

Demand for Scientific Methods of Detecting Crimes and Criminals, I.e. the Beginnings of Forensic Science in the Structures of the Polish State Police

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The more time passes, the more the truth disappears.
Edmond Locard

Abstract. The history of forensic science (from Latin *criminalis*, concerning a crime) is inextricably linked to the history of law enforcement agencies. This science grew out of the needs of the law and serves its implementation to this day. Its interest is focused on the crime *in concreto*. As an independent scientific discipline, it developed only at the end of the 19th century and was connected with the date of publication of the work *Handbuch für Untersuchungsrichter, Polizeibeamte, Gendarmen u.s.w.* by the Austrian investigating judge H. Gross in 1893. Its author noticed the correctness (very accurate) that every achievement in the field of natural sciences and technical sciences can serve the purpose of combating crime. W. Sobolewski is considered a precursor of Polish forensic science. In September 1919 he joined the State Police and started working as an inspection officer. Then he became the commander of the Main Police School and Officer School in Warsaw. In 1929 he was sent to Vienna for a forensic course. Then W. Sobolewski headed the Police Laboratory at the Headquarters of the Investigation Service in Warsaw, and since 1931 the Department of Investigation Technology, in which, at the request of the court, police authorities and military institutions, forensic expert opinions were carried out, including dactyloscopic, weapons and handwriting. They were of great evidential importance for the courts. It continues to be so today. Beginning in the interwar period, the Central Forensic Laboratory of the Police is a research institute recognized in Poland and abroad, which carries out tasks in the field of technical and criminal protection of the process of preventing and combating crime, among others, by performing research and implementation, comparative and expert work in the field of forensic science.

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Introduction

The history of forensic science (Latin *criminalis*, concerning a crime) is inextricably linked to the history of law enforcement agencies. Its interest is focused on the crime *in concreto*. Forensic science is said to be the ‘scientific backbone’ of this section of the practical activities of law enforcement agencies, the judiciary and experts in which they use their forensic knowledge¹. *In the study of crime techniques, forensic science combines different sciences* — claimed E. Locard. W. Wolter

¹ KołECKI H, Zakres i sposób uprawiania kryminalistyki w Polsce, [in:] KołECKI H (Ed.), *Kryminalistyka i nauki penalne wobec przestępczości*. Poznań, 2008, p. 406.

spoke in a similar way, in his opinion forensic science is a collection of sciences adapted to assist in the prosecution of crimes². The development of civilisation, and in particular the struggle for the humanitarian face of the criminal process, has given rise to the emergence of forensic science, which constantly teaches how to effectively and legally detect the perpetrator of a crime. As an independent scientific discipline, it developed only at the end of the 19th century and was connected with the date of publication of the work *Handbuch für Untersuchungsrichter, Polizeibeamte, Gendarmen u.s.w.* by the Austrian investigating judge H. Gross in 1893. (in translation: *Manual for investigating magistrates, police officers, gendarmes etc.*). In one of the subsequent editions, in 1899 the author added the words — ...als System der Kriminalistik (... as a system of forensic science), and in the following editions the title was given a form: *Handbuch der Kriminalistik*. The textbook has been translated into numerous foreign languages and has had a profound impact on the fate of forensic science. The importance of this so-called fundamental work lies in the fact that the different scientific disciplines, which have not yet been integrated and which can be used to combat crime, have been coherently integrated into a single system. Its author noticed the correctness (very accurate) that every achievement in the field of natural sciences and technical sciences can serve the purpose of combating crime³. In other words, he has seen the practical benefits of knowledge and has shown to what extent different technical and tactical methods can and should be used for the detection of crime and its perpetrators. Not without reason, H. Gross who is considered to be the creator of forensic science, is also recognized as a pioneer of criminology, such as C. Lombroso, R. Garofalo or E. Ferri. Forensic science practiced by H. Gross was treated by criminologists as a scientific approach to crime. It could be said that forensic science understood in this way constituted a variant of criminology, which in turn described and investigated a criminal and a crime. Forensic science focused on the traces the offender leaves behind, and did so for such a practical purpose as detecting the offender and proving his or her guilt⁴. This eminent forensic scientist believed that crime is not an abstract and theoretical entity detached from reality, but a real social phenomenon that can be studied and recognised. Such statements have become signposts indicating the directions of development of forensic research for the next few decades⁵.

