especially important in financial fraud investigations because it is common further to clarify certain circumstances, clues and evidence of business documentation, even after the interview.

The ultimate and only goal of asking the confession question is that the respondent who committed the criminal act, legally and ethically, admit the guilt. When asking those questions, the examiner must take a confident position that gives credibility to the respondent's guilt. This is important because if respondents have committed the criminal act that is the subject of the conversation, they will very rarely voluntarily admit the commission of the crime, especially if they believe that the examiner himself is not convinced of their guilt. Therefore, the examiner must convey the absolute conviction of the respondent's guilt when asking the question of seeking recognition, even if he is not entirely sure of it. That is why someone asks demanding recognition questions such as *Why did you do that*, instead of *Did you do that?* Innocent respondents who have not committed a criminal act do not accept the premise of such questions. At the same time, the perpetrators are often silent, denying responsibility that can be a link to violent reactions, listing the reasons why they were unable to commit the criminal acts charged against them. Innocent defendants often react with absolute shock and even anger, vehemently denying committing a criminal act. We want to emphasize that when asking questions of confession, the examiner should not express contempt, insult or moral condemnation regarding the conduct of the person he accuses because respondents under such conditions will almost never admit to committing an act. In addition, the examiner has to use milder qualifications and avoid emotionally charged words such as theft, fraud, or criminal behaviour. On the contrary, it is desirable to offer a morally acceptable reason for the behaviour of the respondents, and we must not characterize him as a bad person.

The examiner should try to prevent the respondent from denying the commission of the crime because it is challenging to master that position afterwards. Guilty and innocent people will undoubtedly object and try

to deny the accusations. Still, it is essential that when the examiner is convinced of the respondent's guilt, he should stop the denials in the conversation. Procrastination tactics are an effective way to stop or stop the denial, and one should not quarrel with the suspect but rather try to postpone the complete denial. Mainly, innocent people will not allow to examiner to interrupt their denials.

Once the examiner has made accusations against the respondent, repeat them and stop the respondent's denial. It is necessary to offer the respondent a morally acceptable justification for the act committed, which enables the respondent to harmonize his criminal actions with his conscience. The question of choice or soft charges technique is used for that. When using the choice question technique, the examiner presents the respondent with two rationalizations, good and bad, and encourages the respondent to choose one. Once a respondent has confessed to a criminal act, the confession has to be substantiated with a detailed description of the suspect's actions and motives. At that stage, the examiner can try to obtain additional information regarding possible accomplices or other criminal acts committed by the respondent.

If the respondent does not understand the questions, his answers will be useless or incorrect. When compiling the questions, it is necessary to consider several characteristics and the nature of the respondents. People of different ethnic, educational and social backgrounds will have different vocabularies, values and behaviours. As a rule, the simpler the question, the better. The examiner must be sure that the respondent understands the words or manner of the respondent. Local idioms, phrases, unusual words, trade expressions, regional accents and specific linguistic constructions can result in misunderstanding (Arežina 2016, 298–300). Therefore, we have to point out that good questions are short, simple and limited to one topic; they are straightforward and easy to understand, good questions avoid sensational words, and it is necessary to use milder terms that will not provoke strong emotions, good questions are precise and require a narrative answer (Djorić 2022; Howard et al. 2000, 237).

VERBAL AND NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION TO PREVENT AND DETECT CRISES

During the interview, it is important to determine whether the respondent is telling the truth. The history of the discovery of lies dates back to the beginning of humanity. Before scientific achievements took

precedence, many peoples and cultures had specific *methods* of detecting lies based on the knowledge that when a person lies, he usually changes his behaviour. In ancient China, for example, a suspect was allowed to chew rice during interrogation. After a few minutes, the suspect spilt the chewed rice (Krstić 2007).

The first scientific experiment of instrumental detection of lies was in 1875 when Italian physiologist Mosso began to research the influence of emotions, especially fear, on blood circulation and respiration. Moss' *sleeping collective* went down in history in 1910. On such a balanced table, the subject lay face down to monitor more efficiently the registration of the direction of blood flow under the emotional stimulus from the body to the brain or from the brain to the body. This delicate balancing table was so sensitive that it oscillated by the breathing rhythm. Later, we use a polygraph, known as a lie detector, which is a device that measures several physiological indicators such as pulse, blood pressure, skin conductivity and respiration while answering a series of questions (Krstić 1989). These changes in the human body are automatic and self-regulatory and are a consequence of some emotional states.

