

# PROFILER



By

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## Preface

To be a profiler is to be a sad person. Most of the time...

A profiler gets very few surprises.

Why would you become one?!

Yet, if you have decided to be one, I'll do my best to guide you.

By now you have finished your bachelor studies and you got your M.Sc. in Legal Psychology or some other equivalent studies. And you think you are a profiler...Ha, Ha, Ha! Now that you have learn to crawl let me teach you to walk and run.

At the very beginning you must understand that being a profiler request you to master statistics, Statistics and STATISTICS.

## First Chapter

I'll start with a brief recall:

Offender profiling, also known as criminal profiling is a behavioral and investigative tool intended to help investigators to accurately profile and predict the characteristics of unknown offenders. Geographic profiling is another method to profile an offender.

Holmes and Holmes (2002) outline the three main goals of criminal profiling:

1. To provide law enforcement with a social and psychological assessment of the offender;
2. To provide law enforcement with a "psychological evaluation of belongings found in the possession of the offender" (p. 10);
3. To give suggestions and strategies for the interviewing process.

According to Ainsworth (2001) there are four main approaches to offender profiling:

- (1) The **geographical** approach in which the patterns are analyzed in regard to timing and location of the crime scene in order to determine where the offender lives and works;
- (2) The **investigative psychology** approach focuses on the use of psychological theories of analysis to determine the characteristics of the offender by looking at the presented offending behavior and style of offense;
- (3) The **typological** approach looks at the specific characteristics of the crime scene to then categorize the offender according to the various 'typical' characteristics;
- (4) The **clinical** approach in which the understanding of psychiatry and clinical psychology is used to determine whether the offender is suffering from mental illness of various psychological abnormalities.

When generating a profile one should use those 5 steps:

1. A thorough analysis of the nature of the criminal act is made and it is then compared to the types of people who have committed similar crimes in the past – (As mentioned before, **Statistics**);
2. An in depth analysis of the actual crime scene is made;
3. The victim's background and activities are analyzed to look for possible motives and connections;
4. The possible factors for the motivation of the crime are analyzed;
5. The description of the possible offender is developed, founded on the detected characteristics, which can be compared to with previous cases – again **Statistics...**

Several aspects of the criminal's personality are determined from offender's choices before, during and after the crime. This information is combined with other relevant details and physical evidence and then compared with the characteristics of known personality types and mental abnormalities in order to develop a practical working description of the offender. Offender profiling is as a method of identification which seeks to identify a person's mental, emotional and personality characteristics as manifested in things done or left at the crime scene, based on past experience.

One type of criminal profiling is referred to as linkage analysis. Gerard N. Labuschagne (2006) defines linkage analysis as "a form of behavioral analysis that is used to determine the possibility of a series of crimes as having been committed by one offender." Gathering many aspects of the offender's crime pattern such as Modus Operandi, ritual or fantasy-based behaviors exhibited and the signature of the offender, help to establish a basis for a linkage analysis. An offender's modus operandi is his/her habits or tendencies during performing the crime. An offender's signature is the unique similarities in each of his/her crime and it may not be directly connected to the crime. Linkage analysis is used especially when physical evidence, such as DNA, cannot be collected. In gathering and incorporating these aspects of the offender's crime pattern, investigators must engage in five assessment procedures: (1) obtaining data from multiple sources; (2) reviewing the data and identifying significant features of each crime across the series; (3) classifying the significant features as either MO and/or ritualistic; (4) comparing the combination of MO and ritual/fantasy-based features across the series to determine if a signature exists; (5) compiling a written report highlighting the findings.

According to Brent E. Turvey, linking analysis refers to the process of determining whether or not there are discrete connections between two or more previously unrelated cases through crime scene analysis. It involves establishing and comparing the physical evidence, Victimology, crime scene characteristics, Modus Operandi, organized or disorganized typologies and signature behaviors between each of the cases under review. It has two purposes:

1. To assist law enforcement with the application of its finite resources by helping to establish where to apply investigative efforts
2. To assist the court in determining whether or not there is sufficient behavioral evidence to suggest a common scheme or plan in order to address forensic issues, such as whether similar crimes may be tried together or whether other crimes may be brought in as evidence.

With respect to behavioral evidence, case linkage efforts have most typically hinged on three concepts:

1. MO, modus operandi
2. Signature
3. Victimology

According to Gregg O. McCrary behavior reflects personality. In a homicide case profilers try to collect the personality of the offender through questions about his or her behavior at four phases:

1. **Antecedent:** What fantasy or plan, or both, did the offender have in place before the act? What triggered the offender to act some days and not others?
2. **Method and manner:** What type of victim or victims did the offender select? What was the method and manner of murder: shooting, stabbing, strangulation, poison or something else?
3. **Body disposal:** Did the murder and body disposal take place all at one scene or multiple scenes?
4. **Post-offense behavior:** Is the offender trying to inject himself into the investigation by reacting to media reports or contacting investigators?