² Wolter W, *Zarys systemu prawa karnego*. Vol. I. Krakow, 1933, p.11.

³ Sławik K, *Kryminalistyka w związkach z procesem karnym, kryminologią i wiktyologią*. Szczecin, 2003, pp. 12–13; Horoszowski P, *Kryminalistyka*. Warsaw, 1958, p. 19; Sobolewski W, *Laboratoria i Instytuty Kryminalistyczne. Z okazji dziesięciolecia laboratorium policyjnego w Warszawie. Przegląd Policyjny*, 1937, No. 5(11), p. 322 et seq.

⁴ J. Widacki, *Współczesny zakres nazwy „kryminalistyka”*. *Studia Prawnicze. Rozprawy i Materiały* 2013, No. 1(12), pp. 37–47; Grassberger R, *Hans Gross 187–1915*, [in:] *Manheim H (Ed.), Pioneers in Criminology*. London, 1960.

⁵ Szostak M, *Kryminalistyka w systemie nauk penalnych a problem prawdy sądowej*, [in:] *Jaworski J, Szostak M (Eds.), Nauka wobec prawdy sądowej. Księga pamiątkowa ku czci profesora Zdzisława Kegla*. Wrocław, 2005, p. 504.

Main Part

During 125 years of development of modern forensic science there has been a turbulent growth of many types of research and identification techniques, and at the same time a conviction has been established that without such methods and techniques it would not be possible to effectively conduct investigations and evidence proceedings in court⁶. This dynamically developing science was used by the courts of the Second Republic of Poland. Suffice it to mention that very often, especially in criminal matters, they referred to the opinions of experts in various fields of knowledge. The appointment of an expert was regulated by the Criminal Procedure Code. Thus, until the end of the 1920s, the codes from the time of the partitions were in force. It was not until 1928 that the code of criminal procedure was issued under the Decree of the President of the Republic of Poland, which entered into force on 1 July 1929⁷. W. Sobolewski, who cooperated with outstanding forensic scientists of those times, including the aforementioned E. Locard, is considered a pioneer of Polish forensic science. W. Sobolewski graduated from the Lwowski University with a degree in law. In September 1919 he joined the State Police and started working as an inspection officer. Then he became the commander of the Main Police School and Officer School in Warsaw. In 1929 he was sent to Vienna for a forensic course. He also studied criminology at the Institute of Police Sciences at the University of Lausanne. Two years later, lieutenant-colonel W. Sobolewski took the post of Head of the Police Laboratory at the Headquarters of the Investigation Service in Warsaw, what shall be mentioned afterwards. He used his forensic knowledge gained at foreign courses to manage the laboratory. Thanks to him, the institution was on a high level. The fields of forensic science, such as ballistics and mechanoscopy, were particularly close to him. As far as research on firearms is concerned, W. Sobolewski began to apply scientific research methods in this area. In his opinion, identification tests of firearms can only be carried out with the use of the most modern technical equipment, such as a microphotographic camera, binocular microscope or an arc lamp. Previously, such research was conducted by unprepared persons for the needs of law enforcement agencies and the judiciary. Usually they were gunsmiths whose knowledge was not sufficient and the research conducted was at a low level. He believed that the identification of missiles and shells and of firearms plays a very important role in the detection process. They should therefore be carried out on the basis of scientific expertise. He meant institutions of a scientific type, such as university forensic medical institutions or special police laboratories of a scientific and forensic nature. During World War I, the number of rifles and pistols in Poland increased. As a result, in the first years of independence, the police had to fight the scourge of crimes committed with firearms. The second research area of Sobolewski's research was

⁶ Girdwoyń P, Tomaszewski T, Czy potrzebne nowe podejście do badań kryminalistycznych (w Stanach Zjednoczonych i nie tylko)?, [in:] JMoszczyński J, Sołodov D, Sołtyszewski I (Eds.), *Przestępczość. Dowody. Prawo* — Księga pamiątkowa ofiarowana prof. Bronisławowi Młodziejowskiemu. Olsztyn, 2016, pp. 113–124.