There is no common approach to determine that a person is lying because there is a wide variety of non-verbal behaviour. So, not all liars show the same behaviour in the same situations. However, this does not mean that each individual's behavioural differences cannot be noticed when he tells a lie concerning the behaviours when he tells the truth. That is why the examiner should constantly observe the examinee to see the patterns of his behaviour (Mijalković i Arežina 2021, 11–12), i.e. a symptomatic picture that is a consequence of deep psychophysiological processes in the body when a lie is told. The more severe the lie, the more strongly the symptomatic picture manifests itself, influenced by the general characteristics of the individual, as well as the conditions in which he lives and works, i.e. his social environment. However, the practice has generally shown that certain verbal and non-verbal signs the respondent sends during the examination may indicate a lie.

Verbal signs of a told lie can be very numerous, and some of them can be emphasized like changes in the way of speaking (the person either speeds up or slows down the speech or speaks louder). Secondly, he repeats questions more frequently to answer them because of selective memory. People prone to deception often have an excellent memory of insignificant events, and it seems they cannot remember important facts. Besides, they may have objections due to the office, furniture, whether

it is too hot or cold, etc. Third, insincere people often apologize more for various reasons (they are always nervous) and add oaths to their lies (they swear to God, etc.). Fourth, persons who do not tell the truth often require the examiner to check some of their claims with others (to ask his friend, wife, brother, etc.). When accused of illegality, some persons prone to deception overreact servile to the examiner, with an unusually high expression of respect. On the other hand, dishonest persons are often inclined to deny illegality less; after repeated accusations, the denial of dishonest persons becomes weaker to the point when it finally subsides; they often avoid emotionally provocative expressions such as theft, lie or crime. Instead, they prefer *soft* expressions such as loans, mistake, omission or misdemeanour. Dishonest people usually have tolerant attitudes towards criminal acts; dishonest people often try to give the impression of nonchalance and carelessness and adopt an unnatural, careless attitude.

Non-verbal signs of a told lie include a variety of body movements and attitudes accompanying the verbal response. Those are complete body movements – usually moving away from the examiner, or anatomical physical responses – the body's involuntary reactions to fear, such as increased heart rate, shallow or difficult breathing or excessive sweating. They may move their hands to enhance the expression of thoughts during speech. People who do not tell the truth often cover their mouths with their hands or fingers while telling lies, which seems subconsciously to cover up the deception, or use manipulations, so-called *moving or relocating activities* to reduce tension and nervousness (Navaro 2020, 113–129). Those manipulations are removing small objects from suits (feathers, dandruff, minor dust, small pieces of fabric, etc.) or playing with objects (pencils, papers, etc.). Finally, many other body movements interrupting speech flow are associated with stress, such as tight mouth, biting lips and tongue, licking lips, chewing, etc.

INTERVIEW MODELS FOR PREVENTING AND DETECTING A WIDE RANGE OF CRISES

The two leading interrogation models in police services for preventing and detecting a wide range of crises, such as financial fraud, terrorist attacks, and others, are the PEACE and REID models. The UK Home Office has implemented the PEACE model, while the REID model has been implemented in North America.

The PEACE interview model provides a structure that may be used for all types of interviews and with all kinds of respondents – witnesses, victims or suspects (Šebek 2016). The acronym PEACE stands for five stages in the interviewing process: planning and preparing, engaging and explaining, giving testimony, clarifying and disputing, ending an interview, and evaluating. This model also pays special attention to adequately establishing relationships with the respondent through the acronym SOFTENS. Although not directly related to the PEACE model of conducting interviews adopted by the British police, the English court in *R v. Turnbull and others* in 1976 recommended that all officers apply several criteria during an informative interview with witnesses. The police adopted these recommendations, and according to them, the acronym ADVOKATE is created, composed of the initial letters of words that explain what the questions are about and which will help in the ongoing investigation. Finally, from the experience of experienced examiners, the British police believe that the conversation should end with respect for the principle of 3P – polite, positive and possible (Šebek 2016).

The REID model, designed by John E. Reid, is questioning suspects to verify their credibility and is widely used by criminal services in North America. The examination process in this model is conducted in three phases: fact analysis, behavioural conversation analysis, and examination. In the Reid model, interrogation is the process of making accusations in which the examiner tells the respondent that there is no doubt in his guilt in the form of a monologue and not in the form of a question-answer technique. The examiner's conduct during the examination should be with understanding, patience and without humiliation. Furthermore, the goal of the interviewer who uses this model is to make the suspect respond more relaxed over time during the interview. It can be achieved by providing various psychological constructions to the respondents that justify their behaviour.

