Essentials

of **Myers-Briggs Type Indicator® Assessment**

Second Edition

- Complete coverage of administration, scoring, interpretation, and reporting

- Expert advice on avoiding common pitfalls

- Conveniently formatted for rapid reference

Naomi L. Quenk

Alan S. Kaufman & Nadeen L. Kaufman, *Series Editors*

Essentials of Myers-Briggs Type Indicator® Assessment

Essentials of Psychological Assessment Series
Series Editors, Alan S. Kaufman and Nadeen L. Kaufman

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SERIES PREFACE

I n the *Essentials of Psychological Assessment* series, we have attempted to provide the reader with books that will deliver key practical information in the most efficient and accessible style. The series features instruments in a variety of domains, such as cognition, personality, education, and neuropsychology. For the experienced clinician, books in the series will offer a concise yet thorough way to master utilization of the continuously evolving supply of new and revised instruments as well as a convenient method for keeping up to date on the tried-and-true measures. The novice will find here a prioritized assembly of all the information and techniques that must be at one's fingertips to begin the complicated process of individual psychological diagnosis.

Wherever feasible, visual shortcuts to highlight key points are utilized alongside systematic, step-by-step guidelines. Chapters are focused and succinct. Topics are targeted for an easy understanding of the essentials of administration, scoring, interpretation, and clinical application. Theory and research are continually woven into the fabric of each book but always to enhance clinical inference, never to sidetrack or overwhelm. We have long been advocates of what has been called intelligent testing—the notion that a profile of test scores is meaningless unless it is brought to life by the clinical observations and astute detective work of knowledgeable examiners. Test profiles must be used to make a difference in the child's or adult's life, or why bother to test? We want this series to help our readers become the best intelligent testers they can be.

In *Essentials of Myers-Briggs Type Indicator® Assessment,* Dr. Naomi Quenk provides expert guidance for clinically applying this most widely used method of assessing healthy personality. Dr. Quenk is coauthor of the 1998 revision of the **MBTI Manual,** which introduced Form M; the revised standard form of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI®); and co-author of the **MBTI® Step II™** (2001)

Manual and **MBTI® Step III™** (2009) **Manual,** which focus on advanced forms of the MBTI®. She is a longtime contributor to theory, research, and clinical understanding of typology and excels in integrating and presenting complex material in a clear and accessible way. Clinicians will find the practical advice and insights for applying the MBTI instrument in the conduct of psychotherapy to be particularly useful.

Alan S. Kaufman, PhD, and Nadeen L. Kaufman, EdD, Series Editors
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One

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator® (MBTI®) personality inventory is firmly grounded in C. G. Jung's theory of psychological types, first presented in his book *Psychological Types* (1921/1971). MBTI assessment of type has been available in published form since 1943. A wealth of information has since been generated about the instrument's theoretical basis, its reliability and validity, and its practical application in widely diverse areas. There are currently three different versions of the instrument that are known as MBTI® Step I,™ MBTI® Step II,™ and MBTI® Step III.™ The Step I version identifies 16 qualitatively different personality types comprised of preferences for one of each pole of four dichotomies. The Step I form of the MBTI instrument is the best-known and most frequently used of the three options and is what most people mean when they refer to "the MBTI." There are three editions of the MBTI (Step I) manual (Myers, 1962; Myers & McCaulley, 1985; Myers, McCaulley, Quenk, & Hammer, 1998), as well as a comprehensive review of research in seven application areas (Hammer, 1996). These and many other sources contain valuable information about the theory, psychometric characteristics, research relationships, and applications of the MBTI assessment in its Step I form. The sheer magnitude of what is available can be daunting to those new to the instrument as well as to experienced practitioners seeking practical guidance for administering and interpreting the instrument.

The MBTI Step II instrument identifies five facets (components) of each of the four basic dichotomies, 20 facets in all. Scores provide information about individuality within each of the 16 types. Its manual (Quenk, Hammer, & Majors, 2001) details the instrument's psychometric properties and appropriate applications. The newest version of the MBTI instrument, the Step III form (Myers, McCaulley, Quenk, Hammer, & Mitchell, 2009) assesses type development, the varying effectiveness with which individuals use their type. The present volume focuses mainly on Step I assessment but also provides sufficient information about the MBTI Step II instrument to enable practitioners to choose which of these two steps is appropriate for their clients. Issues of type development,

the focus of Step III assessment, are mentioned in relevant areas of the text. However, a detailed discussion of this most recent version of the MBTI assessment is beyond the scope of this book.

Essentials of MBTI Assessment encapsulates the overwhelming amount of MBTI information by providing all key information in a manner that is straightforward and easily accessible. Each chapter includes several "Rapid Reference," "Caution," and "Don't Forget" boxes that highlight important points relevant to each topic. Chapters end with a series of questions designed to solidify what you have read. The primary emphasis is on clinical uses of the instrument; however, professionals in any area of application will find the basic information they need to effectively administer and interpret the MBTI assessment in their setting.

HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT

Jung's *Psychological Types* (1921/1971) was translated into English in 1923. Interest in the work was generally limited to Jungian and psychoanalytic circles in both Europe and America. It was fortuitous, if not remarkable, that two women, Katharine C. Briggs and her daughter, Isabel Briggs Myers (neither of whom had credentials in Jungian analysis or psychological test development), read Jung's work, spent 20 years studying it, and devised an instrument—the MBTI questionnaire—to assess typology. Their years of intensive reading of Jung and careful observation of individual behavior led to their conclusion that typology could provide a useful way of describing healthy personality differences and, importantly, that such assessment could be put to practical use in people's lives.

Jung's interest in types emerged from his observation of consistent differences among people that were not attributable to their psychopathology. At first he believed that two basic *attitude types*—extraverts and introverts—adequately explained the differences he found. Further observation convinced him that other differences must be at work and that his two-category typology was inadequate. He subsequently added opposite *mental functions* to his descriptive system: two opposite functions of perception, sensation (now Sensing) versus intuition, and two opposite functions of judgment, thinking versus feeling.

Briggs's early interest had been in the variety of ways that people achieved excellence in their lives. Prior to discovering Jung's work, she had studied biographies in an effort to develop her own typology. In addition to opposites similar to those described by Jung, she observed that individuals differed in the way they habitually related to the outside world. Her early observations ultimately led to the addition of a fourth pair of opposites to Jung's system, a Judging versus a Perceiving attitude toward the outer, extraverted world. Although Jung did not explicitly identify this pair of opposites, Briggs and Myers found it to be implicit in his writings.

Published forms of the MBTI instrument have been in existence since 1943. Until 1975, when its publication moved from Educational Testing Service to CPP, Inc., it was used primarily by a small number of enthusiastic researchers. CPP, Inc. made the MBTI available to all professionals who were qualified to purchase Level B instruments. About 2 million people fill out the MBTI questionnaire annually, making it by far the most widely used instrument for assessing normal personality functioning.

Rapid Reference 1.1 gives a chronological listing of significant events in the history of MBTI development.

≡ *Rapid Reference*

1.1 Background and Development of the MBTI

1917	Katharine Briggs develops a way of describing individual differences in ways of achieving excellence based on her study of biographies of accomplished individuals.
1923	Jung's *Psychological Types* is translated into English from the original German, first published in 1921.
1923–1941	Briggs and Myers study Jung's typology and observe its expression in the behavior of individuals.
1941	World War II motivates Myers to work on developing an instrument that will give people access to their Jungian type—to capitalize on natural preferences to help the war effort.
1942–1944	Myers writes and tests items using a small criterion group whose preferences are clear to her. Forms A and B are created.
1942–1956	MBTI data are collected on various samples, including medical and nursing students.
1956	Educational Testing Service publishes the MBTI as a research instrument. It is available only to researchers.
1956–1962	Research continues, yielding MBTI Forms C through E.
1962	The first MBTI manual and MBTI Form F are published by Educational Testing Service. It continues to be classified as a research instrument.
1962–1974	Researchers at several universities (e.g., University of California at Berkeley and Auburn University) use the MBTI for various research purposes. Mary H. McCaulley, a clinical psychology faculty member at the University of Florida, collaborates with Myers to further test the MBTI assessment, and to create a data bank for storage of MBTI data.

continued

1975	CPP, Inc. becomes the publisher of MBTI Form F, and makes it available to all professionals qualified to purchase Level B instruments.
1978	Form G (126 items) replaces Form F (166 items) as the standard form of the MBTI, based on a restandardization of the scales.
1980	Isabel Briggs Myers dies.
1985	The second edition of the MBTI manual is published, coauthored by Myers and McCaulley.
1987, 1989	Extended forms of the Indicator, Forms J and K, are published.
1998	Form M (93 items) replaces Form G as the standard form. It is preceded by extensive exploration of alternative item selection and scoring methods and is standardized on a stratified national sample of the U.S. population. The third edition of the MBTI manual is published.
2001	Form Q (144 items) is published, replacing Form K as the standard form for the MBTI Step II assessment. The Step II manual is also published. Form J is retained as a research form.
2008	MBTI® Complete, an online interactive administration and interpretation of the MBTI instrument is published and made available to the general public and professional users.
2009	MBTI Step III form and manual are published, completing Myers' extensive theoretical and research work on type development.

A major reason for the popularity of the MBTI instrument is its relevance in many quite diverse areas—education; career development; organizational behavior; group functioning; team development; personal and executive coaching; psychotherapy with individuals, couples, and families; and in multicultural settings. Because of its long history and prevalence as a research instrument, there are well over 11,000 entries listed in an ongoing bibliography (Center for Applications of Psychological Type, 2008) including more than 1,780 dissertations. The bibliography is updated monthly. The *Journal of Psychological Type* has published 69 volumes primarily devoted to typological research efforts.

Essentials of MBTI Assessment focuses on MBTI Form M, the standard form of the MBTI Step I instrument that replaced Form G in 1998, and MBTI Form Q, the standard form of the MBTI Step II instrument that replaced Form K in 2001. Readers who are interested in the differences between the current standard forms and their predecessors will find this information in the most recent manuals for these instruments. Information about the MBTI Step III assessment, which is referred to only briefly in this work, can be found in the Step III Manual.

In addition to the three MBTI forms, there is a type indicator for children aged approximately 8 through 14, the Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children (Murphy & Meisgeier, 2008), which is a revision of the earlier (1987) test. This instrument rests on the same assumptions as the MBTI instrument but uses different items, scoring method, and guidelines for interpretation.

THEORETICAL FOUNDATION OF THE MBTI

The Jung/Myers theory of psychological types is a way of describing and explaining certain consistent differences in the ways that normal people use their minds. The MBTI questionnaire purports to identify these differences through a 93-item, self-administered, paper-and-pencil questionnaire. Results show the respondent's preferences on each of four pairs of opposite categories, which are called dichotomies. The constructs that comprise each of the four dichotomies are broad and multifaceted rather than narrow and unidimensional. That is, rather than tapping a single aspect of the domain covered in a dichotomy, a number of different aspects or expressions are addressed. For example, the Extraversion-Introversion dichotomy is not limited to *socialization*, but includes *activity level, expressiveness*, and other legitimate areas. According to the theory, all eight categories, or preference poles (or at least one or another aspect subsumed under each pole) are used at least some of the time by every person. However, individuals are assumed to have an innate disposition toward one pole of each dichotomy. The goal of MBTI assessment is to accurately identify preferences by sorting respondents into the categories (preferred poles) to which they are already disposed. To elicit preferences between categorical poles rather than the degree of liking for or use of each opposite pole, all items are presented in a forced-choice format. This question format requires the respondent to choose between two mental functions or two attitudes in order to identify which is naturally preferred. If respondents were instead asked to indicate their use of or liking for each pole separately (as with a Likert-type rating scale), preference for one over the other could not be readily distinguished. Forcing respondents to choose between two legitimate ways of using their minds most directly and clearly elicits a preference.

The mental functions and attitudes that are the basic elements of the Jung/Myers theory follow. For ease of understanding the relationship between the Step I dichotomies and the Step II facets, brief descriptions of the facets within each dichotomy are presented immediately following the description of each function or attitude.

The Opposite Functions of Perception: Sensing and Intuition

Sensing perception uses the five senses to become aware of facts and details occurring in the present. When Sensing perception is being used, regardless of whether or not the person prefers Sensing, the perceiver is using the evidence of the senses, focusing on concrete reality, and the gathering of facts and details. The emphasis is on what is known and can be verified. With little conscious effort, a person who *prefers* Sensing has a memory that is specific, detailed, literal, and complete. Without exercising considerable conscious effort, he or she is less likely to give credence and be interested in hypotheses, the unknown, and future possibilities. Sensing is a process that avoids inferences and conjecture and prefers instead to make decisions based on verifiable facts. People who prefer Sensing can experience any requirement to speculate on an unknown future as a pointless distraction from what is important. Intuitive perception looks at patterns, meanings, and future possibilities that are believed to be implicit in current reality.

When Intuition is being used, the perceiver focuses on concepts, ideas, and theories, inferring connections among diverse pieces of information. With little conscious effort, a person who prefers intuitive perception moves quickly and easily from what is present in the here and now to what is implied and possible in the future. Without exercising considerable conscious effort, a person who prefers Intuition has difficulty memorizing and using facts without putting them into an interesting, meaningful context. Intuition is a process that is less experienced and interested in acquiring, remembering, and using facts and details for their own sake. People who prefer Intuition can experience such a focus as inhibiting to their free flow of ideas and as a pointless distraction from what is important.

The Facets of the Sensing-Intuition Dichotomy

Analyses of the multifaceted Sensing-Intuition items of the MBTI questionnaire have identified five pairs of opposite facets: Concrete (S) versus Abstract (N); Realistic (S) versus Imaginative (N); Practical (S) versus Conceptual (N); Experiential (S) versus Theoretical (N); Traditional (S) versus Original (N). These facets are described briefly in Rapid Reference 1.2, immediately following the definitions of the poles of each dichotomy.

The Opposite Functions of Judgment: Thinking and Feeling

Thinking judgment applies specific criteria and principles in a linear, logical analysis of Sensing or Intuitive information. The goal is to arrive at the objective truth

or a reasonable approximation of truth. When Thinking judgment is being used, the person making the judgment takes an objective and dispassionate approach to the available data. With little conscious effort, individuals who prefer Thinking can maintain an objective stance and personal distance by keeping issues of their own and others' personal values and well-being separate from their decision making. Typically, only after a Thinking conclusion has been arrived at can conscious effort be devoted to considering issues of welfare and harmony.

Feeling judgment applies specific, usually personally held values to assess the relative importance of the Sensing or Intuitive information available. When Feeling judgment is being used, there is concern for the impacts and consequences of a decision on individuals or groups of people. The goal of a Feeling decision is to maximize harmony and well-being for people and situations. Without conscious effort, people who prefer Feeling take into account their own and others' feelings, values, and welfare. They use personal connections and empathy with the people affected by a decision to arrive at a conclusion. People who prefer Feeling can readily recognize logical principles and objective criteria for decision making. However, without exercising considerable conscious effort, they avoid using such criteria if harm and disharmony will result.

The terms chosen by Jung and retained by Myers for these two opposites have some unfortunate potential "surplus meanings." Therefore, it is important to recognize that in the MBTI approach, Thinking judgment does not imply the absence of emotion but rather an automatic setting aside of value considerations for the sake of impartiality and objectivity. Feeling judgment does not refer to the experience and expression of emotion. Emotion is separate from Feeling judgment in that emotion is accompanied by a physiological response that is independent of decision making. Thinking types and Feeling types can be equally passionate about a favored position in spite of contradictory evidence that violates certain logical principles (for Thinking types) or certain values (for Feeling types).

Similarly, a Thinking judgment is not more intelligent or correct than a Feeling judgment. In the Jung/Myers theory, Thinking and Feeling describe rational processes that follow laws of reason; that is, they evaluate data using definite criteria—logical principles for Thinking and personal values for Feeling.

The Facets of the Thinking-Feeling Dichotomy

Analyses of the multifaceted Thinking-Feeling items of the MBTI instrument have identified five pairs of opposite facets: Logical (T) versus Empathetic (F); Reasonable (T) versus Compassionate (F); Questioning (T) versus Accommodating (F); Critical (T) versus Accepting (F); Tough (T) versus Tender (F).

The Opposite Attitudes of Energy: Extraversion and Introversion

Extraversion as an attitude directs psychic energy to and receives energy from the outer world of people, things, and action. When in the Extraverted attitude, a person interacts with the environment, receives energy through actively engaging with people and activities, and takes a trial-and-error approach to acquiring new experiences and skills. People who prefer Extraversion tend to think most effectively when interacting with and talking to others and it takes little conscious effort for them to approach others and explore the outer world. Without conscious effort, it is hard for them to think only internally, since they often become aware of what they are thinking only when they are verbalizing. Spending too much time without external activity can result in fatigue and low motivation.

Introversion as an attitude directs psychic energy to the inner world of ideas, reflection, and internal experiences and is energized by operating in that realm. When in the Introverted attitude, a person spends time reflecting on and reviewing ideas and experiences, and observes and thinks about whether or not to interact with new people or try new outside activities. People who prefer Introversion tend to think internally before expressing their thoughts to others. It takes little conscious effort to keep what they are thinking to themselves. Without conscious effort, it is uncomfortable and difficult for them to express their thoughts without first reflecting on them. Spending too little time alone and too much time interacting with people and the environment can result in fatigue and low motivation.

The Facets of the Extraversion-Introversion Dichotomy

Analyses of the multifaceted Extraversion-Introversion items of the MBTI instrument have identified five pairs of opposite facets: Initiating (E) versus Receiving (I); Expressive (E) versus Contained (I); Gregarious (E) versus Intimate (I); Active (E) versus Reflective (I); Enthusiastic (E) versus Quiet (I).

The Two Opposite Attitudes toward the Outside World: Judging and Perceiving

A Judging attitude involves the habitual use of one of the judging functions, Thinking or Feeling, when interacting with the outer world. When a Judging attitude is being used, there is a desire to reach a conclusion (use judgment) and make a decision as quickly and efficiently as possible. Without conscious effort, individuals who prefer a Judging attitude are organized, structured, effectively work within schedules, and begin tasks sufficiently early so that deadlines can be comfortably met. Without exercising considerable conscious effort, they resist

putting off decision making, working without a set plan, and operating in an environment where there are frequent interruptions and diversions.

A Perceiving attitude involves the habitual use of one of the perceiving functions, Sensing or Intuition, when interacting with the outer world. When a Perceiving attitude is being used, there is a desire to collect as much information (i.e., perceive) as possible before coming to a conclusion. Without conscious effort, a person who prefers a Perceiving attitude is flexible, adaptable, and spontaneous when operating in the outside world, works comfortably and effectively when there is pressure of an imminent deadline, and welcomes interruptions and diversions because they stimulate new energy and may provide additional useful information. Without considerable conscious effort, it is difficult for him or her to start on tasks very far in advance of a deadline, operate within set schedules, and be orderly and methodical in pursuing desired goals.

A frequent source of misunderstanding for people with regard to the Judging and Perceiving attitude is knowing that these attitudes describe ways of relating to the outside, extraverted world *regardless of one's preference for Extraversion or Introversion*. People who prefer a Judging attitude behave in a Judging manner while extraverting (extraverting either Thinking or Feeling, whichever they prefer); people who prefer a Perceiving attitude behave in a Perceiving manner while extraverting (extraverting either Sensing or Intuition, whichever they prefer).

The Facets of the Judging-Perceiving Dichotomy

Analyses of the multifaceted Judging-Perceiving items of the MBTI instrument have identified five pairs of opposite facets: Systematic (J) versus Casual (P); Planful (J) versus Open-ended (P); Early Starting (J) versus Pressure-Prompted (P); Scheduled (J) versus Spontaneous (P); Methodical (J) versus Emergent (P).

Rapid Reference 1.2 summarizes the four dichotomies that constitute a four-letter type and indicates their designation as either attitudes or functions. Each dichotomy is followed by a brief description of its five MBTI Step II facets. Like all definitions and descriptions of MBTI preferences, types, and facets, the brief definitions presented here are designed to be neutral and positive in tone, conveying that neither pole of any dichotomy or facet is favored over its opposite.

An individual's Step I preferences can be summarized in a four-letter code, each letter standing for one of the eight preferences, such as ISTJ for Introverted, Sensing, Thinking, Judging or ENFP for Extraverted, Intuitive, Feeling, Perceiving. All possible combinations of preferences yield 16 different types. All 16 types are seen as valid and legitimate ways of being psychologically healthy, adapted, and successful, though their interests, talents, and general outlooks are likely to be quite different.

≣ *Rapid Reference*

1.2 The Four MBTI Step I Dichotomies and Associated MBTI Step II Facets

The Sensing-Intuition Dichotomy (Functions or Processes of Perception)

Sensing (S)
Focusing mainly on what can
be perceived by the five senses.

Intuition (N)
Focusing mainly on perceiving patterns
and interrelationships.

The Five Facets of Sensing-Intuition

Concrete
Focus on concrete, tangible, and
literal perceptions, communications,
learning styles, world view, and
values. Trust what is verifiable by
the senses, and are cautious about
going beyond facts.

Abstract
Focus on concepts and abstract
meanings of ideas and their
interrelationships. Use symbols,
metaphors, and mental leaps to
explain their interests and views.

Realistic
Prefer what is useful, has tangible
benefits, and accords with common
sense. Value efficiency, cost-
effectiveness, comfort, and security.

Imaginative
Value possibilities over tangibles and
like ingenuity for its own sake. Are
resourceful in dealing with new
experiences and solving problems.

Practical
More interested in applying ideas
than in the ideas themselves and like
working with known materials using
practical, familiar methods. Prefer
modest, tangible rewards over
risky opportunities for greater gain.

Conceptual
Like knowledge for its own sake and
focus on the concept, not its application.
Enjoy complexity and implied meanings
over tangible details. Likely to take
risks for large potential gains.

Experiential
Trust their own and others'
experience as the criterion for
truth and relevance and learn best
from direct, hands-on experience.
Focus more on the past and
present than the future.

Theoretical
See relevance beyond what is tangible
and trust theory as having a reality of
its own. Are future oriented and see
patterns and interrelationships among
abstract concepts.

Traditional
Like the continuity, security, and
social affirmation provided by
traditions, established institutions,
and familiar methods. Uncomfortable
with fads and unconventional
departures from established norms.

Original
Value uniqueness, inventiveness,
and cleverness to put meaning into
everyday activities; enjoy demonstrating
their own originality. Believe that
sameness detracts from meaning.

The Thinking-Feeling Dichotomy
(Functions or Processes of Judgment)

Thinking (T)

Basing conclusions on logical analysis with a focus on objectivity and detachment.

Feeling (F)

Basing conclusions on personal or social values with a focus on understanding and harmony.

The Five Facets of Thinking and Feeling

Logical

Believe that using logical analysis and hard data is the best way to make decisions; focus on cause and effect, pros and cons.

Empathetic

Believe that a decision's impact on people should be primary; focus on important values and relationships; trust own appraisal of what is relevant.

Reasonable

Use sequential reasoning, fairness, and impartiality in actual decision making; are confident and clear about objectives and decisions.

Compassionate

Consider unique and personal needs of individuals rather than objective criteria to be most important in actual decision making; use own values as a basis for deciding.

Questioning

Ask questions to understand, clarify, gain common ground, solve problems, and find flaws in their own and others' viewpoints.

Accommodating

Value harmony and incorporation of diverse viewpoints as more effective ways to gain common ground than questioning, challenging, and confrontation.

Critical

Use impersonal critiquing of ideas, situations, and procedures to arrive at truth and avoid the consequences of flawed ideas and plans.

Accepting

Use kindness and tolerance of others to arrive at a mutually satisfying plan or procedure and are open to a broad range of ideas and beliefs.

Tough

Stand firm on decisions that have been thoroughly considered and critiqued and wish them to be implemented quickly and efficiently.

Tender

Having arrived at a decision or course of action, use gentle persuasion and a personal approach to gain others' agreement.

The Extraversion-Introversion Dichotomy
(Attitudes or Orientations of Energy)

Extraversion (E)
Directing energy mainly toward the outer world of people and objects.

Introversion (I)
Directing energy mainly toward the inner world of experiences and ideas.

The Five Facets of Extraversion and Introversion

Initiating
Act as social facilitators at social gatherings, introducing people, connecting those with similar interests, planning and directing gatherings.

Receiving
Prefer to be introduced at social gatherings, dislike small talk, preferring in-depth discussions of important issues with one or two people.

Expressive
Easily tell others their thoughts and feelings, making their interests known and readily confiding in others. Seen as easy to get to know.

Contained
Share thoughts and feelings with a small and select few, rarely confiding in others. Hard to get to know because their reactions are mostly internal.

Gregarious
Enjoy being with others and belonging to groups; have many acquaintances and friends and do not make a sharp distinction between friends and acquaintances.

Intimate
Have a limited circle of close, trusted friends, preferring to talk one-on-one to people they know well; make a sharp distinction between intimate friends and casual acquaintances.

Active
Like direct involvement in active environments, learning best by doing, listening, observing, and speaking rather than by reading and writing.

Reflective
Like visual, intellectual, and mental engagement, learning best by reading and writing rather than by listening and speaking.

Enthusiastic
Talkative and lively, enjoying dynamic flow of energy in conversations; like being the center of attention and sharing who they are by telling stories; catch others up in their enthusiasm.

Quiet
Seem reserved and quiet but often have rich internal responses to what is happening; may have difficulty describing their inner experience in words so may not speak about them.

The Judging-Perceiving Dichotomy
(Attitudes or Orientations to the Outer World)

Judging (J)
Preferring the decisiveness and closure that results from dealing with the outer world using one of the judging processes (T or F).

Perceiving (P)
Preferring the flexibility and spontaneity that results from dealing with the outer world using one of the perceiving processes (T or F).

The Five Facets of Judging and Perceiving

Systematic
Like orderliness and systematic methods at work, home, and in leisure activities; value efficiency and advance preparation, and dislike surprises. Enjoy the comfort of closure that comes with making a decision.

Casual
Like taking things as they come, using a leisurely approach to deal with both the expected and unexpected; prefer keeping options open by delaying making firm decisions as long as possible.

Planful
Like making long-range plans for the future, including social events; feel things will not happen as they wish unless they plan in advance.

Open-ended
Like flexible plans and freedom to choose in the moment, dislike being tied down by long-range plans and prior commitments.

Early Starting
Plan for a deadline by starting early and working steadily to completion; dislike the stress of having to work at the last minute.

Pressure Prompted
Work best when pressured by an approaching deadline, effectively bringing together ideas and materials they have been gathering sporadically.

Scheduled
Like the comfort and security of working with routine, established methods both at work and at home; like the predictability this gives their lives.

Spontaneous
Work best with constant variety and freedom to decide which tasks to do at what time; are unmotivated by routine, which feels constraining.

Methodical
Organize and develop detailed plans for a current task, listing and sequencing tasks and subtasks to accomplish the goal.

Emergent
Plunge into a current task without detailed plans, trusting that a solution will emerge regardless of the starting point.

Dynamic Personality Type

Personality type is the result of the interplay of a person's four preferences, represented by one pole of each dichotomy. This interplay is of a dynamic and interactive nature rather than a static or additive one: The whole type is hypothesized to be greater than the sum of the four preferences it encompasses. It is assumed that every individual has access to all eight preference poles—Extraversion *and* Introversion, Sensing *and* Intuition, Thinking *and* Feeling, a Judging attitude *and* a Perceiving attitude. The underlying rationale for this assumption is that each of these functions and attitudes is necessary for psychological adaptation and therefore is present in every person's psychological makeup. However, each is likely to be used with greater or lesser comfort and facility by an individual, depending on its dynamic status within his or her type.

Dynamic status is represented in the Jung/Myers theory as the likely use and development of the system's four functions, or processes (Sensing, Intuition, Thinking, Feeling), which may be dominant (most used, capable of development, and under conscious control), auxiliary (second in use, development, and conscious access), tertiary (third in use and development, and relatively unconscious), or inferior (least used and developed, and primarily unconscious). The theory also specifies that the auxiliary function must be the "other kind" of mental function to that of the dominant; that is, if the dominant function is one of the perceiving functions (Sensing or Intuition), then the auxiliary function must be one of the judging functions (Thinking or Feeling); if the dominant function is one of the judging functions (Thinking or Feeling), then the auxiliary function must be one of the perceiving functions (Sensing or Intuition). By conceptualizing the psyche in this way, an individual has reasonable conscious access to one kind of perception and one kind of judgment so that two critical human endeavors can be directed and controlled.

Both Jung and Myers specified that people who by nature prefer the Extraverted attitude and are most comfortable in that attitude tend to use their dominant, most consciously accessible function when extraverting; people who by nature prefer the Introverted attitude and are most comfortable in that attitude, tend to use their dominant, most consciously accessible function when introverting. Jung, with Myers and Briggs concurring, was also clear that the fourth, inferior function operated primarily in the opposite, less preferred attitude of Extraversion or Introversion. It should be noted that Jung's use of the term *inferior function* was in contrast to his alternative term for the dominant function, which was the *superior function*. The fourth function is "inferior" only in the sense of being last in its accessibility to conscious control.

Jung did not provide clear guidelines regarding the attitude of the auxiliary and tertiary functions. Myers and Briggs amplified and extended Jung's theory by specifying that for sound and healthy adaptation, the auxiliary function operated in the less preferred attitude. In extending Jung's system in this way, they provided for a comfortable and effective way of extraverting and introverting, both of which are necessary for human functioning.

With regard to the attitude of the tertiary function, Myers and Briggs assumed it was opposite to that of the dominant function, as were the auxiliary and inferior functions. This convention was followed in all three MBTI manuals, although there are alternative views regarding the issue. Because there is relatively little theoretical or empirical evidence favoring one attitude or the other as habitual for the tertiary function, its attitude is not specified in this book.

The assumptions of a hierarchy and habitual attitudinal direction are reflected in the designation of each type, for example, Introverted Intuition with Extraverted Thinking. The first term identifies the type's dominant function and attitude whereas the second term specifies the auxiliary function and attitude. The tertiary and inferior functions do not appear in the type code or title of the type, but they are implicit opposites: The tertiary is opposite to the auxiliary in function, and the inferior is opposite to the dominant in both function and attitude.

The hierarchy of functions and associated attitudes is also implicit in the type description of the four-letter type in question. The type description is a detailed narrative that is the primary way that type results are presented. The most theoretically grounded type descriptions (Myers, 1998; Myers et al., 1998) are an orderly presentation of the personality qualities that result from having a dominant function operating in the preferred attitude, an auxiliary function in the less preferred attitude, a tertiary function that is relatively unconscious, and an inferior function that takes the less preferred attitude and is largely unconscious.

Rationale for Determining Type Dynamics

The method for determining type dynamics can seem confusing to people new to type, but it is actually straightforward once the basic assumptions detailed earlier are recognized. The following points reinforce the theoretical assumptions underlying the method:

- If the dominant (first) function is one of the Perceiving pair (Sensing or Intuition), the auxiliary (second) will be one of the Judging pair (Thinking or Feeling), and vice versa.

- The dominant function tends to be used in the preferred attitude of Extraversion or Introversion, thus stipulating that the favorite mental activity operates with the preferred kind of energy.
- The auxiliary function is complementary to the dominant function and tends to be used in the less preferred attitude of Extraversion or Introversion, thus giving a person access to both the other important kind of mental activity (judgment or perception, depending on which is the dominant function) and to the less preferred kind of energy (Extraversion or Introversion, whichever is less preferred). Remember that both perception and judgment are necessary for adaptation—as are both kinds of energy.
- The tertiary function is opposite to the auxiliary. An attitude for the tertiary function is not designated due to differences of opinion in this regard.
- The inferior, fourth function is opposite to the dominant function in both function and attitude (e.g., if the dominant function is Extraverted Thinking, the inferior function is Introverted Feeling).

Recall that the J–P dichotomy identifies which function the type uses in the Extraverted attitude—regardless of whether Extraversion is the preferred attitude or not: A person with a Judging (J) preference Extraverts either thinking or Feeling, whichever of the two is preferred; a person with a Perceiving (P) preference extraverts Sensing or Intuition, whichever one of the two is preferred. Because the Jung/Myers theory specifies the use of the dominant function in the preferred attitude and the auxiliary in the less preferred, it follows that (a) for extraverts the function that is extraverted is the dominant function, and the function that is introverted is the auxiliary function; and (b) for Introverts the function that is extraverted is the auxiliary function, because their dominant function is used in their preferred attitude Introversion.

Rules to Determine Type Dynamics

The assumptions of type dynamics lead to a logical procedure for determining the dynamics of any four-letter type. Remember that the first letter of the code shows the energy preference, the second letter the perception preference, the third letter the judgment preference, and the fourth letter the preference for using judgment or perception while extraverting. We will illustrate the procedure using two types who differ only in their J or P preference, INFJ and INFP:

Rule 1.   One of the two middle letters is the dominant function; the other is the auxiliary function. *Example*: For both INFJ and INFP, N or F is dominant; N or F is auxiliary.

Rule 2.   One of the two middle letters is extraverted; the other is introverted. *Example*: For both INFJ and INFP, N or F is extraverted; N or F is introverted.

Rule 3.   The last letter (J or P) always tells us which of the two middle letters is extraverted. If the last letter is J, Thinking (T) or Feeling (F) is extraverted because Thinking and Feeling are the two judging functions. *Example*: For INFJ, F is extraverted, and applying Rule 2, N is introverted (i.e., $N_i F_e$). If the last letter is P, Sensing (S) or Intuition (N) is extraverted because Sensing and Intuition are the two perceiving functions. *Example*: For INFP, N is extraverted, and applying Rule 2, F is introverted (i.e., $N_e F_i$).

Rule 4.   The first letter tells us what the preferred attitude is, either Extraversion (E) or Introversion (I). *Example*: For INFJ, the preferred attitude is Introversion (I) (i.e., $IN_i F_e J$). For INFP, the preferred attitude is Introversion (I) (i.e., $IN_e F_i P$).

Rule 5.   The dominant function is typically used in the preferred attitude of Extraversion or Introversion. *Example*: For I**N_i** F_eJ, the middle letter that is introverted is N for Intuition. The dominant function of INFJ is therefore Introverted Intuition (N_i). For IN_e**F_i**P, the middle letter that is introverted is F for Feeling. The dominant function of INFP is therefore Introverted Feeling (F_i).

Rule 6.   Following Rule 1, the "other letter" (the one that identifies the auxiliary function) for I**N_i** F_eJ is Feeling, which, according to Rule 2, is extraverted. *Example*: The auxiliary function for INFJ is Extraverted Feeling. The dynamics of INFJ are stated as *dominant introverted Intuition with auxiliary extraverted Feeling.* The "other letter" (the auxiliary function) for IN_e**F_i**P is Intuition, which, according to Rule 2, is extraverted. The auxiliary function for INFP is extraverted Intuition. The dynamics of INFP are stated as *dominant introverted Feeling with auxiliary extraverted Intuition.*

Rule 7.   The tertiary function is opposite to the auxiliary function. We will not specify an attitude for the tertiary function. *Example*: For INFJ, Thinking (T) is the opposite of auxiliary F and is the tertiary function (i.e., $\mathrm{I}\mathbf{N_i}\mathrm{F_e}\mathrm{J}$ with T below). For INFP, Sensing (S) is the opposite of auxiliary N and is the tertiary function (i.e., $\mathrm{I}\mathbf{N_e}\mathrm{F_i}\mathrm{J}$ with S below).

Rule 8.   The inferior function is opposite to the dominant function and takes the opposite attitude. *Example*: For I**N_i** F_eJ, Extraverted Sensing is the opposite of dominant introverted Intuition and is therefore the inferior function (i.e., $\mathrm{I}\mathbf{N_i}\mathrm{F_e}\mathrm{J}$ with S_e below). For IN_e**F_i**P, Extraverted Thinking is the opposite of dominant introverted Feeling and is therefore the inferior function (i.e., $\mathrm{I}\mathbf{N_e}\mathrm{F_i}\mathrm{J}$ with T_e below).

Note that INFJ and INFP have three type preferences in common, I, N, and F, so we might reasonably expect that these two types are very much the same. But according to type theory, their dynamics—the nature and direction of flow of energy of their mental functions—are quite different. These differences show up in the behavior of these two types and are in accord with these types' dynamic differences. This important information can be put to practical use in the assessment of their personalities and functioning during the course of counseling and psychotherapy.

To further illuminate the effects of type dynamics, let us contrast the type ENFP with INFP, two types that also have three letters in common. Will these two types be as different in dynamics as the INFJ and INFP? Briefly, ENFP extraverts the preferred perceiving function, N. Since Extraversion is the preferred attitude, N_e (Extraverted Intuition) is the dominant function. ENFP introverts the preferred judging function, F. Since Introversion is the less preferred attitude, F_i (Introverted Feeling) is the auxiliary function. The tertiary function is opposite to the auxiliary, and is therefore T. The inferior function is opposite in function and attitude to the dominant function, and is therefore S_i (Introverted Sensing). The total dynamics for ENFP are $^{\mathrm{EN_eF_i}}_{\mathrm{S_iT}}\mathrm{P}$. The total dynamics for INFP are $^{\mathrm{IN_eF_i}}_{\mathrm{S\,T_e}}\mathrm{P}$.

In an important way, INFP and ENFP could be considered more similar to each other than INFP and INFJ because they use their two conscious functions, the dominant and auxiliary *in the same attitudes.* Yet their more unconscious expressions can be expected to be rather different, because for ENFP, Introverted Sensing is the inferior function and Thinking is the tertiary function, whereas for INFP, Extraverted Thinking is the inferior function and Sensing is the tertiary function. This and the differential availability of energy for their respective functions account for some important observable differences between these two types.

Similar differences occur for other types who share middle letters but differ on either J and P, or E and I—or both. Chapter 4 discusses some of the dynamic differences between types, and chapter 6 includes examples of their effects in relation to clinical applications of the MBTI instrument.

You can test your understanding of type dynamics by following the steps in Don't Forget 1.1, which focuses on two other types that differ only in their preference for E or I, ESTP and ISTP. You can also figure out the dynamics of any other type and check your accuracy by consulting Rapid Reference 1.3, which shows each four-letter type, its dynamic designation, and its specified tertiary and inferior function.

A Fundamental Theoretical Distinction

The chief advantage of a theoretically based assessment device is that it provides a cohesive structure within which personality differences can be described,

DON'T FORGET

1.1 Finding the Dynamics for ESTP and ISTP

		ESTP	ISTP
Rule 1:	The dominant function is either:	S or T	S or T
	The auxiliary function is either:	S or T	S or T
Rule 2:	The function that is extraverted is either:	S or T	S or T
	The function that is introverted is either:	S or T	S or T
Rule 3:	The last letter is:	P	P
	So the extraverted function is:	S_e	S_e
Applying Rule 2, the introverted function is:		T_i	T_i
Rule 4:	The preferred attitude is:	E	I
Rule 5:	The function that is used in the preferred attitude is:	S_e	T_i
	The dominant function is therefore:	S_e	T_i
Rule 6:	The function used in the less preferred attitude is:	T_i	S_e
	The auxiliary function is therefore:	T_i	S_e
Rule 7:	The function opposite the auxiliary function is:	F	N
	The tertiary function is therefore:	F	N
Rule 8:	The function/attitude opposite the dominant function is:	N_i	F_e
	The inferior function is therefore:	N_i	F_e

explained, and predicted. However, this puts extra construction and validation requirements on the developer and an added burden on the user, who must understand the theory well enough to apply the instrument appropriately. A fundamental feature of Jung's theory—and therefore the construction and accurate interpretation of the MBTI instrument—is that it postulates qualitatively distinct *categories* rather than more familiar behavioral *traits* that vary along a continuum.

Don't Forget 1.2 shows the differences between MBTI type assessment and contrasting trait approaches. Caution 1.1 lists the dangers of misinterpreting type categories as trait variables. Avoiding these errors is essential for accurate administration (chapter 2) and interpretation (chapter 4) of the instrument.