⁷ Buras D, Biegły i jego opinia w sprawach karnych przed sądem w Drugiej Rzeczypospolitej. *Problemy Kryminalistyki*, 2012, No. 277(3); Ryszka F (Ed.), *Historia Państwa i Prawa Polski 1918–1939. Part 2*. Warsaw, 1968, p. 109.

mechanoscopy, in particular identification of traces left by tools specially designed for cash break-ins. He described his observations in the German magazine "Archiv für Kriminologie". W. Sobolewski's knowledge was comprehensive. He also completed a four-month course in the methodology of handwriting and typewriting expertise and learned about the achievements of forensic science in detecting counterfeit banknotes and securities. Counterfeiting of money was one of the most common and harmful crimes in pre-war Poland⁸. This acclaimed forensic scientist also had significant achievements in didactic work, because in parallel with his official duties, he promoted forensic science among police officers and students of law. He presented forensic science issues to police officers at courses for investigators. He also taught at universities; at the University of Poznań he lectured in forensic science, and in 1936 he was entrusted with a forensic seminar at the University of Warsaw. Sobolewski's professional and scientific career was interrupted by a sudden death. He died on October 4, 1937, having lived for only 48 years. He was buried in Lwów at the Lychakiv Cemetery⁹. Professor J. Bossowski put him on an equal footing with such forensic authorities as H. Gross and E. Locard.

The establishment of the State Police was one of the priorities after Poland regained its independence in 1918. It was established by the Act of 24 July 1919. Representatives of the English police supported the formation of the Polish police. On the initiative of the contemporary Prime Minister I. Paderewski in the autumn of 1919 a special aid mission came to Poland, headed by General Sir Cecil Frederick Nevil Macready from London's Scotland Yard. It was he who recommended to S. Wojciechowski, the contemporary Minister of Internal Affairs, to create a system of specialist education covering all types of services, but first of all in the investigative division. This was dictated by a significant increase in crime and the criminal process also demanded scientific methods for detecting crimes and criminals. In 1923, Polish police representatives participated in the founding congress of the International Criminal Police Commission, which took place in Vienna. The Polish police then joined Interpol¹⁰.

In a magazine *Gazeta Policja Państwowa* G. Groger wrote that: *Criminology (scientific police), or the science of tracking crimes, is a science about traces of crimes, about the use of knowledge and scientific methods to find them, collect and preserve these traces, to draw conclusions about the participation of a given person in a given crime, (...). Finally, it is a science about the ways in which professional criminals commit crimes, and therefore the need to develop modern and effective methods of detecting crimes and identifying their perpetrators was also reported by Polish law enforcement agencies. The issue of the organisation of the criminal service has been dealt*

⁸ There were several international gangs in Warsaw, which resulted in the police cooperating with the services of other countries. Large "banknote factories" produced millions of zlotys, and in 1933 Warsaw's newspaper "Nowiny Codzienne" reported an attempt to pay salaries to MPs of the Sejm with counterfeit coins. Bryła W, Zarys historii nauk kryminalistycznych na ziemiach polskich, Acta Uroboroi — W kręgu alchemii. *Electronic source*: <https://depot.ceon.pl/handle/123456789/13486>, accessed: 15.09.2018; Buras D, Kryminalistyczna działalność inspektora PP dr. Władysława Sobolewskiego w Polsce w okresie międzywojennym. *Problemy Kryminalistyki*, 2009, No. 264, pp. 70–73.