CONCLUSION

As a qualitative method, interviews provide a better understanding of certain complex social and security phenomena, such as crises. Some disadvantages of an interview are incompetent respondents and false and biased responses. We have pointed out characteristics of unstructured, semi-structured and structured interviews. Mostly, the unstructured

interviews applied to the underlying subjects, but without preparation or with guidelines and a list of questions in semi-structured interviews.

Although an interview has several phases, we identified preparation and conducting as the most important. In the preparation phase, especially regarding various crises, including those caused by financial crime, it is necessary to gather facts as much as possible about the criminal act to determine the respondents, the time and place for conducting the interview, and legal issues. It is necessary if the respondent is asked during the interview for recognition to have committed criminal acts to avoid possible risks related to defamation lawsuits and violations of legal norms. During conducting interviews, for example, in the case of a criminal act, one interrogator should ask questions while the other takes notes. Of course, examiners can switch roles, but another examiner should observe the respondents' behaviour. When examiners work together for extended periods, they learn conversation patterns from each other.

Also, in conducting an interview, there are various questions such as introductory, informative, assessments and closing questions. Assessment questions are applied only when the examiner assesses that the previous statements or answers of the respondents are inconsistent due to deception and lying. We have pointed out the importance of assessment questions because by observing the verbal and non-verbal answers of the respondents, it is possible to assess their credibility with a certain degree of accuracy. In interviews with observation, we have indicated verbal and nonverbal signs of a spoken lie, which include a variety of body movements and postures accompanying a verbal response. Verbal signs of a told lie can be very numerous, and some of them can be emphasized like changes in the way of speaking (the person either speeds up or slows down the speech or speaks louder). Non-verbal signs of a told lie include a variety of body movements and attitudes accompanying the verbal response. Those are complete body movements – usually moving away from the examiner, or anatomical physical responses – the body's involuntary reactions to fear, such as increased heart rate, shallow or difficult breathing or excessive sweating. Also, non-verbal signs include removing small objects from suits (feathers, dandruff, minor dust, small pieces of fabric, etc.) or playing with objects (pencils, papers, etc.). Finally, many other body movements interrupting speech flow are associated with stress, such as tight mouth, biting lips and tongue, licking lips, chewing, etc.

We have pointed out the two leading interrogation models in police services – PEACE and REID models for preventing and detecting a wide range of crises, such as financial fraud, terrorist attacks, and others. The British police have adopted the PEACE model, which has been applied for over 50 years. For example, the acronym PEACE stands for five stages in the interviewing process: planning and preparing, engaging and explaining, clarifying and disputing, ending an interview and evaluating.

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ЕФЕКТИВНОСТИ ИНТЕРВЈУА У ПРЕВЕНЦИЈИ И ДЕТЕКЦИЈИ КРИЗА***

Резиме

Према схватањима неких методолога, интервју је квалитативна метода у којој истраживач води интервју лицем у лице са учесником или више њих, као и телефонске интервјуе. Може да учествује и у интервјуима фокус група са шест до осам испитаника у свакој групи. На основу других методолошких схватања, интервју је комбиновани метод који комбинује и неке елементе упитника као квантитативне методе. Без обзира на различита схватања, истичемо да се интервју најчешће примењује као метод истраживања и прикупљања података. У овом раду указали смо на различите фазе, класификације и карактеристике интервјуа као квалитативне методе. Иако су планирање и припрема битне фазе интервјуа, најважнија фаза је вођење интервјуа, због низа питања као што су уводна, информативна, питања процене и завршна питања. Наглашавамо важност питања за процену, јер је могуће посматрањем вербалних и невербалних одговора испитаника, проценити његов кредибилитет са одређеним степеном тачности. Процена одређује количину, учесталост, дифузију и вероватноћу одређене појаве или процеса. Питања за процену примењују се само када испитивач сматра да су претходне изјаве или одговори испитаника недоследни због обмане и лажи. У интервјуу са посматрањем, указали смо на

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вербалне и невербалне знакове изговорене лажи који укључују различите покрете и положаје тела који прате вербални одговор. Такође, истакли смо два водећа модела испитивања у полицијским службама за спречавање и откривање широког спектра криза, као што су финансијске преваре, терористички напади и др.

Кључне речи: интервју, квалитативна метода, процена, финансијске преваре, кризни менаџмент

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