Basis for MBTI Step II Assessment

From the beginning of the development of the MBTI assessment, Myers planned ultimately to individualize the 16 type descriptions, recognizing that members of the same type could vary widely in the way they experienced and expressed their

≡ *Rapid Reference*

1.3 Dynamic Characteristics of the 16 Types

Type	Dynamic Name	Tertiary	Inferior
ISTJ	Introverted Sensing with Extraverted Thinking	Feeling	Extraverted Intuition
ISFJ	Introverted Sensing with Extraverted Feeling	Thinking	Extraverted Intuition
ESTP	Extraverted Sensing with Introverted Thinking	Feeling	Introverted Intuition
ESFP	Extraverted Sensing with Introverted Feeling	Thinking	Introverted Intuition
INTJ	Introverted Intuition with Extraverted Thinking	Feeling	Extraverted Sensing
INFJ	Introverted Intuition with Extraverted Feeling	Thinking	Extraverted Sensing
ENTP	Extraverted Intuition with Introverted Thinking	Feeling	Introverted Sensing
ENFP	Extraverted Intuition with Introverted Feeling	Thinking	Introverted Sensing
ISTP	Introverted Thinking with Extraverted Sensing	Intuition	Extraverted Feeling
INTP	Introverted Thinking with Extraverted Intuition	Sensing	Extraverted Feeling
ESTJ	Extraverted Thinking with Introverted Sensing	Intuition	Introverted Feeling
ENTJ	Extraverted Thinking with Introverted Intuition	Sensing	Introverted Feeling
ISFP	Introverted Feeling with Extraverted Sensing	Intuition	Extraverted Thinking
INFP	Introverted Feeling with Extraverted Intuition	Sensing	Extraverted Thinking
ESFJ	Extraverted Feeling with Introverted Sensing	Intuition	Introverted Thinking
ENFJ	Extraverted Feeling with Introverted Intuition	Sensing	Introverted Thinking

DON'T FORGET

1.2 Differences between Trait-Based Assessment and MBTI Assessment

Trait Assessments	MBTI Assessment
Assume universal qualities—people vary only in the amount of the trait possessed	Assumes qualitatively distinct categories—individuals prefer one or the other category
Measure the amount of each trait	Sorts individuals into one or the other category
Scores are expected to be normally distributed—most scores are in the middle	Scores are expected to be bimodal—few scores at the midpoint
Scores are variables that show how much of the trait a person has	Scores are estimates of confidence in the accuracy of the sorting procedure—placement into the category indicated
Interpretive interest is in people at the extremes of the distribution	Interpretive interest is in people near the midpoint, where accuracy of sorting may be in doubt
Assume that behavior is caused by relevant underlying traits	Assumes that behavior is an expression of underlying type preferences
Assume that traits are largely independent of each other	Assumes that the four type preferences interact dynamically to form a whole that is different from the sum of its parts
Traits are usually identified by a single descriptor	Type dichotomies are identified by their two opposite poles
Very high and/or very low scores on a trait can be negative or diagnostic	The numerical portion of MBTI results has no negative or diagnostic meaning

type characteristics. Her unpublished work in this area was the basis for subsequent development of versions of the MBTI instrument that reported scores on subscales or facets of each dichotomy. These scoring systems were published from 1987 through 1997 (Mitchell, Quenk, & Kummerow, 1997; Myers & Briggs, 1996; Quenk & Kummerow, 1996; Saunders, 1987, 1989) representing several revisions and updates and culminating in the current MBTI Step II (Form Q) (Quenk, Hammer, & Majors, 2001). Readers interested in the developmental history of Step II versions can find information in the Step II manual (2001).

C A U T I O N

1.1 Consequences of Mistaking Type Categories for Trait Variables

- Reading positive or negative meaning into numerical preference clarity indexes—that either more clarity, less clarity, or moderate clarity is better or worse

- Assuming that people with very clear preferences have "more of" the function or attitude than people with less clear preferences

- Believing that greater clarity implies greater skill or maturity of use of a preference

- Inferring that one or the other preference pole of a dichotomy is "better" or "healthier" than the other

- Assessing people from the standpoint of a single norm of psychological health rather than considering what is usual and expected for their type

Rationale Underlying Step II

The Jung-Myers theory assumes that our basic type preferences, or at least tendencies to develop in particular typological directions, are inborn (though not immutable). A child whose developing natural type is validated and encouraged will, hypothetically, develop all or most of the various ways to experience and express that type. But since a totally perfect and affirming environment is unlikely to exist, an individual may adopt strategies, coping devices, useful habits, and interests that tap into one or another aspect of a preference that is opposite to the natural, inborn one. For example, a natural Introvert raised in a family of Extraverts may adopt some socializing and relating behaviors that are consistently rewarded by the family and others. Over time, engaging in those behaviors may feel so natural and comfortable that they become habitual aspects that modify (but do not change the essence of) the person's basic preference for Introversion.

Earlier in this chapter, as you were reading detailed descriptions of the opposite poles of each dichotomy, you probably tried to figure out your own basic type preferences. You may have clearly resonated with all of the qualities associated with one pole of a dichotomy and feel quite confident that it is your preference. It is also possible that you were fairly well described by, for example, Intuition but that there were one or two ways you connected to the description of Sensing. Perhaps in your development of your natural preference for Intuition, you found

it useful, necessary, or rewarding to adopt one or another way of using Sensing. You might then be best described as having *an underlying preference* for Intuition, but habitually using one or two facets of Sensing. MBTI Step II approach identifies and describes such "variations on the theme of type." These variations can be thought of as resulting from a compromise between the individual's natural type and the demands of the environment. As such, Step II information provides a window into the nature of a person's individuality within his or her type and thus vastly increases our understanding of our clients and our ability to provide effective counseling.

Research Foundation of Step II

As mentioned earlier and shown in detail in Rapid Reference 1.2, the Step II method of individualizing type reports rests on the multifaceted nature of the Jung-Myers type constructs.

Versions of the Step II instrument that preceded the 2001 Form Q version used both exploratory and confirmatory factor analytic techniques to identify the subscales or facets. Form Q was developed using both factor analysis and item Response Theory (IRT). In contrast to earlier versions that relied on large samples of convenience, Form Q is based on a much smaller but carefully drawn random sample of the U.S. population aged 18 and over. Sample members responded concurrently to a number of other measures, providing valuable validity information.

RESEARCH FOUNDATION

Throughout its long history, the MBTI instrument has undergone continuous and meticulous research—on its construction, the various ways of estimating its reliability, and the abundant and varied studies regarding its validity in diverse areas of interest.

Construction of Items and Scales

Theoretical requirements were primary in the development of items and construction of the four MBTI scales. Items ask about simple surface behaviors and attitudes that are designed to reflect the presence of an underlying preference for one or the other mental function (S or N; T or F) or attitude (E or I; J or P). Because the goal was to identify slight as well as clear preferences on each dichotomy, items were not worded extremely. Because using logically opposed wording on some items could engender adverse social desirability (e.g.,

"convincing" versus "unconvincing"), opposite choices were designed as "psychological equivalents" that would be meaningful to people holding the preference in question (e.g., "convincing" versus "touching"). The major concern in scale construction was to achieve maximum accuracy in the placement of the midpoint separating the poles of each dichotomy, since the goal was to sort people into categories rather than measure the amount of a trait. Although accurately separating the poles of the bipolar categorical Step II facets was also a concern, identifying a specific single midpoint for the facet scales was not possible or deemed justified because of the brevity of the facet scales (5–9 items). A *Midzone* score was therefore defined as the three scores at the center of the 11-point distribution of each facet scale. Evidence supporting the midzone concept comes from consistently similar descriptions by individuals who score in this category on each of the 20 facets. The specificity of descriptions by people scoring in each midzone is in contrast to the kinds of statements made by many respondents with slight preference clarity indexes on the Step I questionnaire, such as, "I do both," "I don't have a preference," I'm not sure," and the like. There are therefore 3 categories identified in Step II profiles and reports: scores of 2-5 to the left of the midzone, midzone scores of 0 or 1, and scores of 2-5 to the right of the midzone. As will be seen in chapters 2, 3, and 4, item wording and scale construction have an impact on administration, scoring, and interpretation of both steps of the MBTI instrument and they are discussed further in those contexts.

Norms

Norms are appropriate for trait measures but inappropriate in a type-based instrument. Norms are not reported for MBTI Step I. The Step II report provides interpreters with the average range of facet scores for people who are the same type as the respondent, a measure that has limited usefulness. (Of greater value for Step II interpretation, particularly for counseling clients, is the "Polarity Index" discussed in chapter 6, which assesses the consistency with which a client shows clear preferences across all 20 Step II scales). For Step I interpretation, type tables are used to report the frequency and percent of each of the 16 types in a sample of interest. To draw meaningful conclusions about the frequency of the types in a particular sample, an appropriate base population is used for comparison. For example, if one wishes to know which types, if any, are over- or underrepresented among Ph.D. psychologists, the comparison base population would be holders of the Ph.D. degree in a wide range of disciplines; if interest was in the types of college students who are likely to seek personal counseling, the appropriate base

population would be a general sample of college students. The statistic used to show over- and underrepresentation of types is called a self-selection ratio (SSR), and type tables that show SSR data are called selection ratio type tables (McCaulley, 1985). The SSR, also referred to as the Index of Attraction, is calculated by dividing the percentage of a type in the sample of interest by the percentage of that type in the base population to obtain a ratio. Ratios greater than 1.00 indicate overrepresentation of the type relative to the base population, ratios of less than 1.00 show underrepresentation of the type, and ratios around 1.00 reflect about the same representation as the base population. The statistical significance of SSRs is estimated using a chi-square technique. For example, research on educationally oriented leisure activities for each of the 16 types (DiTiberio, 1998) reported an SSR of 2.64 ($p < .01$) for INFJs for the category Writing and an SSR of 0.45 ($p < .05$) for this same type for the category Watching Sporting Events; ISTJs showed an SSR of 1.21 ($p < .01$) for Watching Sporting Events and an SSR of 0.52 ($p < .01$) for Writing. Thus a leisure activity that is quite attractive to INFJs is significantly unattractive to ISTJs, and one that significantly attracts ISTJs is significantly unattractive to INFJs. (See Appendix A for an example of a Selection Ratio Type Table for a large sample of counselors.)

Type tables for different careers typically "make sense" when one considers that people try to choose work that will maximize their opportunities to exercise their preferences. For example, a type table of librarians and another of writers and authors both showed that all of the Intuitive types were overrepresented, with INFJ having the highest SSR for both librarians (4.28) and writers (6.20), and all of the Sensing types were underrepresented (Schaubhut & Thompson, 2008). The "sense" of these results follows from descriptions of Sensing and Intuition.

Reliability

Internal consistency and test-retest reliability have been reported for each scale of the MBTI instrument and vary somewhat depending on the nature of the sample studied. Coefficient alpha results available for the largest and most general sample of male and female adults ($N = 2,859$) tested with Form M are .91 for the E–I and T–F scales and .92 for the S–N and J–P scales (Myers et al., 1998). Test-retest reliabilities are given for each scale separately and for whole four-letter types. Because type is hypothesized to remain stable over the life span, this latter measure of reliability is the most important. Test-retest reliabilities vary somewhat with the interval between administrations and also with the age of sample members; younger samples tend to have somewhat lower reliabilities, a result in accord with the theory, which hypothesizes that type develops over the life span and is more

likely to be incompletely developed in younger individuals. The developmental hypothesis and its empirical verification are relevant to both administration and especially interpretation of type to clients in different ages and stages of life. With a 4-week interval between administrations, using the most general sample available ($N = 258$), 66% reported all four letters the same and 91% were the same on three out of four preferences. Detailed information on these estimates and additional reliability information can be found in the most recent MBTI manual (Myers et al., 1998).

For MBTI Step II results, both test-retest and internal consistency reliability have been reported for the 20 facet scales using the national sample used to develop the Step II instrument as well as a sample of adults and another of college students. Alphas range from .52 for the Practical-Conceptual scale in the student sample to .87 for the Initiating-Receiving scale in the adult sample. Consistent with Step I Form M internal consistency reliabilities (and for the same hypothesized reason), reliabilities of the Step II facet scales are lower for the college sample than for the adult sample. Test-retest reliabilities of Step II continuous scores for a sample of adults and a sample of college students, both tested 30 days apart, indicated that coefficients for the adult sample ranged from .56 for the Questioning-Accommodating scale to .90 for the Initiating-Receiving scale, and for the student sample ranged from .55 for Methodical-Emergent to .78 for Initiating-Receiving. Stability of Step II scores for the three categories (scores of 2–5 toward the left pole of the scale; midzone scores of 1 or 0; scores of 2–5 toward the right pole of the scale) were also examined. For the adult sample, scores ranged from 84% remaining in the same category for Planful–Open-ended to 57% for Questioning-Accommodating; for the student sample, scores ranged from 72% for Initiating-Receiving, Enthusiastic-Quiet, and Logical-Empathetic to 50% for Questioning-Accommodating (Quenk, Hammer, & Majors, 2001). Details of Step II reliability information as well as inferences about its practical meaning for specific client samples can be found in the Step II manual.

Validity

A theory-based test must demonstrate that it adequately reflects the theory it purports to represent. For the MBTI assessment this entails demonstrating that the preference poles of each dichotomy correspond to Jung/Myers definitions and, most important, that the dynamic interactions hypothesized by Jung and Myers occur. Years of correlational and behavioral research demonstrate the correspondence of the eight preference poles to theoretical prediction (Hammer, 1996; Myers & McCaulley, 1985; Myers et al., 1998). A variety of statistical methods

have been utilized in MBTI research, including the SSR method described earlier. Correlational research looks at one dichotomy at a time and treats MBTI data as though they varied along a continuum, a method that contradicts the MBTI assumption of qualitatively distinct categories. These and other studies of individual dichotomies do not address the dynamic aspect of the MBTI assessment, although they can provide useful information for practitioners about some of the behavioral traits that develop as a result of the exercise of underlying type preferences. The most fruitful lines of research look at the behavior of whole types and dynamic qualities of those types. Several studies supporting the dynamic nature of the Jung-Myers theory have been reported (Mitchell, 2006; Myers et al., 1998). Chapter 6 applies some of the results of studies of whole types and type dynamics to clinical issues.

The validity of the MBTI Step II assessment has been explored in several ways, including a confirmatory factor analysis, which showed strong evidence of the construct validity of the facet scales. A wide variety of measures have been used to demonstrate the validity of the 20 Step II scales. These include correlations with the California Psychological Inventory (CPI) (Gough & Bradley, 1996), Adjective Check List (ACL) (Gough & Heilbrun, 1983), and self-descriptions of attitudes and behaviors related to health, work, stress, coping, relationships, and values (Quenk, Hammer, & Majors, 2001). Studies of earlier forms of the Step II instrument looked at the relation between Step II facets and the Fundamental

≡ *Rapid Reference*

1.4 The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator Standard Form M

Author: Isabel Briggs Myers and Katharine C. Briggs

Publication date: 1998

What the instrument provides: Identification of Jungian personality type

Age range: Approximately 12 years and up

Administration time: 15–25 minutes

Qualifications of examiners: Completion of a course in the interpretation of psychological assessments and measurement at an accredited college or university or successful completion of CPP-licensed MBTI Certification Program, which after January, 2009, includes training in MBTI Step II assessment.

Publisher: CPP, Inc.
          1055 Joaquin Road, 2nd Floor
          Mountain View, CA 94043

≡ *Rapid Reference*

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1.5 The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator Standard Form Q

Author: Katharine C. Briggs and Isabel Briggs Myers

Publication date: 2001

What the instrument provides: Scores on 20 facets of the four MBTI Step I dichotomies.

Age range: 18 years and up

Administration time: 25 to 35 minutes

Qualifications of examiners: Certified to administer and interpret Step I (*and* after January, 2009, completion of an approved Step II training program).

Publisher: CPP, Inc.

Interpersonal Relations Orientation—Behavior (FIRO-B) (Fleenor & Van Velsor, 1995), behavioral descriptors (Harker & Reynierse, 1999), and Benchmarks scales (Van Velsor & Fleenor, 1997). Based on these and other studies, there is strong evidence for the validity of the Step II facet scales. Note that Step II results do not lend themselves to being arrayed in type table format as is common for Step I data, so this way of appraising the validity of the Step II facets is not available.

COMPREHENSIVE REFERENCES

MBTI Manual: A Guide to the Development and Use of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (Myers et al., 1998) provides the most complete and detailed theoretical, psychometric, and research information on the MBTI Step I assessment as well as practical guidance for its use in five areas of application.

MBTI Step II Manual: Exploring the Next Level of Type with the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator Form Q (Quenk, Hammer, & Majors, 2001) provides complete, detailed theoretical, psychometric, and research information on the MBTI Step II instrument, including its applications in both counseling and organizational environments.

MBTI Applications: A Decade of Research on the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (Hammer, 1996) contains contributed chapters summarizing the reliability and validity of the MBTI instrument as well as research that was completed in the decade after publication of the 1985 MBTI (Step I) manual.

CAPT® Bibliography for the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator is a comprehensive, frequently updated bibliography of published and unpublished work on the MBTI assessment. It is available on the Web for free keyword searching at CAPT.org. The *Center for Applications of Psychological Type*™ (CAPT) also houses a library of type resources at its offices in Gainesville, Florida.

The Journal of Psychological Type, formerly published quarterly, is devoted entirely to research and application articles and reviews on psychological type. The journal was first published

in 1978 as an annual. It is now available as a monthly online journal. (Contact CAPT for subscription information.)

Rapid References 1.4 and 1.5 provide basic information on the MBTI Step I and Step II instruments and their publisher.

✍ TEST YOURSELF ✍

1. **Why are forced-choice questions appropriate for the MBTI instrument and a Likert-type scale inappropriate?**

2. **What are three consequences of treating type preferences as though they were behavioral traits?**

3. **Why are both poles of a dichotomy described in neutral or positive ways?**
   (a) to promote self-esteem in self-critical people
   (b) to communicate the legitimacy of opposite ways of being
   (c) so that people will be motivated to identify their preference
   (d) both b and c

4. **According to type theory, type preferences are**
   (a) habits that are learned through interacting with the environment.
   (b) innate dispositions that develop over time.
   (c) more clear in young people than in mature adults.
   (d) likely to change at midlife.

5. **What is the self-selection ratio useful for?**
   (a) comparing trait approaches and type approaches to personality
   (b) determining which types will be successful in different careers
   (c) showing whether some types select and other types avoid a particular career
   (d) all of the above

6. **Why are correlational studies of the MBTI instrument limited?**
   (a) They can only look at one scale at a time.
   (b) They violate the assumption of dichotomies.
   (c) They cannot test the dynamic aspect of the instrument.
   (d) All of the above.

7. **When respondents read item choices on the MBTI questionnaire, why might they be likely to say "But I do both of those!"?**

8. **What do type preferences reflect?**
   (a) what you are able to do under pressure
   (b) what you are comfortable doing under pressure

continued

(c) what feels natural and comfortable when there is no pressure

(d) all of the above

9. Why is the wording of some MBTI items not logically opposite?

10. What was the E–I dichotomy of the MBTI assessment designed to do?

(a) measure how extraverted or introverted a person is

(b) determine whether a person has a preference for Extraversion or Intro-version

(c) both a and b

(d) neither a nor b

11. The dominant function for ENFP is

(a) Extraverted Feeling.

(b) Extraverted Perceiving.

(c) Extraverted Intuition.

(d) Introverted Intuition.

12. Type theory postulates that everyone uses each mental function and attitude at least some of the time. True or False?

13. MBTI Step II results show a respondent's individual way of expressing his or her type. True or False?

14. Which of the following is *incorrect* regarding Step II facet scores?

(a) The 11-point score range includes 2–5 to the left of the center point, 2-to 5 to the right of the center point, and a midzone score of 0 or 1 on either side of 0.

(b) Each of the 5 facets within a dichotomy reflects one relatively narrow aspect of the dichotomy.

(c) Myers anticipated Step II Form Q by developing an early version.

(d) Step II Form Q is based on a large sample of counselors and educators.

15. What rationale underlies development of the MBTI Step II instrument?

Answers: 1. Likert scales elicit *degree* of rather than the required *preference for*; 2. Seeing one pole as "healthier" than the other; thinking the preference clarity index indicates "how much" preference a person has; defining one pole as a deficit of the other; 3. d; 4. b; 5. c; 6. d; 7. Both poles are adaptive and therefore people use both some of the time; 8. c; 9. Logical opposites can yield socially undesirable choices so *psychological* rather than logical equivalence is used; 10. b; 11. c; 12. True; 13. True; 14. d; 15. Facet results represent a compromise between innate preferences and environmental demands.

Two

HOW TO ADMINISTER THE MBTI®
INSTRUMENT

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator personality inventory is essentially self-administered, and the question-and-answer booklets and online administration methods contain the basic instructions needed for filling out the questionnaire. There are a number of administration issues, however, that can have an impact on obtaining valid MBTI results. For example, respondents can purposely answer items so as to appear to be a particular kind of person, rather than answering according to their actual inclinations. The instrument itself does not include any way of detecting such possible response distortion. Respondents should therefore be provided with good reasons to be candid in their answers and given little reason to misrepresent themselves. Supplying the right kind and amount of information before administration generally maximizes valid results. However, with increasing administration of the MBTI assessment using the publisher's Web services methods or MBTI® Complete, there is less opportunity to orient respondents prior to their taking the questionnaire. This can be particularly problematical when respondents take the MBTI instrument at work. They are very likely to automatically answer questions as their "work selves," which may not be their natural type. Users are therefore advised to employ whatever means they can to instruct respondents in advance of their taking the instrument. The relevant administration guidelines are directly or indirectly related to type theory as it was described in Chapter 1.

HOW TO INTRODUCE THE MBTI ASSESSMENT

Providing clients with an appropriate test-taking attitude is essential. Type theory assumes that both poles of each dichotomy are used by every individual, though typically with different frequency, confidence, enthusiasm, and ease. MBTI items therefore ask the respondent to choose between two options that are familiar and acceptable. The respondent is asked to choose the option that is most natural, comfortable, and automatic—what he or she does when not under the pressure of a time limit or an external reward or coercion. However, situational demands can

≡ Rapid Reference

2.1 What to Tell Clients about the MBTI Assessment

- It deals with normal, naturally varying preferences in the ways we acquire information and come to conclusions.
- Questions are best answered according to what is most natural and comfortable, not what a person can do or is required to do.
- The results are designed to be of primary interest and benefit to the client.
- The client is the final judge of the accuracy of the results.
- The instrument is not a test of skills or abilities, so there are no right or wrong answers and no better or worse results.
- The MBTI assessment does not identify psychological or emotional problems.

sometimes blur or mask natural preference, leading certain respondents to have difficulty answering some of the MBTI questions. For example, some people may state that they are different at work than they are at home—so how should they answer? It is best to have such a person think about which setting permits or brings out their most natural ways of doing things. For most people, this is likely to be "at home"; for others, "at work" may be the answer.

Past test-taking experience can influence a client's approach to taking the assessment, and any incorrect assumption about its nature and purposes can be detrimental to the accuracy and usefulness of results. Rapid Reference 2.1 summarizes points to include when initially introducing clients to the MBTI instrument. Some or all of the following tips can also help orient clients.

- Refer to the MBTI assessment as a personality inventory, a questionnaire, or an indicator. Do not refer to it as a *test*, since the word test implies right and wrong answers.
- Explain that the MBTI inventory gives information about natural preferences in how people gather information and how they come to conclusions.
- You can further explain that knowing about one's own and other people's personality preferences can be helpful in areas such as communication and problem solving, career choice, learning styles, personal interests and development, counseling and psychotherapy—depending on why you are asking the client to fill out the Indicator.
- If a client inquires about the forthcoming results, say that results will be in the form of a description of one of 16 possible personality types. The client will assess whether the type he or she reports fits well. If the type reported does not fit, you will help the client identify a better fitting type.

- If you are administering Form Q to someone to whom you will be providing both Step I and Step II feedback, say that there will also be additional information about specific aspects of their personality type.
- Advise the client to answer questions according to what is natural and comfortable, not what he or she is capable of doing under pressure.
- Advise clients that they should not think very long about each question; their first, spontaneous response to a question is likely to be the most natural.

Guidelines during Administration

There is no prescribed time limit for taking either MBTI Step I or MBTI Step II inventories. Sufficient time should be allotted so that slower respondents will not feel pressured to complete the instrument within the 15 to 25 minutes that is generally needed for Step I administration or the 25 to 35 minutes usually needed for Step II completion. On-line respondents to either Form M or Q can take whatever amount of time they wish.

Many respondents do not notice that the question-and-answer booklet instructions state that omissions are permitted. The rationale for allowing omissions is that if a person truly cannot choose between two options, forcing an answer does not help to identify a preference—it merely adds unreliability to the results. Omitting such an item is preferable to a "guess." However, some respondents may spend so much time considering an item that their automatic, natural response (if they have one) becomes obscured; having been given permission to omit, they may leave out enough items to produce an invalid profile. Three to four omissions on any one dichotomy can produce a problematical scoring situation. The administrator will not know during administration which omissions belong to which dichotomy. If more

≡ *Rapid Reference*

2.2 Standard Administration Guidelines

- There is no time limit for taking the MBTI questionnaire, but it is best not to spend too long on any one item.
- One's immediate response to an item most likely reflects a preference.
- Items can be omitted, but only if it is really not possible to make a choice.
- Do not give the respondent definitions of words or phrases. Suggest the person answer based on his or her own understanding or omit that item.
- Tell a client who is struggling to answer an item that people sometimes feel frustrated when forced to choose; no single item will affect overall results.

than three or four omissions are noted overall when the client hands in the filled-out Indicator, it may be appropriate to ask the person to consider those questions again, trying for an immediate, "instinctive" response. Online responses may not permit such follow-up. However, bear in mind that a profile whose validity is in doubt can still serve as a stimulus for helping the client identify his or her type. It is therefore usually best not to "pressure" the respondent to avoid or "correct" omissions.

Form Q, however, which can only be computer-scored for facet results, will not be scored if more than five omissions occur overall, due to the brevity of some facet scales. Encouraging but not pressuring a respondent to Form Q to answer as many questions as possible is therefore recommended.

Rapid Reference 2.2 summarizes these and other basic guidelines during MBTI administration. The first three points should be conveyed just prior to administration; the last two only as they arise during administration.

Administration Issues Relevant to MBTI Construction

Respondents sometimes comment on particular features of the MBTI questionnaire either during or after administration. The most common comments are related to the forced-choice nature of the questions, the simplicity of item wordings, and the fact that item choices are not always logically opposite. The best response to comments in these areas is to agree that being forced to choose is sometimes difficult and frustrating, that the questions do seem too simple to get at anything important, and that options are not always logically opposite. All these "complaints" are due to the goal of identifying people's preferences. Brief explanations such as the ones provided in Rapid Reference 2.3 can be offered in response to these respondent questions.

≡ *Rapid Reference*

2.3 Common Client Comments and Appropriate Responses

Client's Comment	Clinician's Response
I do both—it's hard to choose one or the other.	Yes, but the questions are asked this way to get at what you generally prefer, not what you are able to do.
The questions don't seem to be about anything important.	True. That way most people can answer them, and they do seem to work well to get at people's preferences.
Some of the questions are not really opposites.	True. That's because sometimes the exact opposite doesn't get at the right meaning.

Special Considerations in a Clinical Setting

We might expect that an assessment approach developed in a psychotherapeutic context—Carl Jung's clinical practice—would be used primarily in the conduct of psychotherapy. Although such use has been increasing over the past decade, over its lengthy lifespan the MBTI assessment has been used more often in such areas as career advisement, education, management and organizational development, leadership, problem solving, behavior in teams or groups, and most recently, for executive and other kinds of coaching.

There are some special cautions when administering the questionnaire in a clinical setting. The assessment has low face validity; that is, the questions seem too simplistic to have any bearing on important psychological attributes. The results are in the form of easily understood type descriptions that appear benign and unlikely to harm anyone. Unfortunately, there is a good deal of anecdotal evidence regarding damage done to individuals and group members by a misguided or cavalier use of the MBTI instrument (Pearman, 1993). It is especially important to ensure appropriate administration of the instrument in situations where clients are in distress and vulnerable to concretizing misinformation. Therefore it is recommended that the following information be conveyed to clients before administration.

Results are confidential. Clients should know that their results will be treated confidentially, just like any other information about them. When administering the questionnaire to couples or families, it is usually advisable to give instructions to everyone at the same time and interpret to everyone at the same time, rather than in any individual sessions that may be scheduled. Clinicians should use their own judgment about following this guideline, however, as particular circumstances may make it either practically or therapeutically ill advised. For example, scheduling problems may create unacceptably lengthy delays or added expense for clients; or a clinician may decide that the adolescent children in a particular family should be given feedback separately from their parents.

Taking the MBTI assessment is voluntary. The accuracy and usefulness of the results are entirely dependent on obtaining candid responses. A client who is required to fill out the instrument or who feels coerced to do so is unlikely to benefit from the results. Clients should be informed that taking the MBTI assessment is voluntary. Providing the information in Rapid Reference 2.1 generally takes care of any initial resistance to taking the questionnaire.

The MBTI assessment does not identify pathology. Clients may believe the results will reveal pathological, negative, or unconscious information about them, especially if other instruments they are given appear to deal with pathology. Emphasize the normal, nonpathology basis of type.

Appropriate Clients

The type Indicator may not be an appropriate assessment method for a particular client. Initial considerations involve the likelihood that a valid result will be forthcoming; equally important is whether type information is likely to be useful to the client. The first issue concerns age, reading level, and language; the second is a matter of professional judgment.

Age and Reading Level Required

A seventh-grade reading level is recommended for both Form M and Form Q. Questions are generally appropriate for clients who are 12 years of age or older. The Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children (Murphy & Meisgeier, 2008) is available for children aged approximately 8 to 12. Chapter 4 suggests uses of this instrument in conjunction with the MBTI questionnaire in family therapy. Forms M and Q should be used with caution for 12- to 13-year-olds, and they should be told that because the questions were primarily designed for adults, they may not be able to answer some questions and they may omit these questions if necessary. Younger clients are likely to be less clear about their type preferences than more mature people, as was discussed in chapter 1. Special cautions when verifying and interpreting type with young people are covered in Chapter 4.

Clients Who Have Difficulty with English

Bilingual practitioners who have non–English-speaking clients or clients whose facility with English poses a problem can consider using one of the available translations of the MBTI questionnaire. Form M has been translated into 21 languages, including 11 European languages and European English. The MBTI Step II questionnaire has been translated into some of these languages as well. A North American Spanish translation and support materials are available from the publisher, CPP, Inc. For specific information on available and forthcoming translations, see the list of distributors in the publisher's catalogue. Clients for whom English is a second language may have some difficulty answering MBTI items that use unfamiliar metaphors. Experience using the American English version with clients for whom English is a second language indicates that few items cause difficulties and that a valid estimate of type is generally obtained (Myers et al., 1998, chap. 14). However, it is important to use extra care when verifying and interpreting with such clients.

Visually Impaired Clients

There is no Braille version available, but the MBTI instrument can be administered to blind people or poor readers by reading the questions aloud, taking care to maintain a neutral tone when reading the options presented.

Effect of Situational Stress

Moderate to severe stress can influence both a client's willingness to take an instrument like the MBTI inventory as well as the accuracy of the results. People often behave in ways that deviate markedly from their natural type when they are experiencing stress, and this may affect the way they answer questions. The timing of administration should take the possibility of stress-related distortion into account.

Clients with Serious Psychological Disturbances

The MBTI assessment was not designed to indicate pathology and is entirely inappropriate for that purpose. However, it can be quite helpful for people suffering from a major psychological disorder to become aware of a natural, healthy part of themselves; such awareness can serve as a vehicle for dealing with important problem areas. Many people who suffer from a variety of psychological disorders are able to provide an accurate report of their natural type. Even when a psychological disturbance does influence the accuracy of self-report, discussing the results with a client can serve a therapeutic purpose.

Chemically Addicted Clients

MBTI administration can be a useful way of encouraging self-understanding and designing effective treatment strategies in a variety of clinical settings, including treatment for chemical addiction. Caution must be exercised, however, in the timing of administration to these populations. It is generally recommended that the respondent be drug free for at least 30 days prior to administration. A shorter interval risks substantial distortion of self-perception as a result of the addiction itself. Caution 2.1 summarizes this and other client factors that can affect the validity of MBTI results.

Appropriate Administrators

In many clinical settings the practitioner explains, solicits cooperation,

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C A U T I O N

2.1 Factors That Can Affect the Validity of MBTI Results

The client

- has an inadequate reading or comprehension level.
- is concerned about the purposes to which results will be put.
- is concerned about who will have access to results.
- misunderstands the nature of the instrument.
- wants to please the administrator and answers accordingly.
- is experiencing moderate to severe situational stress.
- has a serious psychological disturbance.
- is actively chemically addicted.

selects a scoring option, and interprets the MBTI assessment to an individual client, couple, or family. In other settings the MBTI questionnaire may be part of a battery of self-administered instruments given to the client at intake. This latter situation poses important administration issues that may impact the validity of results and require special cautions when giving feedback to clients. To minimize such effects, try one or both of these suggestions:

1. Emphasize to the person responsible for administering instruments that the client must *read all instructions on the MBTI test form*.
2. Consider removing the MBTI inventory from the battery and administering it later. Because many clients are in a highly stressed state at intake, this reduces the likelihood of obtaining an accurate self-report. In general, administering the MBTI questionnaire at the very beginning of therapy is not recommended. It is usually best to wait for evidence that an initial crisis state has abated. An exception may be with couples or in family therapy: MBTI feedback can often provide a positive and neutral ground from which to address serious relationship problems. Make sure to caution all concerned that they must not discuss the questions or their responses with each other as they fill out the Indicator.

Ethical Guidelines for MBTI Administration

Standard ethical issues and guidelines apply to the MBTI assessment just as they do to administration of other psychological instruments. In addition, the guiding principle of providing results directly to the client promotes some additional guidelines. Don't Forget 2.1 summarizes general recommendations by the publisher and by the Association for Psychological Type International (APTi), a membership organization consisting of professionals from a variety of disciplines who use the MBTI instrument in their work with clients. Guidelines relevant to verification and interpretation are included in chapter 4.

Choosing the Right Form of the Instrument

All versions of Form M contain 93 items and take 15 to 25 minutes to complete. Form Q contains 144 items requiring 25 to 35 minutes to complete. Deciding on which version to administer depends on the purposes for which it is being given as well as on time, situation, and financial constraints. Versions of Step I include a

DON'T FORGET

2.1 Ethical Guidelines for Administration and Dissemination of MBTI Results

- Type information should be obtained and used for the benefit of the individual respondent.
- Respondents should be informed of the purpose and proposed use of their results prior to answering the instrument.
- Individual type results should not be given to anyone other than the respondent without that individual's prior permission.
- In any group setting, type information should be used for individual and group benefit, rather than to restrict or limit individuals or groups.
- Information about psychological type theory and the respondent's own type should be provided in a person-to-person manner, and should not be given impersonally, such as through the mail. (Note that the interactive MBTI® Complete meets this guidelines.)
- Information about psychological type theory and type results may be given individually or in a group setting, but ample opportunity for an individual to clarify his or her type with the interpreter must be provided. At a minimum, a full written type description, such as is contained in *Introduction to Type* (Myers, 1998) (and included in MBTI® Complete feedback) should be provided.

Note: Based on "Ethical Principles," Association for Psychological Type (1992). Modified and used with permission. For detailed guidelines and explanations of ethical recommendations, see Hayes & Quenk (2003a), Quenk & Hayes (2003b), and go to www.aptinternational.org.

self-scorable form, one that is template (hand) scorable, several computer-scoring options, Web-based administration and scoring, and MBTI® Complete, the interactive online version of the instrument. The Step II instrument, which must be computer-scored, has a paper-and-pencil version as well as online administration. It provides either a 4-page profile or an 18-page individualized interpretive report. Chapter 3 provides the information necessary for deciding on the kind of administration that is appropriate in different situations, and chapter 4 discusses interpretation issues that may impact choice of MBTI form.

There is a critical guideline that applies to the order in which administration, scoring, and interpretation take place for individual clients as well as groups. The recommended order and associated guidelines relevant to the administration phase of the procedure are covered in greater detail in chapters 3 and 4.

🐾 TEST YOURSELF 🐾

1. **What is the time limit for taking the MBTI Step I?**
    (a) 25 minutes.
    (b) 40 minutes.
    (c) There is no time limit.
    (d) It depends on the form of the instrument being used.
2. **Clients diagnosed as borderline should never be given the MBTI assessment. True or False?**
3. **Which of the following is *not* an acceptable administration technique?**
    (a) reading the questions aloud to someone who reads poorly
    (b) encouraging respondents to "go with" their first reaction
    (c) defining a word for a 14-year-old respondent
    (d) saying that it is okay to omit an item
4. **It is advisable that clients who are being treated for chemical addiction**
    (a) be drug free for a minimum of 30 days before MBTI administration.
    (b) take the questionnaire at intake into the treatment program.
    (c) be drug free for at least 3 months before MBTI administration.
    (d) take the MBTI questionnaire only at completion of treatment.
5. **Seriously disturbed clients rarely provide a valid MBTI profile. True or False?**
6. **The reading level recommended for using MBTI Step I and Step II is**
    (a) 6th grade.
    (b) 7th grade.
    (c) 10th grade.
    (d) 12th grade.
7. **With regard to administering the MBTI instrument to people for whom English is a second language,**
    (a) it is definitely best to use the appropriate translation if there is one available.
    (b) the person will be unlikely to report type accurately regardless of which form is used.
    (c) the English version is likely to yield valid results.
    (d) cultural differences make use of the Indicator with these people questionable.
8. **It is appropriate for respondents who are family members to discuss their answers with each other while they are filling out the Indicator. True or False?**

9. **All 93 items on MBTI Form M are used for identifying four-letter type. True or False?**

10. **Confidentiality requirements include providing interpretation feedback individually to each partner in a couple. True or False?**

11. **Situational stress at the time of MBTI administration may influence results. True or False?**

12. **What is a frequent issue for clients when answering the MBTI questions?**
     (a) It is hard to choose between only two things.
     (b) They do both things at different times.
     (c) The questions are so simple they can't get at anything important.
     (d) All of the above.

13. **The estimated time for completing the MBTI instrument is**
     (a) 15 to 25 minutes for Form M; 25 to 35 minutes for Form Q.
     (b) 25 to 35 minutes for Form M; 44 to 55 minutes for Form Q.
     (c) 20 to 30 minutes for both forms.
     (d) Time varies for self-scorable versus computer-scored versions.

14. **What points are advisable to make to a client prior to administration?**

15. **What frame of mind should you recommend to clients as they answer the Indicator questions?**

Answers: 1. c; 2. False; 3. c; 4. a; 5. False; 6. a; 7. c; 8. False; 9. True; 10. False; 11. True; 12. d; 13. a; 14. Normal personality characteristics; preferences, not skills; results designed for client; does not identify psychological problems; 15. What you prefer when you are most free to act according to your inclinations.

HOW TO SCORE THE MBTI® INSTRUMENT

The primary goal in scoring Step I of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator personality inventory is to assign the client to four categories: E or I, S or N, T or F, and J or P. With the introduction of Form M in 1998, use of the term *score* is discouraged, both in explaining type to clients and in "thinking about" type results. The kinds of scores that were reported on previous forms of the Indicator inadvertently encouraged their misinterpretation as traitlike measures of use, competence, maturity, or accessibility. Form M has one measure that is referenced as a score and another that is termed points.

Theta (θ) scores are generated by item response theory computer scoring of the MBTI Step I instrument. Theta scores are the basis of the preference clarity index, which is reported to the client at the professional's discretion. Theta scores are the equivalent of the continuous scores that were calculated on previous MBTI forms and used for research purposes. Computer scoring provides researchers with the theta scores needed for various research methodologies. Theta scores permit assignment of respondents to type categories according to cutoff points determined for each dichotomy. The resulting four-letter type is the principle result reported to clients. Theta scores themselves are not reported to the client.

Raw points apply only to the self-scorable and template-scored versions of MBTI Step I instrument. Raw points are not interpreted in themselves; they are used to generate the preference clarity index and preference clarity category, both of which are estimates of the clarity with which a respondent reports the categorical preference in question. On previous forms of the Indicator, points were the basis for calculating the preference scores and continuous scores that were reported.

ESTIMATES OF CLARITY OF PREFERENCE

In devising MBTI Form M, much care was taken to discourage both practitioners and clients from assuming that the numbers associated with MBTI preferences are interpretable as amounts of, degrees of competence with, levels of maturity of use, or relative ease of access to these preferences. To mitigate such misinterpretations, the interdependent concepts of preference clarity index and

preference clarity category were developed. Both terms provide estimates of the clarity with which a client has reported a preference on a particular administration of the MBTI Step I assessment.

The Preference Clarity Index

For all dichotomies, the preference clarity index ranges from 1 to 30. An index closer to 30 indicates that the respondent has consistently answered the MBTI items on that dichotomy in favor of the preferred pole; an index closer to 1 means that the respondent has answered nearly as many items favoring the nonpreferred pole as the preferred pole. Alternative interpretive possibilities that can be explored with a client are discussed in chapter 4. Inferences about the possible meaning of an individual's clarity of preference are not warranted in the absence of additional information. Rapid Reference 3.1 shows the ranges that are associated with the four categories of preference clarity.

The preference clarity index is computed and reported only on computer-scored versions of MBTI Form M. Reporting the actual number to the client without carefully explaining its meaning is not helpful. Practitioners are better advised to give clients preference clarity category information as described below. Chapter 4 presents the rationale for caution in interpreting MBTI results.

The Preference Clarity Category

Preference clarity categories are reported to the client as "very clear," "clear," "moderate," and "slight," as indicated in Rapid Reference 3.1. For self-scored and template-scored versions of MBTI Step I, the preference clarity category is

≡ Rapid Reference

3.1 Clarity of Step I Preference as Estimated by the Preference Clarity Index

Preference Clarity Index	Preference Clarity Category
26–30	Very clear
16–25	Clear
6–15	Moderate
1–5	Slight

≡ *Rapid Reference*

3.2 Converting Raw Points into Preference Clarity Categories

Dichotomy	Greatest Raw Points	Preference Clarity Category
E–I	11–13	Slight
	14–16	Moderate
	17–19	Clear
	20–21	Very clear
S–N	13–15	Slight
	16–20	Moderate
	21–24	Clear
	25–26	Very clear
T–F	12–14	Slight
	15–18	Moderate
	19–22	Clear
	23–24	Very clear
J–P	11–13	Slight
	14–16	Moderate
	17–20	Clear
	21–22	Very clear

Note. Equal points on E–I is classified as *I*; equal points on S–N is classified as *N*; equal points on T–F is classified as *F*; equal points on J–P is classified as *P*. Also note that if items have been omitted on a scale, the highest raw points may be lower than the range shown. Use "slight" for the preference clarity category if this occurs.