⁹ Buras D, Kryminalistyczna ..., *op. cit.*

¹⁰ Bryła W, *op. cit.*

with well. However, a problem, which was struggled with in the interwar period, was a selection and preparation of specialists in various fields of forensic science. Forensic science, as already mentioned, was a relatively young scientific discipline. The authority in forensic medicine at that time was L. Wachholz, who headed the Chair and Department of Forensic Medicine at the Jagiellonian University. He was also a member of the Polish Academy of Arts and Sciences and vice-chairman of the International Academy of Forensic Medicine. Moreover, he was the author of modern (for the time being) textbooks on forensic medicine. L. Wachholz served police forensic scientists with his experience when, in July 1919, in the structures of Division IV of the National Police Headquarters, a Physical-Chemical Laboratory was established, which was the equivalent of today's Central Forensic Police Laboratory. There were following cells in the Physical and Chemical Laboratory: dactyloscopy, photography, chemical and physical research, the department of breeding and training of police dogs, as well as a forensic museum and a specialized library. Support for investigators from the field units was provided by forensic collections of fingerprints, firearms, burglar tools, forgeries, photographs from crime scenes, photographs of criminals and their negatives¹¹. The order of the Police Commander in Chief of the State Police No. 12 of October 4, 1919 contained an order of sending fingerprints and all objects and tools secured at crime scenes to the State Police Headquarters in order to inspect them to reveal any fingerprints. In the order No. 118 of 10 May, 1921 in the structure of State Police Headquarters in the Department IV of Registration and Pursuit, in section IV-a are listed the following cells: Penal register, Dactyloscopy, Photography, and in section IV-b a cell named Laboratory. In the order No. 162 of 27 April, 1922 in the structure of State Police Headquarters in the Department IV of Registration and Pursuit, in the section IV-b the following cells are mentioned: Registration and criminal classification, Expertise, Dactyloscopy and photography. In accordance with the order No. 389 of the State Police Headquarters of 21 January 1928, the scope of activity of the police laboratory at Division IV of the State Police Headquarters included:

- identification of any traces of theft (fingerprints, marks of legs, teeth, burglary tools, etc.);
- identification of firearms from bullets and shells found at the crime scene;
- identification of cutting tools (hatchets, axes, etc.);
- determination of ways and means of forging documents;
- expertise of typewriting;
- handwriting expertise excluding expertise in minor anonymous cases.

Expertises in the course of police investigations or, if necessary, at the request of judicial and prosecutorial authorities and other state institutions were carried out by the Laboratory of the Investigation Service Centre¹². However, no examinations of traces of blood, hair, faeces or dactyloscopic expertises were performed in this facility. This research was carried out by the Department of Reconnaissance of the Investigation Service Centre located in the Police School. It is worth mentioning that the Police Laboratory had its own lecture hall and forensic exercise rooms. Intensive training was conducted for students of the Police Officers' School and

¹¹ Paciorkowski J, *Nauka kontra zbrodnia. Policja 997* 2015, No. 1(118), pp. 12–13.

¹² Bryła W, *op. cit.*

courses for investigators. In addition to police officers, trainee judges and investigating magistrates were trained and special lectures on forensic technology for postal security instructors were held there¹³. It is worth noting that the initiative to create a Police Laboratory came from lieutenant-colonel J. Piątkiewicz. He was assigned to Division II (organizational and administrative) of the State Police Headquarters. In the registered office of the former Main Police School (Ciepła 13 Street in Warsaw) he received one room for the needs of the laboratory. Despite the difficulties and technical deficiencies, the organization of the laboratory continued to progress. On October 20, 1926, the first investigative course of senior officers was opened at the Laboratory, which lasted until January 28, 1927. Note that the name of a police officer was not formally in force at the time. By September 1927, 22 expertises had been carried out in the Laboratory. The activity of the Laboratory was evaluated positively and in October 1927 it was transferred to the Headquarters of the Investigation Service. There, the institution received several rooms, expanded its equipment, and also sought to strengthen its personnel. In 1932 the Laboratory gained a new room on the first floor of the building at 13 Ciepła Street. It was adapted especially for laboratory purposes, i.e. it housed an excellent forensic workshop. The laboratory, without any exaggeration — according to Sobolewski — could be considered one of the best equipped facilities of its kind in Europe. In November 1931, lieutenant-colonel J. Piątkiewicz was promoted and the management of the Laboratory was entrusted to W. Sobolewski. It is worth mentioning that the dynamic development of this institution resulted, among other things, from the fact that the contemporary Commander in Chief of the State Police, general K. Zamorski, was very well disposed towards it. It recognised the value of this activity for the purposes of fighting crime and training the investigative staff of the State Police¹⁴.