A sexual crime is analyzed in much the same way because murder is sometimes a sexual crime. With a little advantage - in addition to the four points, we'll get information from the living victim.

## **How Does Criminal Profiling Work?**

Criminal profiling works on the principle that each and every criminal, regardless of the level or severity of their crime, will work to a certain set of values. These values are as individual as one's own handwritten signature and once identified can be used to help law enforcement make a positive identification. Profiling also takes in victimology.

### **What is victimology?**

Victimology is the study of the victims in a number of crimes perpetrated by the same criminal. The idea of victimology is to identify similarities between each of the victims of a particular crime so that the profiler may be able to identify a definite pattern in the criminal's approach to his/her crimes. Victimology looks at age, lifestyle, similarities in hair color and eye color, whether the victims have met or worked together in the past or if they share a common interest. All of this information can be used to help the profiler build up an accurate picture of the offender.

### **The Homicidal Triad**

Profilers are also interested in what is referred to as the Homicidal Triad; three defining factors that may have bearing on an offender's adulthood from events that have taken place in their childhood. This triad normally takes the form of: Bed Wetting, Animal Cruelty and An Interest in Starting Fires. This triad of events which does often occur in a criminal's childhood - especially if their crime is murder - is indicative of their desire to be in control and to experience an emotional or sexual release as the result of inflicting pain on others. Their desire to test this on animals before moving on to human beings is also well documented. Most arsonists have this triad of events in their childhood as well as an absent or abusive father, trouble with the opposite sex and chronic low self – esteem.

### **Predicting a Criminal's Next Move**

Profiling is also used as a means of attempting to - and in most cases succeeding - predict the next move of a criminal who may be on what is commonly referred to as a 'spree'. Offenders who are engaged in crime sprees often devolve from a lucid state of mind into a pathological state of frenzied criminality which can often result in assault or even murder. A profiler will try - where possible with the evidence already in hand - to predict what the offender may attempt to do next and may also try to communicate with them via the media. Profilers often spend a lot of their time working in conjunction with companies and large organizations offering psychological evaluations of their staff and this is most apparent among the variety of law enforcement agencies that are required to undergo evaluations on a regular basis. The most important element of any case against a suspected criminal is the forensic evidence. In the past much was made of eye witness accounts of a crime but now – as technology evolves – the eye witness is the evidence left at the scene of a crime by the perpetrator before he/she flees; here we look at how that evidence is used to build a case against the criminal that will pass jury muster.

### **Fingerprint Evidence**

Fingerprints are unique to each and every one of us; they cannot be forged or copied and they cannot be altered to appear as someone else's. Many criminals tend to wear gloves to disguise their fingerprints in an attempt to throw the law enforcement agencies off the scent as it were but a great number of crimes that are committed are 'opportunistic' meaning that they have been committed on a spur of the moment and that fingerprints are often found. Fingerprint evidence is not only important as a means of identifying a suspect but also as a means of proving the suspect's presence at the scene of a crime especially if the scene of the crime is somewhere he or she may not have had any reason to be.

## **Hair and Fibers**

Again hairs are something that is unique to each of us and the presence of our hair at the scene of a crime can be a great source of evidence. Our hair also contains strands of our DNA, the unique genetic code that identifies each of us individually and this DNA – just like fingerprints – is something that cannot be duplicated or forged so the presence of such can only seek to prove that the individual in question was present. Fibers also are useful as a means of identification especially if the offender has been wearing a particular kind of shirt, jumper, coat and so on which may have woven fibers or fabric that are unique to a particular brand or style.

## **Computer Evidence**

Many crimes are now committed using computers, the Internet and computer technology – much of which creates its own set of logs and transcripts that are hidden away for only the most expert to find. Those who commit computer crime such as online banking fraud often find it difficult to dispose of their cyber trail even though for the most part they think that they have. Specialist computer experts – forensic computer technicians – can reconstitute wiped hard drives and reassemble erased files in order to build up a detailed picture of the suspect's online activities. This is also useful if the suspect is considered to be involved in the production or distribution of child pornography.

## **DNA Evidence**

DNA is a specific kind of evidence that cannot be altered, manipulated or forged in any way. Within each of us we have specific DNA that when collected from a crime scene and that tested against a sample taken from the individual later nearly always matches. This genetic fingerprint is now widely recognized as one of the most accurate ways in which to identify a suspect after he or she has fled the scene of a crime.

## New Chapter

As you know by now you can and probably use your knowledge in your daily life as well. You know that out there are a bunch of different types. As I personally support the traits theory I'll start with them.