Source: From Myers et al. (1998, p. 112). Modified and reproduced by special permission of the Publisher, CPP, Inc., Mountain View, CA 94303 from *MBTI® Manual: A Guide to the Development and Use of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator*, Third Edition by Isabel Briggs Myers, Mary H. McCaulley, Naomi L. Quenk, and Allen L. Hammer: Copyright 1998 by CPP, Inc. All rights reserved. Further reproduction is prohibited without the Publisher's written consent.

determined by the range of raw points that are associated with each preference rather than being associated with the preference clarity index of the computer-scored version. Rapid Reference 3.2 shows how to convert raw points to preference clarity categories. Note that there are slightly different raw point ranges for each of the dichotomies, unlike preference category index–generated clarity ranges, which are the same for each dichotomy.

C A U T I O N

3.1 Appropriate Steps for Administering and Scoring the MBTI Step I Instrument

1. Tell the client what the MBTI assessment is about, as in Rapid Reference 2.1.
2. Have the client answer the questionnaire.
3. Score the instrument but *do not* give the results to the client. In the case of the self-scorable form, *do not* allow members of the client group to score the form yet.

SCORING OPTIONS

The available MBTI scoring options require administration of the particular form that will produce the scoring option you want. The computer-scored form can also be scored by hand using a special set of templates. Such template scoring yields an approximation of the precise IRT scoring. The self-scorable form is not suitable for computer scoring. However, the standard nonprepaid template-scorable form can be upgraded to the more precise IRT computer scoring; the various computer reports can then be provided. Your scoring choice for a particular client or client group will

depend on issues of convenience, cost, flexibility in administration, and purposes to which the results will be put. Some practitioners use one option exclusively; others may keep several forms on hand to meet different client needs. Regardless of

≡ Rapid Reference

3.3 Formats of MBTI Form M

Format	Kind of Results	Advantages/Disadvantages
Computer scored	Four-letter type and preference clarity indexes	Most precise assessment of type; standard and special computer reports available; can be template-scored using eight keys, but yields less precise results; MBTI® Complete uses computer scoring
Template (hand) scored	Four-letter type and preference clarity categories	Scored by user with four keys; results immediately available; can be upgraded and computer scored; less precise than computer scoring
Self-scorable	Four-letter type and preference clarity categories	No scoring keys needed; results immediately available; less precise than computer scoring; cannot be computer scored; no computer reports available

which scoring option you use, the order of steps recommended from administration through scoring will be the one shown in Caution 3.1.

Rapid Reference 3.3 shows the several different ways that Standard Form M can be administered, the results each yields, and their advantages and/or disadvantages.

Computer Scoring

One booklet contains both questions and space for answers on the computer-scored form. Computer scoring uses an item response theory method. Earlier forms of the Indicator used a prediction ratio method for selecting and scoring items. Item response theory methods are based on modern test theory, whereas the prediction ratio method fits within classical test theory approaches. Research comparing the two methods showed that item response theory yields higher internal consistency reliabilities and is also more likely to identify the type that "best fits" the respondent. The item response theory method *requires* computer scoring, because it evaluates the contribution of each item to the resulting type, a task that can be accomplished only by computer. Classical test theory evaluates scales rather than individual items and is not dependent on the computer for scoring. Both the template- and self-scorable versions of MBTI Form M yield an *approximation* of item response theory scoring rather than item response theory-based precision of sorting at the midpoint. It is therefore possible for computer scoring and template scoring of the same answer sheet to report two different types, even though the percentage agreement between the two scoring options ranges from 93.8 for Extraversion to 99.3 for Sensing (Myers et al., 1998). All methods of scoring previous standard forms of the Indicator yielded identical results in identifying four-letter type and in associated scores. The prediction ratio method of scoring used on previous forms permitted computer scoring but did not require it for greater precision.

Scoring the Computer Form with Templates

The computer form can be hand scored using a set of eight templates—one for each preference pole. Template scoring is useful in situations where you want a quick estimate of your client's type—sooner than computer results will be available. Detailed, easy-to-follow scoring instructions appear on each of the templates. Template scoring requires placing each of the eight templates on each of the three booklet pages, recording the raw points for each preference pole on each page, and adding the results together to obtain the total raw points for each preference pole.

With a little experience, this takes about 10 minutes. The pole of each dichotomy that has the larger number of raw points identifies the respondent's preference on that dichotomy.

Equal points are classified as I, N, F, or P, depending on the dichotomy. The convention of breaking tied scores in this fashion was set by Isabel Briggs Myers when she constructed previous forms of the Indicator. The basic rationale is that ties are broken in favor of the preference pole that is *less* common or sanctioned in the population at large: A person with split votes on a dichotomy is indicating a pull toward the less popular pole, which may be counteracted by an equal pull toward the more popular pole. The likely preference is therefore hypothesized to be the less popular one. In this reasoning, for example, a person with equal points for E and I is going against the tide that favors an extraverted approach and is therefore probably truly an Introvert struggling to accommodate to what is socially desirable.

It is important to be aware that tie breaking is a technical device that enables each MBTI record to be classified as one of the 16 types. From a practical inter-pretation standpoint (as detailed in chapter 4), an equal-point situation on any dichotomy signals that extra care in verifying the preference is required.

The raw point value for a preference enables determination of the preference clarity category, which as described earlier ranges from "slight" to "very clear." A conversion table appropriate to the particular dichotomy appears on each tem-plate. It enables you to determine the preference clarity category for preferences on that dichotomy. Note that a summary of the conversions for all dichotomies was shown in Rapid Reference 3.2. The information in that Rapid Reference also applies to conversion of points for standard template scoring and the self-scor-able version of the Indicator, which are described below.

Standard Template Scoring

Practitioners who do not require the precision of computer scoring and do not need the convenience of the self-scorable form may prefer this scoring option. Reusable question booklets and separate individual answer sheets are used. Scor-ing is accomplished using four templates, one for each dichotomy. Each template has instructions for scoring both poles of the dichotomy in question, which in-volves matching openings in the template to responses that appear on the answer sheet and counting the raw points for each pole. As was described for template scoring of the computer form, the pole of each dichotomy that has the larger number of raw points identifies the respondent's preference on that dichotomy.

The raw point value for that preference is used to determine the preference clarity category, ranging from "slight" to "very clear," as was indicated in Rapid Reference 3.2. Template scoring of Form M is simpler, faster, and has less possibility of error than was the case for template scoring of Form G: There are four templates used rather than five, which are needed for Form G; all items receive only 1 point, whereas for Form G, items were weighted 0, 1, or 2.

Self-Scorable Form

A combined question-and-answer booklet that is not reusable is used for the self-scorable version of the MBTI assessment. The self-scorable form is designed to be administered and scored in a group setting. It is generally not used for administration to individual clients. However, practitioners who are concerned about the confidentiality issues that could arise if MBTI results are included in an employee's file might consider using the self-scorable form with individuals and having clients retain their results so that there will be no permanent record in employee files.

To answer the self-scorable form, the respondent marks an X in the selected box for each question. When all items are answered (and after the group has had an opportunity to self-assess type), the respondent opens the perforation and turns the page. Instructions on the form direct the respondent to count and record the number of marks in each row. Totals for columns give the raw points for each preference pole. Looking at each dichotomy separately, the preference pole with the larger raw point value is recorded as the preference on that dichotomy. In that way the respondent finds his or her four-letter type. If desired, an estimate of clarity of preference (preference clarity category) can be obtained using the information in Rapid Reference 3.2. When using the self-scorable form, it is important to collect the actual question-and-answer booklets before clients leave the room to prevent respondents from "administering" the questions and "scoring" people who did not attend the MBTI session. Respondents should be encouraged to make a note of their four-letter type and their self-assessment, probably together with the interpretation materials given to them during the feedback session. The exception to this recommendation was described earlier for employees in situations where the risk of clients "administering" the form to others may be outweighed by potential misuse of the information within an organization. Of course, both goals can be accomplished by having each person record individual results, collecting the self-scorable forms, and immediately destroying them.

Computer-Generated Profiles and Reports

Written feedback to supplement individual or group interpretation of MBTI results is available in several profiles and reports that can be obtained by administering the correct computer-scored answer sheets. Answer sheets can then be sent to the publisher for scoring and reports, or if you have a SkillsOne® Web site, can be downloaded for any client. The specific profiles and reports are described in chapter 4.

Using the Internet

Both the MBTI Step I and MBTI Step II assessments can be administered on the Internet and also scored as part of that service, using the CPP web administration site under license from the publisher. Note, however, that interpretation guidelines require that standard interpretation procedures be followed in giving results to clients who take the Indicator online, just as they do for other settings and modes of administration. Specific information on Internet delivery of the MBTI instrument can be found in the publisher's catalog and at CPP.com, where information about MBTI®Complete, the online administration/interpretation option can also be found.

Scoring the MBTI® Step II™ Instrument

The MBTI Step II instrument can be scored only by computer, due to the complexity of the scoring process. Construction of this instrument used a combination of factor analysis and IRT methods. The scoring process produces theta scores, which are not reported to the client but are available to researchers. Step II results are reported on an 11-point scale, with a zero centerpoint and extending to a score of 5 to the left of 0 (indicating a facet score associated with an E, S, T, or J preference) to 5 to the right of 0 (indicating a facet score associated with an I, N, F, or P preference).

Step II scoring does not use an estimate of preference clarity as is used in Step I scoring. However, for reporting and interpretive purposes, scores of 2 to 5 on either side of 0 are considered to be indicative of a preference for the facet pole in question (e.g., a score of 2 on the *Initiating* side of the *Initiating-Receiving* facet shows a preference for Initiating). Similarly, a score of 2 on the *Receiving* side shows a preference for Receiving. No inferences regarding differential clarity are made for scores of 2 versus scores of 5, as no data support such a distinction. Scores of 0 or 1 on either side of 0 constitute a third score category, the *midzone*,

indicating no clear preference for either pole. Interpretation of these scoring categories is discussed in chapter 4.

The MBTI Step II Polarity Index

The Polarity Index shows the consistency with which a client's Step II facet scores are at the poles, that is, scores of 5. The index ranges from 1 through 100. A polarity index of 100 occurs when all 20 facets scores are 5, regardless of which "side" is at 5. The index *does not* show how consistently the client's facets match their underlying preferences. An index of 0 is achieved when all facet scores are zero. Most adults have a polarity index between 50 and 65, though higher indexes are fairly common. A high index means that a client has many scores of 4 and 5; an index of 50 or less indicates the profile has many scores at or near the midzone. Originally developed by Saunders (1987) as an estimate of client candidness (answering Form Q randomly produces a polarity index of about 35), clinicians can productively use it to explore possible reasons for lower and higher polarities. Alternative explanations for low and high polarities are reviewed in chapter 5.

Step II Scoring Options

The Step II questionnaire cannot be hand-scored for the 20 facets, nor is there a self-scorable form. However, overlaying Form M templates on the Step II answer sheet provides scores on the four Step I dichotomies. If Form Q is your client's first experience with MBTI type, such hand-scoring gives you basic type information so you can provide Step I feedback and give Step II feedback after receiving or printing the Step II report or profile. If your client takes Form Q on the Internet using your SkillsOne Web site, you can print out a Step I and Step II report and interpret them when you see fit.

As discussed in chapter 2, Step II results are available in a 4-page profile or an 18-page individualized interpretive report. When ordering materials, it is critical that you order the correct answer sheets to produce the output you want. If your client is taking Step II online, make sure he or she accesses the correct version. Chapter 4 describes the contents of the two options.

✍ TEST YOURSELF ✍

1. **Self-scorable and template-scorable formats of MBTI Form M give the same results. True or False?**

2. **Which form of the MBTI instrument is assumed to produce the best precision of measurement?**
   (a) Form M, computer scored
   (b) Form M, template (self-) scored
   (c) Form M, scored using eight templates
   (d) All forms have the same measurement precision.

3. **Computer-generated reports are available for all MBTI scoring options. True or False?**

4. **Which of the following is true of the question-and-answer booklet for self-scorable Form M?**
   (a) It is reusable.
   (b) It should be scored before clients self-assess their type.
   (c) It should be collected before clients leave the interpretation session.
   (d) All of the above.

5. **Form M theta scores are the equivalent of**
   (a) preference scores on previous forms.
   (b) raw scores on previous forms.
   (c) continuous scores on previous forms.
   (d) none of the above.

6. **The nonprepaid template-scored version of Form M can also be scored by computer. True or False?**

7. **What was Myers's original rationale for breaking tied points on MBTI dichotomies?**

8. **Why is use of the term *score* discouraged?**

9. **Which of the following is *not* true with regard to the Step II instrument?**
   (a) Form Q must be computer scored to provide facet results.
   (b) Facet scores use an 11-point scale.
   (c) Midzone results on Step II indicate a problem in type development.
   (d) Scoring can produce a 4-page profile or an 18-page report.

10. **Both Step I and Step II results are available by administering Form Q. True or False?**

Answers: 1. True; 2. a; 3. False; 4. c; 5. c; 6. True; 7. Ties are broken in favor of less frequent or less socially sanctioned preference; 8. To discourage a "skill" or "frequency of use" interpretation; 9. c; 10. True.

Four

HOW TO INTERPRET THE MBTI® INSTRUMENT

Interpretation of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator personality inventory differs from the interpretation of other assessment instruments because the initial step is to have the client verify the accuracy of the results obtained. Once this has been accomplished, the interpretation can focus on the impact of a client's type in an area of interest. Effective interpretation of the MBTI assessment requires a knowledge of type theory, the psychometric properties of the instrument, and what can and cannot be legitimately inferred from an individual's MBTI results. The first part of this chapter focuses on type verification, including the rationale for verifying type, the step-by-step procedure for accomplishing the task, resources for verifying and interpreting type to clients, and caveats when verifying type with particular kinds of clients. The second part is a discussion of various issues that have an impact on the interpretation of a client's type, such as gender expectations.

TYPE VERIFICATION

Minimizing the sources of error is a major goal in constructing any assessment tool. When tests are individually administered, the clinician can obtain valuable clues about factors that may influence the validity of obtained results and can take those into account when interpreting test results for that individual. This source of information is generally absent when using self-administered tests like the MBTI instrument, although respondents' spontaneous comments about the experience of answering a test can be useful. Regardless of whether a test is administered by a professional or self-administered, rarely is the respondent asked to evaluate the validity of test results, and it is even more unusual to interpret test results based on the client's assessment rather than actual test results. As a self-report instrument with a forced-choice format and low face validity, the MBTI inventory is subject to a number of factors that can influence its accuracy.

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DON'T FORGET

4.1 Factors Influencing Self-Report on the MBTI Assessment

- Pressure to conform to expectations of parents, spouse, the work environment
- Gender biases, especially affecting male Feeling types and female Thinking types
- Life crises that call for uncharacteristic coping strategies
- Transitional developmental periods, such as adolescence, midlife, or retirement, which can bring previously disregarded preferences into use
- Lack of differentiation on one or more dichotomies, which is particularly to be expected in younger respondents
- Perception that a particular kind of person is desired, such as in employment or team situations

A clinician who keeps these factors in mind can find them useful in understanding an individual client's personality development and mode of functioning. That self-report results are subject to error is also the underlying motivation for verifying type results. Don't Forget 4.1 summarizes factors that can contribute to a client reporting a type that differs from the type that is later verified.

The Step II Polarity Index, discussed in chapter 3, can also be distorted by self-report factors. Low polarities (less than 45) *may* indicate that the client is unclear about his or her type, as shown in many midzone scores throughout the profile. Only careful inquiry can verify this hypothesis. Other possible reasons for low polarities are client fears about how test results will be used, a desire not to reveal one's "real" self, an inability to focus on the questions because of serious depression or extreme stress, and the like. Very high polarities *usually* indicate people who are very sure about what they prefer but may at times be an attempt to appear as a particular kind of person, perhaps to please the therapist.

Rationale for Verifying Type Results

We can usually assume that if a test has been properly administered and accurately scored, the results are probably valid. The studies referred to later in this section certainly suggest that the MBTI assessment is likely to yield accurate type results, although this depends in part on the criteria used to define accuracy. Most studies of this issue compare MBTI results to one or another method of having respondents appraise their own type prior to seeing their MBTI results, after

reviewing those results, or a combination of both pre– and post–self-assessment. A common methodology involves some variation on the following four steps, which also represents the general type verification method recommended later in this section.

1. The questionnaire is administered and scored. This yields a respondent's "reported type."
2. The type approach to personality and the four dichotomies are explained and described to respondents, verbally, using written materials, including MBTI®Complete interactive information, or with a combination of verbal and written material.
3. Respondents self-assess to arrive at each of their four preferences based on the explanation.
4. Respondents are asked to read the type description that corresponds to their MBTI results and, if that type does not fit well, possibly one or more additional type descriptions that may be likely alternatives. They are then asked to identify which type description best fits them. This yields the "best fit type."

Studies that have used some variation of this four-point process of comparing reported type to best fit type are not strictly comparable because of wide variations in the nature of samples and sample sizes. Largely uncontrolled variables, such as the variety of verification methods and materials used for self-assessment, also make comparisons difficult. Acknowledging these drawbacks, agreement across such studies on three of the four MBTI preferences ranges from 90% to 99%, and agreement on all four preferences ranges from 53% to 85% (Myers et al., 1998, pp. 117, 197). These levels of accuracy are quite supportive of the validity of the MBTI assessment in eliciting type when self-assessment is the criterion used. This is especially notable when we consider that the chance likelihood of reporting or of self-assessing as any one of the 16 types is 6.25%. The MBTI instrument stands up well to this criterion of validity. However, because the overriding goal is to enable individuals to understand their own four-letter type as a dynamic construct, results that are "much better than chance" or even "correct on three out of four categories" are not adequate. Additional efforts are needed to help individuals verify the type they reported or identify an alternative best fit type.

The definitions of reported type, best fit type, and a third notion, true type, are:

- *Reported type.* This is the type that results from an administration of the instrument. It tells us the way the respondent answered the questions on one particular occasion. Bear in mind that the instrument is labeled

an indicator rather than a test not only to discourage the idea that it has right and wrong answers but also because it is meant to indicate which type is *likely* to best fit the respondent.

- *Best fit type*. This is the type that the client decides describes him or her best, after a standard type verification session such as is detailed in this chapter. The ultimate goal of type verification is to arrive at the client's best fit type.

- *True type*. This is a hypothetical construct, similar to the notion of true score on a test. It is assumed that a person's true type is never known with absolute certainty.

Minimizing Interpreter Type Bias

Knowing one's own results on the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale (WAIS) is not required to effectively interpret the WAIS; taking the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory, Rorschach, or Draw-a-Person tests are not mandated in order for a clinician to interpret these tests. With the MBTI assessment, however, a basic assumption is that the interpreter of the instrument has taken the instrument, had it appropriately interpreted, and has verified a type, either the type reported at administration or a different one determined as a result of the verification process. Professionals will therefore make the most effective use of this book when they have verified their own type and have a complete set of type descriptions available for reference. Professionals who plan to use the Step II assessment should also take the instrument and have it interpreted by a qualified interpreter.

The rationale for self-awareness of type is that knowing one's own type helps the interpreter avoid biases in explaining type to the client and in interpreting the client's type in relation to the area of interest. This is important because the way both laypeople and professionals understand and evaluate others is strongly influenced by their own type perspective and/or a societal notion of psychological health and adaptation. For example, an unaware interpreter with a preference for Intuition can convey to a client that Intuition is superior to Sensing; an Introverted interpreter can present Extraverts as overbearing and shallow. In clinical settings in particular, assessments may be colored by the clinician's personal type perspective. For example, an unaware ENFP psychologist may evaluate an ISTJ client as "overly" meticulous and "obsessed with" details, reflecting her dislike and devaluing of the less preferred aspects of her own type—and her misunderstanding of the natural strengths and competencies of well-functioning ISTJs. In a similar way, societal biases can emerge when a clinician assumes that types

that are characterized as ambitious, self-directed, and goal oriented are "better adapted" or "emotionally healthier" than types who prefer to stay in the background and dislike leadership roles.

Biases can also occur with regard to a client's preferred Step II facet poles. For example, a psychologist with a natural preference for the *Theoretical* pole (of the S–N *Experiential-Theoretical* facet) and the *Early Starting* pole (of the J–P *Early-Starting–Pressure-Prompted* facet) may assess the surface behaviors and attitudes of a client who favors *Experiential* and *Pressure-Prompted* as immature and irresponsible. A "facet-naive" psychologist may thus assume that the *manner* with which the client approaches information gathering and meeting deadlines is predictive of her actual accomplishments, when this may not be the case.

Guidelines for Type Verification

Once the assessment has been administered according to the procedures described in chapter 2 and in the order recommended in Caution 2.2, and you have scored the instrument as described in chapter 3 and Caution 3.1, the next step, as shown in Caution 4.1, is type verification and interpretation.

A first requirement for helping others verify their types and facet preferences is to acknowledge that one's own perspective is only one of 16 equally valid ones (and 20 "variations on the theme") and thus to recognize one's potential for bias. An associated prerequisite is to develop facility in describing the poles of each type dichotomy, the 16 whole types, and the 40 facet poles in the most neutral and positive manner possible. Achieving perfect neutrality is not a realistic goal for

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C A U T I O N

4.1 Appropriate Steps from Administration through Interpretation

1. Tell the client what the assessment is about, as in Rapid Reference 2.1.
2. Have the client answer the questions.
3. Score the MBTI instrument using one of the methods described in chapter 3 but *do not* give the results to the client. In the case of the self-scorable form, *do not allow members of the client group to score the form yet.*
4. Give the client an opportunity to self-assess and verify his or her type, using standard procedures described in this chapter.
5. Interpret verified MBTI results in relation to the area of interest.

any interpreter, but maintaining vigilance about one's own and others' type and facet biases is both possible as well as professionally and personally illuminating.

Step-by-Step Type Verification

Step 1. Explain What a "Preference" Is

The very first step in type verification is to explain the idea of a natural personality preference and distinguish it from a learned and practiced skill. Many clients confuse what they *can* do with what they *prefer* to do. A helpful exercise to clarify the differences uses the analogy of right- and left-handedness. The exercise follows.

1. Have the client sign his or her name on an ordinary piece of paper. (This typically will be done with the preferred hand.)
2. Ask the client to sign again, this time using the other hand.
3. Ask the client, "What was it like to sign the first time with your preferred hand? What was it like signing the second time with your nonpreferred hand?"
4. Typically, comments about the preferred hand include natural, automatic, quick, easy, legible. Comments about the nonpreferred hand include awkward, had to think about it, slow, difficult, childlike.
5. Point out that our experience using our preferred and nonpreferred hands is an excellent way of describing preferred and nonpreferred parts of our personality, be it the pole of a dichotomy or the pole of a facet. One of each pair of opposites is experienced as natural, comfortable, and satisfying; when we are required to use the opposite, less preferred part of ourselves, though we *can* do it, it is with some degree of awkwardness, discomfort, and reduced confidence and often results in less satisfaction with the outcome.
6. Point out that if for some reason the client had to use his or her nonpreferred hand exclusively for a period of time, he or she could probably do so, but the extra effort required might be tiring and dissatisfying. The same is true when we are required to use a less preferred part of our personality for an extended period of time. A caveat regarding this statement, however, is represented by "out-of-preference" and midzone Step II facet results, which are discussed in a later section of this chapter.

The analogies in the exercise are very helpful at a variety of points in the verification and interpretation process. Returning to these points and reinforcing them can help discourage misinterpreting the preferences as learned skills. The notion

of what comes naturally versus what takes effort and is fatiguing can help resolve a less clear reported preference on any dichotomy.

Step 2. Explain the Opposite Poles of Each Dichotomy

It is a good idea to orient your explanations to suit the age, education, and probable interests of your client or client group. Beginning with brief definitions of

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≡ Rapid Reference

4.1 How to Explain Sensing and Intuition

- Sensing and Intuition are two opposite ways of gathering information or perceiving. When we use Sensing, we gather information through our five senses our focus, when we are using Sensing, is on the facts and details that are in our immediate environment. When we use Intuition, we attend to patterns and meanings that can be inferred from information obtained through our senses; our focus is on speculating about future possibilities and implications.

- Everyone uses both Sensing and Intuition at least some of the time, but one of the pair tends to be most natural and automatic, as we saw with our handedness exercise.

- People who prefer Sensing typically notice and remember facts and details; they like information to be firmly connected to past and present experience and prefer situations that are grounded, clear-cut, with facts that can be readily verified. They can become impatient and critical when forced to deal with ambiguity and conjecture. Finding ways to engage their Sensing preference helps restore their equilibrium.

- People who prefer Intuition typically read between the lines, making inferences about the meaning of others' words and actions. They prefer situations that allow them to speculate about future possibilities and can become bored and unmotivated when forced to deal with facts and details. Finding ways to engage their Intuition helps restore equilibrium.

Ask the client to consider the following questions:

1. Do you have a sense of which you prefer and how you answered the MBTI questions?
2. What are some ways that you typically use_____? (Sensing or Intuition—whichever the person prefers)
3. When and in what ways do you use_____? (the nonpreferred pole) If the preference is unclear after further discussion, ask:
4. Overall, when you are most able to do as you like, are you more likely to notice and remember the details of a new situation and figure out what it means later, or do you first get an overall impression of what is going on and think about specifics later?

≡ *Rapid Reference*

4.2 How to Explain Thinking and Feeling

- Thinking and Feeling are two opposite ways of making judgments and coming to conclusions. Remember that on the MBTI assessment, Thinking doesn't mean "smart" and Feeling doesn't mean "emotional"; in fact, intelligence and emotionality are outside of the type system. When we use Thinking, we use objective criteria and cause-and-effect analysis to reach a conclusion that is logically true. When we use Feeling, we weigh our own and others' values and concerns to reach a conclusion that promotes agreement and harmony among those involved.

- Everyone uses both Thinking and Feeling at least some of the time, but the one that is used most automatically and naturally is the one preferred.

- People who prefer Thinking typically take a dispassionate approach to decision making, using consistent principles and objective criteria to arrive at conclusions that treat people impartially; this is their primary goal, and the welfare of people is secondary.

- People who prefer Feeling typically involve themselves in the decision-making situation, working to understand the values and concerns of those involved in order to arrive at conclusions that take the welfare of people into account as the primary goal, with logic and impartiality being secondary.

Ask the client to consider the following questions:

1. Do you have a sense of which you prefer and how you answered the MBTI questions? (As an interpreter, be aware that of the four dichotomies, this one is most influenced by gender expectations. In addition, many work settings favor a Thinking approach.)

2. What are some ways that you typically use_____? (Thinking or Feeling—whichever the person prefers)

3. When and in what ways do you use_____? (the nonpreferred pole) If the preference is unclear after further discussion, ask:

4. Overall, when you are most able to do as you like, does what is logical and objective occur to you first, or does concern about the impacts on people occur to you first?

the opposites, such as are included in Rapid Reference 1.3, is a good place to start. It is preferable to present the two pairs of functions (Sensing and Intuition; Thinking and Feeling) followed by the two pairs of attitudes (Extraversion and Introversion; Judging and Perceiving). This order lends itself most readily to an explanation of the dynamic character of type; it leads naturally to the notion that the functions and attitudes do not operate independently of one another—one does not simply extravert or introvert, one extraverts or introverts Sensing, or Intuition, or Thinking, or Feeling at any particular time. Some practitioners

≡ *Rapid Reference*

4.3 How to Explain Extraversion and Introversion

- Extraversion and Introversion are two opposite ways of being energized and using energy. When we are extraverting, we direct our energy mainly outwardly, toward people and objects in the outside world; it is natural when we are extraverting to *take action* in relation to people and events. When we are introverting, we direct our energy mainly inwardly, toward our inner experiences and ideas; it is natural when we are introverting to *reflect* before we take action.

- Everyone uses both Extraversion and Introversion at least some of the time, but one of the pair tends to be most natural and automatic.

- People who prefer Extraversion typically feel energized by and seek out situations where they can work with or socialize with people and be actively involved with the world. When they spend a great deal of time alone they may feel tired, dissatisfied, out of sorts, and they may seek out the stimulation of other people and activities; they *extravert* to reenergize.

- People who prefer Introversion typically feel energized by and seek out situations where can they work alone or spend recreational time alone, and where they have plenty of time to reflect on what they are doing. If they have to spend a great deal of time working with, being around, or socializing with people, they may feel tired, dissatisfied, out of sorts, and they may seek out the quiet and restfulness of being alone; they *introvert* to reenergize.

Ask the client to consider the following questions:

1. Do you have a sense of which you prefer and how you answered the MBTI questions?

2. What are some ways that you typically use_____? (Extraversion or Introversion—whichever the person prefers)

3. When and in what ways do you use_____? (the nonpreferred pole) If the preference is unclear after further discussion, ask:

4. Are you more likely to yearn for solitude after being active and around people, or do you seek outside stimulation when you have been alone for a long time?

present the dichotomies in the order in which the letters appear in a type code (i.e., E–I, S–N, T–F, J–P).

Regardless of the order of presentation used, initial verification should focus on helping clients identify which of each pair of opposites they prefer. The clinician might say, "I'm going to explain both of the opposite ways of 'gathering information'" (or "coming to conclusions" or "being energized" or "relating to the outside world," depending on which dichotomy is being explained). Rapid References 4.1, 4.2, 4.3, and 4.4 summarize and build on the definitions in chapter 1

≡ *Rapid Reference*

4.4 How to Explain Judging and Perceiving Attitudes

- Judging and Perceiving are two opposite attitudes—general approaches taken when we deal with the outer, extraverted world—regardless of whether we prefer Extraversion or Introversion. Remember that the term *Judging* does not mean judgmental and the term *Perceiving* does not mean perceptive. When we use a Judging attitude, we want things in the outer world to be settled and decided; it is natural when we take a Judging attitude to use our Thinking or Feeling judgment (whichever we prefer) to be organized, methodical, and to reach decisions quickly. When we use a Perceiving attitude, we want to gather as much information as possible before we reach a decision; it is natural when we take a Perceiving attitude to use our Sensing or Intuition (whichever we prefer) to be flexible, spontaneous, and to reach decisions only after considering many options.

- Everyone uses both a Judging and a Perceiving attitude at least some of the time, but the one that we use most comfortably when we can behave as we like is likely to be our natural preference.

- People who prefer a Judging attitude typically like to make both short- and long-term plans and get things done efficiently, according to a schedule. They would rather make a decision that has to be changed later than indefinitely put off decision making to gather more information.

- People who prefer a Perceiving attitude typically like the freedom to respond spontaneously and flexibly to tasks and feel most effective without set plans. They would rather consider all the relevant information available before making a decision than to come to closure with insufficient information.

Ask the client to consider the following questions:

1. Do you have a sense of which you prefer and how you answered the MBTI questions? (Be aware that of the four dichotomies, this one is most observable in behavior and also the one most influenced by situational demands, such as work environments or caring for children.)

2. When and in what situations do you typically use_____? (a Judging attitude or a Perceiving attitude—whichever the person prefers)

3. When and in what situations do you use_____? (the nonpreferred pole) If the preference is unclear after further discussion, ask:

4. Overall, when you are most able to do as you like, is it most satisfying and relaxing to operate with a plan or a schedule or to be free to do whatever appeals to you at the moment?

and include queries to help clients identify their preference and help them recognize that they can and do use nonpreferred poles of each dichotomy, but probably less comfortably and enthusiastically than when using the preferred pole. Note that each pole of a dichotomy is described by the qualities that make it legitimate

in its own right; one pole is *not* defined as an absence or deficit of the qualities that legitimately describe the other pole. For example, we might describe people who prefer Intuition as "imaginative." We would not then describe those who prefer Sensing as unimaginative but rather as "pragmatic"—an alternative and qualitatively different focus of perception.

If questions remain after following the steps for clarifying a preference, the suggestions in Caution 4.2 and Don't Forget 4.1 may help.

A useful way to maintain adequate neutrality in explaining and verifying type, especially for an interpreter who is new to the system, is to have a variety of

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CAUTION

4.2 Meaning of Clarity of Reported Preference and Suggested Lines of Inquiry

Very clear	Usually affirms the preference and identifies with most of the qualities associated with it. A very clear preference results from answering most questions favoring one pole; it does not mean the person never uses the other member of the pair. *Make sure to ask about how and when the opposite pole is used.*
Clear	Likely to affirm the preference and identify with many of the qualities associated with it; may offer instances when uses opposite pole. There may be habitual or situational use of one *component* (facet) of the opposite pole. *Inquire about situations that may stimulate use of opposite function or attitude.*
Moderate	Usually agrees with preference but may express some doubt; and/or may describe consistent use of some aspects of the opposite; or may identify opposite as better fit and describe consistent use of some aspects of the reported preference, which may show up in Step II scores. There may be habitual or situational use of one or two facets of the opposite pole. *Inquire about which aspects of both poles are used and whether varying circumstances are related to such use.*
Slight	May affirm preference but readily mention aspects of the opposite that are used habitually—especially in particular situations; or may find the opposite fits better overall and mention aspects of reported preference that are used habitually; or may not be able to identify a preference. There may be habitual or situational use of one or more facets of the opposite pole evident in Step II scores, if available. *Spend more time exploring typical uses of both poles, the influence of situational factors, and satisfaction and dissatisfaction with such uses.*

written explanatory materials available during the verification session. Depending on the nature of the materials, they can either be handed to the client or read aloud, adding material to suit the client's situation and one's own level of comfort and knowledge of the material. Interpreters can put together some explanatory materials on their own in addition to using various published aids for type verification. A variety of verification and interpretation resources that are geared to specific applications are available (see Carr, 2003; Kummerow, 1986; Myers, 1998).

Step 3. Verify Each Preference

Three situations may occur during the verification process. First, the client may confirm the reported preference, spontaneously saying something like "I know that one really fits me." Second, the client may identify the opposite preference to the one reported, for example, reporting a Feeling preference but self-assessing a Thinking preference. Third, the client may express doubt about which pole of a dichotomy is preferred, saying something like "On that one it could go either way," or "I think I answered about half and half." These three client reactions should be dealt with somewhat differently in relation to identifying best fit type.

Self-assessed preference matches reported preference. A simple statement such as "Yes, you answered indicating that you preferred _____" is sufficient. It is especially important here to help the client recognize that he or she also has access to and uses the less preferred pole of that dichotomy. The relevant queries in Rapid References 4.2 through 4.5 are helpful here. Then, depending on the client and context, you might move into a discussion of this particular preference in relation to the area of interest. For example, "Can you describe a way that you use your Feeling preference in your work as a manager?" Or, if your client is a couple, "Are there times when your opposite preferences on Extraversion and Introversion create some difficulties for you?"

Self-assessed preference is different from reported preference. This response is often, though not always, associated with a slight or moderate preference clarity category. You will recall from chapter 3 that both the preference clarity index, which is a number ranging from 1 to 30, and the preference clarity category, which is designated as "slight," "moderate," "clear," or "very clear," are estimates of the degree of confidence that the preference has been correctly identified. Regardless of reported clarity, you might say something like "On that one you answered indicating you preferred the opposite one, so it would be a good idea for you to read the two different type descriptions that might apply."

Client does not identify a preference. If the reported type is associated with a slight or even moderate preference clarity, you can say something like "Yes. It's hard to

tell which one you prefer. I'll ask you to read the two different type descriptions that may apply. Perhaps one will fit you better than the other."

Step II facet results can often be clarifying where the client's self-assessment differs from reported preference or where the client does not identify a preference, especially where the client states that he or she uses aspects of both poles of a dichotomy. It is likely, in those situations, that the client is using two or three facets favoring one pole of the dichotomy and one or two favoring the opposite pole. If you will be providing Step II results to the client at a later time, you might say, "The detailed results that we will be going over later may help explain your doubts about this preference. You may be using some aspects of one preference and other aspects of the opposite one." Even if you are not going to be providing Step II results, you can offer this explanation as a possibility when slight preference clarities occur or when the client has difficulty settling on one or the other pole of a dichotomy.

When discussing self-assessment that differs from reported type, it is important to avoid conveying that the client "guessed wrong" or lacks self-awareness. Discrepancies between reported and self-assessed type are more easily attributable to the way the interpreter described the poles and/or "social desirability" assumptions on the client's part—for example, believing that Thinking judgment is superior to Feeling judgment. Often, but not always, a client's self-assessment is reflected in his or her reported clarity of preference. Clients who quickly identify their preference are likely to have a clear or very clear preference clarity category. Clients who are unsure about a preference, or pick the opposite one to what they reported on the assessment, may have a slight preference clarity category. However, reported preference clarity and *experienced* preference clarity are not always the same: Someone reporting a slight preference may experience the preference quite clearly and readily confirm it during verification. At times a moderate or clearly reported preference may be associated with some experienced doubt or even a self-assessment favoring the pole opposite to the one reported, especially if a Step II facet or two favors the opposite pole. Note that clarity of *reported* preference is entirely a function of the consistency with which a respondent has answered in choosing one pole of the dichotomy over the other. Consistently choosing one pole does not imply inability to use its opposite, nor does less consistency in answering imply ambivalence, lack of differentiation, or equal facility with two opposite poles.

Step II information is not necessary for effective verification and interpretation of the MBTI instrument; however, it is helpful to be aware that there are normal and expected variations in expression of preferences that relate to differential use of the components of each dichotomy. Keeping this in mind can discourage unjustified assumptions about the meaning of reported preference clarity.

Caution 4.2 covers alternative meanings of "slight," "moderate," "clear," and "very clear" preferences and suggests lines of inquiry to follow that take differential use of dichotomy components into account. How extensively one should explore the possible meaning of clarity of preference with a particular client is an individual judgment. Determining best fit type may be more relevant at a later time, perhaps as type is applied to a particular issue of interest to the client.

Step 4. Verify Best Fit Type

Depending on which format of the Indicator you administered, there are several options for identifying the client's best fit type. At this point in the verification process, one or more of the 16 types will be under consideration. These will include the type that was reported—which will often be the same as self-assessed type—and one or more other types, depending on which dichotomies were in question for the particular client. If you used a format that produces a computer-generated report and type description, you can ask the client to read that type description. If such a report is not available and/or the client needs to consider alternative types to the one described in his or her report, the 16 type descriptions in the booklet *Introduction to Type* (Myers, 1998) should be used. Regardless of the scoring method—computer profile, computer report, one of the template methods, or (in the case of larger groups) the self-scorable version—each client must have access to comprehensive descriptions of all 16 types. The descriptions in *Introduction to Type* are the most complete and well validated available. The information in the other specialized introductions to type can also aid verification. These resources are particularly effective when interpreting the MBTI instrument in relation to a particular area of application. Application areas included are type and selling (Brock, 1994), type in college (DiTiberio & Hammer, 1993), type and careers (Hammer, 1993), type and teams (Hirsh, & Hirsh, 2003), type and organizations (Hirsh & Kummerow, 1998), and type and culture (Kirby, Kendall, & Barger, 2007).

It is highly recommended that every client leave the verification and interpretation experience with a personal copy of *Introduction to Type* (Myers, 1998). Practitioner experience strongly suggests that clients who receive only their own type description with little explanatory information are much less likely to use the information productively than those who have access to all 16 descriptions.

Before you have a client read a type description, regardless of whether there is agreement with the reported type or not, explain that no type description will fit a person exactly or in all respects. If best fit type is in doubt, have the client read the type description that corresponds to reported type *first*. Ask the client to make note of and tell you which, if any, parts of the description do not fit. Usually these will reflect the preference or preferences that are in doubt. If more than one

alternative type must be explored, the client's comments can help you decide which type description should be read next. For the majority of clients, reading one alternative type description is all that is necessary. Most people find themselves well described or at least better described in one of the 16 type descriptions.