The scope of activity of the Laboratory was defined in order No. 389 of the Commander in Chief of the State Police of 31 January 1928. These regulations were later supplemented in the order No. 646 of 28 February 1935 and the order No. 689 of 20 January 1936. According to these regulations, the Police Laboratory was a part of Division IV of the State Police Headquarters under the name of Investigation Technology Department. His activity included: *the issues related to study of technology and tactics used by criminals, alarm measures for public safety and the technical equipment of police units*. Apart from researching and grouping modern achievements in police technology, it was intended to expand and deepen the technical knowledge of the Laboratory's employees. The facility had a lecture hall and forensic training rooms. Lectures, demonstrations and exercises for students of the Police Officers School and courses for investigators were held there, as well as, what is worth emphasizing, lectures on forensic science at the Forensic Seminar of the J.P. University in Warsaw. Classes were conducted by the head of the Laboratory. In turn, lectures in forensic science on the course for investigating judges, which were initiated by the minister of justice, were conducted by the head of the Investigation Service Centre, lieutenant-colonel J. Jakubiec and the head of the Laboratory, colonel dr. W. Sobolewski and other officers of the Investigation Service Centre¹⁵.

¹³ Paciorewski J, *op. cit.*, p.13.

¹⁴ Sobolewski W, *op. cit.*, pp. 332–335.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 335.

In order to increase the detectability of crimes committed, in 1926 the IV Division of the State Police Headquarters established a special single-finger registration, the so-called monodactyloscopy. Its main goal was to discover the identity of a person after the fingerprints he or she left on the scene. Until now, dactyloscopic registrations had been organized according to the ten-finger scale, which made the verification process much more difficult. The State Police Headquarters also decided that the Investigation Service Centre would be the only facility that could maintain a monodactyloscopic registration, which resulted in a significant impact of fingerprints from all over the country. At the very beginning, it was not very successful. The Central Dactyloscopic Registry, operating within the structure of the Investigation Service Centre, had a collection of 635,000 dactyloscopic cards in 1937¹⁶. At the end of the 1920s, smaller district police headquarters and police stations were supplied with appropriate tools for revealing and protecting fingerprints at crime scenes. Microscopes, cameras, dactyloscopic films, optical glasses, dr. Poller's masses and various chemicals were brought to the laboratory from abroad. Poller's masses and various chemicals were brought to the laboratory from abroad.

In the 1930s, when more experience was gained in a new form of dactyloscopic work, this activity began to bear fruit. The dactyloscopic expertise was also an important evidence in the proceedings, and the courts in interwar Poland considered it as evidence in the case without any major reservations. The judgment of the Cieszyn District Court in 1924 was one of the first in which the court, relying mainly on dactyloscopic expertise, sentenced the defendant to imprisonment¹⁷. It is acceptable to mention that there have also been some acquittals, contrary to unquestionable categorical dactyloscopic opinions.¹⁸

In March 1935, the State Police Headquarters was reorganized and the Forensic Laboratory was incorporated into the V Division. At the same time, it extended the scope of the expertise to include typewriting examination. After these changes, the police units were to send research materials to the following address: *Komenda Główna Policji Państwowej Wydział V — Laboratorium Policyjne w Warszawie ul. Ciepła 13*. The location of a forensic laboratory within the structures of Division V of the State Police Headquarters did not take long, because in January 1936 another reorganization took place. Pursuant to orders No. 646 and 689 of the Commander in Chief of the State Police, the forensic laboratory was once again incorporated into Division IV of the Investigation Service Centre under the name of the Department of Investigation Technology 17.

On October 4, 1937, the Department of Investigation Technology suffered a severe loss. Colonel dr. W. Sobolewski, who had been in charge of the facility since 1931, died. After his death, captain W. Jastrzębski took over the duties of the head of the office. He had a secondary education, professional police education and 3-year chemical studies, and a special forensic training under the professional

¹⁶ *Electronic source:* <http://clkp.policja.pl/clk/clkp/historia/historia/66039,Historia-laboratorium.html>, accessed: 18.09. 2018.