Let's see.

**(Factor A): Warmth** - The tendency to move toward others seeking closeness and connection because of genuine feelings of caring, sympathy, and concern (versus the tendency to be reserved and detached and thus be independent and unemotional).

**(Factor F): Liveliness** - The tendency to be high-energy, fun-loving, and carefree, and to spontaneously move towards others in an animated, stimulating manner. (Versus the tendency to be more serious and self-restrained and to be cautious, unrushed and judicious).

**(Factor H): Social Boldness** -The tendency to seek social interaction in a confident, fearless manner, enjoying challenges, risks, and being the center of attention. (Versus the tendency to be shy and timid and to be more modest and risk-avoidant).

**(Factor N): Forthrightness** - The tendency to want to be known by others, to be open, forthright, and genuine in social situations and thus to be self-revealing and unguarded. (Versus the tendency to be more private and oneself-revealing and to be harder to get to know).

**(Factor Q2): Affinitive** - The tendency to seek companionship and enjoy belonging to and functioning in a group. (Versus the tendency to be more individualistic and self-reliant and to value their autonomy).

In a similar manner researchers found that four other primary traits consistently merged to define another global factor which they called **Receptivity or Openness (versus Tough-Mindedness)**. This factor was made up of four primary traits that describe different kinds of openness to the world:

**(Factor I): Sensitivity** - Openness to sensitive feelings, emotions, intuition, and aesthetic dimensions.

**(Factor M): Abstractedness** - Openness to abstract, theoretical ideas, conceptual thinking, and imagination.

**(Factor Q1): Openness-to-Change** - Openness to free thinking, inquiry, exploration of new approaches, and innovative solutions.

**(Factor A): Warmth** - Openness to people and their feelings.

Another global factor, **Self-Controlled (or conscientious) versus Unrestrained**, resulted from the natural coming together of four primary factors that define the different ways that human beings manage to control their behavior:

**(Factor G): Rule-Consciousness** - involves adopting and conscientiously following society's accepted standards of behavior

**(Factor Q3): Perfectionism** - describes a tendency to be self-disciplined, organized, thorough, attentive to detail, and goal-oriented

**(Factor F): Seriousness** - involves a tendency to be cautious, reflective, self-restrained, and deliberate in making decisions; and

**(Factor M): Groundedness** - involves a tendency to stay focused on concrete, pragmatic, realistic solutions.

As I already mention I'm a big fan of the Traits Theory and today the global traits of personality are commonly known as the Big Five. The Big Five traits are most important for getting an abstract, theoretical understanding of the big, overarching domains of personality, and in understanding how different traits of personality relate to each other and how different research findings relate to each other of actual daily behavior (Ashton, 1998; Goldberg, 1999; Mershon & Gorsuch, 1988; Paunonen & Ashton, 2001).

The Big Five factors are: openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism:

(1) **Openness** to experience: (inventive/curious vs. consistent/cautious). Appreciation for art, emotion, adventure, unusual ideas, curiosity, and variety of experience. **Openness** reflects the degree of intellectual curiosity, creativity and a preference for novelty and variety a person has. It is also described as the extent to which a person is imaginative or independent, and depicts a personal preference for a variety of activities over a strict routine. Some disagreement remains about how to interpret the openness factor, which is sometimes called "intellect" rather than openness to experience.

(2) **Conscientiousness**: (efficient/organized vs. easy-going/careless). A tendency to be organized and dependable, show self-discipline, act dutifully, aim for achievement and prefer planned rather than spontaneous behavior.

(3) **Extraversion**: (outgoing/energetic vs. solitary/reserved). Energy, positive emotions, assertiveness, sociability and the tendency to seek stimulation in the company of others and talkativeness.

(4) **Agreeableness**: (friendly/compassionate vs. analytical/detached). A tendency to be compassionate and cooperative rather than suspicious and antagonistic towards others. It is also a measure of one's trusting and helpful nature and whether a person is generally well tempered or not.

(5) **Neuroticism**: (sensitive/nervous vs. secure/confident). The tendency to experience unpleasant emotions easily, such as anger, anxiety, depression, and vulnerability. Neuroticism also refers to the degree of emotional stability and impulse control and is sometimes referred to by its low pole, "emotional stability".

Trait models have been criticized as being purely descriptive and offering little explanation of the underlying causes of personality. Eysenck's theory proposes biological mechanisms as driving traits and modern behavior genetics researchers have shown a clear genetic substrate to them. Another potential weakness of trait theories is that they may lead some people to accept oversimplified classifications or worse, offer advice based on a superficial analysis of personality. Finally, trait models often underestimate the effect of specific situations on people's behavior. Traits are considered to be statistical generalizations that do not always correspond to an individual's behavior.