Step 5. Using Type Dynamics in the Verification Process

It is important for clients to know that their personality type does not restrict them or categorize them in some stereotypical way. The best way to discourage such notions is to include a discussion of type dynamics—the hierarchy of comfort in the use of dominant, auxiliary, tertiary, and inferior functions and the attitudes of Extraversion or Introversion in which they are typically expressed. Sometimes exploring one or another aspect of type dynamics with a client can clarify one or more preferences.
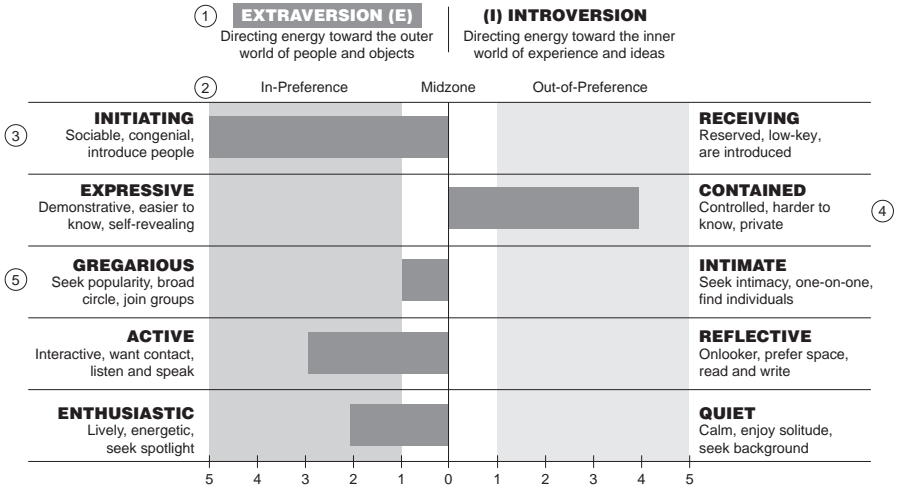
Suppose, for example, that a client has verified S, F, and J but remains unsure about E or I. She has read the type descriptions for ESFJ and ISFJ and finds them about equally applicable. We know from our discussion of type dynamics in chapter 1 that an ESFJ has dominant extraverted Feeling, auxiliary Introverted Sensing, tertiary Intuition, and inferior introverted Thinking; an ISFJ, in contrast, has dominant introverted Sensing, auxiliary extraverted Feeling, tertiary Thinking, and inferior extraverted Intuition. Among other things, we would expect some differences between these two types in how they typically react to stress: An ESFJ's inferior introverted Thinking may come out as uncharacteristic, harsh criticism of others whereas an ISFJ's inferior extraverted Intuition is likely to emerge as negativism and catastrophizing about the future. Chapter 6 includes brief information about type and stress reactions for each of the types.

When appropriate, clients can also be directed to the one-page summary of type dynamics and development that is included in *Introduction to Type* (Myers, 1998, p. 35). Other resources can provide a practical knowledge about specific dynamic and developmental differences among the types too (see Corlett & Millner, 1993; Myers & Kirby, 1994; Quenk, 2000, 2003). Many helpful sources are included in the annotated bibliography that concludes this book.

Interpreting and Verifying the MBTI Step II Assessment

The procedures for explaining, interpreting, and verifying Step II facet results differ in several ways from those recommended for Step I. One difference is that clients are not asked to self-assess on the 20 facets, as this is considered too time consuming and difficult, given the narrowness of the facet constructs. Instead, after appropriate explanations of the forthcoming results, client and

Figure 4.1 Sample Report Page for Facets of the E–I Dichotomy

① **EXTRAVERSION (E)** — Directing energy toward the outer world of people and objects | **(I) INTROVERSION** — Directing energy toward the inner world of experience and ideas

② In-Preference | Midzone | Out-of-Preference

③ **INITIATING** Sociable, congenial, introduce people | **RECEIVING** Reserved, low-key, are introduced

EXPRESSIVE Demonstrative, easier to know, self-revealing | **CONTAINED** Controlled, harder to know, private ④

⑤ **GREGARIOUS** Seek popularity, broad circle, join groups | **INTIMATE** Seek intimacy, one-on-one, find individuals

ACTIVE Interactive, want contact, listen and speak | **REFLECTIVE** Onlooker, prefer space, read and write

ENTHUSIASTIC Lively, energetic, seek spotlight | **QUIET** Calm, enjoy solitude, seek background

5 4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4 5

⑥ **Initiating** (in-preference)

- Are assertively outgoing in social situations, planning and directing gatherings.
- Act as a social facilitator, arranging the situation to get what you feel is best.
- Carry out social obligations with finesse, introducing people to each other with ease.
- Enjoy linking people whose interests are similar.
- Genuinely want people to interact.

Contained (out-of-preference)

⑦
- Have a private, vulnerable part that is very hard to share, even with people close to you.
- Use your extraverted manner to avoid talking about anything too personal.
- May feel awkward talking about private matters.
- Don't talk much, unless you feel your contributions will really add something.

Gregarious-Intimate (midzone)

- Like large-group activities or one-on-one conversations at different times.
- Find that your degree of comfort with strangers depends on the situation.
- Appear outgoing at times and reserved at other times.
- May not want many intense intimate relationships.
- Are moderately comfortable relating to casual acquaintances.

Active (in-preference)

- Prefer active participation rather than passive observation.
- Learn better by doing, hearing, and asking questions than by reading and writing.
- Like to communicate in person, either face-to-face or voice-to-voice.
- Would rather talk than write about a topic.

Enthusiastic (in-preference)

- Like being where the action is.
- Often seek to be the center of attention.
- Show wit and humor when you talk with others.
- Feel that life is meant to be exciting.
- Catch others up in your enthusiasms.
- Get bored without activity, so you make it happen and often engage others in the activity.

interpreter go over each descriptive statement, such as those shown for a client's Extraversion-Introversion facets in Figure 4.1, and the client indicates agreement or disagreement with it. Note that experienced interpreters report that potential client "yea-saying" does not appear to be an issue.

Key elements of a Step II interpretive report page are identified and defined in Rapid Reference 4.5.

Another rationale for reviewing Step II information in a client-interpreter interactive process is that the 18-page Interpretive Report contains information about the client's Step I type (graphed results on the four dichotomies and a brief type description), directions on how to read and assess Step II results, individualized information about the client's approach in communication, making decisions, managing change, and managing conflict, and a straightforward explanation of the client's type dynamics. Depending on the administration and interpretation context, interactive discussions with the client may extend over several sessions, giving the client an opportunity to review results on her own and bring in issues for further discussion. Reviewing Step II results typically requires twice as long as

≡ *Rapid Reference*

4.5 Elements on a Sample Step II Interpretive Report Page for the Extraversion-Introversion Facets

1. The word *Extraversion* is highlighted, indicating the respondent's reported underlying preference for the extraverted attitude.
2. Column headings identify a facet result as "in-preference" (in agreement with the underlying preference, "midzone" (showing no clear preference for either pole), or "out-of-preference" (favoring the opposite facet pole to the underlying preference).
3. Facet score for Initiating-Receiving, read as "Initiating 5," and shown under the "in-preference" column.
4. Facet score for Expressive-Contained, read as "Contained 4," and shown in the "out-of-preference" column.
5. Facet score for Gregarious-Intimate, read as "Gregarious-Intimate Midzone," and shown in the "midzone" column.
6. Bullet points describing characteristics identified for respondents who are in-preference on Initiating.
7. Bullet points describing characteristics of respondents who are out-of-preference on Contained (note that descriptions of facets that are in- versus out-of preference differ somewhat, because of the influence of the underlying preference).

giving Step I feedback, and it is generally preferable for Step I information to be interpreted first, followed at a later time with a review of Step II results. An alternative to the 18-page report is a 4-page Step II profile that has no individualized descriptions of facets or application approaches. The profile is not recommended as an effective feedback method.

Verifying Type with Couples, Families, and Groups

The steps described for Step I and Step II verification are geared to an individual interpretation, but the same guidelines and procedures can be easily adapted for use in a joint verification with couples or families as well as with larger groups brought together for a particular reason. Issues relevant to verification and interpretation of type for couples and families are often embedded in clinical application of the MBTI assessment and are therefore more fully discussed in chapter 6.

Cautions When Verifying Type with Particular Kinds of Clients

A verification session need not result in a client settling on a best fit type, and it is important that the client feel comfortable and affirmed despite any doubts that remain. These doubts can best be framed as interesting areas for self-observation and further exploration. Be aware, however, that not coming to closure about type can be more frustrating for some types than for others—most notably people who have a Judging preference on the J–P dichotomy. Such clients may be more willing to tolerate a period of self-exploration if a time limit on the process is suggested. If Step II facet results are available, they may adequately clarify sources of doubt about an underlying preference, regardless of J–P need for closure in identifying type.

Age of Client
The developmental nature of type leads to an expectation that younger people, older people, and people undergoing a significant life transition may have difficulty verifying a type. Young people in particular may be unclear on several dichotomies, and if identifying a preference is an issue for them, they should be told that "trying out" different ways of being is both common and can be helpful for people their age. Like any developmental area, there is wide variation in the age at which the type of a child or adolescent may be clear. Some children are very clear about their preferences. That a child's type is clear at an early age, however, does not mean that it is necessarily well developed. "One-sided" use of type is natural in children, and it may be useful to check out whether they are giving adequate attention to the "opposite"

sides of themselves. Type exaggeration can be even more extreme in adolescents as they go about trying to establish a comfortable identity.

People of advancing years may have incorporated the less preferred aspects of their personality to some extent, and this may result in less clear preferences in answering the MBTI items, experientially, or both. Older people can sometimes identify their natural type most readily by reflecting on how they were during the part of their adulthood when they were both most active as well as most free to be themselves. Verifying type for older people can be a less important goal than the understanding that often emerges through the process of considering type differences.

Life Transitions

Any major life transition can contribute to doubts about oneself and a motivation to try new approaches. Adolescence and midlife represent such transitions for most people. In addition, such events as a major career change, marriage, divorce, death of spouse, and retirement, may affect both how people answer the Indicator as well as how they assess their type. Some individuals actually recognize their natural type for the first time during a major transitional period. For others, a change in personal circumstances can lead to awareness of unknown talents and competencies in using the less preferred parts of themselves.

Pathology

As mentioned in chapter 2, moderate to severe pathology, including active chemical addiction, can impair a client's ability to report on and verify natural type. Type verification with such clients may be secondary to a specific therapeutic goal. It is advisable not to dwell on complete verification when giving MBTI results to such clients, focusing instead on the purpose for which it was administered. Information about appropriate uses of the MBTI assessment with disturbed clients is included in chapter 6.

Before moving on to the interpretation section of this chapter, it will be helpful to keep in mind the characteristics of the MBTI instrument that lead to some of its psychometric qualities and also necessitate verification of results by the client. Don't Forget 4.2 summarizes both Step I and Step II characteristics, with parenthetical comments about Step II differences where relevant.

TYPE INTERPRETATION

Type verification and type interpretation are interrelated aspects of a single enterprise. An effective interpreter uses illustrations relevant to the area of interest as an aid in verification, and clients often discover practical ways to apply type during

DON'T FORGET

4.2 MBTI Characteristics Underlying Step I and Step II Psychometric Properties

- Based on Jung's theory of psychological types
- Postulates dichotomous opposites, not continua
- Postulates qualitatively different types (and Step II facets that modify those type qualities), not universal traits
- Specifies theory-driven dynamic interactions among preferences (not applicable for the 20 facets)
- Four (Step I) scales designed to be psychometrically independent (facet scales within each dichotomy are intercorrelated, but largely independent of those in the other three dichotomies)
- Moderate, theoretically justified correlation between S–N and J–P (and between S–N and J–P facets)
- 93 items in forced-choice format, two choices per item (144 Step II items)
- Two kinds of items: phrase questions and word pairs
- Items selected and scored using item response theory
- Items worded for comparable attractiveness
- No significant gender or age differences
- Tied points are designated I, N, F, P (not applicable for Step II facets)
- Omissions allowed

the process of identifying their best fit type. For example, in verifying type with a couple, examples or experiences will emerge that confirm type preferences and also shed light on their communication problems, kinds of arguments, problems with child rearing, or whatever issues led them to seek help.

Reviewing Step II results with a couple can also be enlightening, especially where out-of-preference scores occur. An INTP husband complained that his ESFJ wife did not share her thoughts and feelings with him, and she complained that he was intrusive in demanding that she share this part of herself. Step II results showed the ESFJ to be a "Contained Extravert," and the INTP, an "Expressive Introvert." Recognizing and discussing their "unexpected" behavior greatly reduced the tension and misunderstanding between them.

Reasons for Taking the MBTI Assessment

People take the MBTI assessment for a wide variety of reasons: because of personal curiosity, for career exploration or other work-related purpose such as coaching,

during couple therapy or personal therapy, in a chemical addiction treatment program. Regardless of the issue involved, an overriding goal is to assess individuals from the vantage point of their own type. A type framework views strengths as resulting from practicing and refining natural preferences and weaknesses as the concomitant of devoting less time and energy to nonpreferred mental functions and attitudes. Characteristics that may be seen as deficiencies or as "diagnostic" within a normative framework may be recognized as "normal" and adaptive for a person of that type. Similarly, a person whose behavior deviates markedly from what is typical for his or her type may actually be experiencing significant psychological difficulties. For example, it is not surprising for an ISFP to judge himself as less competent and effective than is justified by objective criteria, whereas such self-doubt would be unusual and therefore a cause for concern in an INTJ.

There is a great deal of information available about type in relation to teaching and learning styles; career choices; use of psychological services and attraction to different therapeutic approaches; management and leadership styles; how different types typically communicate, resolve conflict, cope with stress—and many more useful ways of understanding differences as a function of personality type. Information about these and other variables is available in both MBTI manuals (Myers et al., 1998; Quenk, et al., 2001) and in other publications. These resources provide interpreters with important background information and a framework for understanding individual clients. In addition, the type verification process itself often permits the interpreter to discover important ways that an individual differs from what is typical for that type. For example, a particular ISFP may express a great deal of self-confidence, having had many significant validating experiences; the INTJ who devalues himself may reveal that his Intuition was systematically discounted and ridiculed when he was growing up. Awareness of the impact of environmental pressures on natural type will discourage a simplistic and stereotypical interpretation of MBTI results. When a client has verified a type but does not seem like that type, exploring the reasons for the "aberration" can be enlightening.

Interpreters of the MBTI assessment must also be wary of simplistic and incorrect uses of research data, particularly those showing type differences in such areas as career choice, managerial status, and leadership roles. A common error made by laypeople, professionals, and critics of the MBTI instrument alike is to assume that the types who predominate in an endeavor are therefore more suited for it or "better" at it. In fact, type theory predicts that individuals of different types will be differentially *attracted* to different occupations and work characteristics such as managerial and leadership roles. The theory does not predict competence or satisfaction, nor is there any expectation or empirical evidence that a rare

C A U T I O N

4.3 How Not to Interpret Type

- Do not assume that someone is the "right" type or the "wrong" type for any endeavor.
- Do not steer people toward or away from a career or work setting based on the prevalence of their type.
- Do not assume that some type combinations are "more compatible" than others in any kind of relationship.
- Do not assume that some types are "healthier," "better adapted," or "more desirable" than other types.
- Do not assume that someone who has reported or even verified a type necessarily is "skillful" at or enjoys activities that might be expected for the type.

type in a position will be "unsuited for it," less competent, or less satisfied. Rather, he or she is likely to be different from the predominant type in terms of the way the job is done, particular motivations, nature of satisfactions, and the like. Caution 4.3 lists ways in which MBTI results should *not* be interpreted.

Interpreting Type in a Clinical Setting

One need not have a specific reason to give a client the MBTI questionnaire beyond a desire to take type into account in assessment and subsequent treatment. Merely being aware of type differences enables the clinician to remain open to and curious about the individuality of each client, to suspend judgment, and to avoid a premature diagnosis. An aware clinician can more readily distinguish among client characteristics that reflect normal type preferences, those that may be related to the individual's type development, those that reveal a person's distinctive way of expressing type, and those that are independent of type considerations.

Using Type "Language" in Interpretation
There are a variety of situations in which the results of a type assessment must be communicated to someone who knows little or nothing about type—for example, as part of a written report in assessments for treatment or in employee assessment. The interpreter's task is not to educate recipients of such reports about type or the MBTI inventory but rather to provide useful information *without* using type terminology. This is especially true since type language can easily be relegated to the category of "psychological jargon" and summarily dismissed.

Knowing when and how to modify one's language style as an interpreter is one very effective use of type, and it is relevant in a broad range of therapeutic and other endeavors in addition to explaining MBTI results. Even when introducing type terms during a verification session, care should be taken not to overload clients with more terms than are necessary for adequate understanding. Some clients, however (often those who prefer either Sensing and/or Thinking), appreciate precise terminology and find results less credible when "technical" terms are omitted from an explanation. The kind of language clients prefer often is related to their typological makeup in combination with their educational and occupational background.

Type Distributions as an Interpretive Aid

Familiarity with the characteristics of the 16 types promotes recognition of expected type-related behavior. It can also be helpful to know the prevalence of the types in the general population and in particular environments. Some client concerns may be related to being a type that is infrequent in the population at large or in a particular setting. For example, only about 25% of the U.S. population prefer Intuition over Sensing, with INFJ least frequent among males (1.2%) and ISTJ (16.4%) the most frequent; INTJ are the least frequent among females (.9%) and ISFJ (19.4%) the most frequent. When a person of a more rare type reports feeling different, like an outsider, or misunderstood, it may be helpful to validate that perception with statistics.

Table 4.1 gives the type distribution for the national representative sample of U.S. adults as reported in Myers, McCaulley, Quenk, and Hammer (1998). Stratified random sampling representative of the U.S. population was used in collecting a national sample, followed by weighting based on U.S. census data for gender and ethnicity, which corrected for an overrepresentation of Caucasian females and an underrepresentation of African Americans males in the national sample. The information on type distributions can be quite useful in clinical and other applications and is also the best available general sample to use as a base comparison group in research. See Myers et al. (1998) for type distributions in different ethnic groups that are based on the national representative sample as well as distributions of type in a number of different countries. More recent distributions for a number of countries can be found in Kirby et al. (2007).

Type prevalence can also be helpful at a more personal level, such as when a client becomes aware of the likely types of family members or of colleagues at work. For example, a woman with a Sensing preference who was raised in a family of Intuitive types may end up feeling less intellectually swift and imaginative than her parents and siblings; an ESFJ working among ISFJs and ISTJs may believe

Table 4.1 Type Distribution of the National Representative Sample

	ISTJ		ISFJ		INFJ		INTJ	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Male[a]	242	16.4	119	8.1	19	1.2	49	3.3
Female[b]	106	6.9	297	19.4	25	1.6	13	0.9
Total population[c]	348	11.6	416	13.8	44	1.5	62	2.1

	ISTP		ISFP		INFP		INTP	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Male[a]	126	8.5	112	7.6	61	4.1	71	4.8
Female[b]	36	2.3	152	9.9	71	4.6	27	1.7
Total population[c]	162	5.4	264	8.8	132	4.4	98	3.3

	ESTP		ESFP		ENFP		ENTP	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Male[a]	83	5.6	102	6.9	95	6.4	59	4.0
Female[b]	46	3.0	153	10.1	148	9.7	37	2.4
Total population[c]	129	4.3	256	8.5	243	8.1	96	3.2

	ESTJ		ESFJ		ENFJ		ENTJ	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Male[a]	165	11.2	111	7.5	24	1.6	40	2.7
Female[b]	96	6.3	259	16.9	50	3.3	14	0.9
Total population[c]	261	8.7	369	12.3	74	2.5	54	1.8

[a]N = 1,478. [b]N = 1,531. [c]N = 3,009.

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he lacks the requisite ability to concentrate and persevere silently until a task is completed; an INFP engineer may worry that his performance is poor because his primarily Thinking supervisors rarely compliment him but are quick to point out his mistakes.

Awareness of some general societal biases toward particular preferences or whole types can also be helpful in understanding and helping a client cope with specific issues. For example, many Introverts struggle with such labels as "shy," "unsociable," "cold," or "uncommunicative." Even though the national representative sample indicates about an equal frequency of people reporting a preference for Extraversion and those preferring Introversion, our culture in general clearly favors extraverted qualities over introverted ones. It should be noted that many earlier estimates of the prevalence of Extraversion and Introversion in the United States suggested that there were three to four times as many Extraverts as Introverts. These estimates were based on various samples that were not representative of the population at large, such as Myers and McCaulley's (1985) high school student sample.

Another source of bias comes from gender expectations, particularly in confusing Thinking judgment with masculinity and Feeling judgment with femininity—exacerbated by mistakenly defining Thinking as hard-headed or unfeeling and Feeling as emotional. A lesser expectation is that women are by nature extraverted and men introverted. In fact, the T–F dichotomy is the only one of the four that has consistently shown a gender difference in prevalence. In the national representative sample, about 57% of men identify Thinking and 43% Feeling as their preference; about 25% of women identify Thinking and 75% Feeling as their preference. It is interesting that compared with earlier, less carefully drawn samples, a greater percentage of *both* men and women identify Feeling as their preference. Also in contrast with earlier samples, slightly more women prefer Extraversion (52%) and somewhat more men prefer Introversion (54%). Regardless of actual prevalence in the population, it is important to differentiate natural preferences for Thinking or Feeling from legitimate gender differences and to help clients understand and evaluate the impact that a confusion of type and gender may have on their lives. For example, women who prefer Thinking and men who prefer Feeling are judged differently—and often negatively—relative to women who prefer Feeling and men who prefer Thinking. Another frequent error is the assumption that all women "should" be Feeling types and all men "should" be Thinking types. Men and women who deviate from this expectation can be seen as deficient in masculinity and femininity when the distinctive qualities of the two judging functions are mistakenly fused and confused with gender qualities.

Biases and Expectations Associated with Type Preferences

Regardless of whether a type bias is societal, context driven, or based on one's own type, awareness of some of the assumptions that influence our perception of type-related characteristics can be helpful when assessing and treating clients of different types. As a general rule, we assume that other people's minds operate in much the same way as our own and that to understand the meaning and motivation behind other's words and actions, we must simply consider what *we* would mean and what *our* motivation would be in the same situation.

This reasonable but incorrect assumption is the basis for much interpersonal misunderstanding. The type perspective provides a practical way of interpreting or "translating" the words and actions of people with different type perspectives. Clinicians can use this information in helping clients better understand themselves and others as well as to accommodate client differences both in their conduct of psychotherapy and in the expectations they have of clients.

Maturity and Expression of Type

The type descriptions in *Introduction to Type* (Myers, 1998) represent mature, well-developed members of each type. Many individuals, including most young people, may not fit the descriptions. They may show exaggerations of some of the characteristics described, lack others, or appear to be caricatures of their type. When adults come across as a caricature—sharpening all of the qualities of the type so they come across as rigid and extreme—they are often seen as immature or undeveloped in their type. A possible explanation for both young people and adults is habitual use of both the dominant and auxiliary functions in the same attitude of Extraversion or Introversion, yielding one sidedness or type exaggeration. Recall that for effective functioning to occur, type dynamics theory specifies that the dominant function operates primarily in the preferred attitude and the auxiliary function primarily in the less preferred attitude. A seeming paradox is that people whose expression of type is developed and mature may appear to be less obviously their type than those who are more immature in their development. MBTI® Step III™ (Myers et al., 2009) assesses differences in client type development and suggests ways to develop and enhance type functioning.

An Example

At age 10, Billy was referred for treatment because of his difficulty controlling his temper and for his impatience, outspoken criticism, and rudeness toward his parents and teachers. His failing grades in school were primarily due to incomplete or sloppily done assignments rather than to his cognitive abilities, which

were judged to be superior. Billy showed quite a lot of creativity and originality in explaining the reasons for what others saw as his problems, essentially blaming people and external circumstances for what happened. His current teacher suggested that he might be hyperactive; his parents wondered if his self-centeredness was due to his being an only and much-catered-to child. Because of his age, Billy took the Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children (1987 unrevised version), with results suggesting his type as ESFP, although his scores were close to the "undecided" range on the S–N and T–F dichotomies. Note that this first edition of the instrument identified a range of scores considered "Undecided," which has proved psychometrically unnecessary in the more robust 2008 revision cited earlier. Billy's behavior did fit expectations for an immature Extraverted Perceiving type (one whose dominant function is either S or N and is habitually used in the Extraverted attitude). Behavior that might reflect an S or N preference was ambiguous: He excelled at memorizing facts about geography, which he loved, but was haphazard at best in remembering most other details. He was quick to come up with original solutions to math problems (typically an Intuitive approach) but disdainful of having to record the steps to solutions. With regard to T–F, Billy's slight preference for Feeling seemed overshadowed by the immaturity of his expression of Feeling: He typically focused on his own well-being and emotions with little regard for his impact on the well-being of others. He frequently claimed that others were "hurting my feelings," with no recognition that his behavior hurt others' feelings. Billy's expression of Feeling as "raw emotion" is also reminiscent of Feeling expressed as an inferior function of dominant Thinking types (Quenk, 2000, 2002).

Billy's behavior and attitude problems diminished considerably after a year of individual and family therapy. His behavior was interpreted in terms of the intense "pull" he experienced both from and toward the environment, his desire for and attraction to external stimulation, and the accompanying ease with which he became distracted. Ways of helping Billy capitalize on his type preferences rather than change them were found. He was helped to accomplish tasks by making use of his high energy and keen awareness of what was going on while gradually developing self-discipline and the ability to gauge how long tasks would take and how to better meet deadlines.

Billy fared reasonably well over the next several years, with infrequent lapses into his former problematical behavior. However, at age 14 he returned for therapy due to failing grades in several middle school subjects—again ascribed to incomplete and sloppy assignments and work that was not handed in. Billy's excuse-making abilities had become more sophisticated and even more original and clever than they were at age 10. Billy took the MBTI Form G (Form M was

not yet published), was able to answer all but two questions, and came out as an ENTP with very clear preferences for E, N and P, and a moderate preference for T. Note that as mentioned earlier, neither the clarity of Billy's reported preferences nor his verifying of them necessarily reflect effective and mature expression of his type.

A standard verification procedure was followed, with Billy verifying all four preferences, but with some doubts about the Sensing–Intuition dichotomy. Billy read the type description in *Introduction to Type* (Myers, 1998) aloud to his therapist and parents. All agreed that most of the descriptive statements fit Billy. For example, he was certainly "creative, imaginative, and clever; analytical, logical, rational, and [questionably] objective," and, though often inappropriately, he was indeed "assertive and questioning." Most striking, however, were the statements describing ENTPs who are not using their type in a mature fashion. These ENTPs were described as "brash, rude, and abrasive, given to criticizing others, becoming rebellious and combative, scattered and unable to focus." Even Billy laughed at the obvious accuracy of these descriptors.

Both Billy and his parents were assured that Billy was in the process of "growing into his type" and that working with this information would continue to be helpful in his genuine desire to meet other's expectations while remaining true to his own nature. Billy's parents had taken the MBTI instrument during Billy's earlier therapy, and Billy read their type descriptions to better understand their concerns about him and what he could do to accommodate their needs as well as his own.

Billy's therapy was a unique opportunity to observe an emerging, though immature, type and to explore ways that type knowledge could be used effectively over the course of psychotherapy.

Interpretation Issues and Stability of Type over Time

The Jung/Myers theory postulates that every individual is born with a natural disposition to develop certain attitudes and mental processes rather than their opposites. An important related assumption is that one's type remains stable throughout life, although the way it is expressed at different developmental stages can differ. Innate type develops and becomes individualized or derailed—in response to a variety of life experiences and environmental pressures, some of which were suggested in the preceding sections. There are two effects of developmental and interactional influences that relate to the stability of type over time. The first may be elicited during the verification and interpretation procedure; the second is reflected in reliability evidence.

Client Belief That Type Changes

Some clients believe that their type was different at an earlier time and has changed (e.g., "I used to be an Introvert but now I'm an Extravert"). If the client is referring only to his reported MBTI results—he took the questionnaire a few years ago, came out as an Introvert, and has taken it again and reported Extraversion as his preference—the interpreter can correct the client's notion that a change in reported preference represents an actual personality change. If, however, the client means that he experienced himself and behaved previously like an Introvert and is now operating as an Extravert, inquiry should be made into which pole of the Extraversion-Introversion dichotomy is really natural for him. A consideration of some of the issues discussed earlier in this chapter might be productive in this exploration.

A client's development of Step II facets in response to environmental pressures, as discussed in chapter 1, may also influence her belief that her type has changed. If, as hypothesized, a person can adopt an out-of-preference or midzone approach on one or another facet of a dichotomy, the client may believe that preference on the entire dichotomy has changed. For example, an Introvert who adopts an Enthusiastic (extraverted) manner of approaching the world may well see himself as an "all-around" Extravert.

Test-Retest Reliability of Step I

Results for people who retake the Indicator after an interval of time may also be affected by the various developmental and interactional factors discussed. Most samples for which reliability data are available contain a range of ages and intellectual achievement, both factors that appear to affect consistency of response on the MBTI instrument. Therefore, reliability results in general are probably low estimates of what might be obtained with more select samples. With longer time intervals, some changes in self-report may occur as a result of increased self-knowledge, better comprehension of questions, and so on.

Table 4.2 gives the test-retest reliabilities for available Form M samples using the percentage of respondents who remained the same on one to four categories on retest. For Form M using three different samples, results for CPP employees (employees of the publisher who likely had some familiarity with type) are best, and the college student sample are least consistent in having all four categories the same. Reliability for longer intervals is provided in a meta-analysis of Form G subjects. Even here, results are acceptable, given the length of the intervals.

Test-Retest Reliability of Step II

Just as the primary focus of test-retest reliability for Step I data is on stability of the four dichotomies over time, so is the Step II focus on the stability of the

Table 4.2 Percentage of Individuals Remaining the Same on One to Four Categories on Retest

Sample	Interval	*N*	4	3	2	1	0
Form M							
Students	4 weeks	116	55	93	97	100	0
Utility adults	4 weeks	258	66	91	99	100	0
CPP, Inc.	4 weeks	50	80	100			
Form G							
Meta-analysis	>9 months	559	36	72	94	100	0
Meta-analysis	<9 months	1,139	51	87	98	100	0

The column header "Number of Preferences the Same at Retest" spans columns 4, 3, 2, 1, 0.

Source. Adapted from Hammer (1996, Figure 2.4) and Myers et al. (1998, Table 8.7). Modified and reproduced by special permission of the Publisher, CPP, Inc., Mountain View, CA 94303 from *MBTI® Manual: A Guide to the Development and Use of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator*, Third Edition by Isabel Briggs Myers, Mary H. McCaulley, Naomi L. Quenk, and Allen L. Hammer. Copyright 1998 by CPP, Inc., and from *MBTI® Applications: A Decade of Research on the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator®* by Allen L. Hammer, Editor. Copyright 1996 by CPP, Inc., All rights reserved. Further reproduction is prohibited without the Publisher's written consent.

three interpretive categories (scores of 2 through 5 toward the left pole; scores of 2 through 5 toward the right pole; midzone scores of 1 or 0) for each of the 20 facet scales. Table 4.3 shows categorical test-retest frequencies for both an adult and a college student sample.

As evident in Table 4.3, very few people move to the opposite pole of a facet on retest in both the adult and college student samples, with the highest percent of movement being in three of the J–P facet scales and the Questioning-Accommodating scale on the T–F dichotomy. The J–P dichotomy and its facets are probably more responsive to outside pressure than the other dichotomies. Most people on most facets in both samples remain in the same category; where movement does occur, it is typically to or from the midzone, as would be expected.

Interpretive Reports

A number of profiles and narrative reports cover basic MBTI Step I information by itself, and others are specific to a particular application of or combine Step I

Table 4.3 Categorical Test-Retest Frequencies for the Adult Sample

Step II Facet Scale	Adults			College Students		
	% Remaining in Same Category	% Moving to/from Midzone	% Moving to Opposite Pole	% Remaining in Same Category	% Moving to/from Midzone	% Moving to Opposite Pole
E–I Facet Scales						
Initiating–Receiving	82	17	1	72	23	5
Expressive–Contained	76	22	2	65	28	6
Gregarious–Intimate	66	31	3	67	29	4
Active–Reflective	79	17	4	70	26	4
Enthusiastic–Quiet	71	25	4	72	21	6
S–N Facet Scales						
Concrete–Abstract	76	21	3	68	29	3
Realistic–Imaginative	71	26	3	69	27	4
Practical–Conceptual	66	30	4	64	31	6
Experiential–Theoretical	79	16	5	67	28	4
Traditional–Original	66	26	7	62	31	7
T–F Facet Scales						
Logical–Empathetic	76	21	4	72	25	3
Reasonable–Compassionate	63	35	2	64	35	1
Questioning–Accommodating	57	38	6	50	38	11
Critical–Accepting	72	23	5	60	31	9
Tough–Tender	70	28	2	62	34	4

(continued)

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Table 4.3 (Continued)

Step II Facet Scale	Adults			College Students		
	% Remaining in Same Category	% Moving to/from Midzone	% Moving to Opposite Pole	% Remaining in Same Category	% Moving to/from Midzone	% Moving to Opposite Pole
J–P Facet Scales						
Systematic–Casual	74	24	2	60	36	4
Planful–Open-Ended	84	9	7	70	13	16
Early Starting–Pressure-Prompted	75	23	2	65	25	11
Scheduled–Spontaneous	74	24	1	59	34	7
Methodical–Emergent	68	23	9	59	27	14
Median	73.2	23.2	3.3	65.1	28.6	5.3

results with those of a different assessment. There is one profile for Step II feedback and one narrative report. Rapid Reference 4.6 describes these options.

The Ethics of Verification and Interpretation

As is the case for administration of the MBTI questionnaire, standard ethical guidelines for tests apply to interpretation of instrument results. In addition, because results are designed to be given directly to the respondent, some other considerations also apply. Don't Forget 4.3 summarizes them.

≡ *Rapid Reference*

4.6 Selected MBTI Step I and Step II Reports*

Profile/Report	Description
Form M profile	2-page summary of basic preference information.
Form M Interpretive Report	5 pages, including profile information, explanation of type, detailed client type description.
Form M Interpretive Report for Organizations	9-page profile and report that focuses on the individual's type as expressed in business and organizational settings.
Form M Team Report	16-page report for each team member that identifies team type and how the individual's type interacts with team type as well as a 23-page team facilitator's report.
Form M Career Report	10-page report linking client type with career information and strategies for enhancing job satisfaction.
Strong and MBTI Career Report	Strong Interest Inventory and MBTI results integrated to help the client identify occupations in a comprehensive career development system (13 pages).
Individual Report Form	A form for recording results when using the template-scored version. Gives brief definitions of preferences, space to record results, and 1 page of thumbnail descriptions of the 16 types.
Form Q (Step II) Profile	Provides client's four-letter type and scores on the 20 Step II facets (4 pages).
Form Q (Step II) Interpretive Report	18-page individualized report showing the 20 facet scores, associated descriptive statements, and individualized results in four application areas.

*Note: Reports are available for both paper-and-pencil and computer-administration of Form M and Q. Sample reports can be viewed on the publisher's Web site (www.cpp.com).

DON'T FORGET

4.3 Ethical Guidelines Regarding Interpretation of MBTI Results

Interpretation Guidelines

Psychological type theory is oriented toward the appreciation and positive use of individual differences for individuals and groups. Interpretation of type results should always adhere to this overriding principle.

- Type attributes should be described in neutral, nonjudgmental, positive terms and as tendencies rather than imperatives. The interpreter should make explicit reference to the inherent value of all types.

- Because type theory describes an individual's preferences and not skills or abilities, no client should be counseled toward or away from a particular career, activity, or personal relationship, based solely on type information.

- The person receiving type results is the ultimate judge of the accuracy of results, be it whether a Step I type description ''fits,'' or whether their placement in one of the Step II facet categories is appropriate.

- Interpreters should be careful not to state or imply that type explains everything but rather that it is one important component of a person's complex personality.

- Sensitivity to one's own type biases as an interpreter is highly desirable, and every effort should be made to minimize such bias in interpreting to clients.

- Interpreters should be alert to clients' tendency to misinterpret or overinterpret the numerical part of both Step I and Step II results and should strive to correct any such misinterpretations.

Note: Based on ''Ethical Principles,'' Association for Psychological Type (1992). Modified and used with permission.

Basic Psychometric Evidence

This chapter has suggested various guidelines for verifying and interpreting the MBTI assessment as well as a number of caveats that take into account the factors that can limit the accuracy with which the instrument can elicit and identify a particular individual's type. Practitioners can also make effective use of basic psychometric information, both for their own confidence and understanding as well as to answer questions that clients may ask about the likelihood that the questionnaire can tell them something important about themselves. To facilitate these goals, Table 4.4 summarizes this information. Note that the test-retest reliability data in Table 4.4 can be particularly helpful when clients report coming out as a different type on a previous or subsequent administration. One likely explanation is the clarity with which they reported their preferences on the two

Table 4.4 Summary of Selected Psychometric Evidence for Form M and Form Q

Internal Consistency Reliabilities		E–I	S–N	T–F	J–P
Coefficient alpha)	1,330 males	.91	.93	.90	.93
Form M	1,529 females	.90	.93	.88	.92
	7 combined samples (500 males and females)	.94	.93	.92	.93

Test-Retest Reliabilities	Preference Clarity Index	N	E–I	S–N	T–F	J–P
Form M theta scores	1–5	88	.46	.52	.44	.22
by preference clarity	6–10	78	.83	.72	.73	.75
index ranges for 7	11–15	62	.87	.87	.84	.89
samples combined	16–20	62	.90	.88	.90	.93
N = 500)	21–25	64	.97	.96	.95	.93
	26–30	70	.99	.99	.99	.99

Internal Consistency Reliability of Step II Facet Scales

Step II Facet Scale	No. of Items	National Sample (N = 1,378)	Adults (N = 137)	College Students (N = 162)
E–I Facet Scales				
Initiating–Receiving	8	.85	.87	.83
Expressive–Contained	8	.79	.81	.80
Gregarious–Intimate	6	.60	.65	.63
Active–Reflective	6	.59	.71	.65
Enthusiastic–Quiet	7	.72	.77	.75
S–N Facet Scales				
Concrete–Abstract	9	.81	.77	.76
Realistic–Imaginative	7	.79	.77	.77
Practical–Conceptual	6	.67	.62	.52
Experiential–Theoretical	6	.33	.79	.74
Traditional–Original	9	.76	.79	.66

(continued)

Table 4.4 (Continued)

Step II Facet Scale	No. of Items	National Sample (N = 1,378)	Adults (N = 137)	College Students (N = 162)
T–F Facet Scales				
Logical–Empathetic	8	.80	.83	.77
Reasonable–Compassionate	9	.77	.77	.73
Questioning–Accommodating	5	.57	.54	.53
Critical–Accepting	6	.60	.59	.59
Tough–Tender	9	.81	.76	.77
J–P Facet Scales				
Systematic–Casual	7	.74	.81	.74
Planful–Open-Ended	6	.82	.79	.80
Early Starting–Pressure-Prompted	6	.70	.77	.75
Scheduled–Spontaneous	9	.82	.86	.83
Methodical–Emergent	5	.71	.66	.71
Median		**.77**	**.77**	**.75**

Validity of E–I and its facets	Dichotomy correlates with other measures of Extraversion and in the expected directions with at least 157 other relevant variables; facet scales correlate as expected with relevant variables on 8 major instruments
Validity of S–N and its facets	Dichotomy correlates with other relevant measures in the expected directions on at least 126 other relevant variables; facet scales correlate as expected with relevant variables on 8 major instruments
Validity of T–F and its facets	Dichotomy correlates with other relevant variables in the expected directions on at least 97 variables; facet scales correlate as expected with relevant variables on 8 major instruments
Validity of J–P and its facets	Dichotomy correlates with other relevant variables in the expected directions on at least 84 variables; facet scales correlate as expected with relevant variables on 8 major instruments

Table 4.4 (Continued)

Validity of whole types	Hundreds of type tables for different occupations showing distributions in accord with theoretical predictions; numerous studies by whole type, especially in Myers et al. (1998)
Validity of type dynamics	Dynamic analysis using observer ratings supports dynamic interpretation; ANOVA method that examined interactions specific to type dynamic groupings in national sample data found strong evidence in support of dynamic interactions.

administrations. The data show that reliabilities on retest for people with a slight (preference clarity index 1–5) preference clarity are quite a bit lower than those for people with clear (preference clarity index 16–25) and very clear (preference clarity index 26–30) preference clarity. You can also tell clients who wonder if they would come out as a different type if they took the MBTI assessment at a different time that there is strong evidence that they would come out the same, but if they came close to "splitting their votes" on a dichotomy, they could come out indicating the opposite preference on a second administration.

Internal consistency reliability results for Step II facets are largely similar across the three samples shown in Table 4.4, with facet scales containing fewer items tending to have lower reliabilities than those with more items.

Similarly, clients who are interested in the meaningfulness of type dichotomies and how they relate to a variety of traits and other measures can be told of the many relationships that have been found for each dichotomy. It is useful for an interpreter to be familiar with the kinds of variables that have been studied and to have access to data in which particular clients may be interested. Clients are even more likely to ask about whole types (e.g., "Which types are most compatible?" or "What kind of work do ISFJs like to do?"). Keeping a copy of the MBTI manual on hand is the best way to answer these kinds of specific client questions.

🐾 TEST YOURSELF 🐾

1. **In a group setting where the MBTI Step I or Step II questionnaire has been administered, what should group members be told?**
   - (a) They must reveal their type and facet results to the group.
   - (b) Most people are willing to share their type with the group.
   - (c) It is up to them as to whether and when to share their type results.
   - (d) None of the above.

2. **Gender biases are particularly likely to affect assessment of individuals with regard to which dichotomy and its Step II facets:**
   - (a) E–I
   - (b) S–N
   - (c) T–F
   - (d) J–P

3. **Which of the following increase the likelihood of eliciting a person's preferences on the MBTI questionnaire?**
   - (a) permitting omissions
   - (b) wording items for comparable attractiveness
   - (c) using a forced-choice item format
   - (d) all of the above

4. **The four categories of preference clarity shown in the preference clarity category are "very clear," "clear," "moderate," and "slight." True or False?**

5. **Which of the following can be used to explain permitting a midzone category for the MBTI Step II assessment, but no similar "middle" category for Step I version?**
   - (a) Step II facet scales are too brief to determine a true statistical midpoint
   - (b) The facet constructs represent narrow behaviors that may be more responsive to situational factors
   - (c) Respondents whose scores fall in the hypothesized midzone, report consistent similarities that distinguish them from people scoring at the facet poles
   - (d) All of the above

6. **The application of objective criteria is characteristic of**
   - (a) Sensing types.
   - (b) Thinking types.
   - (c) Introverts.
   - (d) Judging types.