¹⁷ Halicki K, Sprzęt specjalistyczny w służbie Policji Państwowej w Drugiej Rzeczypospolitej. *Problemy Kryminalistyki* 2009, No. 263, pp. 72–78.

¹⁸ *More on the topic:* Taracha A, Z historii opinii daktyloskopijnej jako dowodu sądowego, [in:]. Rybicki P, Tomaszewski T (Eds.), *Daktyloskopia 100 lat na ziemiach polskich*. Warsaw, 2009, pp. 332–333.

guidance of J. Piątkiewicz and W. Sobolewski. In 1938 the Department of Investigation Technology, in addition to changing its name, extended the scope of expertise. Since then it has performed:

- typewriting expertises for the purpose of establishing a copy of the machine,
- handwriting expertises in more serious matters,
- expertises on document forgery (determination of methods and means of forgery),
- examination of postage stamps and stamp stamps for their reuse (chemical removal of punch stamps or date stamps),
- restitution of texts of unclear and mechanically removed writings,
- reading texts on torn papers,
- chemical expertises of inks (examination age and chemical composition),
- identification of shells and projectiles with the respective weapons (revolvers, pistols),
- reconstruction of sawn and punctured numbers on weapons,
- identification of burglary and cutting tools¹⁸.

In 1938, the Department of Investigation Technology carried out 408 expertises, including: 133 from the scope of handwriting identification, 191 from firearm identification, 62 from burglary tools identification and 22 from ink identification, typewriting identification, false documents and postage stamps. The expertises were carried out at the request of the court, police authorities and military institutions. In addition, the Department employees took photographs for the aforementioned expertises, and also took photographs for the needs of the Reconnaissance Department in the field of dactyloscopy. In 1938 in the photographic studio 1243 photographic works were made, including 781 photographs for dactyloscopic expertises, 94 photographs for weapons expertises, 60 photographs for handwriting expertises and 308 photographs for other expertises¹⁹.

Conclusions

The expertises carried out in the forensic laboratory were of great evidential importance for the courts. It continues to be so today. Beginning in the interwar period, the Central Forensic Laboratory of the Police is a research institute recognized in Poland and abroad. It performs tasks of the Police Headquarters in the field of technical and forensic security of the process of preventing and combating crime, among others, by performing research and implementation, comparative and expert works in the field of forensic science. It coordinates and supervises the performance of tasks by police units in the field of technical and criminal service of places of incidents. It develops methods, norms and standards of work of forensic technique in the Police and grants and verifies the authority to independently develop expert opinions and issue opinions to candidates for forensic experts. CLKP has implemented a management system compliant with PN-EN ISO 9001:2009 and PN-EN ISO/IEC 17025:2005 standards. It acts in an international

¹⁹ Buras D, *Laboratorium Kryminalistyczne Komendy Głównej Policji Państwowej w latach 1920–1939. Problemy Kryminalistyki*, 2010, No. 267, pp. 70–73.

forum by participating, through the European Network of Forensic Science Institutes (ENFSI), in the development of investigative methodologies and procedures on crime scenes²⁰. The functioning of this specialised institution is supervised by the Minister of Internal Affairs and Administration through the Commander in Chief of the Police. The history of the Central Forensic Laboratory of the Police is inextricably linked with the emergence of forensic science. The development of this legal science at the beginning of the 20th century significantly improved the detection process and contributed to the establishment of laboratories and forensic institutes.

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²⁰ Ustawa z dnia 30 kwietnia 2010 r. o instytutach badawczych (Dz.U. 2016, art. 371, 1079, 1311 i 2260 and of 2017, art. 202); Ustawa z dnia 6 kwietnia 1990 r. o Policji (Dz.U. of 2016, art. 1782 with later amendments); Rozporządzenie Ministra Spraw Wewnętrznych i Administracji z dnia 30 września 2010 w sprawie utworzenia jednostki badawczo-rozwojowej Centralne Laboratorium Kryminalistyczne Policji (Dz.U. of 2010, No. 181, art. 1227).