The importance that genetic influences have on personality characteristics can change across a five-year period. Age differences create more variables even within a family, so the best comparisons are found using twins. Twins typically share a family environment called a shared environment because they may share other aspects like teachers, school, and friends. A non-shared environment means completely different environment for both subjects. "Biologically related children who are separated after birth and raised in different families live in non-shared environments." Identical twins separated at birth and raised in different families constitute the best cases for heredity and personality because similarities between the two are due only to genetic influences. Vulnerability was a factor in this study that was taken into consideration regarding the issue of genetic influences on vulnerability. The study concluded that the monozygotic co-twins would be more similar than dizygotic co-twins in change over time. The data concluded that there were no significant differences for either variance between the monozygotic and dizygotic co-twins. Another current open question is whether genetic influences are important for the likeliness of co-twins to change in the same way over a period of time. A link was found between the personality trait of neuroticism and a polymorphism called 5-HTTLPR in the serotonin transporter gene, but this association was not replicated in larger studies. Other candidate gene studies have provided weak evidence that some personality traits are related to AVPR1A ("ruthlessness gene") and MAOA ("Warrior gene"). Genotypes or the genetic makeup of an organism, influence but don't fully decide the physical traits of a person. Those are also influenced by the environment and behaviors they are surrounded by. For example, a person's height is affected by genetics, but if they are malnourished growth will be stunted no matter what their genetic coding says. Environment is also not completely responsible for an outcome in personality. An example from Psychobiology of Personality by Marvin Zuckerman is alcoholism: Studies suggest that alcoholism is an inherited disease, but if a subject with a strong biological background of alcoholism in their family tree is never exposed to alcohol, they will not be so inclined regardless of their genome. It is also a question open to debate whether there are genetic influences on the tendency of the co-twins to change, without keeping in mind the direction of the change. Another factor that can be addressed is biological versus adoptive relatives and can be clearly seen in what is a real-life experiment: adoption. This creates two groups: genetic relatives (biological parents and siblings) and environmental relatives (adoptive parents and siblings). After studying hundreds of adoptive families, researchers discovered that people who grow up together, whether biologically related or not, do not much resemble one another in personality. In characteristics such as extroversion and agreeableness, adoptees are more like their biological parents than their adoptive parents. However, the minute shared-environment effects do not mean that adoptive parenting is ineffective. Even though genetics may limit the family environment's influence on personality, parents do influence their children's attitudes, values, faith, manners, and politics. In adoptive homes, child neglect and abuse and even divorce between the parents is uncommon. This noted it is not surprising, despite a somewhat greater risk of psychological disorder, that most adopted children excel, especially when they are adopted as infants. In fact, seven out of eight have reported feeling a strong connection with one or even both of their adoptive parents.

### **Type theories**

Personality type refers to the psychological classification of different types of people. Personality types are distinguished from personality traits, which come in different degrees. For example, according to type theories, there are two types of people, introverts and extroverts. According to trait theories, introversion and extroversion are part of a continuous dimension with many people in the middle. The idea of psychological types originated in the theoretical work of Carl Jung, specifically in his 1921 book "Psychological Types" and William Marston work. Building on the writings and observations of Jung during World War II, Isabel Briggs Myers and her mother, Katharine C. Briggs, delineated personality types by constructing the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. This model was later

used by David Keirsey with a different understanding from Jung, Briggs and Myers. In the former Soviet Union, Lithuanian Aušra Augustinavičiūtė independently derived a model of personality type from Jung's called Socionics. The model is an older and more theoretical approach to personality, accepting extroversion and introversion as basic psychological orientations in connection with two pairs of psychological functions:

- Perceiving functions: sensing and intuition (trust in concrete, sensory-oriented facts vs. trust in abstract concepts and imagined possibilities)
- Judging functions: thinking and feeling (basing decisions primarily on logic vs. considering the effect on people).

Briggs and Myers also added another personality dimension to their type indicator to measure whether a person prefers to use a judging or perceiving function when interacting with the external world. Therefore they included questions designed to indicate whether someone wishes to come to conclusions (judgment) or to keep options open (perception).