7. **As a reflection of their desire for harmony, which of the following is true of Feeling types?**
   (a) They avoid confrontations.
   (b) They often accommodate other's desires.
   (c) They may make decisions that are not in accord with logic.
   (d) All of the above.

8. **MBTI Step II facet results can help a client with a slight preference on a dichotomy to clarify that preference. True or False?**

9. **Comfort working within a predetermined schedule is associated with a preference for**
   (a) Introversion.
   (b) Sensing.
   (c) Thinking.
   (d) Judging.

10. **Which of the following T–F facets reflects how a person implements a decision?**
    (a) Tough-Tender
    (b) Critical-Accepting
    (c) Logical-Empathetic
    (d) Questioning-Accommodating

11. **Why is knowing one's own type important when verifying and interpreting type with clients?**

12. **What should you say to someone who believes that his type has changed?**

13. **There is little evidence that type predicts success in any career. Is this a valid criticism of the MBTI? Why or why not?**

14. **What might account for a person being characterized as "exaggerated" or a "caricature" of his or her type?**

15. **The MBTI approach treats Extraversion and Introversion as equally valid modes of energy. Yet Introverts are often labeled as "shy," a trait with negative connotations. How might you explain the difference between being introverted and being shy?**

Answers: 1. c; 2. c; 3. d; 4. True; 5. d; 6. b; 7. d; 8. True; 9. d; 10. a; 11. It helps one recognize and avoid personal type biases; 12. More likely, you are *expressing* your type differently, but which type is natural for you could be further explored; 13. No, because the MBTI makes no claim for such a relationship; 14. Inadequate type development and/or habitual use of both dominant and auxiliary functions in the same attitude, i.e., both are extraverted or both are introverted; 15. Shy people tend to be uncomfortable in social situations; Introverts tend to be adaptively energized by their inner life and may or may not be uncomfortable socially.

Five

STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES OF THE MBTI® INSTRUMENT

OVERVIEW

Form M of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator personality inventory was released in the fall of 1998 and has been reviewed in several major publications, including two 2001 Buros reviews listed at the end of this chapter in the MBTI Review References. Form Q of the MBTI instrument was released in 2001 and reviewed in Buros in 2003. There are a number of major differences between both forms and their predecessors (Form G preceded Form M; Form K preceded Form Q). Critical observations regarding some of the psychometric qualities of previous forms appear to have been addressed successfully in the Form M revision and revised manual. Critiques of these issues therefore will not be covered here, but some of the most relevant improvements are noted in appropriate Rapid References. Interested readers will find references to the sources of earlier critiques, including Buros reviews of Form G, at the conclusion of this chapter. No reviews of Form K are available in the literature. Several features of the MBTI instrument are largely independent of the form used. These will be considered first, followed by a review of the advantages and disadvantages of Forms M and Q relative to previous forms with regard to their development, administration and scoring, reliability and validity, standardization, and interpretation.

The MBTI as a Personality Assessment Tool

Many of the qualities that can be seen as strengths of the MBTI instrument also represent possible weaknesses. Rapid Reference 5.1 contrasts these.

Strengths and Weaknesses of MBTI Form M and MBTI Form Q

The revision process for both Form M and Form Q has produced psychometrically stronger instruments with few serious weaknesses. Improvements in the tests themselves are further supported by the third revision of the MBTI manual

≡ *Rapid Reference*

5.1 Strengths and Weaknesses of the MBTI Step I and MBTI Step II Assessments

Strengths

- The comprehensive theory provides a context for understanding individual complexity.
- Clients recognize the types as real and the typology as a useful way of describing themselves and others; Step II facets enrich understanding of individual differences within each type.
- Nonnormative basis of preferences, types, and facets identifies and affirms client individual differences as normal.
- Questions about simple surface behaviors adequately identify the complex constructs that interact, as specified in the theory.
- Form M yields four largely independent scales (dichotomies) that are relatively unambiguous in what they measure; the five facets subsumed within each dichotomy are appropriately interrelated and identify unique expressions of MBTI preferences.
- The theory and instrument are parsimonious: Only four measured constructs are required to yield rich personality descriptions, and the 20 individualizing Step II facets are internal to the type system.
- Clients typically affirm and appreciate the way that the 20 Step II facets describe their unique way of experiencing and expressing their type.

Weaknesses

- Adequate understanding of the theory is needed to administer and interpret the instrument.
- Clients and professionals ascribe trait qualities to type preferences, leading to inappropriate interpretations of type; the problem is even greater for the Step II facets, whose more narrow behavioral focus encourages a trait assumption.
- From a normative perspective, positive type descriptions may gloss too easily over real psychological problems.
- Simplicity of questions encourages the idea that the typology itself is simple and static rather than complex and dynamic.
- The four scales look like familiar trait measures and can easily be interpreted as four independent traits; the 20 facet scales can similarly be viewed as traits that are subscales of the larger scales.

- The 16 types are not measured directly; knowledge of the theoretical assumptions regarding how the four scales interact dynamically is needed to identify types.
- There is a risk that the 20 facets will override the four dichotomies and their dynamic interaction.

(Myers et al., 1998) (often referred to as the Form M manual) and the publication of the first comprehensive Step II Manual (the Form Q Manual) (Quenk et al., 2001). There was a brief manual for the earliest version of Form K, *The Expanded Analysis Report* (Saunders, 1989), a user's guide (Kummerow & Quenk, 1992), and a publication describing the facets (Mitchell, Quenk, & Kummerow, 1997) associated with the first computerized narrative report for the Form K version of the Step II instrument (Quenk & Kummerow, 1996). Strengths attributable to the Form M and Form Q manuals are included as relevant points in Rapid References 5.2 through 5.6.

≡ *Rapid Reference*

5.2 Strengths and Weaknesses of MBTI Form M and Form Q Development

Strengths

- For both Form M and Form Q, item response theory (IRT) was used to evaluate and select the items that had the greatest discrimination around the midpoint of each scale.
- A large pool of items written by Myers formed the basis for both Form M and Form Q.
- A large pool of newly written items were evaluated, yielding nearly half of the items selected for Form M. All 93 Form M items are included in Form Q. The remainder were drawn from additional Myers items.
- Correlations among the facets of S–N and those of J–P vary considerably, in spite of the moderate correlation of their respective underlying preferences.
- No items show gender differences on either Form M or Form Q.
- Only a few items are affected by respondent age on either form.
- No items show other sources of differential item functioning (DIF) on either form.

Weaknesses

- Breadth of coverage of the multifaceted content of the dichotomies may have been sacrificed in Form M item selection; though such content is well covered in Form Q, not all clients take Form Q.

- The moderate correlation between S and J and between N and P in Form M appears to contradict the scale independence criterion for Form M, although factor analyses of Form M clearly show S–N items loading on the S–N scale and J–P items loading on the J–P scale.

- The T–F facet Questioning-Accommodating is not represented in the Form M T–F scale. (There are no Form M items on this facet scale.) Yet research shows the scale to be a legitimate aspect of T–F. This finding may pinpoint a missing piece of the T–F construct on Form M that is better covered in Form Q.

≡ *Rapid Reference*

5.3 Strengths and Weaknesses of MBTI Form M and Form Q Administration and Scoring

Strengths

- All 93 items on Form M are used to score for type; there are no added re-search items, as in previous forms; all but two of the 144 items on Form Q are included on a facet scale. (All Form M items are included on the MBTI Step II and MBTI Step III forms so basic type can be reported.)

- Item response theory is used for scoring both Form M and Form Q, yielding improved accuracy for both.

- Paper-and-pencil and online presentations of both Form M and Form Q are attractive; instructions are clear and easily understood.

- Color printing of Step II reports is available and recommended for better un-derstanding.

- Online administration using the publisher's Web site is easy and preferred by many users.

- Form Q can be template-scored for basic four-letter type using Form M tem-plates if paper-and-pencil administration is used.

- The availability of MBTI® Complete interactive online administration/inter-pretation gives individuals access to the actual MBTI assessment and discour-ages use of questionable "look-alikes."

Weaknesses

- Template scoring of Step II is not possible.
- Different scoring options for Form M can produce different results, specifically template and self-scoring versus item response theory computer scoring for all other options.
- Researchers must use computer scoring to get the theta scores needed for correlational research for both Form M and Form Q.
- People who get type results through MBTI® Complete are likely to be limited in their knowledge of types other than their own, although a list of appropriate resources is provided.
- Color printing of the Step II Profile and Interpretive Report add to the cost of these reports.

≡ *Rapid Reference*

5.4 Strengths and Weaknesses of MBTI Form M and Form Q Standardization

Strengths

- Stratified random samples were collected to match U.S. census data for adults 18 years of age and older for both Form M and Form Q.
- Weighted samples were created to approximate the U.S. distributions by gender and ethnicity to produce national representative samples.
- Reported distributions of preferences and types for Form M are more accurate than previous estimates and include distributions for African American, Asian American, and Latino/Latina ethnic groups.

Weaknesses

- Both samples were slightly overrepresented with Caucasian females relative to U.S. census data and underrepresented for African American males.
- Desired representation in the stratified random samples for both Form M and Form Q would have been preferable to weighted estimates or other methods used.
- The Step II sample did not contain sufficient representation from ethnic groups other than African Americans to be reportable.

≣ *Rapid Reference*

5.5 Strengths and Weaknesses of MBTI Form M and Form Q Reliability and Validity

Strengths

- There are improved internal consistency and test-retest reliabilities on all scales for both Form M and Form Q compared to their respective previous forms.
- Categorical test-retest data for Form Q facets show little movement from one pole to the opposite pole.
- Form M has improved accuracy relative to best fit type estimates for Form G.
- A best-fit type study using MBTI® Complete data largely supported earlier studies.
- There is strong agreement by clients with their facet results on Form Q.
- Data presented throughout the Form M manual provide strong support for type dynamics and the distinctiveness of the 16 types.
- Form Q manual validity data cover a wide variety of personality instruments and behavioral measures, providing strong support for its application in several areas.
- Databases available for both Form M and Form Q are very large.

Weaknesses

- More recent studies of reliability using larger samples are not yet available for Form M and Form Q.
- Best fit type studies on recent Form M samples (other than MBTI® Complete) are not available (though in process).
- Research on the 16 whole types requires an accurate understanding of the theory and large samples.
- Dynamics-oriented research techniques and results are more difficult to comprehend than simple correlational studies of the four dichotomies.

The MBTI Assessment vis-à-vis Other Instruments

A number of available instruments purport to elicit some or all of the personality domains elicited by the MBTI assessment. The instrument most closely comparable is the Jungian Type Survey: The GrayWheelright Test (Wheelright, Wheelright, & Buehler, 1964), which was developed by two Jungian analysts, Gray and Wheelright, at about the same time as was the MBTI assessment. It has not been widely used outside of Jungian circles. This instrument does not include a J–P scale and has different assumptions about the directionality of the functions, so

≡ *Rapid Reference*

5.6 Strengths and Weaknesses of MBTI Form M Step I and Form Q Step II Interpretation

Strengths

- For Form M, the term *preference clarity index* replaces the former term *preference score*, discouraging a trait interpretation of numbers.
- On Step II Form Q, the term *facet* has replaced the term *subscale* that was used on Form K reports, conveying the qualitative rather than quantitative character of results.
- Language used in test instructions, profiles, and reports for both forms is consistent with a type rather than a trait approach.
- Test instructions and interpretation recommendations are consistent across all delivery formats for both forms.
- The term *dichotomy* is used to refer to the MBTI's four categories rather than *scale* or *dimension*; the Step II term *facet* replaces the earlier term *subscale*; the terms *scale* and *subscale* are restricted to psychometric issues.
- Both the Form M and Form Q manuals provide practical, hands-on guidance in all areas of application.

Weaknesses

- Longtime users and others who are wedded to a trait perspective continue to use the term *score* and to think from a score perspective.
- It is sometimes awkward to use the term *dichotomy* rather than *scale* (referred to in both Step I and Step II forms) and *facet* rather than *subscale* in Step II. MBTI dichotomies and facets look like scales and these terms are more familiar and used.
- Increased accuracy of both Form M and Form Q may lead interpreters to be overly accepting of test results and less attentive to verifying type with clients.
- In spite of the wealth of interpretation guidance available, interpreters need experience to acquire comfort and skill in interpreting both forms.
- When the Step II instrument is a client's first introduction to type, the richness and understanding of dynamic type available through a solid Step I interpretation may be lost.
- The use of three interpretation categories (left pole, right pole, and midzone) in MBTI Step II results differs from Step I dichotomies and may confuse interpreters and clients.

type dynamics interpretations are somewhat different from those of the MBTI system. Nevertheless, the Gray-Wheelright assumes a dynamic interaction of the preferences as does the MBTI approach. The Millon Inventory of Personality Styles (Millon, 1994), claims to measure Jungian personality type, but is not widely used. The NEO Personality Inventory (Costa & McCrae, 1985) was not designed to measure Jungian types; however, four of its five scales show clear correlations with the four MBTI dichotomies. This trait-based instrument has been suggested by its authors as an alternative to the MBTI assessment. Two more recent instruments are the Golden Personality Type Profiler™ (Golden, 2005) and the Majors Personality Type Inventory™ (Majors, 2004). Both instruments purport to measure MBTI preferences, but depart in significant ways from the Jungian theoretical basis that is used in the MBTI approach. For example, both use likert scales rather than a forced-choice format to determine preferences. A detailed critical comparison of the advantages and disadvantages of the MBTI instrument vis-à-vis other instruments is beyond the scope and intent of this chapter. There are several important differences between the MBTI approach and those of other instruments that attempt to address the same domains of personality. Awareness of these differences can provide a useful evaluative perspective for people wishing to assess normal personality differences. Differences include the following:

- MBTI Step I dichotomies focus on qualitatively different opposite categories, whereas most other instruments explicitly or implicitly ascribe trait meaning to category scores.
- The MBTI Step I is the only major instrument that predicts the specific dynamic interactions among the dichotomies that reflect the Jung/Myers theory, and it reports research evidence in support of these interactions.
- Each pole of each Step I dichotomy is considered to be legitimate and adaptive in its own right; other instruments explicitly or implicitly favor one pole or end of a continuum over the other.
- There is no explicit or implicit definition of one pole of an MBTI dichotomy as a deficit in or absence of the opposite pole: for example, Introversion is not defined as a deficit of Extraversion, nor is Extraversion seen as a deficit of Introversion.
- Definitions of the eight preferences use neutral and positive descriptors; neither pole of a dichotomy is favored over its opposite.
- The Step II facets subsumed under the four main type dichotomies are also presented as neutral or positive and are interpreted as legitimate in their own right.

MAJOR REVIEWS

Nine reviews of the MBTI instrument have appeared in the *Mental Measurements Yearbook*, two on Form M, both of which were included in the 2001 edition, and one on Form Q in the 2003 edition. An additional 90 or more critiques and critical commentaries were published in various journals and books between 1962 and 2006. All of the *Mental Measurements Yearbook* reviews are included below, as well as several other major critiques of the instrument. A complete list of reviews, criticisms, and relevant responses can be obtained from the Center for Applications of Psychological Type in Gainesville, Florida (see Rapid Reference 1.5).

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✒ TEST YOURSELF ✒

1. **A strength of both the MBTI Step I and MBTI Step II assessments is that they are easy to interpret. True or False?**

2. **Which of the following is false regarding the strengths and weaknesses of Step I?**
   (a) One strength is the elimination of gender- and age-influenced items in both Form M and Form Q.
   (b) Item response theory provides good discrimination around the midpoint in Form M.
   (c) The moderate correlation between the S–N and J–P scales on Form M and some of the facets on their dichotomies are problems in need of correction.
   (d) None of the above.

3. **Which of the following are considered to be possible weaknesses of MBTI Step II instrument?**
   (a) The 20 facets may override information about the four dichotomies and their dynamic interactions.
   (b) The facets look like and might be interpreted as simple behavioral traits.
   (c) Research on Step II facets requires obtaining the theta scores available only via computer scoring.
   (d) All the above.

4. **A strength of both MBTI Step I and MBTI Step II assessments is that the poles of the Step I dichotomies and the facets are described in neutral or positive terms. True or False?**

5. **A weighting method was used to match U.S. census data for Step I because the random sample originally collected showed**
   (a) an underrepresentation of all major ethnic groups.
   (b) an overrepresentation of Caucasian females.
   (c) an underrepresentation of African American males.
   (d) both b and c.

6. **The focus in the Step I Form M manual on type dynamics research rather than correlational research is a major weakness. True or False?**

7. **List one asset and one liability of emphasizing the term *dichotomy* and restricting the term *scale* to psychometric references.**

8. **The Step I and Step II manuals contain so much interpretation and application information that very little experience is needed for practitioners to interpret and use the instruments with great skill. True or False?**

9. **Which instrument is most similar in assumptions to the MBTI instrument?**
    - (a) the NEO Personality Inventory
    - (b) the Jungian Type Survey
    - (c) the MIPS
    - (d) All these instruments have the same assumptions

10. **A stated weakness of the MBTI Step II assessment is the use of three interpretation categories rather the familiar two used in Step I. True or False?**

Answers: 1. False; 2. c; 3. d; 4. True; 5. d; 6. False; 7. Asset: "Dichotomy" emphasizes two categories rather than scalar "amounts"; Liability: "Dichotomy" has four syllables and is less familiar than "scale"; 8. False; 9. b; 10. True.

Six

CLINICAL APPLICATIONS OF MBTI® STEP I™ AND STEP II™ ASSESSMENTS

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator personality inventory reveals normal variations in personality. It can therefore provide a context for understanding healthy aspects of the individuality of each client, regardless of the presence of any pathology. From such a vantage point, psychological and emotional problems can be more appropriately assessed, possibly inappropriate diagnoses and perceptions avoided, and treatment styles developed that capitalize on a client's natural proclivities. This way of using the MBTI assessment follows Jung's recommendation that therapists strengthen the patient's conscious approach to establish a solid, safe foundation within which unconscious factors can emerge on their own (Jung, 1954, p. 186). In type terms, this means affirming and strengthening the client's dominant and auxiliary functions *before* dealing with the less conscious tertiary and inferior functions, which are relatively inaccessible to conscious control and direction.

Clinicians can also use the theory of type dynamics and development as a conceptual framework within which to understand and treat clients. You will recall from chapter 1 that in the Jung/Myers theory, individuals use their dominant function in the preferred attitude of Extraversion or Introversion and their auxiliary function in the corresponding nonpreferred attitude. But suppose someone habitually uses the dominant as well as the auxiliary function in the preferred attitude—for example, an ENFP who extraverts both dominant Intuition *and* auxiliary Feeling, or an INTP who introverts both dominant Thinking and auxiliary Intuition. Or suppose that someone does not have a preference for one pole of a dichotomy over the other—for example, a person who does not have a habitual, reliable way of accessing either Sensing or Intuition. These kinds of problems in type development can be manifested in two ways: Some clients have presenting problems that are a direct function of their difficulty in accessing and expressing their natural type effectively; your understanding of type dynamics can be used therapeutically to help these clients explore and gain confidence in "being themselves." Other clients may have a variety of difficulties unrelated to their type

that have nevertheless interfered with or are manifested in their type development; for these clients, focusing on issues of type development may improve their general level of functioning at the same time that it encourages them to persist in working on their other difficulties.

This chapter highlights practical insights that will enable clinicians to take type into account in assessing and treating their clients. The major focus is on the rich therapeutic insights that can be gained through understanding Step I type—the eight preference poles of the four dichotomies and the unique qualities of the 16 types that result from the dynamic interactions among the preferences. The therapeutic value of Step II interpretation is also discussed, primarily through examples showing how facet information can be used productively. The uses of Step I and Step II information in treating couples, families, and in chemical addiction are briefly considered, as is a perspective on working with type with more seriously disturbed individuals. The chapter concludes with cautions regarding inappropriate uses of the MBTI assessment in such areas as learning disabilities, attention-deficit disorder and related behavioral disorders, in general personality assessment, and in assessing the effectiveness of treatment.

Some useful generalizations about both therapists and clients who hold each of the eight preferences have emerged from a combination of empirical research and clinical observations. It can be helpful to keep such information in mind as you interview, assess, and treat clients of different types, recognizing that your own type preferences will serve as a pervasive backdrop to your interactions with clients.

One or another preference can become quickly apparent during an initial interview, or you may recognize a client who is very similar or quite different from you. Tentatively affirming the value of characteristics associated with a hypothesized preference can help a client feel understood and accepted, so rapport is quickly established. With experience, clinicians sometimes find that a new client's whole type seems apparent very early in the therapeutic interaction; there are subtle nuances that are associated with the distinctiveness of one or another type. As experience with the MBTI Step II assessment increases, clinicians are likely to "hear" specific facets from clients rather than the totality of a preference, and even identify possible out-of-preference facets. This added richness in understanding a client's type functioning can enhance therapy even if a particular client does not take Step II Form Q. Of course, it is important to suspend judgment about all type hypotheses until the usual process of verification has occurred. Nevertheless, tentative understanding of a client's probable type and facets can be helpful, especially in couples therapy when the partners are engaged in "accusing" each other of being different or "doing that just to irritate me."

It is usually therapeutic to share your type with clients, as this can serve as a vehicle for explaining and affirming differences and in dealing with rough spots and misunderstandings that occur during the course of therapy. For example, an Intuitive therapist can explain that it is harder for her to call up specific details of the last session without having those facts in a context. Giving clients information about your own type usually enhances the therapeutic process; however, some clients may incorrectly attribute your comments and suggestions solely to your type, rather than to your expertise, and dismiss them as irrelevant. As with all self-disclosure, discussing your own type with clients must be used selectively, judiciously, and with careful consideration of the client's needs.

CLINICAL APPLICATIONS OF THE EIGHT PREFERENCES

This section looks at the eight preference poles from the point of view of the therapist's preference in relation to clients who are either opposite or the same in that preference. The focus is on the kind of understanding and misunderstanding that may accompany similarities and differences. The comments below concerning similarities and differences in therapist and client preferences are neither exhaustive nor meant to apply in all cases; rather, they should be taken as suggestive and cautionary examples of some of the typological issues that can emerge.

Extraversion and Introversion

In a system of opposites, people who are most comfortably themselves while extraverting are likely to be less comfortable introverting, whereas people who are most comfortably themselves while introverting tend to be less comfortable extraverting. For extraverted people, the inner world can be too quiet, too lacking in stimulation, too inactive, too solitary. For introverted people, the outside world can be too loud, too stimulating, too demanding of action, too intrusive. Brain-mapping research shows a biological basis for these differences, such that Extraverts' brains appear to be less stimulated than Introverts' brains by the same stimulus (see Myers et al., 1998, for a summary of these and related findings; see Gram et al., 2005, for recent research that validates these results and also provides evidence for different patterns of cortical activity associated with each of the other MBTI dichotomies). It appears that Introverts are comfortably stimulated when "inside their heads" and may be overstimulated when interacting with the outside world; Extraverts are comfortably stimulated by the outer environment and understimulated when focusing on the inner world.

Concomitants of Extraversion-Introversion similarities and differences can be readily and frequently observed in the conduct of psychotherapy with individuals, couples, and families. Once a therapist is aware of their impact, however, client preferences can be accommodated rather easily.

Introverted Therapist and Extraverted Client

Make sure to talk and interact more; what may be a comfortable silence for you may be interpreted by the client as criticism or disapproval. Extraverts tend to think out loud, so the client may tell you a lot more than you think is necessary to get to the point. Expect Extraverted clients to talk a good deal about what is happening in their lives, their interactions, thoughts, or feelings about others, what they are doing or want to do. Do not assume that they are necessarily avoiding important internal issues; they likely need to let you know who they are in their most comfortable arena before tackling their inner life. They are also likely to see other people and outer events as largely responsible for their problems, and this is natural up to a point. However, continued exclusive focus on the outer world and dismissal of personal contributions to problems may signal a client who has not developed an effective introverted auxiliary function. Such a client may arrange life so as to be continuously active and with other people. Do not assume this is merely due to the client's extraverted preference; such clients may benefit from your encouragement to slowly explore the more unfamiliar and uncomfortable inner side of themselves.

Introverted Therapist and Client

You will probably be quite accepting of the longer time it takes to establish a comfortable rapport. But be careful not to be overly accepting if your client hesitates to discuss problems; too much "understanding" may validate an Introverted client's fear that his or her thoughts and feelings are abnormal or unacceptable. Acknowledge that self-disclosure is difficult but encourage the client to risk it. As a fellow Introvert, you may be slow to notice clients who eagerly discuss their inner lives but who talk very little about their functioning in the world. These clients might be having difficulty using and trusting their auxiliary function, which should be their adaptive access to the outer, extraverted world. Try to determine whether the client habitually introverts both dominant and auxiliary, indicating a persistent problem in type development, or whether this is a response to situational factors. If the former, you can help clients gain confidence in extraverting their auxiliary; you can empathize with their fear of failure in this regard but also encourage and support them when they make increasingly frequent forays into the outside world. Clients can also be encouraged to have greater trust in others' positive perceptions and judgments of them. Introverts often devalue

themselves. If introverting the auxiliary function is transient rather than habitual, you can focus productively on identifying current factors that are pushing a client's normally extraverted function inside.

Extraverted Therapist and Introverted Client

Talk less and expect less talking from your client. What may be an uncomfortable silence for you is probably necessary reflecting time for the client. In fact, many Introverted clients need a great deal of time to consider a question before being able to answer it. It can be helpful to give such clients homework assignments that encourage them to mull something over and talk about it in the next session. Don't interpret the client's hesitancy to reveal personal information as defensiveness or avoidance; it may take more time than you think necessary to establish a trusting relationship. Try asking fewer questions and making fewer comments, and space everything out over a longer time period; otherwise, the client may interpret your natural and genuine enthusiasm, interest, and concern as intrusive and controlling. Do not be too quick to "correct" a client's self-doubt or self-criticism or to recommend a great many extraverted endeavors as a way to overcome any anxiety about being in social situations. Your corrections or recommendations may be taken as yet another confirmation of the client's inadequacy. Introverted clients first look inside themselves as the source of their difficulties, and this is natural. However, after doing that, they should be encouraged to consider the outside world and other people as contributing to problems. A client who talks exclusively about his or her inner life may not have developed an effective extraverted auxiliary function. Be understanding but not overly indulgent of the client's discomfort in extraverting. Validation of a client's attempts to function in the outer world can be helpful, especially coming from an extraverted therapist.

Extraverted Therapist and Client

You may very much enjoy seeing the client and may have very comfortable interchanges, since the style of communicating will seem natural and familiar. But it may be harder for you to differentiate between a client whose many activities and relationships are natural and adaptive and one who may be overdoing an outer focus as a way of avoiding being alone and having to face internal issues. Such a client may be one-sidedly extraverting both dominant and auxiliary functions and have little development of inner perception or inner judgment, whichever is the auxiliary function. Depending on your own type development, you may be particularly sensitive to problems that can emerge when clients do not have trust in their inner perception or inner judgment. Such clients are particularly likely to overvalue the perceptions and judgments of other people,

since the outside world seems more credible to them than their inner selves. Helping a client become aware of misplaced trust in others is an important way to assist in type development. As a fellow Extravert, you can be naturally understanding of some reluctance to stay very long "inside your head" but can also help the client make brief but increasingly frequent attempts to engage in an inner exploration.

There are a number of important client characteristics that are related to Extraversion and Introversion, regardless of the therapist's preference on this dichotomy.

Extraverted clients

- need the therapist to talk a good deal and give feedback on progress.
- look first to others and external circumstances as the source of their problems.
- may be uncomfortable with too much exploration of their "inner life."
- often recount their activities as a way of communicating who they are.
- sometimes extravert both their dominant and auxiliary functions, making them appear to be "extremely" extraverted. This may be either situational or habitual.

Introverted clients

- need more time to establish a trusting relationship and risk discussing difficult areas.
- need more time to reflect before answering questions.
- look first to themselves as the source of their problems.
- benefit from moderate, gradual encouragement to take extraverted "risks."
- sometimes introvert both their dominant and auxiliary functions, making them appear to be "extremely" introverted; this may be either situational or habitual.

Step II information for a client can often clarify some puzzling client characteristics. For example, *Intimate Extraverts* (underlying Extraversion preference but favoring the Intimate pole of the *Gregarious-Intimate* facet) consistently report that intimacy in their close relationships is essential. They seem to demand a very high level of personal sharing, much more so than *Intimate Introverts* (who are in-preference on this facet). A therapist who is aware of this seeming anomaly can fruitfully explore it with the client. Selected out-of-preference facets on the other dichotomies can similarly provide a pathway to fruitful therapeutic exploration.

Sensing and Intuition

When people have opposite preferences on the two perceiving functions, they typically focus their attention and interest on quite different aspects of the world; are naturally attracted to different kinds of information; and place different value on occurrences in the past, the present, and the future. In a therapeutic relationship, client-therapist similarities or differences on this dichotomy can have a major impact on the course of therapy, client and therapist satisfaction, and outcome and termination issues.

Therapist Preferring Intuition and Client Preferring Sensing

Try not to interrupt when the client is giving what seems to you to be an overly detailed account of an event or personal issue. You may think you know where the client is heading, but you could be wrong. Sensing clients want to convey information completely, accurately, and with sufficient detail to ensure that you understand. Interrupting by either finishing the client's sentences or asking possibly extraneous questions may be experienced as your disinterest, failure to listen, or lack of respect for and understanding of the nature of the client's problems. Your Sensing-type client will likely want to confine therapy to the specific issues that motivated his or her seeking help and may have little interest in other areas that you may believe are worthy of attention. In addition, an intellectual understanding of the problems and the way they are interconnected may not be as important to the client as it is to you. However, do not be surprised when a Sensing-type client seems to be overly impressed by your "trivial" interpretation or pointing out of "obvious" connections between aspects of the client's life. Remember that interrelating disparate behaviors, events, or ideas is not a natural, automatic activity for your client. But once aware of such connections, he or she is likely to make immediate and practical use of these insights, which can have a lasting impact on the resolution of their problems. When a client with a Sensing preference tells you that things are so much better now and terminates therapy, do not assume that this is "premature" or that he or she is denying or avoiding important issues. It is natural and an appropriate and effective use of therapy for Sensing types to enter therapy for a circumscribed problem, terminate when it is resolved, and perhaps return at a later time for a different specific problem.

Therapist and Client Preferring Intuition

Both of you may feel "connected" quite quickly and enjoy an easy interchange around issues and alternative solutions. But do not assume that you always know what the client means by the half sentences or rapidly shifting topics that are brought up. Your interpretation of such half-formed or vaguely verbalized

statements may be quite different from the client's. There is also likely to be a lot less energy from either of you around collecting specific information. You may find that both you and the client have glossed over important facts and details, such as key personal history information or the day and time of the next appointment. Forcing yourself to review what you know or think you know about the client may be helpful. As a fellow Intuitive, you may also be slow to recognize a client whose one-sided use of Intuition is causing problems in living, for example, by neglecting to pay bills or arranging for house maintenance and repairs. Both you and your client may be quite comfortable keeping such problems at a conceptual level. However, you can serve as an effective resource by providing helpful, concrete suggestions from your own possible struggles in this area. You will not be surprised to find that Intuitive clients may welcome an exploration of issues beyond those that motivated seeking help. They will likely want to remain in therapy to deal with them. Be careful to consider whether your mutual attraction to such exploration leaves other practical aspects of the client's life as continuing problems.

Therapist Preferring Sensing and Client Preferring Intuition

Expect and be tolerant of frequent digressions from whatever topic is being discussed; you can bring the client back to the subject later, and the digression may reveal some important facts and history that you may wish to consider. Bear in mind that Intuitive clients automatically make inferences from whatever you say and that such inferences can be taken and recalled by them as actual facts. Do not be surprised when they insist that you "said something" that you know you did not say; just clarify your meaning and be aware that such a misunderstanding will likely happen again. You might make a habit of checking out your client's understanding of your comments and suggestions. You can explain that your request is motivated by your different preferences for Sensing and Intuition. Some, but by no means all, Intuitive clients may resist homework assignments and instead prefer an open-ended and exploratory approach in their therapy. You might try reframing any assignments that require attention to specific behaviors. Present them as vehicles to stimulate ideas and generate new information. Homework that requires the use of Sensing perception can be quite valuable for Intuitive clients who are ignoring or minimizing some facts and details in their lives. However, you may reach a point in the therapy where you believe the client's issues have been successfully resolved while the client wants further exploration and more "depth" in the therapy. If the client's desires remain unfulfilled, he or she may acknowledge that you helped but feel dissatisfied with the overall outcome of therapy.

Therapist and Client Preferring Sensing

Both of you are likely to be comfortable in following prescribed treatment methods, and you will be quite appreciative of the client's attempts at accuracy and completeness. You probably will not have too many gaps in the information you collect. Sticking to a circumscribed presenting problem may feel appropriate for both of you, as will practical, behavior-focused exercises and detailed homework assignments. However, many Sensing-type clients have difficulty coming up with alternative perspectives and possibilities in relation to their presenting problems—especially in imagining any positive outcomes. These clients will very much benefit from and trust your suggestions in this regard. Your Sensing-type client is likely to appreciate your down-to-earth, practical approach to what may seem to be overwhelming and insoluble problems. As a fellow Sensing type, you may be vulnerable to agreeing with such a client's perspective. Be careful not to buy into the client's fears that nothing will ever change for the better. You can point out that since the future is not predictable, staying focused on what can be done now is more worthy of attention.

There are a number of important client characteristics that are related to Sensing and Intuition, regardless of the therapist's preference on this dichotomy.

Sensing clients

- want to be accurate, detailed, and complete in their communications.
- benefit from being provided with alternative explanations and possible outcomes.
- use therapy productively to deal with specific, circumscribed problems.
- are relatively uninterested in broad-ranging explorations of their psyches.
- can be so one-sidedly devoted to Sensing as to appear rigidly present oriented and fact focused, rejecting all alternative perspectives.
- gain practical insights from therapist interpretations and use new perspectives to help resolve their problems.

Intuitive clients

- frequently digress from the subject being discussed and want to go where their Intuition leads them.
- make inferences from therapist statements, which may be incorrect or distorted.
- may be unenthusiastic about specific, behavioral homework assignments.

- are often intrigued by an exploration of their psyche and wish to remain in therapy longer.
- may be one-sided in their use of Intuition, flitting from one idea and possibility to another, while avoiding facts and details that later create serious life problems.
- may remain "stuck" when the insights they gain are not actualized in concrete behavior.

One example of an out-of-preference S–N facet may be especially useful to clinicians. Some (but not all) *Concrete Intuitive* clients (underlying preference for Intuition but favoring the *Concrete* pole of the Concrete-Abstract facet) may be observed to overly focus on one or two facts, obsessing on them to the exclusion of anything else, and then coming up with a "theory" that explains these facts (it is as if their underlying Intuition takes over). The result makes perfect sense to the client but to no one else. A similar effect is sometimes seen for midzone scores on this facet, regardless of the underlying Sensing-Intuition preference of the client.

Thinking and Feeling

Differences and similarities in the way client and therapist arrive at conclusions can lead to troublesome misunderstandings and unconscious projections and counterprojections during the therapeutic process. The Thinking-Feeling dichotomy brings forth issues of acceptance, understanding, empathy, objectivity, language and communication style, and myriad other factors relevant to the conduct of therapy. It is therefore especially important for therapists to understand these very different approaches to judgment so that they can avoid communicating unintended judgments to their clients—both those who have opposite preferences in judgment and those who share their preference.

Therapist Preferring Feeling and Client Preferring Thinking
Do not expect your client to talk easily or directly about his or her emotions and deeply held values, and do not mistake the infrequent use of "feeling" words to reflect an absence of strong emotions. People who prefer Thinking tend to have fewer words to describe what they are feeling than do Feeling types, since they habitually make judgments by excluding their own and others' emotions and values from the decision-making process. This makes them relatively inexperienced in describing the feeling or valuing realm, so it is harder for them to come up with words that reflect the nuances of Feeling evaluation. Asking the client what he or she *thinks* rather than *feels* is a simple but effective way to elicit the desired

information. Insistence on a feeling focus or emotional response will likely cause the client considerable distress and diminish your credibility as a therapist. Often, but not always, Thinking-type clients have readier access to anger than to other emotions; be aware that such anger may often be a global response to hurt, disappointment, frustration, or a variety of other emotions that the client may not be able to conceptualize and verbalize. Exploring this possibility could prove fruitful, especially when framed within a cognitive or systems approach to therapy, which is likely to be an approach that is appealing to your Thinking-type client. It is natural for people who prefer Thinking to be concerned about your competence and credentials; try not to take their questions as criticisms or challenges. Nondefensively stating your training, experience, and credentials can establish your credibility and be the basis for trust in your expertise. Bear in mind that for some Thinking types, seeking help from a mental health professional may be experienced as an especially distressing personal failure. It is advisable not to express your natural empathy and understanding too enthusiastically, as your client may see this as patronizing and this may diminish your credibility as a therapist. Your Thinking-type client may not put as much importance on the therapeutic relationship as you do, and you may need to keep therapy at an "intellectual" level for much longer than you would like. Both the nature of the therapeutic relationship and enabling the client to express emotions will likely be more important to you than to the client. But do not ignore the emotional area forever; eventually it will be safe for the client to risk emotional expression. Bear in mind, however, that this can be quite uncomfortable for a Thinking type, who well may fear that, once unleashed, emotions will be uncontrollable.

Therapist and Client Preferring Feeling

You will likely become comfortable with each other quickly and your easy understanding and use of Feeling language will encourage rapport and a sense of trust. You can capitalize on your similar judgment approach to help a client whose use of Feeling is one-sided and exaggerated to consider the logical consequences of decisions. Such clients often "stop" at the experience of negative feeling so they have no opportunity to look at either the long-term logical or value consequences of their decisions. Discussing a worst-case scenario is an effective technique to help clients move beyond this point. It often becomes apparent to such clients that they can indeed tolerate the immediate pain of a confrontation or negatively charged event to avoid a far more significant pain at a later time. Ask whether the client can recall ever having avoided telling the truth or having told a white lie to spare someone else pain or hurt, only to have this come back to haunt him or her by ultimately creating an even worse situation. Confronting such events in their

lives can help Feeling-type clients develop better Feeling judgments and thereby avoid making purely "emotional" decisions. As a Feeling-type therapist, you can also help Feeling-type clients to better interpret the language used by the Thinking types in their lives; you can point out that it is to be expected that people whose nature is to discover flaws, errors, and inconsistencies will first focus on what is wrong; mentioning what is correct and working well seems to Thinking types to be unnecessary and patronizing.

Therapist Preferring Thinking and Client Preferring Feeling

Your client can interpret your dispassionate approach as a lack of concern and empathy, and feel that he or she is not someone worthy of your attention. Such a client may take your comments and observations as disapproval and criticism. It can be helpful to qualify what you say, making sure to include modifiers like "may" or "seems to." Do not assume that your Feeling-type client will openly disagree with you or tell you how they feel about you; many Feeling types are uncomfortable doing this and see questioning others' statements and judgments as contentious. It is therefore helpful to give them "permission" to disagree by saying things like "I could be mistaken, but" or "One way of seeing this is..." You may be more oriented to cognitive, behavioral, and systems approaches, whereas your Feeling clients may expect more affective, client-focused methods. Try to accommodate your client while not abandoning what works for you. The client may benefit from your particular approach, as long as it is undertaken in a context of care, empathy, and attentiveness. Bear in mind, however, that it is natural for Feeling types to want verbal confirmation of your continuing interest and concern; do not assume that when they seek this from you they are being overly needy and lacking a sense of self.

Therapist and Client Preferring Thinking

You will likely find it easy to connect with each other, and your client may find your approach to therapy appealing and comfortable. Thinking-type clients are far less likely to interpret your declarative statements as lack of understanding and may be relieved when you don't insist on early emotional disclosures. However, you both may risk ignoring what is important and meaningful to the client and talk around rather than about relationship issues, possible fears about losing control of one's emotions, and deeply held values. The client may not be able to articulate such issues. Judicious self-disclosure by you in this area may encourage the client to risk the awkwardness of attempting to communicate about this usually nonarticulated area.

There are a number of important client characteristics that are related to Thinking and Feeling, regardless of the therapist's preference on this dichotomy.

Thinking-type clients

- have fewer words to describe feeling values and emotions than Feeling-type clients do.
- may tell you what they feel when asked what they "think."
- sometimes display a variety of emotions by expressing anger.
- will be concerned about the therapist's competence and credentials.
- may fear that once expressed, their emotions will be uncontrollable.
- if one-sidedly devoted to Thinking, can avoid and deny that feeling and emotion play any part in their lives.

Feeling-type clients

- may interpret a dispassionate therapeutic approach as distant and uncaring.
- can take casual comments and observations as criticisms.
- are often reluctant to disagree with the therapist's statements.
- prefer affective, client-centered therapeutic approaches.
- naturally need verbal affirmation of the therapist's interest and concern.
- if one-sidedly devoted to Feeling, can avoid any kind of confrontation or unpleasantness.