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Streszczenie. Historia kryminalistyki (z łac. *criminalis*, dotyczący przestępstwa) jest nierozdzielnie związana z dziejami organów ścigania. Nauka ta wyrosła z potrzeb prawa i służy jego realizacji po dziś dzień. Jej zainteresowanie koncentruje się na przestępstwie *in concreto*. Jako samodzielna dyscyplina naukowa, wykształciła się ona dopiero pod koniec XIX wieku i było to związane z datą wydania przez austriackiego sędziego śledczego H. Grossa w 1893 roku dzieła pt. *Handbuch für Untersuchungsrichter, Polizeibeamte, Gendarmen u.s.w.* Jego twórca dostrzegł prawidłowość (bardzo trafną), że każde osiągnięcie z dziedziny nauk przyrodniczych i technicznych może służyć zwalczaniu przestępczości. Za prekursora polskiej kryminalistyki uznaje się W. Sobolewskiego. We wrześniu 1919 roku wstąpił on w szeregi Policji Państwowej i rozpoczął pracę jako oficer inspekcyjny. Potem objął stanowisko komendanta Głównej Szkoły Policyjnej i Szkoły Oficerskiej w Warszawie. W 1929 roku skierowano go na kurs kryminalistyczny do Wiednia. Następnie W. Sobolewski kierował Laboratorium Policyjnym w Centrali Służby Śledczej w Warszawie, a od 1931 roku Referatem Techniki Śledczej, w którym na polecenie sądu, organów policyjnych oraz instytucji wojskowych wykonywano ekspertyzy kryminalistyczne, m.in. daktyloskopijne, broni, pisma ręcznego. Miały one duże znaczenie dowodowe dla sądów. Tak jest do dzisiaj. Biorące swój początek w 20-leciu międzywojennym Centralne Laboratorium Kryminalistyczne Policji, jest uznanym w kraju i zagranicą, instytutem badawczym, który realizuje zadania w zakresie techniczno-kryminalistycznego zabezpieczenia procesu zapobiegania i zwalczania przestępczości między innymi przez wykonywanie prac badawczo-wdrożeniowych, porównawczych i eksperckich w dziedzinie kryminalistyki.

Резюме. История криминалистики — (от латинского: *criminalis*, относящийся к преступлению) неразрывно связана с историей правоохранительных органов. Эта наука возникла в ответ на потребности правосудия и служит реализации закона по сей день. Она сосредоточена на преступлении *in concreto*. Криминалистика, как самостоятельная научная дисциплина появилась только в конце 19 века и была связана с датой издания в 1893 г. книги «*Handbuch für Untersuchungsrichter, Polizeibeamte, Gendarmen u.s.w.*» австрийского следственного судьи Х. Гросса. Автор книги правильно заметил, что каждое достижение в области естественных и технических наук можно использовать в борьбе с преступностью. Предшественником польской криминалистики считают В. Соболевского. В сентябре 1919 года он поступил на службу в Национальную полицию и начал работать в качестве офицера по инспекции. Затем он стал начальником Главного полицейского училища и Школы для полицейских офицеров в Варшаве. В 1929 году он был отправлен в Вену на курсы по криминалистике. Соболевский возглавлял Полицейскую лабораторию в Главном следственном управлении в Варшаве, а с 1931 года, являлся начальником Отдела технологии расследования, в котором по распоряжению суда, органов полиции и военных учреждений проводились судебно-медицинские экспертизы, включая дактилоскопические исследования, исследования оружия и почерка. Проводимые исследования имели важное доказательственное значение для судов. Так есть и сегодня. Начиная с 20. годов межвоенного периода, Центральная криминалистическая лаборатория полиции является признанным в Польше и за рубежом научно-исследовательским институтом, который выполняет задачи в области технического и судебного обеспечения процесса предупреждения преступности и борьбы с ней, в том числе путем проведения исследований и осуществления сравнительной и экспертной работы в области криминалистики.

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