This personality typology has some aspects of a trait theory: it explains people's behavior in terms of opposite fixed characteristics. In these more traditional models, the sensing/intuition preference is considered the most basic, dividing people into "N" (intuitive) or "S" (sensing) personality types. An "N" is further assumed to be guided either by thinking or feeling and divided into the "NT" (scientist, engineer) or "NF" (author, humanitarian) temperament. An "S", in contrast, is assumed to be guided more by the judgment/perception axis and thus divided into the "SJ" (guardian, traditionalist) or "SP" (performer, artisan) temperament. These four are considered basic, with the other two factors in each case (including always extraversion/introversion) less important. Critics of this traditional view have observed that the types can be quite strongly stereotyped by professions (although neither Myers nor Keirsey engaged in such stereotyping in their type descriptions) and thus may arise more from the need to categorize people for purposes of guiding their career choice. This among other objections led to the emergence of the five-factor view, which is less concerned with behavior under work conditions and more concerned with behavior in personal and emotional circumstances. It should be noted that the MBTI is not designed to measure the "work self", but rather what Myers and McCaulley called the "shoes-off self." Some critics have argued for more or fewer dimensions while others have proposed entirely different theories often assuming different definitions of "personality".

Type A and Type B personality theory: During the 1950s, Meyer Friedman and his co-workers defined what they called Type A and Type B behavior patterns. They theorized that intense, hard-driving Type A personalities had a higher risk of coronary disease because they are "stress junkies." Type B people, on the other hand, tended to be relaxed, less competitive, and lower in risk. There was also a Type AB mixed profile.

John L. Holland's RIASEC vocational model, commonly referred to as the Holland Codes, stipulates that six personality types lead people to choose their career paths. In this circumflex model, the six types are represented as a hexagon, with adjacent types more closely related than those more distant. The model is widely used in vocational counseling.

Eduard Spranger's personality-model, consisting of six (or, by some revisions, 6 +1) basic types of value attitudes, described in his book "Types of Men".

The Enneagram of Personality, a model of human personality which is principally used as a typology of nine interconnected personality types. It has been criticized as being subject to interpretation, making it difficult to test or validate scientifically. It is not commonly taught or researched in academic psychology.

## **Psychoanalytic theories**

Psychoanalytic theories explain human behavior in terms of the interaction of various components of personality. Sigmund Freud was the founder of this school of thought. Freud drew on the physics of his day (thermodynamics) to coin the term psychodynamics. Based on the idea of converting heat into mechanical energy, he proposed psychic energy could be converted into behavior. Freud's theory places central importance on dynamic, unconscious psychological conflicts. Freud divides human personality into three significant components: the id, ego, and super-ego. The id acts according to the pleasure principle, demanding immediate gratification of its needs regardless of external environment; the ego then must emerge in order to realistically meet the wishes and demands of the id in accordance with the outside world, adhering to the reality principle. Finally, the superego (conscience) inculcates moral judgment and societal rules upon the ego, thus forcing the demands of the id to be met not only realistically but morally. The superego is the last function of the personality to develop, and is the embodiment of parental/social ideals established during childhood. According to Freud, personality is based on the dynamic interactions of these three components. The channeling and release of sexual (libidal) and aggressive energies, which ensues from the "Eros" (sex; instinctual self-preservation) and "Thanatos" (death; instinctual self-annihilation) drives respectively, are major components of his theory. It is important to note that Freud's broad understanding of sexuality included all kinds of pleasurable feelings experienced by the human body. Freud proposed five psychosexual stages of personality development. He believed adult personality is dependent upon early childhood experiences and largely determined by age five. Fixations that develop during the infantile stage contribute to adult personality and behavior.

Alfred Adler did agree with Freud that early childhood experiences are important to development and believed birth order may influence personality development. Adler believed that the oldest child was the individual who would set high achievement goals in order to gain attention lost when the younger siblings were born. He believed the middle children were competitive and ambitious. He reasoned that this behavior was motivated by the idea of surpassing the firstborn's achievements. He added, however, that the middle children were often not as concerned about the glory attributed with their behavior. He also believed the youngest would be more dependent and sociable. Adler finished by surmising that an only child loves being the center of attention and matures quickly but in the end fails to become independent.

Heinz Kohut thought similarly to Freud's idea of transference. He used narcissism as a model of how people develop their sense of self. Narcissism is the exaggerated sense of oneself in which one is believed to exist in order to protect one's low self-esteem and sense of worthlessness. Kohut had a significant impact on the field by extending Freud's theory of narcissism and introducing what he called the 'self-object transferences' of mirroring and idealization. In other words, children need to idealize and emotionally "sink into" and identify with the idealized competence of admired figures such as parents or older siblings. They also need to have their self-worth mirrored by these people. These experiences allow them to thereby learn the self-soothing and other skills that are necessary for the development of a healthy sense of self.

Another important figure in the world of personality theory is Karen Horney. She is credited with the development of the "real self" and the "ideal self". She believes all people have these two views of their own self. The "real self" is how humans act with regard to personality, values, and morals; but the "ideal self" is a construct individuals implement in order to conform to social and personal norms.