Of the 40 possible out-of-preference results on the MBTI Step II assessment, the two most common ones occur on the T-F dichotomy, specifically on the Questioning-Accommodating facet. It is fairly common to find *Questioning Feeling* types and *Accommodating Thinking* types. The former can be seen by others as argumentative and contentious, more so than are people who are in-preference, since their questioning seems out of character. The latter can be accused of playing favorites or being "weak," since this facet seems out of character with their underlying Thinking preference. Clients often have an "aha" reaction when reading their Step II Report description of their seemingly contradictory behavior, as do their partners if they are involved in couples therapy.

Judging and Perceiving

The observable behavior of both clients and therapists is often related to the preference for a Judging or a Perceiving approach to the outer world. Therapists and clients can draw either positive or negative conclusions from each other's way of dealing with schedules, deadlines, new information, and the desire for or discomfort with plans and conclusions. Client and therapist similarities and differences on this dichotomy often relate to how therapy is structured and the predictability of the process. Therapists can use their understanding of differences in the J and

P preference to avoid inappropriate inferences about the client and to "explain" people with the opposite preference to their clients.

Therapist Preferring Perceiving and Client Preferring Judging

Your client is unlikely to feel comfortable with an open-ended, exploratory style and will want goals, time lines, and expected outcomes to be issues for joint exploration. Dismissing legitimate concerns in this area can diminish the client's trust and respect for you and your expertise. You may need to resist inquiring immediately about ancillary areas that come up during a discussion because to do so may be disruptive to a client who wants to finish one topic before moving on to another. And if you both agreed to cover something in the next session, it is a good idea to stick to the plan. It is even more important to be aware that statements that you intend as possibilities rather than firm conclusions or decisions may be taken by your client as final plans. What is a comfortable loose end that you will decide about later may be a clear judgment in your client's mind. It is natural for clients with a Judging preference to obsess about small matters, especially when experiencing moderate stress. Do not mistake this for a psychological disorder. What is often helpful for a Judging client in this state is to be able to obsess out loud without fear of having concerns minimized or of being given advice.

Therapist and Client Preferring Perceiving

You will both likely be comfortable with an open-ended and free-ranging approach to issues, moving easily within and between topics. But you may find that you end up without the information you were seeking because you were both led astray. Chances are the missed topic will resurface eventually, and you may both accept this as natural. But be alert to the possibility that the client's natural proclivities in this regard may sometimes reflect "changing the subject" because it is an uncomfortable one. This may become apparent when you bring the discussion back to an earlier topic. Your shared preference for delaying decision making may lead you to be slow to recognize actual self-destructive procrastinating by the client, and you may be overly sympathetic to his or her expression of helplessness regarding getting organized or meeting deadlines. Such clients may be responding to internal or external stress by exaggerating their natural affinity for gathering information (Perceiving preference) to the point that they are perpetually distracted. It is important to determine whether such a response is habitual or situational and treat both possibilities as issues to be addressed in therapy.

Therapist Preferring Judging and Client Preferring Perceiving

Try to be tolerant of some amount of drifting off topic on the client's part or of the client's wanting to further discuss an area that you thought had been

brought to closure. Try to delay coming to any conclusions about what is going on with this client, since he or she is likely to add important information, possibly outside of its original context. Be aware that some Perceiving clients can be rather lax about schedules and appointment times. Do not assume they are being resistant or oppositional, but do not be too accepting of it either; the behavior in therapy may well reflect similar issues that have broad and pervasive consequences in the client's relationships and at work. Perceiving clients may expect you to be directive and to tell them what to attend to in their lives, especially if stress and conflicting demands have pushed their natural information-gathering approach to the level of distractibility. Such clients can benefit from your help in limiting their focus to the essentials. Guidance in prioritizing can eventually lead them to take control by themselves and use their introverted Judging function to select among the many options available through their preferred Perceiving function.

Therapist and Client Preferring Judging

Both you and your client may function well using a systems model of therapy rather than process or structural models. However, your client's whole type will influence whether and which therapy approach will prove most effective in individual treatment. Therapeutic goals, schedules, and time frames will be comfortable for you both, but be careful that in your desire to achieve closure, you do not reach conclusions prematurely and shut off further data collection. Your client may not pick up on such an oversight, being of the same attitude; it may well be worthwhile to revisit issues that had appeared to both of you to be resolved. You are in a good position to understand and help a client who obsesses about details when experiencing stress. Referring to your own Judging preference and disclosing that you too obsess in the same way can be quite affirming to a client who fears that his behavior may be out of bounds or pathological.

There are a number of important client characteristics that are related to Judging and Perceiving, regardless of the therapist's preference on this dichotomy.

Judging clients

- appreciate plans, schedules, and defined therapeutic goals.
- may interpret tentative suggestions or possibilities as firm intentions and decisions.
- tend to obsess about small things, especially when experiencing stress.
- often prefer systems approaches to psychotherapy.
- may reach closure on an issue prematurely.
- benefit from being encouraged to reconsider their judgments and look at other options.

Perceiving clients

- appreciate a casual, open-ended approach to therapy and therapeutic goals.
- may move from one topic to another with no need for closure of any one issue.
- may see the therapist's stated intention or conclusion as one of many possibilities still open for consideration.
- can become aimless and distracted, especially when experiencing stress.
- may want the therapist to be directive and tell them what to do.
- benefit from help with prioritizing and choosing among the many options they perceive.

The Judging-Perceiving dichotomy, which taps behavior in the outside world, is responsive to societal pressures to be organized, methodical, meet deadlines, and so on. This can often be seen in out-of-preference and midzone scores for natural Perceiving types. Their array of Step II J–P facets can shed light on how they are adapting, especially at work. One Perceiving client may score as a "Scheduled P," on the Scheduled-Spontaneous facet; another Perceiving type may habitually start early on particularly important assignments but start closer to the deadline on less critical ones, and show a score in the midzone on the Early Starting-Pressure-Prompted facet. Though less common, clients whose natural underlying preference is Judging may be relieved to know that their seemingly contradictory behavior (e.g., being a *Pressure-Prompted J*) is not uncommon and is perfectly "normal." Therapists can point out that sometimes people have difficulty knowing whether their J–P facet results are comfortably developed habits or necessary accommodations to external demands. If the latter, they may have to use more energy and may experience greater fatigue.

THE 16 TYPES

The 16 types are not equally attracted to counseling and psychotherapy, either as therapists or as clients. For therapists, there are type-related differences in theoretical orientations and preferred treatment modalities; for clients, there is wide variation in presenting issues, expectations, and therapeutic goals. As is the case when considering single preferences, conjunctions of therapist and client type can present potential pitfalls and likely assets. The focus in this section is on client characteristics that are associated with whole type. Information about therapists of each type is also summarized.

Readers should be cautious in generalizing from the summaries below, since there are wide within-type differences, often revealed in Step II profiles, as well as variations in type development of clients that may emerge in MBTI Step III results. Useful compilations of material relevant to assessment and psychotherapy are included in the annotated bibliography that concludes this book. The information here and in various publications can help orient your exploration of type in your own work with clients. It can be helpful to conceive of type as a basic template on which a broad range of client issues can be overlaid.

The two types who share the same dominant function are discussed together and similarities and differences are highlighted. Observations about clients of these types appear first, followed by points about therapists of each dominant type. The types are presented in the same order as in *Introduction to Type* (Myers, 1998). As a reminder, the dynamics of each type are shown first.

Dominant Introverted Sensing Types

	ISTJ	*ISFJ*
Dominant	Introverted Sensing	Introverted Sensing
Auxiliary	Extraverted Thinking	Extraverted Feeling
Tertiary	Feeling	Thinking
Inferior	Extraverted Intuition	Extraverted Intuition

ISTJ and ISFJ Clients

ISFJs are more likely than ISTJs to see a counselor or therapist for personal problems, though both types may be referred by a physician for stress-related somatic symptoms. Both types seek expert advice for academic, career, or rehabilitation issues. Introverted Sensing types, who value stability, loyalty, and social traditions, seem to be particularly vulnerable to stressors such as rapid environmental and social change and uncertainties in the workplace. Knowing that their reactions are natural expressions of their type can be affirming to clients and useful in developing helpful interventions. In addition, therapists should be aware of the following characteristics of Introverted Sensing clients.

ISTJ clients

- sometimes seek therapy for a personal problem as a result of successful couples therapy—usually with the same therapist.
- favor short-term, focused techniques and terminate as soon as the problem is resolved.

- often present a calm, controlled exterior while experiencing great inner turmoil and fear of losing control.
- under stress, are pessimistic about the future and imagine negative possibilities, which therapists may see as resistance to treatment.
- may be judged as obsessive-compulsive when they are actually demonstrating their natural desire for organization, order, and predictability.
- more readily become engaged in the treatment process when the therapist communicates that he or she understands their perspective.
- if both dominant Sensing and auxiliary Thinking are habitually introverted, will appear rigid, inaccessible, out of contact with their own and other's emotions, and resistant to change.

ISFJ clients

- may self-refer or be referred for anxiety, depression, and stress-related somatic symptoms.
- like supportive, cognitive approaches and are conscientious about homework assignments.
- readily show that they are in distress, despairing, and feeling unable to cope.
- under stress, see only negative outcomes in the future but are likely to comply with therapist suggestions when given sufficient understanding and encouragement.
- may be judged as codependent when they are actually demonstrating the caring, helpfulness, and responsibility that is fulfilling for their type.
- benefit from being helped to see psychological connections and alternative explanations of their own and others' behavior.
- if both dominant Sensing and auxiliary Feeling are introverted, can appear inflexible, unwilling or unable to communicate their needs and desires, passively critical, and rigidly moralistic.

ISTJ or ISFJ Therapists

There are some natural areas of comfort, discomfort, and bias that may emerge when working with clients of different types, especially those who prefer Intuition. You should not assume that a practical, focused approach is inappropriate for these clients, as it can be effective for very different reasons than would be true for you. However, clients who are oriented to long-term, insight-oriented therapy may choose to work further with someone else after their presenting issues have been resolved. The characteristics of Introverted Sensing therapists that are

summarized below should not be taken as hard and fast rules, since therapists of the same type can be quite varied in the approaches that appeal to them.

ISTJ therapists

- are infrequent in comparison to other types.
- favor short-term cognitive/behavioral methods over long-term, affect-oriented, client-centered, or psychodynamic methods.
- like a practical, goal-directed approach to client problems and assign focused homework and specific exercises.
- are more often attracted to career counseling, chemical dependency treatment, and academic counseling than to personal counseling.
- may see their opposite type, ENFPs, as immature, histrionic, irresponsible, and poorly adapted, projecting their own inferior Intuition and tertiary Feeling onto the client.

ISFJ therapists

- enjoy doing counseling that encourages a supportive personal relationship with clients, such as occupational, career, and rehabilitation counseling.
- take a practical, goal-directed, and empathetic approach to client problems and assign homework and exercises specific to those problems.
- are more attracted to short-term, focused, cognitive and behavioral treatment methods than to psychodynamic methods.
- place value on the therapeutic relationship but may be reluctant to confront sensitive issues with clients.
- may see their opposites, ENTPs, as manipulative, uncooperative, and antagonistic.

Dominant Extraverted Sensing Types

	ESTP	*ESFP*
Dominant	Extraverted Sensing	Extraverted Sensing
Auxiliary	Introverted Thinking	Introverted Feeling
Tertiary	Feeling	Thinking
Inferior	Introverted Intuition	Introverted Intuition

ESTP and ESFP Clients
ESFPs are more likely to seek professional help than ESTPs, but both types prefer short-term, focused approaches. Their natural affinity for action in the outside

world discourages excessive reflection and exploration of inner complexities. A therapist who suggests a relatively simple shift in perspective can help such a client resolve what seemed to be an unsolvable problem. Both types are likely to terminate therapy when they feel better and are unlikely to be interested in intense psychological exploration for its own sake. In addition, therapists should be aware of the following characteristics of Extraverted Sensing clients.

ESTP clients

- may seek help (especially females) when unable to shake depression associated with a failed relationship; males are more likely to talk to a trusted friend rather than a therapist.
- like very short-term, focused approaches and terminate when they feel better and reconnect with their typical sense of competence.
- enjoy discussing their own and others' behavior but are unlikely to imagine hidden motives and complicated interconnections.
- under stress may lose their objectivity and attention to others' needs, misreading others' motives and ascribing meaning to unconnected events.
- may be judged as shallow and self-centered when they demonstrate their natural focus on experiencing the world and the present moment completely and intensely.
- benefit from having realistic options pointed out, since they often have difficulty thinking of options on their own.
- if both dominant Sensing and auxiliary Thinking are extraverted, can appear selfish, fickle, and uncaring of others' needs.

ESFP clients

- may seek help for depression and difficulty coping with both work and personal stress.
- like short-term, supportive approaches that offer practical solutions, and the freedom to come in for sessions on an as-needed basis.
- may reveal anxiety about being seen as immature by family, friends, and the therapist.
- under stress feel confused and overwhelmed by inner associations and possibilities, easily misinterpreting others' motives and behavior.
- may be judged as shallow, self-centered, and overly concerned with appearances and material possessions, in their natural focus on esthetic and sensual aspects of life.

- benefit from frequent reassurance that the future will not be an inevitable continuation of the present, and from help with priorities and contingency plans.
- if both dominant Sensing and auxiliary Feeling are extraverted, will be anxious about and overvalue others' judgments and have little sense of their own worth.

ESTP or ESFP Therapists

Short-term, focused approaches rather than long-term exploratory therapy will likely make the most sense to you. Clients who are interested in the interconnections and complexities of their inner life will likely be dissatisfied with your pragmatic approach, but they will appreciate your help in times of crisis. In fact, you may be attracted to crisis work, mediation, focused group therapy, and the practical implementation of treatment programs. ESFPs may enjoy working with children as well. The characteristics of Extraverted Sensing therapists that are summarized below should not be taken as hard and fast rules, since therapists of the same type can be quite varied in the approaches that appeal to them.

ESTP therapists

- are infrequent in comparison to other types.
- are attracted to crisis counseling and may enjoy working with acting-out adolescents and adults with behavioral problems, where their to-the-point, no-nonsense approach can be very effective.
- can capitalize on their focused, pragmatic approach to calm down highly stressed or disturbed clients of all types.
- may be impatient with or disparaging of psychodynamic, "intuitive" therapy styles, seeing them as unfocused and unnecessarily complex.
- may see their opposite, INFJs, as vague, fragile, with "loose associations," or even delusional and paranoid.

ESFP therapists

- are infrequent in comparison to other types.
- are likely to enjoy working directly with young children, adolescents, and adults who respond positively to an optimistic, yet realistic, approach to their problems.
- are seen by clients as trustworthy and genuinely interested in their welfare.

- easily create a positive atmosphere and genuine optimism about client problems.
- may see INTJs and INFJs as overly serious, intense, and out of touch with reality.

Dominant Introverted Intuitives

	INTJ	*INFJ*
Dominant	Introverted Intuition	Introverted Intuition
Auxiliary	Extraverted Thinking	Extraverted Feeling
Tertiary	Feeling	Thinking
Inferior	Extraverted Sensing	Extraverted Sensing

INTJ and INFJ Clients

These clients may seek therapy because of dissatisfactions with personal and work relationships, a vague sense of alienation from the world, and a desire to understand their lives in depth. Validating their sense of being different by pointing out their infrequency in the general population (INFJ males and INTJ females are least frequent) can be helpful, as can an understanding of the ways their typological makeup is consistent with their search for meaning and their feelings of estrangement. They want to focus on intrapsychic connections and human complexity, both their own and that of others. In addition, therapists should be aware of the following characteristics of Introverted Intuitive clients.

INTJ clients

- may seek therapy for in-depth understanding and persistent feelings of alienation from others.
- like long-term, psychodynamic approaches as well as cognitive and systems approaches.
- come across as serious, intense, and complex and may not easily express emotions.
- under stress become intensely focused on minor details in the outside world and may overdo sensual activities such as eating, drinking, and exercising.
- may be judged as obsessive or out of touch with reality, in their natural affinity for organizing disparate and complex data in innovative ways.

- benefit from examining themselves at a conceptual level and are un-likely to accept interpretations and suggestions without questioning their rationale.
- if both dominant Intuition and auxiliary Thinking are introverted, may lack confidence and be unaware of their abilities, feeling estranged from others and unable to relate.

INFJ clients

- may seek therapy for depression, self-doubt, or a quest for inner growth and development.
- like spiritual and philosophical approaches and find cognitive-behaviorial methods unappealing.
- are likely to acknowledge a fear of "being crazy," due to their uncanny awareness of others' thoughts and feelings, which others may not rec-ognize until much later.
- under stress may dwell obsessively on outer events, remarks, slights, and perceived injustices as well as engaging in excessive sensual activi-ties, as do INTJs.
- can find it extremely helpful when the therapist explains the typologi-cal basis of their "uncanny" awareness as well as providing them with reassurance about their mental stability.
- if both dominant Intuition and auxiliary Feeling are introverted, may appear as ill equipped to function in the world and may read unintended meaning into people's comments, including those of the therapist.

INTJ *and* INFJ *Therapists*

You probably have an impressive ability to organize, integrate, and make sense of very complex and broad-ranging client difficulties. Introverted Intuitive therapists can quickly zero in on a client's central concern, even when the client is only dimly aware that it is a core issue. If you are an INTJ, try to qualify your statements and observations with modifiers such as "may," "seems to," "one way of seeing this," and so on. Otherwise, clients may believe you are giving them dicta that are not open to disagreement. If you are an INFJ, your uncanny ability to intuit your clients' thoughts and feelings may awe some clients, who may believe you can read their minds. Your empathetic guidance can be espe-cially helpful to types who are overwhelmed by the disorganization in their lives, often the dominant Extraverted Intuitive types. The characteristics of Introverted Intuitive therapists that are summarized below should not be taken

as hard and fast rules, since therapists of the same type can be quite varied in the approaches that appeal to them.

INTJ therapists

- are likely to be comfortable using a psychodynamic or systems approach to therapy.
- especially enjoy clients who are interested in exploring psychological complexities.
- may appear to have "uncanny" understanding of client's thoughts and feelings.
- can be perceived by clients, especially Feeling types, as critical and judgmental.
- may have difficulty accepting the practical, present orientation of ESFP and ESTP clients, seeing them as shallow, self-centered, and unable to deal with complexity.

INFJ therapists

- are frequently attracted to counseling and psychotherapy as a career.
- like insight-oriented, psychodynamic, and cognitive approaches that facilitate client growth and development.
- are seen by clients as insightful, committed, caring, and empathetic.
- may sometimes disregard a client's problems in everyday living while focusing on broader issues of development.
- may see practical, Sensing-type clients as resistant or unmotivated, and particularly dislike working with clients who withhold or distort information about themselves.

Dominant Extraverted Intuitives

	ENTP	*ENFP*
Dominant	Extraverted Intuition	Extraverted Intuition
Auxiliary	Introverted Thinking	Introverted Feeling
Tertiary	Feeling	Thinking
Inferior	Introverted Sensing	Introverted Sensing

ENTP and ENFP Clients

ENFPs are far more likely to seek psychological help than ENTPs; however, people of both types may enter therapy for problems and dissatisfactions with relationships and depression arising from this. ENTPs and ENFPs often thrive in fast-paced, rapidly changing environments and seem well able to handle situations

that other types may experience as stressful. ENFPs are typically much more comfortable as psychotherapy clients than ENTPs. In addition, therapists should be aware of the following characteristics of Extraverted Intuitive clients.

ENTP clients

- may want help with unfamiliar internal distress and self-doubt.
- are likely to accept any therapeutic approach that does not seem intellectually simplistic.
- may initially need to demonstrate their competence and cleverness and therefore challenge the therapist's competence.
- under stress may be likely to increase their high activity level, "crash," and become uncharacteristically ruminative and focused on internal details and body symptoms.
- may be judged as manipulative, insensitive, and arrogant in their natural enjoyment of lively arguments and their focus on intellectual virtuosity.
- are likely to benefit from having their competence and worthiness unobtrusively accepted by the therapist as a necessary step in establishing trust and in encouraging a willingness to disclose doubts and fears.
- if both dominant Intuition and auxiliary Thinking are habitually extraverted, may be especially prone to distressing midlife reactions, sometimes becoming involved in "inappropriate" romantic relationships.

ENFP clients

- seek help for specific personal and relationship problems as well as for guidance related to their intense interest in growth and development.
- will accept any approach that recognizes their individuality and permits freedom to go off on tangents and explore psychological complexities.
- can appear histrionic and ungrounded, often reporting a history of being seen by others as flightly, irresponsible, and unfocused.
- may not recognize when their high stress tolerance has surpassed its typical level and then become depressed, obsessed with small details, and focused on bodily symptoms.
- may be judged as overly emotional, irresponsible, and unrealistic in their natural exuberance and focus on experiencing stimulating and emotionally meaningful relationships and projects.

- may benefit from the therapist's help in organizing at least some of life's details and from guidance in choosing which projects to pursue.
- if both dominant Intuition and auxiliary Feeling are habitually extraverted, may legitimately doubt their inner substance and be quite vulnerable to others' positive and negative projections.

ENTP or ENFP Therapists

You probably like therapeutic approaches that rely on ingenuity in making connections among ideas and events. ENFPs are more likely to enjoy client-centered, affective approaches, whereas ENTPs prefer cognitive and systems methods. Active engagement with clients is appealing to both types. Your natural ability to attend to many interactions at the same time can be particularly useful in family and group therapy. Some Introverted clients may feel overpowered by your Extraversion, so you need to be especially careful to avoid conveying that you are critical of or impatient with a client's progress or willingness to take risks. The characteristics of Extraverted Intuitive therapists that are summarized below should not be taken as hard and fast rules, since therapists of the same type can be quite varied in the approaches that appeal to them.

ENTP therapists

- are attracted to cognitive approaches, like other Thinking types.
- are one of two Thinking types that are not significantly overrepresented among behavioral psychologists.
- may be impatient or uninterested in clients who want to focus on feelings and internal growth rather than directly resolving problems in the outside world.
- are likely to be confrontive with clients, which some Feeling types may experience as intimidating.
- may judge ISFJ and ISTJ clients as maladaptive in their conscientious, orderly approach to life.

ENFP therapists

- are overrepresented as counselors and psychotherapists.
- focus on the client's potential for growth, regardless of the severity of their symptoms.
- are comfortable in taking a nurturing, encouraging role with clients.
- may view clients of very different types as unmotivated, uncooperative, and pessimistic.
- can readily see ISTJ and INTJ clients as negative, rigid, and compulsive.

Introverted Thinking Types

	ISTP	*INTP*
Dominant	Introverted Thinking	Introverted Thinking
Auxiliary	Extraverted Sensing	Extraverted Intuition
Tertiary	Intuition	Sensing
Inferior	Extraverted Feeling	Extraverted Feeling

ISTP and INTP Clients

Both Introverted Thinking types prefer solving their own problems through the detached application of logic. ISTPs are usually referred by someone else; INTPs may seek help on their own when they are unable to understand what they experience as irrational thoughts and emotions. Both types can appear calm and detached when they are actually feeling confused and afraid of losing control of their emotions. They may also report difficulty in personal and work relationships because of their insistence on maintaining independence of action as well as their strong desire to be in control of how they use their time. Therapists should also be aware of the following characteristics of Introverted Thinking clients.

ISTP clients

- are not very likely to seek therapy but may be referred for stress-related somatic symptoms or reluctantly participate in couples therapy.
- favor short-term, focused approaches and are likely to respond to queries briefly and with few digressions.
- may present a distant, critical, and uncaring demeanor, which may mask intense devotion, warmth, and caring for a few intimate others.
- under stress can become even more abrupt and critical than usual and then express uncharacteristic feelings of emotional hurt and a conviction that they are unloved.
- may be judged as oppositional and resistant in their natural focus on the reality of facts that lead to inevitable logical conclusions.
- benefit from guidance in considering alternative points of view and outcomes and in becoming aware of how others interpret their words and actions.
- if both dominant Thinking and auxiliary Sensing are habitually introverted, can appear hypercritical, abrupt to the point of rudeness, and lacking in compassion.

INTP clients

- are more likely than ISTPs to seek help with personal problems but may initially put therapy within a framework of intellectual curiosity.
- are likely to be more concerned with the competence of the therapist than the particular approach used.
- may need to keep therapy at a conceptual level for a long time before risking emergence of painful emotions.
- under stress become hypersensitive to signs they are disliked or excluded and can become uncharacteristically emotional.
- benefit from help in understanding others' motives and behaviors and in reassurance that once lost, emotional control will be regained.
- if both dominant Thinking and auxiliary Intuition are habitually introverted, can be out of touch with the demands of the outer world and devote all their energy to the pursuit of a single interest.

ISTP or INTP Therapists

You will find few members of your type in the field if you are an ISTP, and many more as an INTP. Both of your types are likely to be comfortable with cognitive approaches and INTPs in particular will see the complexities of client behavior as an interesting challenge. ISTPs bring their directness and pragmatism to the task; INTPs can offer conceptual clarity and a calm, dispassionate approach. Both may be seen by some Feeling-type clients as somewhat distant and critical. The characteristics of Introverted Thinking therapists that are summarized below should not be taken as hard and fast rules, since therapists of the same type can be quite varied in the approaches that appeal to them.

ISTP therapists

- are infrequent in comparison to other types.
- have a pragmatic perspective, which is useful in mediation situations.
- care deeply about clients and may demonstrate this by actions rather than words.
- may be impatient with clients and colleagues who favor psychodynamic approaches.
- may see their opposite types, ENFJs and ESFJs, as excessively emotional and physically and psychologically intrusive.

INTP therapists

- are more frequent than ISTP therapists.
- enjoy both cognitive and psychodynamic approaches to therapy.

- are unlikely to use affective approaches to therapy.
- need to be alert to clients' feelings of therapist disapproval or disinterest.
- may see their opposite types, ESFJs and ENFJs, as in much more emotional distress than these clients actually feel and may be uncomfortable working with them.

Dominant Extraverted Thinking Types

	ESTJ	*ENTJ*
Dominant	Extraverted Thinking	Extraverted Thinking
Auxiliary	Introverted Sensing	Introverted Intuition
Tertiary	Intuition	Sensing
Inferior	Introverted Feeling	Introverted Feeling

ESTJ and ENTJ Clients

These typically high-energy, self-confident people may seek help when a chronic illness emerges that demands a lifestyle change or when a very important relationship is threatened or ends. They are naturally achievement oriented and competitive and enjoy the challenge of directing others to produce an effective outcome. Situations that force them to recognize the "irrationality" of their own and others' emotions can be quite upsetting to them. Such situations often occur in the context of intimate relationships. Extraverted Thinking types may view therapy as a last resort and correspondingly interpret their need for help as a defeat and failure. They are by nature challenging and critical, and are likely to take this same approach with regard to a therapist's skills and approach. Therapists should also be aware of the following characteristics of Extraverted Thinking clients.

ESTJ clients

- do not often seek psychotherapy but may come for help with extreme emotional reactions or as part of a couple. They may also be referred for help with required lifestyle changes.
- prefer short-term, problem-solving approaches that focus directly on the issues; may try to direct the therapeutic process.
- can be experiencing quite a bit of inner distress and self-doubt while maintaining a competent, controlled demeanor.
- under stress fear they will (and often do) lose control and are subject to emotional outbursts, feeling others to be uncaring and unappreciative.

- may be judged as motivated solely by a need to control and dominate others, when they are exercising their natural desire to organize the world and produce results.
- can experience relief and affirmation from an explanation of why they feel vulnerable and emotionally out of control.
- if both dominant Thinking and auxiliary Sensing are habitually extraverted, may come across as rigidly overly controlling, impatient, and hypercritical.

ENTJ clients

- may seek therapy for relationship problems or help recovering from perceived personal failures.
- like an approach that provides structure and focuses on getting desired results.
- can try to direct the therapy and the therapist, since asking for help with personal problems is unfamiliar and unacceptable.
- under stress may be flooded with uncontrollable emotion and fear they will never regain control.
- may be judged as power hungry and arrogantly self-confident, when exercising their natural interest in competent management, long-range planning, and implementation of their clear vision of future outcomes.
- will respond positively when the therapist acknowledges their discomfort in the client role but firmly asserts her or his expertise and intent to direct the therapy.
- if both dominant Thinking and auxiliary Intuition are habitually extraverted, can appear arrogantly domineering and dismissive of other's needs and ideas.

ESTJ or ENTJ Therapists

You may be attracted to the field because of the opportunities it provides to satisfy your interest in people as well as your fascination with the ways people behave and interact in organizational contexts. If you are an ESTJ, you may enjoy working with individual clients in an organization to achieve specific goals, as well as in career applications; if you are an ENTJ, you may get satisfaction from applying psychological principles to broad organizational goals. Both ESTJs and ENTJs tend to like working with groups of people, as in structured and focused team building or group therapy.

ESTJ therapists

- are infrequent in comparison to other types and, as therapists, find behavioral approaches compatible with their outlook.
- are likely to prefer organizational consulting and career counseling that focuses on practical problem resolution.
- favor structured, systematic approaches and like working with clear procedures and defined goals.
- may be seen by some clients—Feeling-Perceiving types, for example—as competent but critical and directive.
- may see their opposite types, INFP, as timid, fragile, overly sensitive, and uncommunicative.

ENTJ therapists

- are more attracted to the field than their ESTJ companion type.
- favor behavioral, cognitive, and systems approaches over affective models.
- like organizational applications of psychological principles.
- may be seen by some clients as impersonal, directive, and overly analytical.
- may judge their opposite type, ISFPs, as lacking ambition and as fragile, passive, and dependent.

Dominant Introverted Feeling Types

	ISFP	*INFP*
Dominant	Introverted Feeling	Introverted Feeling
Auxiliary	Extraverted Sensing	Extraverted Intuition
Tertiary	Intuition	Sensing
Inferior	Extraverted Thinking	Extraverted Thinking

ISFP and INFP Clients

Introverted Feeling types can seek help for a broad range of issues, ranging from self-doubt about competence and difficulties in dealing with external and internal stress, to a desire to find meaning and purpose in their lives. Of all the types, ISFPs are most likely to underestimate their own competence. They tend to be uninterested in leadership positions and prefer to remain in the background in group situations. In contrast, INFPs are often better able to develop and acknowledge their abilities while at the same time suffering from doubts about their true value

as human beings. Both types benefit greatly from knowing that their concerns are consistent with their personality dynamics, so they can move forward to a more positive and effective appraisal of themselves. Therapists should also be aware of the following characteristics of Introverted Feeling clients.

ISFP clients

- may seek help with low self-esteem about career competence, relationship problems, and coping with overwhelming personal and job stress.
- like focused, pragmatic approaches, as well as insight-oriented therapy that identifies life patterns and suggests alternative ways of evaluating problems.
- come across as gentle, warm, self-critical, and disparaging of their own worth.
- under stress may feel increasingly inadequate as well as uncharacteristically focused on and critical of others' failings.
- may be judged as passive, dependent, and as having inadequate or ineffective coping resources.
- benefit from supportive approaches and mild confrontation; appreciate knowing the therapist will be available when crises emerge, even after termination.
- if both dominant Feeling and auxiliary Sensing are habitually introverted, may be painfully insecure and unwilling to take even minor risks in the outer world.

INFP clients

- readily see psychotherapy and counseling as appropriate ways to resolve personal issues and may seek therapy for depression, anxiety, and issues of self-fulfillment.
- are oriented to psychodynamic, broad explorations of personal growth and development over and beyond presenting problems.
- often present a competent, self-confident, calm demeanor and only later reveal the depth and intensity of their experienced self-doubt, despair, or sense of hopelessness.
- under stress can be initially quite critical of others and later overwhelmed by their own imagined inadequacies in all areas of life.
- may be judged as more dissatisfied, depressed, or unable to cope than they actually feel, since they are by nature questioning, ruminative, and idealistic about how they live their lives.

- benefit from a validation of their need to understand themselves and from help in clarifying and moderating their high expectations of themselves and others.
- if both dominant Feeling and auxiliary Intuition are habitually introverted, can be painfully inhibited and have great difficulty relating to people and dealing with stresses in the outside world.

ISFP or INFP Therapists

If you are an INFP, you are highly likely to enjoy doing psychodynamic, client-centered psychotherapy that emphasizes the individuality of each client. If you are an ISFP, you will likely prefer more direct, hands-on, or behavioral approaches that use well-defined methods that yield practical results. As either type, you are likely to communicate genuine warmth, concern, and commitment to clients over and beyond what they may expect from a professional relationship. Your empathy for clients may put an extra burden on you in maintaining appropriate and effective therapeutic distance. The characteristics of Introverted Feeling therapists that are summarized below should not be taken as hard and fast rules, since therapists of the same type can be quite varied in the approaches that appeal to them.

ISFP therapists

- are infrequent in comparison to other types.
- like having clear treatment guidelines that lead to concrete results.
- establish rapport and a safe therapeutic environment by being warm and genuine.
- may be seen by some clients as too passive and accepting.
- can feel defensive with their opposite type, ENTJ, seeing them as demanding, challenging, and controlling.

INFP therapists

- are very frequent in comparison to other types.
- favor client-centered approaches that emphasize psychological and spiritual development.
- prefer long-term, psychodynamic therapy over short-term, technique-oriented, and systems methods.
- establish rapport easily, communicating genuine interest in the client's individuality.
- can see their opposites, the Extraverted Thinking types, as shallow, defensive, and overly controlling.

Dominant Extraverted Feeling Types

	ESFJ	*ENFJ*
Dominant	Extraverted Feeling	Extraverted Feeling
Auxiliary	Introverted Sensing	Introverted Intuition
Tertiary	Intuition	Sensing
Inferior	Introverted Thinking	Introverted Thinking

ESFJ and ENFJ Clients

Extraverted Feeling types are by nature confident, optimistic, and trusting; they assume that there is a solution available for whatever problems occur and that the best solution can be found by identifying and seeking expert knowledge. They freely help others when asked or when they recognize someone in need. They see counseling and psychotherapy as appropriate for career advice, child-rearing issues, to assist in finding personal direction and meaning, and for psychological problems. Experiencing severe or multiple stressors may obstruct their normally effective coping resources, leading to depression, anxiety, and unfamiliar despair. Therapists should also be aware of the following characteristics of Extraverted Feeling clients.

ESFJ clients

- believe that seeking expert help through counseling and psychotherapy is appropriate and natural.
- like active involvement, support, and specific recommendations from the therapist.
- can appear overly emotional and so tenderhearted that people take advantage of them.
- may need help recognizing when their natural desire to create harmony intrudes on others' needs and desires.
- may be judged as codependent, in their natural enjoyment of helping others improve their lives.
- benefit from being encouraged to let go of some of their more burdensome responsibilities, as such a tactic can help lower their stress level.
- if both dominant Feeling and auxiliary Sensing are habitually extraverted, can try to take on everyone else's tasks and lose sight of their own sources of satisfaction and personal desires.

ENFJ clients

- are naturally attracted to counseling and psychotherapy for personal, career, and all manner of life problems.

- like any approach that stimulates their curiosity and quest for psychological and emotional connections.
- are by nature optimistic about their own and others' potential and may be reluctant to acknowledge and deal with harsh and negative realities.
- often have difficulty recognizing their own limitations, leading to stress and self-doubt.
- may be judged as insensitive to others' needs for privacy and self-determination, in their natural focus on others' limitless potential and their urge to help others develop.
- benefit from help in accepting that others' conflicts and disagreements do not necessarily need to be eliminated.
- if both dominant Feeling and auxiliary Intuition are habitually extraverted, may be overly responsive to carrying out others' projects and ideas rather than following their own intuitions.

ESFJ or ENFJ Therapists

You probably enjoy active involvement with your clients and readily inspire confidence and hopefulness. Your enthusiasm and optimism can be very encouraging and motivating to clients, but you must be careful not to overwhelm those who prefer Introversion as they may see you as more controlling and directive than you intend. Taking a patient, less active approach to clients who seem negative and unwilling to take charge of their lives can get you to the goal faster than trying to win them over by expressing your faith in their abilities. The characteristics of Extraverted Feeling therapists that are summarized below should not be taken as hard and fast rules, since therapists of the same type can be quite varied in the approaches that appeal to them.

ESFJ therapists

- are infrequent in comparison to other types.
- prefer prescribed treatment modalities with established procedures; however, their therapeutic effectiveness is as much due to the caring and stable relationship they create as to treatment procedures.
- like frequent case consultation with other therapists and welcome their viewpoints and suggestions.
- are uncomfortable working with acting-out clients, especially when confrontation is required.
- may feel intimidated by "intellectual" clients, such as their opposite type, INTPs, and may undervalue the effectiveness of their own therapeutic approach for these clients.

ENFJ therapists

- are attracted to the field but somewhat less frequently than other Intuitive-Feeling types.
- use approaches that identify and capitalize on client strengths, actively involving clients as partners in the treatment process.
- can become bored and impatient with clients who dwell on their problems but appear to resist moving forward toward solutions.
- can be direct and confrontational in their efforts to promote client growth and development, with clients themselves as well as anyone who stands in the way of these goals.
- may feel frustrated by difficulties in establishing a therapeutic connection with INTPs and other very different types but treat this as a challenge worthy of persistence.

Cautions

There are exceptions to the generalizations that have been made regarding characteristics of clients and therapists favoring each preference and each of the 16 types. For example, ISTJ clients have been known to remain productive in long-term dynamically oriented therapy; INFP clients can have a deep and fruitful relationship with an ESFJ therapist. So while it is worthwhile to expect predictable type differences among clients and therapists, it is equally important to expect individual differences in the expression of type by clients and in the characteristics of therapists who are of the same type.

Step II profiles of both therapist and client may shed light on some of these exceptions and can enhance both understanding and the therapeutic process. For example, a therapist whose underlying preference is Sensing and is out-of-preference on the *Experiential-Theoretical* facet (i.e., prefers *Theoretical*) may connect easily with an Intuitive client through this shared facet.

A comprehensive discussion of the influence of Step II information on the therapeutic process is beyond the scope of this book. However, therapists who gain experience using Step II with their clients report that Step II nuances can help clients recognize and capitalize on their individuality within their type and help the therapist individualize treatment approaches.

Using Type in Couples Therapy
Most couples benefit from an understanding of type through an MBTI interpretation. Perhaps of greatest value is that type enables the therapist to maintain

genuine neutrality toward both members of the couple. Regardless of whether the therapeutic goal is to enhance, maintain, or effectively terminate a relationship, the two individuals who come out of the effort can feel understood, affirmed, and able to function both as individuals and in relationship to each other.

All type information that refers to individuals will be useful in applying type to couples, regardless of the nature of the relationships that are presented. For example, people may seek help with heterosexual or homosexual relationships, parent-adult child relationships, adult siblings, or work colleagues. The information in the preceding sections about therapist and client type differences can be readily understood and used to explain and moderate a couple's erroneous assumptions, misperceptions, and misunderstandings of each other.

The critical role of the couple's therapist in regard to typology is to "translate" the words and behaviors of each member of the couple into the language and behavior of the other. The necessity for such translation often becomes obvious to couple members during the verification and interpretation procedure described in chapter 4. For example, a husband who has a Feeling preference may complain that his Thinking-type wife only grudgingly pays him compliments and usually only when he asks if she likes something or not. The therapist can explain to the wife that her husband does not take her approval for granted as she intends him to but rather that he needs to *hear* that she likes something he does—not just assume that if she has not said she does not like it, then she probably does like it. The therapist can also explain to the husband that it is natural for a Thinking type (who is oriented to noticing what "does not fit" or is illogical) to comment only when something is not in accord with logic and that mentioning what is okay can seem superfluous or patronizing to a Thinking type.

An astute couples therapist can recognize and anticipate the influence of type misunderstanding as couple members describe what is satisfying and problematic in their relationship. This often occurs before the MBTI questionnaire is introduced and type language is available, so it is an excellent opportunity for counselors to develop and use everyday language to discuss type differences. Perhaps a wife is puzzled and distressed when her husband says he feels unloved and gives as evidence that his wife goes into her study and reads as soon as she gets home from work. An adult daughter may see her mother as constantly critical and disapproving, whereas the mother states that she has the greatest respect for her daughter's abilities and does not understand how her daughter can take her every observation and opinion as a criticism.

It is quite common in couples work to hear one or the other person make such statements as "But I never said that" or "That's not what I meant" or "I know

why you *really* did that" or "You always . . ." or "I never . . ." and many other varia-
tions on the theme of honestly hearing and understanding in ways that can be
widely divergent from the statements and intents of the people involved. Type
differences are rarely the only source of such disagreements, but they are almost
always a contributing factor. As such, addressing type-related misunderstandings
can set the stage for dealing with relationship misperceptions that are a function
of a broad range of personal history and other factors.

An effective way to identify some of the sources of type-related influences is
to ask each couple member to answer the MBTI questions twice, the first time for
themselves and a second time (at least a day later) as they think *their partner* would
answer it. If the results for both are the same, issues around misattribution of
motives may be involved—"I know what you are like, and you're that way because
you are 'hypercritical'" (or "trying to control me," "irrational," or "stupid"). Un-
derstanding the reality of type differences helps couples come closer to interpret-
ing words and actions from the other person's perspective; they are less likely to
consider themselves to be accurate judges of what the other person means. Here
the therapist's "translation skills" can be extremely helpful.