## **Behaviorist theories**

Behaviorists explain personality in terms of the effects external stimuli have on behavior. The approaches used to analyze the behavioral aspect of personality are known as behavioral theories or

learning-conditioning theories. These approaches were a radical shift away from Freudian philosophy. One of the major tenets of this concentration of personality psychology is a strong emphasis on scientific thinking and experimentation. This school of thought was developed by B. F. Skinner who put forth a model which emphasized the mutual interaction of the person or "the organism" with its environment. Skinner believed children do bad things because the behavior obtains attention that serves as a reinforce. For example: a child cries because the child's crying in the past has led to attention. These are the response, and consequences. The response is the child crying, and the attention that child gets is the reinforcing consequence. According to this theory, people's behavior is formed by processes such as operant conditioning. Skinner put forward a "three term contingency model" which helped promote analysis of behavior based on the "Stimulus - Response - Consequence Model" in which the critical question is: "Under which circumstances or antecedent 'stimuli' does the organism engage in a particular behavior or 'response', which in turn produces a particular 'consequence'."

Richard Herrnstein extended this theory by accounting for attitudes and traits. An attitude develops as the response strength (the tendency to respond) in the presences of a group of stimuli become stable. Rather than describing conditional traits in non-behavioral language, response strength in a given situation accounts for the environmental portion. Herrnstein also saw traits as having a large genetic or biological component as do most modern behaviorists.

Ivan Pavlov is another notable influence. He is well known for his classical conditioning experiments involving dogs. These physiological studies led him to discover the foundation of behaviorism as well as classical conditioning.

### **Social cognitive theories**

In cognitive theory, behavior is explained as guided by cognitions (e.g. expectations) about the world, especially those about other people. Cognitive theories are theories of personality that emphasize cognitive processes, such as thinking and judging.

Albert Bandura, a social learning theorist suggested the forces of memory and emotions worked in conjunction with environmental influences. Bandura was known mostly for his "Bobo Doll experiment". During these experiments, Bandura videotaped a college student kicking and verbally abusing a bobo doll. He then showed this video to a class of kindergarten children who were getting ready to go out to play. When they entered the play room, they saw bobo dolls, and some hammers. The people observing these children at play saw a group of children beating the doll. He called this study and his findings observational learning, or modeling.

Early examples of approaches to cognitive style are listed by Baron (1982). These include Witkin's (1965) work on field dependency, Gardner's (1953) discovering people had consistent preference for the number of categories they used to categorize heterogeneous objects, and Block and Petersen's (1955) work on confidence in line discrimination judgments. Baron relates early development of cognitive approaches of personality to ego psychology. More central to this field have been: Attribution style theory dealing with different ways in which people explain events in their lives. This approach builds upon locus of control, but extends it by stating we also need to consider whether people attribute to stable causes or variable causes, and to global causes or specific causes.

Various scales have been developed to assess both attribution style and locus of control. Locus of control scales include those used by Rotter and later by Duttweiler, the Nowicki and Strickland (1973) Locus of Control Scale for Children and various locus of control scales specifically in the health domain, most famously that of Kenneth Wallston and his colleagues, The Multidimensional Health Locus of Control Scale. Attribution style has been assessed by the Attribution Style

Questionnaire, the Expanded Attribution Style Questionnaire, the Attributions Questionnaire, the Real Events Attribution Style Questionnaire and the Attribution Style Assessment Test.

Achievement style theory focuses upon identification of an individual's Locus of Control tendency, such as by Rotter's evaluations, and was found by Cassandra Bolyard Whyte to provide valuable information for improving academic performance of students. Individuals with internal control tendencies are likely to persist to better academic performance levels, presenting an achievement personality, according to Cassandra B. Whyte

Recognition that the tendency to believe that hard work and persistence often results in attainment of life and academic goals has influenced formal educational and counseling efforts with students of various ages and in various settings since the 1970s research about achievement. Counseling aimed toward encouraging individuals to design ambitious goals and work toward them, with recognition that there are external factors that may impact, often results in the incorporation of a more positive achievement style by students and employees, whatever the setting, to include higher education, workplace, or justice programming.

Walter Mischel (1999) has also defended a cognitive approach to personality. His work refers to "Cognitive Affective Units", and considers factors such as encoding of stimuli, affect, goal-setting, and self-regulatory beliefs. The term "Cognitive Affective Units" shows how his approach considers affect as well as cognition.

Cognitive-Experiential Self-Theory (CEST) is another cognitive personality theory. Developed by Seymour Epstein, CEST argues that humans operate by way of two independent information processing systems: experiential system and rational system. The experiential system is fast and emotion-driven. The rational system is slow and logic-driven. These two systems interact to determine our goals, thoughts, and behavior.

Personal construct psychology (PCP) is a theory of personality developed by the American psychologist George Kelly in the 1950s. Kelly's fundamental view of personality was that people are like naive scientists who see the world through a particular lens, based on their uniquely organized systems of construction, which they use to anticipate events. But because people are naive scientists, they sometimes employ systems for construing the world that are distorted by idiosyncratic experiences not applicable to their current social situation. A system of construction that chronically fails to characterize and/or predict events and is not appropriately revised to comprehend and predict one's changing social world, is considered to underlie psychopathology (or mental illness.) From the theory, Kelly derived a psychotherapy approach and also a technique called The Repertory Grid Interview that helped his patients to uncover their own "constructs" with minimal intervention or interpretation by the therapist. The Repertory Grid was later adapted for various uses within organizations, including decision-making and interpretation of other people's world-views.

### **Humanistic theories**

Humanistic psychology emphasizes that people have free will and that this plays an active role in determining how they behave. Accordingly, humanistic psychology focuses on subjective experiences of persons as opposed to forced, definitive factors that determine behavior. Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers were proponents of this view, which is based on the "phenomenal field" theory of Combs and Snygg (1949). Rogers and Maslow were among a group of psychologists that worked together for a decade to produce the Journal of Humanistic Psychology. This journal was primarily focused on viewing individuals as a whole, rather than focusing solely on separate traits and processes within the individual.

Robert W. White wrote the book "The Abnormal Personality" that became a standard text on abnormal psychology. He also investigated the human need to strive for positive goals like

competence and influence, to counterbalance the emphasis of Freud on the pathological elements of personality development.

Maslow spent much of his time studying what he called "self-actualizing persons", those who are "fulfilling themselves and doing the best they are capable of doing". Maslow believes all who are interested in growth move towards self-actualizing (growth, happiness, satisfaction) views. Many of these people demonstrate a trend in dimensions of their personalities. Characteristics of self-actualizers according to Maslow include the four key dimensions:

1. **Awareness** - maintaining constant enjoyment and awe of life. These individuals often experienced a "peak experience". He defined a peak experience as an "intensification of any experience to the degree there is a loss or transcendence of self". A peak experience is one in which an individual perceives an expansion of themselves, and detects a unity and meaningfulness in life. Intense concentration on an activity one is involved in, such as running a marathon, may invoke a peak experience.
2. **Reality and problem centered** - having a tendency to be concerned with "problems" in surroundings.
3. **Acceptance/Spontaneity** - accepting surroundings and what cannot be changed.
4. **Un-hostile sense of humor/democratic** - do not take kindly to joking about others, which can be viewed as offensive. They have friends of all backgrounds and religions and hold very close friendships.

Maslow and Rogers emphasized a view of the person as an active, creative, experiencing human being who lives in the present and subjectively responds to current perceptions, relationships, and encounters. They disagree with the dark, pessimistic outlook of those in the Freudian psychoanalysis ranks, but rather view humanistic theories as positive and optimistic proposals which stress the tendency of the human personality toward growth and self-actualization. This progressing self will remain the center of its constantly changing world; worlds that will help mold the self but not necessarily confine it. Rather, the self has opportunity for maturation based on its encounters with this world. This understanding attempts to reduce the acceptance of hopeless redundancy. Humanistic therapy typically relies on the client for information of the past and its effect on the present, therefore the client dictates the type of guidance the therapist may initiate. This allows for an individualized approach to therapy. Rogers found patients differ in how they respond to other people. Rogers tried to model a particular approach to therapy- he stressed the reflective or empathetic response. This response type takes the client's viewpoint and reflects back their feeling and the context for it. An example of a reflective response would be, "It seems you are feeling anxious about your upcoming marriage". This response type seeks to clarify the therapist's understanding while also encouraging the client to think more deeply and seek to fully understand the feelings they have expressed.

### **Bio-psychological theories**

Biology plays a very important role in the development of personality. The study of the biological level in personality psychology focuses primarily on identifying the role of genetic determinants and how they mold individual personalities. Some of the earliest thinking about possible biological bases of personality grew out of the case of Phineas Gage. In an 1848 accident, a large iron rod was driven through Gage's head, and his personality apparently changed as a result, although descriptions of these psychological changes are usually exaggerated.

## **Genetic basis of personality**

Ever since the Human Genome Project allowed for a much more in depth understanding of genetics, there has been an ongoing controversy involving heritability, personality traits, and environmental vs. genetic influence on personality. The human genome is known to play a role in the development of personality. Previously, genetic personality studies focused on specific genes correlating to specific personality traits. Today's view of the gene-personality relationship focuses primarily on the activation and expression of genes related to personality and forms part of what is referred to as behavioral genetics. Genes provide numerous options for varying cells to be expressed; however, the environment determines which of these are activated. Many studies have noted this relationship in varying ways in which our bodies can develop, but the interaction between genes and the shaping of our minds and personality is also relevant to this biological relationship. DNA-environment interactions are important in the development of personality because this relationship determines what part of the DNA code is actually made into proteins that will become part of an individual. It has been noted that while different choices are made available by the genome, in the end, the environment is the ultimate determinant of what becomes activated. Small changes in DNA in individuals are what lead to the uniqueness of every person as well as differences in looks, abilities, brain functioning, and all the factors that culminate to develop a cohesive personality.