Suppose, however, that a person answering "as the other" sees the partner as
a very different type from what the one the partner ultimately verifies. Here the
depth and complexity of misunderstanding is likely to be more challenging than
merely recognizing the reality of type differences. For if you see me as someone
very different from who I am, you are highly likely to misperceive my values, mo-
tives, strengths, and vulnerabilities. For example, suppose Jack believes that his
wife, Jill, prefers Extraversion, as he does, when in fact Jill prefers Introversion.
Jill persistently complains when Jack frequently invites people to dinner or asks
friends to join them on vacations. Given Jack's belief that Jill is "just like him,"
he will likely conclude that Jill does not like their friends. Even when Jill explains
that she needs some time to herself and prefers for the two of them to be alone
together, Jack may interpret her statement as an excuse and denial of the truth
of Jill's feelings.

Also leading couples astray are the understandable but incorrect assumptions
couple members may make about each other's types. For example, a Feeling-type
husband may correctly recognize that his wife is also a Feeling type and assume
that she has all of the qualities associated with this preference as he does. But
suppose the wife is a Step II *Critical* Feeling type and is given to correcting her
husband and pointing out his flaws, as her way to be helpful to him. The husband
can easily assume that she dislikes him and even does not love him. A review of
the couple's Step II profiles can sensitize couple members to their different inter-
pretations of such "criticism" and promote greater understanding.

The above are simple examples of the myriad ways couples can misunderstand each other and the uses to which the MBTI assessment can be put. A comprehensive discussion of the use of type in relationship counseling is beyond the scope of this book. Several helpful resources in this area are noted in the annotated bibliography. Published work, your own life experience, and your clinical work with individuals and couples will quickly add to your ability to use type effectively with couples and others with problematic relationships. Caution 6.1 lists tips and cautions to keep in mind when using type with couples.

CAUTION

6.1 Tips and Cautions When Using Type with Couples

- Do not use the MBTI instrument with couples if you suspect one or both partners are likely to use the instrument merely as a weapon.
- Use the same administration and interpretation techniques as you would with individuals, if possible talking to both couple members at the same time during all phases of the process.
- Make sure to comment on and correct statements that reflect type bias— that one attitude, function, or whole type is inherently better than the other.
- People are often unaware that different types express love and caring in very divergent ways, especially where a couple differs on the Thinking-Feeling dichotomy. A discussion about this in therapy can be enlightening and productive.
- Discourage couple members from using their type as an excuse for clearly objectionable behavior.
- Neither partner should be expected to bear all of the responsibility for changing or understanding or accommodating the other's type; compromise must be framed as an equal enterprise.
- Recognizing and accepting alternative ways of seeing and doing things comes more naturally and easily to some types than to others; be careful not to judge the more single-minded couple member as the problem.
- If you are administering and interpreting Step II results to the couple, use the Step I form when you have them fill out the questionnaire for each other; precise discrimination and getting the partner's facets right is not a meaningful goal.
- If you are interpreting Step II results to a couple who are opposite on one or another underlying preference, you may be able to enhance their understanding of each other by using any out-of-preference or midzone scores as a bridge between opposite underlying preferences.

Using Type in Family Therapy

The same issues, techniques, values, and cautions that apply to individuals and couples are relevant when using type with families. What constitutes a family may be very broadly conceived, the range including parents, young children, adolescents, members of blended families, and adult siblings with each other and/or one or both parents. Family variables are often relevant when working with other groups of people who live with and work closely together, such as people in religious communities or close-knit work teams. As with couples, the value of type knowledge is in acknowledging and affirming each person's individuality while enabling family members to understand where each person is coming from in regard to values, motives, and behaviors. Material directly or indirectly relevant to applying type to family issues can be found in Hult-guist (2002), Murphy (1992), Penley and Stephens (1994), and Penley and Eble (2006). Caution 6.2 lists tips and cautions that may be helpful when using type with families.

CAUTION

6.2 Tips and Cautions When Using Type with Families

- Use the Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children for family members who are approximately 8 to 12 years old, but use your judgment about which, if any, form is appropriate for children at the borders of the upper age range.

- Type differences often contribute meaningfully to differences in parental child-rearing philosophies.

- Be cautious in attributing differences in child-rearing styles solely to type; the way the parents themselves were raised can be equally important—by itself and in interaction with their type.

- Family members (both adults and children) often erroneously perceive an-other family member's type-related behavior as motivated by a desire for power and control; exploring these perceptions and clarifying everyone's mo-tives are critical therapeutic interventions.

- Helping family members understand each other from the other person's type perspective can have a lasting impact on reducing family strife.

- Step II administration to families is generally not advised, especially if any family members are younger than 18. (The instrument is validated for adults 18 and older.) Use your judgment for families of adults and extended families.

Using Type with Chemically Addicted Clients

A possible association between MBTI type and addiction to alcohol and drugs has been explored over a number of years (see Quenk & Quenk, 1996, for a review of these studies). Overall, it appears that Introverts appear significantly more often in addiction treatment programs than do Extraverts. Results must be viewed with caution, however, since the prevalence of addiction by type in the general population has not been studied. Counselors and psychotherapists who treat clients in addiction settings attest to its value in helping clients better understand and accept themselves. Most important, knowledge of type differences enables therapists to take type into account in designing addiction treatment plans (Shuck & Manfrin, 1997). Therefore, all of the preceding information on type in general and client and therapist type differences in particular can be productively applied in addiction treatment. Caution 6.3 provides tips and cautions specific to using type in addiction treatment.

C A U T I O N

6.3 Tips and Cautions When Using Type with Chemically Addicted Clients

- Clients may report a type that represents who they are when addicted, despite abstaining from chemical substances for 30 days before administration.
- A comparison of "addicted type" and verified type as reported at the end of treatment can provide client and therapist with useful insights.
- Early age of onset of addiction is likely to exacerbate client confusion or distortion regarding best fit type.
- Clients with codependency issues or early age of onset of addiction may initially answer the questionnaire to reflect the counselor's type rather than their own type.
- Client-counselor type similarity is reported to be associated with greater persistence in treatment.

Using Type with Seriously Disturbed Clients

There may be circumstances when clients in an acute state or those with more serious psychological disorders can benefit from an awareness of type differences, even if type cannot be reliably assessed. The positive and neutral language of the type approach can encourage optimism and willingness to tackle difficult problems. For example, a client may be habitually disorganized, scattered, and

distracted to the point of immobility. If there is good reason to believe that he has a natural preference for a Perceiving rather than a Judging attitude, the therapist might suggest to the client that he may be distorting his natural tendency to "stay open to new information and a variety of experiences." Associating the behavior with "normal" personality differences can be an effective therapeutic strategy that helps calm the client and alleviate the anxiety and hopelessness that may be exacerbating symptoms.

Even where a particular client may not be able or willing to answer the MBTI questions, a discussion of natural type preferences can be productive. Of course, if the client is disinterested or resists, it is best not to pursue the topic. It is relatively easy for distressed clients to use any ambivalence they might have in answering the MBTI questionnaire or the type they report as confirmation that they are "confused," "inferior," "crazy," or as having a wide variety of other negative attributes. Clinicians must weigh the potential benefit and harm of using the assessment with clients on a case-by-case basis and be prepared to deal with inevitable errors in judgment. Caution 6.4 summarizes suggestions for using the MBTI instrument with more seriously disturbed clients.

C A U T I O N

6.4 Tips and Cautions for Using the MBTI Assessment with Seriously Disturbed Clients

- The MBTI can be effectively administered as a therapeutic tool specific to the client's situation.
- Neutral and positive type language can provide a vehicle for therapeutic motivation to modify problematic behaviors.
- Accurate assessment of the client's type may not be a reasonable or appropriate goal.
- Many clients can report their preferences accurately, thereby providing a useful avenue for exploring normal personality characteristics that the client may believe are pathological—for example, Introversion.
- Use of the Step II instrument with these clients is not advised.

The Relation of Type to Typical Clinical Issues

Learning Disabilities and Attention-Deficit Disorder

A large body of evidence relates type preferences and the 16 types to educational variables (see DiTiberio, 1998, and the CAPT Bibliography at CAPT.org).

Information about learning disabilities and behavioral disorders is emerging but generally inconclusive, probably due to the variability of definitions, samples, and approaches involved. For clinicians who assess clients in these areas, however, type knowledge can aid in differentiating between a carefully assessed actual disorder and a perceived "possible" disorder that is a function of type bias or immature type development. For example, the normal characteristics of children who are dominant Extraverted Sensing types (ESTP and ESFP) are quite similar to those that characterize attention-deficit disorder (ADD) or attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD). Research to date indicates that these types are not overrepresented in ADD and ADHD samples (Dudding & Dudding, 1995; Meisgeier, Poillion, & Haring, 1994). However, it has been generally noted by educators familiar with type that the typical learning environment is not conducive to the natural learning styles of Sensing-Perceiving types. A useful approach when assessing learning disabilities and behavioral disorders is to consider the possibility that some of the observed behavior is a function of unmet learning style needs and/or teacher expectations that reflect type biases.

A recommended tactic for teachers of students with ADD is to use knowledge of their students' types to develop strategies to help students learn best (Alcock & Ryan, 2000; Cushman, 2001; Snowman, 1997).

Personality Assessment

The MBTI inventory may be the only one that is administered to a client for the purpose of assessing normal personality variations, and its use as a therapeutic tool without other instruments is often appropriate. However, if the goal of assessment is differential diagnosis of a psychological disorder or general assessment of functioning for some other purpose, sole administration of the MBTI instrument is inappropriate. The MBTI questionnaire does not assess pathology and using it for such a purpose risks attributing real pathology to normal type differences. Administering the instrument in conjunction with a variety of other instruments can provide the most inclusive assessment information for diagnosis and the development of treatment strategies.

Assessing Effectiveness of Treatment

Because each of the 16 types is assumed to be normal and stable over the life span, any assumptions or expectations of differences in the type a person reports as an outcome of treatment are unsupportable. An appropriate treatment goal is to promote increased acceptance of, confidence in, and effective use of one's natural type. Addressing possible issues of type development is one way of accomplishing these goals. The MBTI® Step III™ instrument is designed to assess type development and to help clients further develop their type (Myers et al.,

2009). Caution 6.5 summarizes clinical inferences to avoid when using the MBTI Step I and Step II assessments.

C A U T I O N

6.5 Clinical Inferences to Avoid

- A client who reports a different type on a second administration has not changed type. The results of one or the other administration *may* be a better representation of the client's best fit type.

- The numerical value of the preference clarity index does not reflect competence, maturity, access, and the like, nor do changes in this index on a second administration reflect improvement, growth, more access to, or any other alteration in typological makeup.

- A slight preference clarity index on one or more preferences does not in itself justify an inference that the client is confused, poorly developed, equally comfortable with both preference poles, individuated, or self-actualized.

- A low polarity index on a Step II profile does in itself mean that the client will not behave in a manner consistent with his or her verified type; nor does a very high polarity index guarantee type-consistent behavior.

- A person who has reported and verified a particular four-letter type or a particular facet-pole preference will not necessarily be good at areas one might expect from that type or from preferring that facet pole; for example, an ISFJ may not be consistently attentive to detail, an ENFJ may be quite comfortable with confrontation, or someone who favors the Logical pole of the Logical-Empathetic facet may not make effective logical decisions.

🖎 TEST YOURSELF 🖎

1. **Clients who appear to habitually extravert both their dominant and auxiliary functions can come across as very**
   (a) judging.
   (b) extraverted.
   (c) intuitive.
   (d) feeling.

2. **Types whose natural characteristics might be erroneously seen as a evidence of a behavior disorder are**
   (a) ESTP and ESFP.
   (b) ISTJ and ISFJ.
   (c) ISFP and INFP.
   (d) ISTP and INTP.

3. Understanding type can be helpful even before the client has taken the MBTI instrument and has verified a type because such knowledge can aid in early establishment of

(a) diagnostic impressions.

(b) treatment plans.

(c) rapport.

(d) all of the above.

4. It is nearly always inappropriate to tell clients your own type. True or False?

5. Brain imaging studies might lead to the inference that some Introverts avoid spending time in large shopping centers because

(a) they prefer buying what they need from catalogs, since they enjoy reading.

(b) they feel overstimulated by the sights and sounds typical of such settings.

(c) they like a soft-sell rather than a hard-sell approach.

(d) they dislike strangers.

6. Which of the following is generally true?

(a) Extraverts attribute their problems to people and events in the outer world whereas Introverts attribute their problems to one or another personal attribute of their own.

(b) Extraverts tell others what they are thinking while they are thinking it; Introverts think first and tell later.

(c) Extraverts believe that Introverts are withholding or critical; Introverts believe Extraverts are intrusive or insincere.

(d) All the above.

7. Clients who are defensive and unwilling to examine their own motives usually are

(a) ISTJs or ESTJs.

(b) poorly developed people of any type.

(c) any one of the eight Sensing types.

(d) showing many problems that are entirely unrelated to type.

8. Clients who prefer Intuition can be expected to

(a) challenge much of what the therapist says.

(b) be late for appointments.

(c) make inferences from what the therapist says.

(d) leave therapy after their problem is resolved.

9. Clients with a preference for Thinking are typically most concerned about the therapist's

(a) competence.

(b) warmth and expressiveness.

(c) preferred techniques.

(d) willingness to keep to a schedule.

10. What do clients with a preference for Feeling often have difficulty in?

    (a) Telling the difference between a dispassionate observation and an intended criticism

    (b) Telling the therapist when they disagree or have negative feelings about the therapist

    (c) Confronting people in their lives

    (d) All the above

11. Which of the following is generally true?

    (a) Clients with a Judging preference experience more internal stress than clients with a Perceiving preference.

    (b) Therapists who prefer Perceiving have difficulty keeping track of appointments.

    (c) Therapists who prefer judging often close discussion down prematurely.

    (d) None of the above is generally true.

12. Which of the following is advised with regard to Step II administration and interpretation?

    (a) Having couples answer the instrument for each other

    (b) Administering it to all family members, as long the children's version of Step II is used for children under 18 years of age

    (c) Having clients "guess" their scores on each facet

    (d) Giving feedback to both couple members at the same time

13. What is meant by the therapist's "translation skills" in couples therapy?

14. Why might ESTPs and ESFPs be seen as having behavioral problems in school?

15. A clearer preference clarity index on a second administration of the MBTI assessment that occurs at the termination of therapy means

    (a) that the therapy has been successful.

    (b) that the person has developed greater maturity in the expression of type.

    (c) that there is an obvious practice effect.

    (d) nothing, as no such conclusions can be legitimately made from preference clarity index changes.

Answers: 1. b; 2. a; 3. c; 4. False; 5. b; 6. d; 7. d; 8. c; 9. a; 10. d; 11. d; 12. d; 13. The ability to "explain" one person's statements in the other person's type "language"; 14. These types are naturally talkative and interactional, learning best by activity and direct action on the environment; 15. d

ILLUSTRATIVE CASE REPORTS

The illustrative cases in this chapter synthesize the information in the preceding chapters using two different formats. The first offers a detailed presentation of one client whose type was clarified during the initial feedback sessions, for whom type was a significant therapeutic issue and tool in the conduct of psychotherapy, and for whom results from other assessment instruments confirmed and augmented type results. The second format involves the presentation of several brief illustrative cases where the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator® personality inventory was the only or the primary instrument administered. The goal of this second format is to illustrate some of the ways the MBTI instrument can be used effectively in relatively brief counseling and therapy with individuals and couples. Important factors to consider when using the MBTI assessment with other tests and when including its results in assessment reports are also included. (See Don't Forget 7.1.)

Jim

Jim's case provided an ideal illustration of the ways that the MBTI assessment can serve both central and peripheral roles in conducting adult psychotherapy. Jim was highly motivated for therapy and had pressing psychodynamic as well as practical issues in need of exploration. He had no prior knowledge of the MBTI instrument and stated at the outset that he was interested in filling out any assessment instruments the therapist deemed relevant.

Reason for Self-Referral

Jim, a 38-year-old business consultant who had been married for 2 years, stated that his two goals in seeking psychotherapy were intertwined. His primary goal was to identify a satisfying and fulfilling career and take whatever steps were necessary to achieve this, such as additional education or relevant work experience; the second goal was to examine past and present personal issues that he suspected served as impediments to reaching his first goal. He reported quite a bit of urgency in getting started resolving his problems, as he was nearing age 40.

DON'T FORGET

7.1 Tips When Including MBTI Results in a Report

- Do not state the client's MBTI type in the report, regardless of the assumed type knowledge of the recipient of the report.
- It is often effective to incorporate relevant statements from the client's type description into the report where this will aid understanding that is relevant to the referral question.
- Where relevant, temper assessments from other tests by placing them in the context of what is normal for the client's type.

Background Information

Jim grew up in a small midwestern town and obtained a bachelor's degree in business administration at the local college, even though he found the courses boring and hated accounting. He had considered several majors, including art, architecture, and psychology, but he did not pursue them. Since graduation, he had held about 10 different positions in a variety of business and organizational settings, most recently as a business/management consultant for a large company. He reported that although he found consulting challenging and satisfying, he was required to travel extensively, often being home for only 1 or 2 weekends a month. That and his lack of control over his assignments were sources of great dissatisfaction. In addition, Jim recognized that his wish for career success likely required that he devote himself primarily to this arena, thereby having relatively little time for home and family, which he greatly valued. Another factor in his pursuit of appropriate work was the reality of his lifelong and severe allergies, which limited the climate in which he could comfortably live.

Jim described himself as "being on hold" and feeling stuck, ambivalent, and fearful that he would be perpetually unable to make a satisfying career decision. His longtime habit was to think about a career, such as being an architect or psychologist, quickly envision what that would be like, become enthusiastic about it, and plan (usually quite carefully and realistically) the steps involved to become an architect or psychologist. However, once he had the necessary information and a serious commitment to the plan was required, he would realize that he did not know whether this career was the "right" one—what if he made the wrong career decision and only discovered it after years of fruitless training? Jim reported that

he is not self-doubting or ambivalent in the other areas of his life, such as personal relationships, buying and maintaining a house, knowing how to present himself to prospective employers, and making professional contacts. His self-doubt was only in making a commitment to one career path or, alternatively, accepting as valid a path that allows for multiple career possibilities over time. He felt that he must know the end point before he starts and could not trust that his instincts would lead him in appropriate directions.

Jim described his parents as extremely traditional and conservative socially, politically, and in their own career choices and aspirations. His father had managed a retail store in their small town for 30 years and, from Jim's point of view, was unable or unwilling to take risks that might have led to a better and more challenging work situation. His mother worked part time as a teacher's aide. In spite of their personal approach to their work worlds, however, both parents were vocal in their admiration for Jim's maternal uncle, who had achieved great professional and financial success as an attorney and entrepreneur. Jim also very much admired his uncle, who served as a role model whose success and manner were in stark contrast to what he saw as his father's passivity and lack of personal ambition.

School in his small town was not interesting, challenging, or satisfying, though Jim performed reasonably well with minimal effort. He received little encouragement to excel and did not think of himself as especially competent intellectually. He spent a good deal of time alone, finding little in common with his peers. However, he did develop a number of small business enterprises, buying and reselling various items to his schoolmates at a profit. He enjoyed both the success and money from these enterprises—and the connection it gave him to his much-admired uncle's successes. He received some positive attention for his business acumen from family and community members but also sensed discomfort from his parents when people commented on his good business sense. His parents made it clear that he was not to promote himself, as this was equivalent to arrogance, a greatly disparaged character trait. He remembered being quite confused about the "success versus boasting" issue and saw this as an early contributing factor to his low self-confidence and doubts about his decision-making abilities.

Appearance and Behavior

Jim is an attractive, soft-spoken man who looks younger than his age. His manner is friendly, considerate, and socially at ease. When describing his situation, he is

CAUTION

7.1 Confusing the MBTI With Other Tests

- Clients who have taken the MMPI (Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory) sometimes mistake this for the MBTI questionnaire since they both start with the letter M, have a four-letter acronym, and are psychological tests. Be especially clear in explaining the differences between the two instruments.
- Clients may have taken some test whose content or variables sound similar, such as a learning-styles test or something they found in a popular book or on the Internet. Make sure there are no persisting concerns resulting from possible "look-alikes."

serious and intense, choosing his words carefully to communicate as accurately and candidly as possible. Throughout 8 months of weekly therapy, he remained consistently open, cooperative, and nondefensive, being willing to consider, explore, and try out a wide range of psychological possibilities and proposed courses of action. He was enthusiastic about taking whatever forms of assessment were relevant and took their results quite seriously. He found the MBTI assessment particularly enlightening because it clarified aspects of himself that had puzzled him throughout his life.

DON'T FORGET

7.2 When the Client Has Taken the MBTI Before

If your client has previously taken the MBTI, inquire as to the following:
- When and for what purpose was the MBTI taken?
- What kind of feedback was given?
- Does the client have any incorrect assumptions about the MBTI?
- Does the client remember his or her type?

MBTI Results

Because of his career issues, Jim was given both the MBTI instrument and the Strong Interest Inventory® at the conclusion of the second session. Prior to providing the standard administration information (see Rapid Reference 2.1), Jim was asked if he had ever taken the MBTI questionnaire or had heard anything about it. He was unfamiliar with it. Had he taken the Indicator before, the issues listed in Don't Forget 7.2 would have been pursued. With any new client to whom you introduce the assessment, it is also important to make sure there are no misunderstandings or

"holdovers" from other instruments the client may have taken. Caution 7.1 comments on these possibilities.

Jim's type preferences and associated clarity of his preferences were as follows: Introversion (slight), Intuition (very clear), Thinking (clear), and Judging (slight). Jim's four preferences yield a reported type of INTJ.[*]

Initial MBTI Interpretation

In response to whether he thought he had answered the instrument as an Extravert or Introvert, Jim correctly reported that he probably answered many items indicating both. However, he readily identified more with the overall description of Introversion, especially in regard to privacy needs and pleasure in time spent working alone and being alone. He said that as an adult he had purposefully cultivated a friendly, socially at ease approach to people, because he had found pure social relating awkward and difficult as a child and adolescent. He was now quite comfortable starting conversations with people and found himself to be genuinely interested in them. Jim's slight preference for Introversion may be due, in his case, to the fact that a fair number of E–I items deal with some aspect of social Extraversion and Introversion, the aspect of Extraversion that had apparently become a habitual part of his personality.

Jim's Step II results confirm this hypothesis and Jim's description of how he uses Extraversion and Introversion. Figure 7.1, which shows his E–I facet results, indicates that Jim is out-of-preference on the *Initiating-Receiving* facet, which reflects behavior in social settings. His Introversion appears to be anchored in being *Contained*, confirming his stated privacy needs, and *Reflective*, shown in his stated pleasure in working alone and being alone. His two midzone scores on *Gregarious-Intimate* and *Enthusiastic-Quiet* further show his self-described willingness to engage in or be "pulled" toward those features of Extraversion-Introversion.

Jim listened particularly intently to the descriptions of Sensing and Intuition, where his reported preference for Intuition (initially, when he filled out Form G) was moderate. When asked how he thought he answered, he said that he was pretty sure he answered favoring Intuition, but he felt there was something wrong with this and noted that when he considered the qualities described for Sensing perception, he found them pretty unappealing but somehow "the way you were

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[*] Jim initially filled out MBTI Form G prior to publication of Form M. However, his Form M results, which were available two years later, are presented here for consistency with this volume's focus on Form M. Results of the two administrations did differ in that the earlier Form G results showed *moderate* preference clarity toward Intuition, while the Form M clarity was *very clear*. The difference could have been due to a "practice effect," a difference in the forms themselves, or a therapeutic effect, due to Jim's greater acceptance of the legitimacy of Intuition as a perceiving process.

Figure 7.1
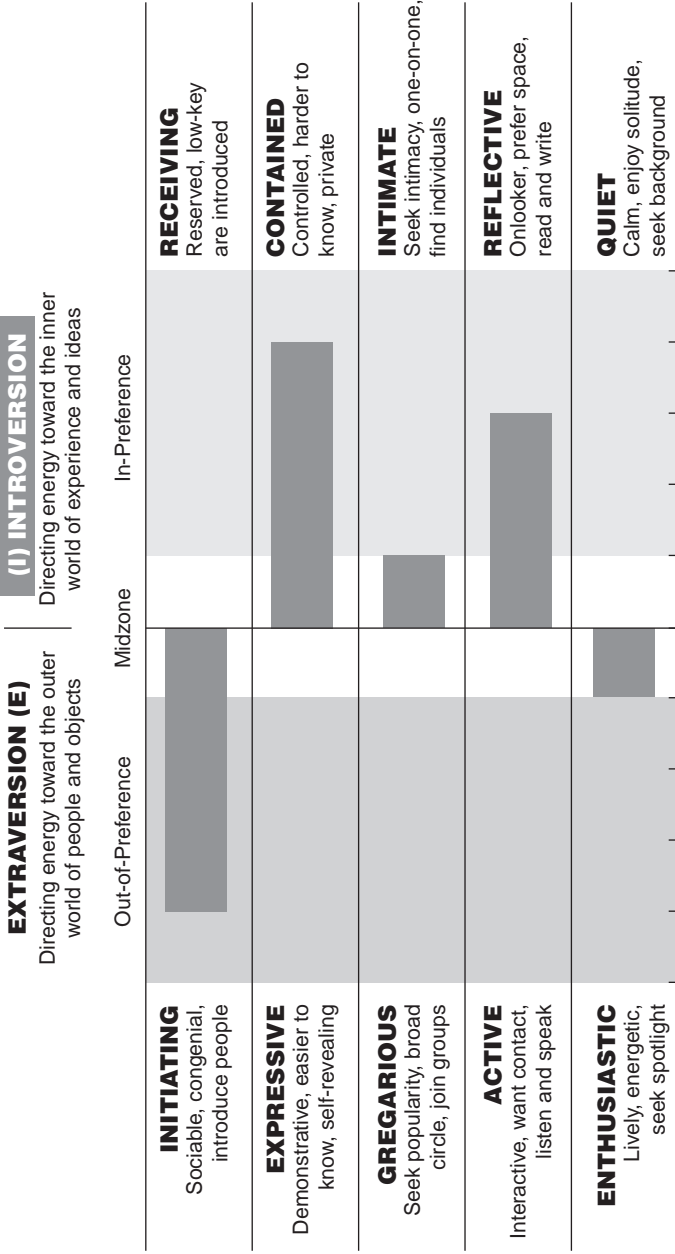
EXTRAVERSION (E)
Directing energy toward the outer
world of people and objects

(I) INTROVERSION
Directing energy toward the inner
world of experience and ideas

	Out-of-Preference	Midzone	In-Preference	

5 4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4 5

INITIATING
Sociable, congenial,
introduce people

RECEIVING
Reserved, low-key
are introduced

EXPRESSIVE
Demonstrative, easier to
know, self-revealing

CONTAINED
Controlled, harder to
know, private

GREGARIOUS
Seek popularity, broad
circle, join groups

INTIMATE
Seek intimacy, one-on-one,
find individuals

ACTIVE
Interactive, want contact,
listen and speak

REFLECTIVE
Onlooker, prefer space,
read and write

ENTHUSIASTIC
Lively, energetic,
seek spotlight

QUIET
Calm, enjoy solitude,
seek background

supposed to be." When told he had indeed answered as having a preference for Intuition, he quickly surmised that both of his parents clearly preferred Sensing; he wondered whether some of his ambivalence, confusion, and distrust of himself were related to this very difference.

Jim easily identified Thinking as his judgment preference, stating that he liked logically analyzing information and aimed for objective decisions based on good evidence, though he valued harmonious relationships and tried to accommodate other people's desires when possible.

Jim's out-of-preference score on the Step II *Critical-Accepting* facet confirms this self-description. As an *Accepting Thinking Type*, his Step II report states that he "welcomes a broad range of ideas and approaches; appears to accept all ideas equally, not imposing his thoughts on others; prefers a participative management style; is modest about his own work and may be reluctant to promote it over others' ideas; is seen as open, fair, and approachable, but some people may be confused about what he really thinks."

In further discussion over the next several sessions, it became clear that Jim's idea of "good evidence" conformed to the characteristics of Sensing information. As a result, career contemplation that allowed free rein to exploring possibilities in the future was perceived from an exaggerated Sensing perspective—wanting to know for sure what the outcome of his plans would be. Jim's natural Intuition was thus pretty systematically discounted as a source of reliable data. Instead, he tried to base decisions on Sensing information that was unappealing and unconvincing to him. This seesaw process inevitably resulted in doubt and dissatisfaction with his decisions. Jim's natural Intuition did come out, however, but in an exaggerated and distressing form—when he found himself "spinning his wheels" about the possibilities and imagining all the ways his decisions could be wrong.

Jim's slight preference for Judging rather than Perceiving was verified in his comment that when he was focused and involved in a project he enjoyed and where he had sufficient freedom to use his talents, he was quite organized, systematic, and goal directed. However, when his confidence was low or there was insufficient structure within which he could function, he became quite distracted and unable to maintain a focus on tasks and goals. Hence, he had answered the J–P items candidly as reflecting an actual behavioral "pull" toward both poles of the dichotomy.

Again, Jim's Step II results confirm his self-description. As shown in Figure 7.2 (Jim's J–P facets), he clearly favors the first three facets but is in the midzone on the last two. A midzone *Scheduled-Spontaneous* person is described as welcoming a moderate amount of routine and as feeling that some routine provides predictability as well as freedom to respond to opportunities. A midzone *Methodical-Emergent* person is described as preferring detailed plans in unfamiliar situations, as being comfortable without a plan when quite sure of himself, and as not needing all the

Figure 7.2
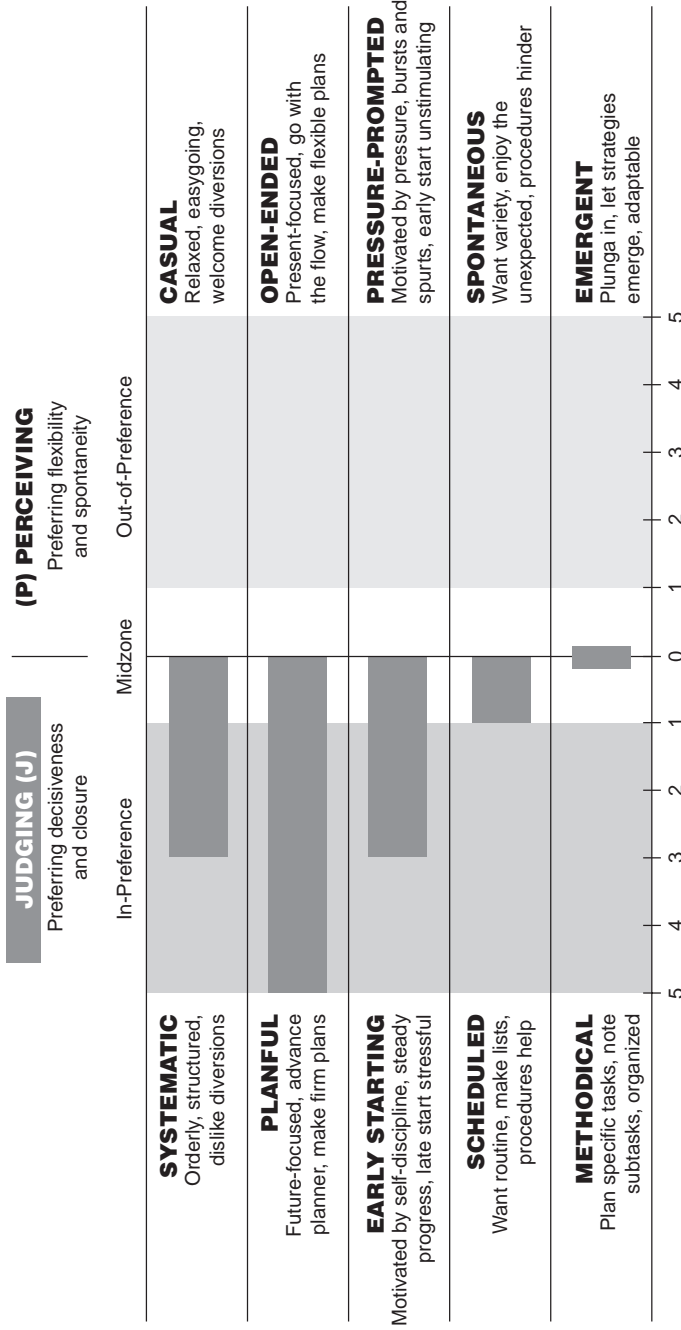
JUDGING (J)
Preferring decisiveness
and closure

(P) PERCEIVING
Preferring flexibility
and spontaneity

In-Preference Midzone Out-of-Preference

5 4 3 2 1 0 1 2 3 4 5

SYSTEMATIC
Orderly, structured,
dislike diversions

CASUAL
Relaxed, easygoing,
welcome diversions

PLANFUL
Future-focused, advance
planner, make firm plans

OPEN-ENDED
Present-focused, go with
the flow, make flexible plans

EARLY STARTING
Motivated by self-discipline, steady
progress, late start stressful

PRESSURE-PROMPTED
Motivated by pressure, bursts and
spurts, early start unstimulating

SCHEDULED
Want routine, make lists,
procedures help

SPONTANEOUS
Want variety, enjoy the
unexpected, procedures hinder

METHODICAL
Plan specific tasks, note
subtasks, organized

EMERGENT
Plunga in, let strategies
emerge, adaptable

steps in place before moving ahead. We might hypothesize that these two facets are likely to be particularly vulnerable to low self-confidence: Creating and sticking to a schedule requires some confidence that the schedule will be effective, and ambivalence about how to approach current tasks can lead to immobility and inaction.

Jim was asked to read the INTJ description in *Introduction to Type*® (Myers, 1998). He identified clearly with the characterization of this type but felt he lacked the self-confidence and conceptual clarity described. At various points later in the process of therapy, Jim recognized that perhaps he was not able to "live out" his type adequately because of his distrust and denigration of what should be his most valued and developed part, his dominant introverted Intuition.

As a check on Jim's agreement with his reported type, he was asked to spend some time at home reviewing the type descriptions for INTP, ENTP, and ENTJ—the three most likely alternatives to INTJ. In the next session he reported that although some parts of these descriptions fit, none of them resonated in the way INTJ did.

Jim's Step II results were reviewed with him several sessions later, after he had some time to explore his four-letter type and its dynamic qualities. He was pleased to discover how well he knew himself, as many of the areas he had spontaneously described as problematic or sources of ambivalence were well reflected in his Step II facet results. He therefore felt greater confidence in himself and an increased willingness to suffer through the pushes and pulls of his complex personality.

Other Tests Administered

As a result of Jim's initial eagerness to take a variety of assessment instruments, results on several instruments were available that provided support for or enhancement of Jim's MBTI profile. (See Caution 7.2 for information on integrating other test results with MBTI information.)

C A U T I O N

7.2 Integrating Other Tests with the MBTI Assessment

- Read between the lines of other tests; there may be subtle or explicit negative valuations of some normal type characteristics.
- If appropriate for a particular client, discuss positive and negative biases revealed in other tests in terms of the client's successes and difficulties in relevant life areas.
- Consider orienting therapeutic interventions around type preferences—as when Jim was shown ways to learn how to trust his dominant Intuition.

Strong Interest Inventory®

Often used in conjunction with the MBTI instrument for career counseling, the Strong Interest Inventory compares a subject's career interest patterns to those of people actually performing specific jobs or careers. Results are reported at three levels: 6 General Occupational Themes; 30 Basic Interest Scales; and 244 specific Occupational Scales. The report covers the results in these three areas, as well as on four Personal Style Scales—Work Style, Learning Environment, Leadership Style, and Risk-Taking and Team Participation.** Jim's results revealed high interest in the Enterprising Occupation Theme, average interest in the Investigative, Artistic, and Conventional Themes, and little interest in the Realistic and Social Themes. The five basic interest scales showing high interest were Applied Arts, Law/Politics, Merchandising, Data Management, and Mathematics. Jim's Occupational Scale results showed his interests to be "very similar" to Marketing Executive, Corporate Trainer, Investment Manager, Lawyer, Actuary, College Professor, Human Resources Director, Credit Manager, and Realtor. He was "similar" to Accountant.

Jim's career interests fit well with the kind of consulting work he was presently doing and which he apparently enjoyed. His dissatisfactions were more related to his lack of control over his work life; the amount of travel it required, which kept him away from his wife and the enjoyment of home activities; and, perhaps most important, his persistent questioning of whether this work was "right" and "the best" for him. His placement on the six General Occupational Themes, Basic Interest Areas, and the detailed results on the Occupational Scales made much sense to Jim and gave him some confirmation that he might actually be on the "right" career path in spite of his habitual distrust of his career decisions.

On the Personal Style Scales, Jim favored a work style described as "prefers to work alone; likes to work with ideas, data, or things. Accomplishes tasks by independent action or thought." His preferred Learning Environment is strongly characterized as "prefers academic environment; learns by lectures and books; willing to spend many years in school; seeks knowledge for its own sake." In terms of Leadership Style, Jim would be described as "comfortable taking charge and motivating others; enjoys initiating action; expresses opinions easily." Jim's most extreme personal style scale was on the last style, Risk Taking, where he would be

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**Note that Jim took the Strong instrument prior to its current revision (2004), which reports on an additional five basic interest scales and adds "team participation" to the four Personal Style Scales, in addition to other expansions of the report. Results on these additions were therefore unavailable for Jim. However, the results reported here are basically the same in all other relevant respects.

characterized as "likes adventure and risk taking; appreciates original ideas; enjoys thrilling activities; takes chances."

Jim's results on the Personal Style Scales were particularly affirming to his emerging appreciation of his Intuition. His preference for working independently meshed well with his expressive and initiating leadership style and his comfort in directing and motivating others; his attraction to originality and risk taking further confirmed his natural preference for a relatively unconstrained, intuitive approach to life.

Adjective Check List

Respondents to the Adjective Check List (ACL; Gough & Heilbrun, 1983) are asked to describe themselves by selecting as many of the 300 adjectives listed as are relevant. Results are reported as standard scores on 37 scales that provide measures of the client's psychological needs, intellect and creativity, and ego functioning. Interpretations from both the ACL and the California Psychological Inventory® (CPI®) (see next section) allowed insight into characteristics that might be interacting with Jim's type, that could be seen as expressions of his individual development of his type, and that gave further insight into his overall personality.

The ACL results for Jim describe a person who acts independently of others or of social values and expectations and who is versatile, unconventional, and individualistic. However, Jim tended to see himself in an unfavorable light in a number of arenas, both in relationship to other people as well as in areas such as general self-confidence, achievement orientation, and ability to persist at tasks. These results seem to mirror the self-doubt, low energy, and ambivalence Jim revealed at the beginning of therapy.

California Psychological Inventory

The third edition of the 40-year-old CPI (Gough & Bradley, 1996) provides detailed personality information organized as three structural scales that are used to create four CPI types and seven levels of actualization of each type. There are 20 Folk Concept Scales organized into four kinds of measures: (a) Poise, Self-Assurance, Interpersonal Proclivities Scales; (b) Normative Orientation and Values Scales; (c) Cognitive and Intellectual Functioning Scales; and (d) Role and Personal Style Scales. The CPI also interprets responses as 13 special purpose scales. This edition was normed on 6,000 people, and results are available as a profile, narrative report, or configural analysis.

Jim's narrative report provided a portrait of his functioning that corresponded well to his description of himself and to his therapist's assessment of the character and degree of his psychological adaptation. The report could also be interpreted as reflecting the interaction between Jim's INTJ type characteristics and

the personality qualities assessed in the CPI. For example, Jim was described in the report as "moderately self-confident and resourceful…showing ingenuity and versatility in dealing with problems and a moderately strong desire for success and status" and as seeing himself as not in good health and possibly having medical problems. He was also described as "somewhat lacking in reliability and dependability…adapting to conventional demands with some reluctance…liking excitement and stimulation" and "may have considerable ability, but does not perform well in tightly defined or rule-dominated situations; in high school likely to be an underachiever; easily distracted and bored." Scales dealing with achievement orientation and intellectual efficiency described Jim as not strongly characterized at either extreme of these scales, perhaps reflecting his ambivalence regarding achieving professional status and success versus a comfortable and satisfying home life.

Results on the special purpose scales described Jim as somewhat above average in leadership potential and as very high in creative potential and desire to be innovative, while being below average in self-discipline, conscientiousness, and reliability as a worker—an observation possibly influenced by or reflective of his career ambivalence and hypothesized Sensing–Intuition conflict. With regard to CPI type and level of attainment of that type, Jim is a "gamma" type. Gamma types are described as doubters and skeptics who at their best are innovative and insightful, with a talent for coming up with new ideas, products, or systems. INTJs are one of the MBTI types likely to come out as CPI gamma types. Jim revealed an average (4 on a scale of 1 to 7) level of self-realization or fulfillment of his gamma type, a result that is quite consistent with the level of doubt, ambivalence, and dissatisfaction he expressed in the early months of therapy.

Process and Outcome of Therapy

The main typological issue in Jim's therapy was to help him gain confidence in the validity of his dominant Intuition, minimize the power of his internal "Sensing critic" that habitually overrode Intuitive information and thus allow his developed Thinking function the freedom to discriminate productively among the possibilities that emerged. During the course of therapy, Jim's therapist was alert to instances when Jim bypassed possibilities that may have been worthy of consideration and asked Jim to reconsider them. Sometimes when Jim expressed doubt about a possible course of action, the therapist agreed that it seemed like a good idea and/or engaged Jim in a discussion of what might be involved so that he could evaluate the idea from a variety of vantage points. In this way, Jim became gradually more secure and trusting of both his Intuition and Thinking.

He decided to continue with his consulting work while also taking steps to increase his skills and make the necessary contacts to eventually be in greater control of his time and type of work.

Of course, there were nontypological therapeutic goals as well. These either interacted to some extent with type issues or were largely independent of them. In general, the explanatory system provided by the MBTI assessment encouraged Jim to deal with these other problem areas, and helped him discriminate appropriately between what could legitimately be attributed to his type and personality attributes that were peripheral or unrelated to type.

USING TYPE IN BRIEF THERAPY

Various constraints on providing counseling and psychotherapy services to clients often necessitate using approaches that achieve maximum benefit in very few available sessions. The MBTI assessment can be a very effective way of making a significant impact on an individual client or couple. In addition, an understanding of the widely different ways different types effectively utilize therapy (as described in Chapter 6) can reassure counselors and therapists who may believe that they could or should have done more for the client. The following section provides examples of such brief encounters with clients.

Premarital Counseling

Annette and Hal decided to talk to a counselor before they got married, as both had previous unhappy marriages. Both agreed that they loved each other and were committed to making their marriage work. Hal was devoted to Annette's 3-year-old son, and Annette was delighted with their warm relationship. Hal loved talking to Annette about their plans for their future together, where they might be living 10 years from now and how he dreamed of someday leaving the large company he worked for and setting up his own small enterprise. Annette revealed (during the individual session with the counselor to obtain relevant background information) that these dreams of Hal's made her rather nervous. She was concerned about his obvious dissatisfaction with his life and feared he was not sufficiently grounded in reality. What if he made rash, precipitous decisions that could jeopardize their financial security? During his individual session, Hal acknowledged some concern about Annette's negativism about the future; she was always coming up with reasons why things would not work out and seemed very reluctant to consider even the slightest risks.

The couples counselor silently hypothesized that personality differences might be influencing Hal's rhetoric and both of their concerns. The template-scorable

version of the MBTI instrument was given to the couple at the end of the first session as a routine part of premarital counseling. Hal and Annette were asked to answer for themselves as well as a second time "for each other," as described in chapter 6. Hal and Annette brought their filled-out Indicators with them to the second session, and the counselor quickly scored all four. After a routine interpretation and verification process, Annette clearly confirmed her reported type, ISFJ, as her best-fit type, and Hal readily confirmed his reported type, ENFJ. Each "accurately" answered for the other, although Hal indicated that Annette would answer *all* the E–I and S–N items in favor of Introversion and Sensing, whereas Annette believed Hal would have answered all of these items in favor of Extraversion and Intuition. In fact, though Hal and Annette were clear or very clear in their preferences on these dichotomies, neither was as clear as was reflected in the other's responses. Such answering "in the extreme" is relatively common when couple members differ on one or another preference.

Clearly, Hal and Annette were well aware of each other's type-related qualities. In discussion during the 2-hour interpretation session, both expressed their appreciation for what the other brought to the relationship. Annette enjoyed Hal's attentiveness, enthusiasm, and sociability; Hal marveled at the ease with which Annette had organized her busy work life and child-care responsibilities while creating a warm, comfortable, and well-organized home.

In discussing the ways in which their different type perspectives might be having an impact on their interpretation of each other's behavior, Annette reluctantly brought up her worry about Hal's dissatisfaction with his life and her concern that he might make rash and disastrous decisions because of his unhappiness. Hal was startled, puzzled, and somewhat hurt by Annette's revelation. "I assumed you knew that I'm very happy with my work and my life," he said. "But you know how much I love imagining what the future might be like. It's just a fantasy. It doesn't mean I'm going to up and do any of those things tomorrow! Why are you always so negative about the future, anyway?"

In the ensuing discussion, the counselor suggested that the issue of Hal's fantasies, Annette's worries, and Hal's belief that Annette had a negative attitude about the future were all due to the same type-related misinterpretations: From Annette's realistic, present-oriented, grounded point of view (as an ISFJ) there was no reason to plan for a drastically different future if you were happy in the present. She would not do such planning unless she was unhappy in the present; therefore, Hal must be unhappy and could make rash, dangerous decisions. From Hal's optimistic, future-oriented ENFJ point of view, enthusiastically imagining a different future came naturally—it was entirely independent of his present state of mind. He assumed Annette

felt the same way about the positive nature of future possibilities. Therefore, her reminders about everything that could go wrong with his plans, and her obvious reluctance to participate in such "dreaming," meant she was negative and pessimistic by nature.

Comment

This way of understanding their assessments of each other made sense to Hal and Annette. They were relieved to know their fears did not accurately reflect the other's state of mind, and they agreed to make a habit of checking such concerns out rather than assuming they accurately understood each other's motivations.

Couples Therapy That Led to Individual Therapy

Dave and his wife, Emma, participated in couples therapy about 8 years after they were married. They had found it very helpful in clarifying some of their value and style differences, especially as manifested in their opposite types: Dave verified his type as ESTP and Emma identified INFJ as her type. Dave accused Emma of being inflexible, controlling, and overly sensitive; Emma accused Dave of spreading himself too thin, not getting important tasks done in a timely fashion, and taking a lax, irresponsible attitude toward their finances—something that was of continuing concern to her. Understanding the ways in which they differed typologically ameliorated their blaming approach to each other and allowed them greater freedom to enjoy each other, though they still came to loggerheads about the same issues during especially stressful times. Over a period of several years, Dave and Emma came back to therapy for a "tune-up" about once a year. Although Emma would have liked more therapy, Dave tended to become impatient with the process; two or three sessions left him quite satisfied, grounded, and optimistic about their marriage.

On one occasion, Dave called for an appointment for himself, stating that he thought he needed some intensive individual therapy. He was uncharacteristically depressed, anxious, and confused; he felt unable to make a decision regarding an important issue in his life—whether to sell or keep the very large family farm on which he was raised and which he had recently inherited. The farm was in a distant part of the country and had been in his family for several generations. He had always dreamed of living on and working the farm and then passing it on to his own children, but his life had taken a different route. He now doubted that he would ever work the farm or live on it except for infrequent vacation visits. Supervising work on the farm from a distance would be difficult and represented potential financial difficulties that could seriously affect his family's security. This

would certainly be a major issue for Emma, even if Dave had felt comfortable with this kind of uncertainty.

Toward the end of the scheduled first session, the therapist asked whether Dave had considered selling off most of the farm and keeping the main house and a small portion of the land for himself and his family. "I didn't think of that!" he exclaimed. "Actually, that could work really well. It shouldn't be hard to find one good buyer or several smaller ones. It's a fine piece of land. For me, the house and the land just around it are what I would really miss having."

"Do you want to come back next week to discuss this further?" the therapist asked. "Oh, no," he said. "I'll be fine now."

Comment

Dave could not come up on his own with the very simple solution his therapist suggested because of the intense emotional meaning the farm had for him. As a practical, present-oriented ESTP, it was difficult for him to imagine a compromise that would satisfy both of his conflicting desires. Thus his view of his situation was an either-or one. Seeing no way out, he became mired in his inferior introverted Intuition and tertiary Feeling functions. This stimulated overwhelming doubts, anxieties, and feelings of conflict about his deepest values. He projected his current state far into the future, quite a depressing prospect. This accounted for his uncharacteristic conviction that he needed "intensive" therapy. Note that Dave's definition of "intensive therapy" was likely quite different from that of his Intuitive therapist! Dave's one-session "cure" was genuine. His depression lifted and he was able to recognize that there was no need to take immediate action regarding the farm; he could explore other possibilities in a leisurely fashion since he now had at least one desirable option available.

Career Counseling

At age 37, Nathan found that he lacked the necessary additional training to advance in his job as a safety engineer and recognized that he was reluctant to make a commitment to get the training. He liked the work well enough, as it satisfied his general interest in science, but he decided that if he was going to invest the time and energy in further education, perhaps some other kind of work would be more appealing. He therefore made an appointment for career counseling. As his funds were limited, the counselor sent the MBTI questionnaire and Strong Interest Inventory to fill out and return. A first appointment for a 2-hour session was made after results of both instruments were available.

Early in the session, it became apparent that Nathan's sense of dissatisfaction and lack of enthusiasm with his career situation was generally true for other areas of his life, including intimate relationships, friendships, and his living situation. In interpreting and verifying the MBTI results. Nathan easily affirmed his very clear preference for Introversion. He was quite pleased to discover the positive depiction of what he had previously thought of as a serious handicap. He had a similar reaction in confirming his clear preference for Intuition: He did not see this quality in himself as necessarily a handicap but felt it often distracted him from more important endeavors. Deciding between Thinking and Feeling was more difficult: Nathan's profile indicated a slight preference for Thinking, but Nathan believed that he probably really preferred a Feeling approach overall. Similarly, Nathan reported a slight preference for a Judging attitude but self-assessed as preferring Perceiving. He thought the kind of work he did might have influenced his answers on this dichotomy. Nathan thus self-assessed as an INFP rather than an INTJ, as was reported. He was asked to read the INFP description first.

Nathan was amazed at the accuracy with which the INFP type description fit him and at the depiction of his personality as healthy and valuable. He made many connections between his vague dissatisfactions, his negative assumptions about himself, and his devaluing of his "best" characteristics. After reading alternative type descriptions, Nathan remained secure in his initial self-assessment. Nathan's Strong Interest Inventory confirmed his interest in the sciences and his attraction to psychology, which was his college minor. At the end of the initial 2-hour session, the counselor suggested that Nathan take the MBTI results and Strong Interest Inventory report home and think about them. An appointment 2 weeks hence was made.

At the second session, Nathan was excited and enthusiastic by everything he had been thinking and observing about himself in the past 2 weeks. He was optimistic about the future and felt confident about his ability to pursue a satisfying career and make significant changes in his relationships and living circumstances. In fact, he had found himself persistently thinking about working with people in greater depth than was the case in his previous work.

He had already written for information about several counselor training programs and was eagerly anticipating exploring the possibilities of obtaining an advanced degree in counseling.

Comment

The 3 hours of counseling released a good deal of energy for Nathan. This had an immediate effect on his assessment of himself, which in turn motivated him to plan and take steps to implement a desirable future. In fact, Nathan did complete a degree in counseling and has been working in the field for many years.

Couples Therapy That Led to Individual Therapy

John and Phyllis were aged 35 and 32, respectively, and had been married for 5 years when they first sought couples therapy. As is often the case, the very things that had initially attracted them to each other were now sources of dissatisfaction and acrimony. Phyllis had initially found John's quiet depth, intellectual achievements, and his attentiveness to her extremely appealing. He was always willing to try new activities at her suggestion and seemed to enjoy them. John had liked Phyllis's vivacity, social acumen, and understanding of people. It made it easier for him to be in social situations when he did not have to take the lead. After 5 years of marriage, however, Phyllis complained about John's lack of social skills, his never initiating interactions with friends or even family members, and his obvious displeasure whenever Phyllis accepted an invitation for them or insisted on having people over. For his part, John was acutely aware of his wife's complaints but said that Phyllis could not seem to understand how stressful his work life was and that he was exhausted on weeknights and just wanted some silence and quiet activities on the weekends. He acknowledged that he felt very awkward and incompetent in social situations, especially when he had to play host.

The last straw for Phyllis occurred the week before the appointment. Phyllis had invited two couples over for dinner on Saturday night. John had participated minimally in the dinner conversation but then had "disappeared" into his study, muttering some excuse to the guests about having to meet a deadline at work. Phyllis tried to shrug it off while the guests were there, but when they left, she became furious at John. John was quite contrite both at the time and when Phyllis recounted the incident in the first session. "I guess I'm just incapable of being normal with people," he said. "Maybe Phyllis is right that I have a serious problem."

John and Phyllis were given the MBTI assessment to fill out at home and bring back the next week. They were also asked to take it a second time, responding as the other would. John verified that his reported type, INTJ, fit well for him as did Phyllis in her "prediction" of John's responses. Both Phyllis and John agreed with Phyllis's reported type, ENFJ. Of particular note was John's initial response to the discussion of Introversion. He said that the way the therapist was describing being an Introvert made it seem normal and healthy, but that couldn't be right. He then described being frequently ridiculed by his father for being a "social imbecile" and protected by his mother, who recognized his inadequacy but assured John that it wasn't his fault. On one occasion his father told him that if John just tried harder, he could get over his shyness. His father was sure of that, because he himself had been shy as a child and adolescent and now he was very good at being direct with people and telling them off. His father had been particularly harsh

when John decided to major in physics in college. He told John he would never overcome his shyness if he hid out in a laboratory.

Quite a bit of time was devoted during the 2-hour interpretation session to exploring John's conviction that Introversion was pathological. Among other things, the therapist explained that healthy Introversion was not the avoidance of people and social situations but rather a preference for and enjoyment of one's own company and that of a few other people at a time.

Two weeks later, the couple returned for their next session. "I don't understand what you did to him," exclaimed Phyllis. "I thought you had convinced him that being an Introvert was okay, but you know what? A few days after we saw you, he invited two couples he barely knew to come over for dinner on Friday, and when they came, he had a wonderful time and hardly left the room! I just don't understand. I love it that he did that, but I don't get it!"

Comment

What the therapist explained in response to Phyllis's question was that most likely John had become aware that a formerly despised and mortifying part of him was actually normal and acceptable. He no longer had to hide this from others, so he felt free to try out being sociable as an Introvert rather than assuming he had to behave like an Extravert. His eagerness to try out his newfound view of himself certainly startled and confused his wife but greatly alleviated this source of stress in their marriage.

As might be expected, there were a number of other aspects of John's self-image that had become attached to his belief that Introversion was pathological. There were also other unresolved issues in his relationship to his parents, especially his father. After several more sessions as a couple, John and the therapist agreed to continue therapy with John as an individual.

✎ TEST YOURSELF ✎

1. **Why is it important to check out a client's prior knowledge of the MBTI assessment?**
   (a) The client may have been given incorrect feedback previously.
   (b) The client may be confusing the MBTI questionnaire with the MMPI.
   (c) The client may have taken an MBTI "look-alike" rather than the MBTI instrument.
   (d) All of the above.
2. **Other assessment tools must always be used for the MBTI assessment to be interpreted successfully. True or False?**

3. **Most other assessment instruments contain a great deal of type bias, so their results should be generally discounted. True or False?**

4. **What is the main reason a client's MBTI type should not be mentioned in a report?**

   (a) The type could change on a subsequent administration.

   (b) Revealing someone's type is unethical.

   (c) Readers of the report will likely vary considerably in their knowledge and understanding of the MBTI.

   (d) All of the above.

5. **Why might an ESTJ become uncontrollably tearful and an INFP become very efficient in response to the breakup of an intimate relationship?**

6. **In which of the following ways did Jim's MBTI Step II facet results enhance his therapy?**

   (a) Out-of-preference and midzones scores pinpointed several areas of self-doubt or possible conflict.

   (b) The Step II results allowed Jim to discount his basic type results and focus on his facet results.

   (c) The Step II results affirmed Jim's understanding of himself and thus boosted his self-confidence.

   (d) Both (a) and (c).

Answers: 1. d; 2. False; 3. False; 4. c; 5. The ESTJ may be in the grip of inferior, exaggerated Introverted Feeling, expressed as emotionalism; the INFP may be expressing inferior, Extraverted Thinking, thus acting like an exaggerated ESTJ; 6. d.

Appendix
Self-Selection Ratio Type Table: Counselors

The type table shown in this appendix is an example of a standard way of studying and presenting type information for a sample of interest. The counselors included in this table are a composite made up of 9 separate type tables that are included in the *Atlas of Type Tables* (MacDaid, McCaulley, & Kainz, 1986). *Note that the data reported in this appendix are for Form G of the MBTI instrument.* All of the samples are samples of convenience; that is, they were contributed by various researchers or practitioners who sent in type tables to the Center for Applications of Psychological Type. The compilation is made up of the following kinds of counselors. (The Atlas type table number and page where it appears in the Atlas is provided.)

Counselors: General (#8623174; page 201)
Counselors: Rehabilitation (#8629451; page 203)
Counselors: Vocational and Educational (#8629450; page 207)
Counselors: Runaway Youth (#8623170; page 204)
Counselors: School (#8623175; page 205)
Counselors: Suicide and Crisis (#8701301; page 206)
Counselors: Social Workers (#8629449; page 209)
Counselors: Psychologists (#8629455; page 211)
Social Scientists: (#8629456; page 212)

LAYOUT OF THE TYPE TABLE

The layout of type tables is a logical array of the types that permits quick recognition of likely self-selection factors in the sample shown. Note that the two top rows of the table show the eight types that prefer Introversion, and the two bottom rows the eight types that prefer Extraversion. The two left-hand columns show the eight types that prefer Sensing and the two right-hand columns the eight types preferring Intuition. In the two outer columns are the eight Thinking types, and in the two inner columns are the eight Feeling types. The eight Judging types occupy the top and bottom two rows, and the eight Perceiving types are in the

two inner rows. With a little experience in looking at type table data, one can also readily recognize specific combinations of two preferences, which can help in the interpretation of which typological factors night be influencing the distribution of types in the sample. For example, while it is quite apparent that in the counselor sample, Intuitive types are much more frequent than Sensing types, one can also see that among the Intuitive types, the four NF types (INFJ, INFP, ENFP, ENFJ) are the most frequent. Similarly, among the Sensing types, the four SP types (ISTP, ISFP, ESTP, ESFP) are the least represented. Valuable descriptive and research information about the characteristics of people who share two type preferences can be found in Myers (1998) and Myers, et al. (1998, pp. 38–63).

HOW TO INTERPRET THE DATA IN THE TYPE TABLE

As indicated under the title of the type table, the total sample size for the combined sample of counselors is 3,246. The base population used for comparison was a combined sample of male and female college graduates, since by and large, counselors need to have a college degree as a minimum educational qualification. This base population consisted of 8,982 individuals, and, as indicated on the table, the base sample and research sample were independent of each other. These data permit us (granting the limitations of samples of convenience) to answer the question: How do college graduates who become counselors differ in type from college graduates in general? Each cell of the type table shows the sample size for that type and the associated percent of the total sample. The selection ratio information appears as I, for Index of Attraction, and asterisks beside the index show significance levels resulting from Chi-square analysis. Recall from chapter 1 that an index greater than 1 indicates overrepresentation of the type relative to the base population, an index of less than 1 shows underrepresentation, and an index near 0 the expected representation, assuming type is not influencing selection into the group. To the right of the type table are the same data for each preference of each dichotomy individually, by two-letter combinations, and by dominant functions.

By whole type, INFJ, INFP, ENFP, and ENFJ are more attracted to counseling as an occupation than college graduates in general; ISTJ, ISFJ, INTJ, ISTP, ESTP, ESFP, ESTJ, and ENTJ are underrepresented. It is interesting to speculate on the observation that people who counsel and those who are attracted to being counseled (see chapter 6) tend to be quite similar in type. Further, the predominant types that choose counseling as a career are likely to be providing services to many people who are quite different from them; among the kinds of counselors included in this sample are several whose clients are referred by others rather than seeking counseling on their own.

Table A.1 Counselors Compared with College Graduates (*N* = 3246)

ISTJ	ISFJ	INFJ	INTJ
N = 181	N = 175	N = 216	N = 168
% = 5.58	% = 5.39	% = 6.65	% = 5.18
I = 0.40***	I = 0.84*	I = 1.27**	I = 0.67***
▬▬▬▬▬▬	▬▬▬▬▬	▬▬▬▬▬▬▬	▬▬▬▬▬

ISTP	ISFP	INFP	INTP
N = 45	N = 83	N = 428	N = 170
% = 1.39	% = 2.56	% = 13.19	% = 5.24
I = 0.59**	I = 1.00	I = 2.14***	I = 1.13
▬	▬▬▬	▬▬▬▬▬▬▬▬▬▬ ▬▬▬	▬▬▬▬▬

ESTP	ESFP	ENFP	ENTP
N = 38	N = 103	N = 583	N = 159
% = 1.17	% = 3.17	% = 17.96	% = 4.90
I = 0.67*	I = 1.35*	I = 2.25***	I = 0.99
▬	▬▬▬	▬▬▬▬▬▬▬▬▬▬ ▬▬▬▬▬▬▬▬	▬▬▬▬▬

ESTJ	ESFJ	ENFJ	ENTJ
N = 180	N = 187	N = 314	N = 216
% = 5.55	% = 5.76	% = 9.67	% = 6.65
I = 0.46***	I = 0.89	I = 1.55***	I = 0.72***
▬▬▬▬▬▬	▬▬▬▬▬▬	▬▬▬▬▬▬▬▬▬▬	▬▬▬▬▬▬▬

E	1780	54.84	1.07***
I	1466	45.16	0.92***
S	992	30.56	0.64***
N	2254	69.44	1.33***
T	1157	35.64	0.63***
F	2089	64.36	1.48***
J	1637	50.43	0.75***
P	1609	49.57	1.52***
IJ	740	22.80	0.68***
IP	726	22.37	1.43***
EP	883	27.20	1.60***
EJ	897	27.63	0.81***
ST	444	13.68	0.46***
SF	548	16.88	0.95
NF	1541	47.47	1.85***
NT	713	21.97	0.83***
SJ	723	22.27	0.57***
SP	269	8.29	0.92
NP	1340	41.28	1.74***
NJ	914	28.16	0.99
TJ	745	22.95	0.53***
TP	412	12.69	0.93
FP	1197	36.88	1.94***
FJ	892	27.48	1.13**
IN	982	30.25	1.27***
EN	1272	39.19	1.38***
IS	484	14.91	0.59***
ES	508	15.65	0.69***
Sdom	497	15.31	0.63***
Ndom	1126	34.69	1.34***
Tdom	611	18.82	0.67***
Fdom	1012	31.18	1.45***

Note. ▬ = 1% of sample; *<.05; **<.01; ***<.001. Base total *N* = 8,982. Groups are independent. Calculated values of Chi square *or* <u>Fisher's exact probability</u>. Data compiled and analyzed by Center for Applications of Psychological Type. Modified and reproduced by permission of Center for Applications of Psychological Type, Gainesville, FL. 32609. From G. P. MacDaid, M. H. McCaulley, & R. I. Kainz, *Atlas of Type Tables*. Copyright 1986 by Center for Applications of Psychological Type. All rights reserved.

Looked at according to each dichotomy, the table shows that Extraverts, Intuitives, Feeling types, and Perceiving types are overrepresented and Introverts, Sensing types, Thinking types, and Judging types are underrepresented. The overrepresentation of Extraverts in this sample is likely due to the broad range of counseling endeavors included. It would be reasonable to expect that Introverts would predominate in more individual-oriented therapies and Extraverts in more group-focused therapies. By dominant function, those with dominant Intuition and those with dominant Feeling are overrepresented, while those with dominant Sensing and those with dominant Thinking are underrepresented.

Readers of this book will find no surprises in the data in this type table. By and large, the relative attractiveness of the counseling field to different types conforms to what we would expect based on type theory. This type table and hundreds of others provide evidence for the construct validity of the MBTI as well as providing counselors and other professionals with useful information for helping their clients.

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The impact of type on the way people deal with change and transition in the workplace is thoroughly explained in this book. It contains many insights that counselors and therapists can incorporate into their work with clients who are dealing with change in their work lives. The practical suggestions included that can ease the process for different types are firmly grounded in type theory and supported by the extensive experience of the authors. Organizational consultants, executive coaches, managers, and employees at all levels will find enlightening understanding of their own and others' reactions to change. The authors provide convincing evidence that different types define workplace change in different ways, and have different motives, goals, and needs when it comes to accepting and embracing transitions in their work lives.

Corlett, E.S., & Millner, N. B. (1993). *Navigating midlife: Using typology as a guide.* Mountain View, CA: Davies-Black.

This book focuses on important developments in one's type that often accompany midlife transitions, providing helpful information and insight for clients and therapists who are dealing with midlife issues. Jung's theory claims that an individual's type develops and become more inclusive of less-preferred functions and attitudes throughout life. Both therapists and clients can benefits from understanding the predictable ways in which their interests, desires, and expressions of personality may change, sometimes dramatically, during the important midlife stage of our lives. The authors report results of empirical and observational research that show the type-consistent ways that each of the 16 types is likely to experience and react to this important part of their lives. Many examples and illustrations support the theory-based dynamic explanations.

Fitzgerald, C., & Kirby, L. K. (Eds.). (1997). *Developing leaders: Research and applications in psychological type and leadership development.* Mountain View, CA: Davies-Black.

The seventeen contributed chapters in this book cover a wide range of research and professional experience with the MBTI assessment in relation to leadership in organizations as a general issue, in teams, and in leadership development. A number of the chapters report studies that used the MBTI instrument in conjunction with other assessment instruments, including the California Psychological Inventory instrument (CPI), the FIRO-B (Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientations–Behavior) assessment, 360-degree management feedback instruments, and the SYMLOG (Systematic Multiple-Level Observation of Groups). Other chapters include a review and critique of the research literature on psychological type and leadership; type, leadership, and change; decision-making styles; a comparative analysis of manager profiles and the MBTI; type dynamics and leadership development; using the MBTI with management simulations; "STJ's and Change" (an especially insightful chapter on the perceived "resistance" of these types to workplace change); and strategies for enhancing leader communication through psychological type. Much of the information in the various chapters will be useful to psychologists and others who work with organizations and to clinicians who see clients who work under leaders and who are in organizations that focus on developing leaders.

Gram, P. C., Dunn, B. R., & Ellis, D. (2005). Relationship between EEG and psychological type. *Journal of Psychological Type,* 65(5).
Building on the earlier (1989) research of Wilson and Languis (see I. B. Myers et al., 1998, p. 190) that found differences in brain electrical activity of Extraverts and Introverts who were subjected to the same kind and amount of external stimulation, this very well-designed, award-winning study looked at the relationship between all four MBTI dichotomies and cortical activity. E–I findings were consistent with previous research. The studies also showed that there were specific and different patterns of cortical activity associated with each of the other MBTI dichotomies in the various bandwidths.

Hammer, A. L. (Ed.). (1996). *MBTI applications: A decade of research on the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator.* Mountain View, CA: CPP, Inc.
In addition to chapters covering reliability and validity evidence for the MBTI instrument during the decade following publication of the second edition of the MBTI manual (1985), this edited volume contains 9 chapters detailing research done during that decade in 7 application areas: Career Management and Counseling; Management and Leadership; Teams; Counseling and Psychotherapy; Education, Learning Styles and Cognitive Styles; Multicultural Applications; and Health, Stress, and Coping. Practitioners who apply type in one or more of these areas will find a wealth of research information relevant to their field. Each chapter concludes with suggestions for further research, which will be of interest to those wishing to undertake research in specific application areas.

Hirsh, S. A., & Kummerow, J. M. (1998). *Introduction to type in organizations.* Mountain View, CA: CPP, Inc.
The third edition of this booklet is useful for applications of type in organizational settings or in any context where the focus is on the ways that people differ from each other in the workplace. In addition to discussions of various groupings of type preferences, it describes each of the 16 types with regard to contribution to the organization, leadership style, preferred learning style, potential pitfalls, problem-solving approach, preferred work environments, and suggestions for development. The booklet can be particularly useful for counselors and psychotherapists who have clients grappling with demands of the workplace that force them to function using their nonpreferences, since the type descriptions present each type as making valuable and legitimate contributions to organizations.

Kummerow, J. M., & Quenk, N. L. (2003). *Understanding your MBTI® Step II Results: A step-by-step guide to your unique expression of type, Form Q.* Mountain View, CA: CPP Inc.
This is a booklet typically used in giving feedback in both workshop and individual settings. It is designed to guide the respondent through the elements of the Step II Interpretive Report, explaining how to read the graphed results. It provides illustrative material to supplement and enhance individual results, and includes the only published table showing a description of the poles of each facet together with a generalized description of each midzone.

Kummerow, J. M., & Quenk, N. L. (2004). *Working with MBTI® Step II Results: A comprehensive resource for introductory workshops and leadership, team, and career management.* Mountain View, CA: CPP Inc.
A facilitator guide designed primarily for introducing the Step II instrument to groups in various settings, such as leadership development, team development, and career management. The scripts, training activities, handouts, worksheets, and presentation slides (on CD-ROM) can be adapted for coaching and counseling individual clients. All materials are reproducible and can be organized by the facilitator to meet individual and group client needs. This resource will also be of interest to anyone wishing to understand the assessment in depth and for researchers wishing to study the relationship of Step II characteristics to a variety of other variables.

Lawrence, G. (2009). *People types and tiger stripes* (4th ed.). Gainesville, FL: Center for Applications of Psychological Type.
A classic work on type and education that has been updated in this new edition to reflect current teaching methods and other changes in the field. It covers research and practical applications in educational settings at all levels. Included are discussions of type, motivation, and learning styles, a summary of the research

literature in these areas, and a discussion of the learning preferences of each of the types; an insightful chapter on differing teaching styles and how teachers can modify their preferred approach to accommodate learners of all types; curriculum planning and curriculum reform; how to avoid the kind of stereotyping that often occurs in education when type differences are not understood; the role of type development in education; and how to introduce the MBTI assessment into educational organizations.

Marioles, N. S., Strickert, D. P., & Hammer, A. L. (1996). Attraction, satisfaction, and psychological types of couples. *Journal of Psychological Type, 36,* 16–27.

An award-winning report of the research results of an ongoing study of 426 married and premarital couples. It is important because marriage patterns and satisfaction of couple members were analyzed at the level of whole type rather than individual preferences. In addition, Form J, the lengthy research form of the MBTI instrument, was used, which enabled researchers to analyze couples variables at the level of the 27 subscales elicited by this MBTI form. The research reported contradicts the popular notion that "opposites attract." Several earlier studies by other researchers (including one by Isabel Myers that is included in her book, Gifts differing*) had also found no evidence of opposite types predominating among couples. Satisfaction with intimate relationships was explored using several measures, one of which resulted in an index that reflects discrepancies in satisfaction between the partners in a couple. Other studies of indexes of attraction and satisfaction in relation to the type mix of couples were also developed and analyzed.*

Murphy, E. (1992). *The developing child: Using Jungian type to understand children.* Mountain View, CA: CPP, Inc.

A classic work by the coauthor of the Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children. It focuses on type as it develops in children and the ways it influences relationships within the family, at school, and with peers. In addition to its relevance to education and child rearing, it can provide insights to counselors and psychotherapists who work with adults who are trying to better understand their experiences within their family. Understanding the effects of type differences in developing children does not require administration of a type assessment instrument like the Murphy-Meisgeier Type Indicator for Children (MMTIC). Parents, teachers, and professionals who work with them will readily recognize and be able to identify the nature of the differences this book illuminates. See also Murphy (2008a, b, c, d).

Myers, I. B. (1998). *Introduction to type* (6th ed.). Mountain View, CA: CPP, Inc.

This 40-page booklet is the best brief resource on the MBTI assessment available. Its principal use is as a resource every client takes away from an interpretation/verification session. The 16 type descriptions are faithful to Myers's original (1962) text and enhanced by empirical research and practitioner experience. Each type description includes sections on the type at its best, its basic characteristics, how others may see the type, and potential areas for growth. Additional sections in the booklet cover type dynamics and development, discussions of the common characteristics of people who share particular combinations of preferences, ethical guidelines in using type, applications of type in a number of settings, and suggestions for further reading. There is also an especially useful description of how to use all four functions (Sensing, Intuition, Thinking, and Feeling) in decision making. Anyone who interprets the MBTI assessment to clients and applies type in any setting will want to be thoroughly familiar with the contents of this booklet and provide a copy to every client for whom type is assessed.

Myers, I. B. (with Myers, P. B.). (1995). *Gifts differing: Understanding personality type.* Mountain View, CA: Davies-Black.

The classic Myers work, and her only book-length discussion of type. The book is a careful and straightforward explanation of Jung's theory as Myers and her mother, Katharine C. Briggs, interpreted and extended it. It provides the rationale and uses of type tables to understand type differences, the effects of each pair of preferences within a personality, and Myers's original descriptions of the 16 types. Myers covers the practical implications of type in marriage, early learning, learning styles, and occupations. Of particular value to clinicians is Myers's discussion of the importance of good type development in childhood and later, and how a person born with a disposition to develop along particular typological lines may have this development either enhanced or thwarted by life experiences, such as parental type differences and the values and expectations of educational institutions.

Myers, I. B., McCaulley, M. H., Quenk, N. L, & Hammer, A. L. (1998). *MBTI manual: A guide to the development and use of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator*. Mountain View, CA: CPP, Inc. *The technical manual for the MBTI Step I instrument, providing a discussion of the history and development of the Jung/Myers theory; construction of MBTI forms that preceded Form M as well as construction of the current Form M; reliability and validity of previous forms and Form M; and research literature relevant to the validity of type constructs, in particular, evidence for the validity of whole types and type dynamics. Following the basic theory chapter is a lengthy chapter that gives descriptions of all two-preference combinations and all 16 types and includes tables summarizing research results relevant to each preference combination or whole type. The interpretive comments that follow each research table will be of particular importance to clinicians wanting insight into the impact of type on major areas of living. The comments provide specific ways in which the 16 types are not assessed or valued equally in important endeavors such as education, employment, and assessment of psychological and social adaptation.*

    This manual is also a comprehensive guide to applications of the instrument in five main areas—counseling and psychotherapy, education, career counseling, organizations, and multicultural settings. Each of these five chapters was written by one or more experts in that area of application. The information provided in the application chapters covers both research relevant to the area and guidelines for using the MBTI assessment in each setting. For example, a career counselor who has a basic knowledge of the MBTI instrument, such as is available in Essentials of MBTI Assessment, will be able to apply that knowledge based on the principles and guidelines that appear in the career counseling chapter. The same is true for the other four application chapters. The extensive research in the validity chapter and in each application chapter supports the theoretical assumptions underlying type and contains a great deal of information that is relevant to clinical practice. Available knowledge for clinical applications is not limited to the counseling and psychotherapy chapter, however; each of the other application chapters provides a wealth of insights relevant to treating individuals, couples, and families.

Otis, G. D., & Louks, J. L. (1997). Rebelliousness and psychological distress in a sample of introverted veterans. *Journal of Psychological Type, 40*, 20–30. *An award-winning study that considers type dynamics in exploring the hypothesis that psychological dysfunction might emerge differently in different types. Though the study is limited in scope to male, introverted veterans in an inpatient Veterans' Administration facility, the researchers found type-consistent differences in diagnoses and personal and social histories of sample members. Particularly notable is the authors' discussion of the results, which illustrates depth of understanding of the complexity and breadth of type and its clinical applications. This article serves as a model for in-depth clinical interpretation of research results in relation to the assessment of personality type.*

Provost, J. A. (1993). *Applications of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator in counseling: A casebook.* Gainesville, FL: Center for Applications of Psychological Type. *A revised edition of a work originally published in 1983. It provides a useful discussion of counseling applications of the MBTI instrument and includes 18 case studies that show the impact of type on counseling issues and how counselors can apply type in their treatment of clients. A number of cases focus on young people in college, and there is a helpful chapter on using type in counseling couples. See also Provost (2003).*

Quenk, N. L. (2000). In the grip: Understanding type, stress, and the inferior function (2nd ed.) Mountain View, CA: CPP Inc. *This revised edition of the 1996 publication is a brief, booklet-length version of* Was that really me? How everyday stress brings out our hidden personality *by the same author. It is popular in settings where a brief introduction to the meanings and manifestations of the inferior function is desired. Like the revised book-length version, it includes new information on work-related and chronic stress as well as the effects of the tertiary function. Clinicians find it particularly helpful to counseling and psychotherapy clients who find themselves feeling and behaving in "out-of-character" ways during periods of stress, fatigue, or illness. Reading about the predictable nature of their sometimes frightening reactions can*

be calming to clients and also encourages examination of the life issues that may be stimulating inferior function reactions.

Quenk, N. L. (2002). *Was that really me? How everyday stress brings out our hidden personality.* Mountain View, CA: Davies-Black.

This revision of the 1993 book, Beside ourselves: Our hidden personality in everyday life, *is a comprehensive and illuminating discussion of how the inferior function is likely to be manifested in different types when they are experiencing any form of internal or external stress. It explains the dynamics of Jung's typology and why the eruption of the unconscious inferior function is a predictable, natural, and adaptive process that aids in the development of one's personality. Since the publication of the earlier version, clients and therapists have reported that the concepts and examples in the book are consistently helpful in understanding behavior that can seem unpredictable, puzzling, and upsetting both to clients and their therapists. Clinicians might take special note of the likelihood that in their initial sessions with a client, they are likely to see the client's inferior function behavior rather than the client operating out of his or her developed dominant and auxiliary functions. This revision adds a wealth of information on work-related stress and the effects of chronic stress on type as well as new information on the influence of the tertiary function on out-of-character expressions.*

Quenk, N. L, Hammer, A. L., & Majors. M. S. (2001). *MBTI® Step II™ Manual: Exploring the next level of type with the MBTI® Form Q.* Mountain View, CA: CPP Inc.

Covers all essential technical information on the current version of the MBTI Step II instrument, including a chapter that lays out the theoretical issues and implications of type theory for the Step II assessment and a chapter devoted to detailed descriptions contrasting the 40 poles of the 20 facets. There are detailed explanations of administration issues and guidelines for interpretation, including the uses of the Polarity Index and how to interpret results in the context of Step I theory. Definitions of common out-of-preference and midzone scores and useful summaries of Step II variables for each of the 16 types are of particular help to clinicians. The validity chapter contains a wealth of information relating the Step II facets to other instruments and measures. Uses of Step II information for counseling individuals, couples, and career clients is covered as well the instrument's applications in organizational settings.

Quenk, N. L., & Quenk, A. T. (1996). Counseling and psychotherapy. In A. L. Hammer (Ed.), *MBTI applications: A decade of research on the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator* (pp. 105–122). Mountain View, CA: CPP, Inc.

A review of research that was reported from 1984 to 1995, which includes a summary of previous research reported in the second edition of the MBTI manual (Myers & McCaulley, 1985). Research in seven areas is covered: (1) preferred models of counseling and psychotherapy; (2) relationship of type to supervision; (3) type characteristics of users of psychological services; (4) practitioner type and the therapeutic process; (5) type and outcome of therapy; (6) type and couples; and (7) type and substance abuse. The implications of these research results for practicing clinicians are discussed in comments concluding each section. Of particular interest to people wishing to do research on type that has clinical relevance is the discussion of the kind of studies needed in the field. The suggestions provide a wealth of research ideas for graduate students and professionals interested in contributing to this area.

Schaubhut, N. A., & Thompson, R. C. (2008). *MBTI® type tables for occupations.* Mountain View, CA: CPP, Inc.

*A compilation of type tables based on over 800,000 Form M assessments, with a final sample size of more than 195,000 respondents. It covers 250 occupations with related O*NET codes, as well as demographic characteristics of the samples used. This volume is an essential resource for career counselors and advisors as well as any MBTI user interested in how the 16 types self-select into occupations.*

Thorne, A., & Gough, H. (1991). *Portraits of type: An MBTI research compendium.* Mountain View, CA: CPP, Inc.

The first major report of research that focused on whole types. Thorne and Gough compiled data collected over a number of years at the Institute for Personality Assessment and Research (IPAR) at the University of California, Berkeley. The IPAR samples consisted of 240 women and 374 men studied between

1956 and 1984 using the IPAR-intensive assessment method. Included were architects, mathematicians, students at various professional schools, and college students. The MBTI instrument was one of the many assessment instruments used, in addition to the Adjective Check List (Gough & Heilbrun, 1983), the California Psychological Inventory (CPI), the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) (Hathaway & McKinley, 1943) and the Block Q-sort (Block, 1986), among others. Assessment techniques also included extensive ratings by trained observers. Sufficient data on 10 of the 16 types was available and include several measures of psychological adjustment and various observer ratings, in addition to results of other instruments. Of particular relevance to clinicians is the fact that both subjects and observers did not know their own or each other's MBTI types, nor were they familiar with the concepts of type; self- and observer assessments are therefore from a general normative point of view. The descriptions of the whole types are in accord with summaries presented in the 1998 MBTI manual: Some types see themselves and are seen more and less favorably than other types, and this result is particularly notable when the gender of the types is taken into account. For example, male Feeling types and Female Thinking types tend to see themselves less favorably than male Thinking types and female Feeling types.

Wilson, M. A., & Languis, M. L. (1989). Differences in brain electrical activity patterns between introverted and extraverted adults. *Journal of Psychological Type, 18*, 14–23.
The award-winning research that began an ongoing exploration of electrical activity pattern differences associated with opposite type preferences. The authors used topographic brain mapping technology to study Extraverts and Introverts with clear preferences on the MBTI instrument. The results of this and subsequent studies strongly suggest that Extraversion and Introversion differences correspond to differences in the ways the brains of Extraverts and Introverts respond to identical stimulation. For a pictorial reproduction of such brain maps, see the MBTI manual (Myers et al., 1998, p. 190). Continuing research has also included differences between subjects with Sensing and Intuition preferences and combinations of Extraversion and Introversion with Sensing and Intuition.

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