Cattell and Eysenck have proposed that genetics have a strong influence on personality. A large part of the evidence collected linking genetics and the environment to personality have come from twin studies. This "twin method" compares levels of similarity in personality using genetically identical twins. One of the first of these twin studies measured 800 pairs of twins, studied numerous personality traits, and determined that identical twins are most similar in their general abilities. Personality similarities were found to be less related for self-concepts, goals, and interests. Twin studies have also been important in the creation of the five factor personality model: neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness and conscientiousness. Neuroticism and extraversion are the two most widely studied traits. A person that may fall into the extrovert category can display characteristics such as impulsiveness, sociability, and activeness. A person falling into the neuroticism category may be more likely to be moody, anxious, or irritable. Identical twins however, have higher correlations in personality traits than fraternal twins. One study measuring genetic influence on twins in five different countries found that the correlations for identical twins were .50, while for fraternal they were about .20. It is suggested that heredity and environment interact to determine one's personality.

## **Evolutionary theory**

Charles Darwin is the founder of the theory of the evolution of the species. The evolutionary approach to personality psychology is based on this theory. This theory examines how individual personality differences are based on natural selection. Through natural selection organisms change over time through adaptation and selection. Traits are developed and certain genes come into expression based on an organism's environment and how these traits aid in an organism's survival and reproduction.

Polymorphisms, such as gender and blood-type, are forms of diversity which evolve to benefit a species as a whole. Computer scientists can solve wider ranges of problems when their algorithmic toolboxes have greater evaluative diversity, various evolutionary theorists have shown that evaluative diversity could have evolved as a polymorphism among humans, and evaluative diversity has been shown to be significantly related to some aspects of personality. In other words, the reason why we have different personalities may be because this diversity can make teams more effective.

The theory of evolution has wide ranging implications on personality psychology. Personality viewed through the lens of evolutionary psychology places a great deal of emphasis on specific traits

that are most likely to aid in survival and reproduction, such as conscientiousness, sociability, emotional stability, and dominance. The social aspects of personality can be seen through an evolutionary perspective. Specific character traits develop and are selected for because they play an important and complex role in the social hierarchy of organisms. Such characteristics of this social hierarchy include the sharing of important resources, family and mating interactions, and the harm or help organisms can bestow upon one another.

**Psychological typologies** are classifications used by psychologists to describe the distinctions between people. The problem of finding the essential basis for the classification of psychological types—that is, the basis determining a broader spectrum of derivative characteristics—is crucial in differential psychology.

### **The logic of development of classification hypotheses in psychology**

The entire history of human studies from the system-classification position reveals itself as arena of struggle of two opposite methodological directions, the goals of which were:

1) to "catch" the central organizing link, some kind of the motor of all design, and to distribute people by the qualitative specificity of these central links;

«The typological approach consists in the global perception of the person with the following reduction of variety of individual forms to a small number of the groups uniting around the representative type» (Meily, 1960).

2) to decompose the psychic to its components in order to understand the work of parts and to create a classification on the basis of differences in the structure and quality of parts.

«It is necessary to reduce all the personality character traits to the elementary mental elements and to the elementary forms of the basic psychological laws, revealing the nature of the discovered ties» (Polan, 1894.).

At present there are several thousand of various psychological classifications that point to these or other distinctions between people or mental characteristics as such.

The classifications may have different ground scales of generalizations, degree of inner strictness.

### **Classification of people and psychological characteristics**

The logic of psychological classifications development demanded parallel existing of two scientific approaches: one of which was named «psychology of types», and the other — «psychology of traits». In the course of time both the approaches shifted towards each other: the psychology of types - in attempts to understand the structure of psychological traits of every type, trait psychology - in attempts to achieve **more** high and system generalizations.

«As soon as the fact that the observable traits do not corresponds to separate essential psychic characteristics and rather are only aspects of the personality and behavior, received general recognition immediately appeared the necessity to reveal the fundamental factors behind the traits. Haimans and Virsma as well as other scientists after them tried to solve the problem. However all these researches had a fragmentary character, their results have been caused by preliminary hypotheses, and the choice of traits as a rule was determined by the personal view of the researcher» R.Maily

An example of trait psychology development stages:

1. Singling out the types of love as psychology of traits. In the Antique time the typology of love kinds was very popular, which comprised:

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