Using Psychological Type for Developmental Coaching:
The Inclusion of Intrapersonal Type Dynamics,
Effectiveness Related to Aspects of Ego Development, and the Individual's
Capacity for Development

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Abstract

This thesis explores several themes related to the field of individual development and, in particular, developmental coaching. The exploration begins with a literature review in Chapter One, which considers the nature of coaching, how it has evolved from goal focused performance coaching to developmental coaching. Similarities and differences between developmental coaching and therapy are discussed, as is the importance of psychological knowledge for developmental coaching. The conclusion to the literature review suggests that, rather than different types of coaching being described in categorical terms, a continuum approach may be more appropriate.

In response to criticisms that the Myers-Briggs theory of psychological types lacks comprehensiveness as a theory and that, as a result, its applicability to developmental coaching is limited, Chapter Two explores factors which may add to the current theory and enable more extensive application in practice. This is achieved by four empirical research studies. Study One describes a focus group interview with experienced Myers-Briggs practitioners to provide a preliminary exploration of the topic. This study indicates that coaches' use of the Myers-Briggs for developmental coaching is indeed limited, and that an indication of effectiveness of type use or level of type development may be useful. Study Two explores whether Myers-Briggs practitioners perceive a gap between the current and desired applications of the Myers-Briggs model for developmental applications, and what this gap may involve. Again, this study indicated that a measure of effectiveness or development may be useful in developmental work. Study Three uses the repertory grid approach (Kelly, 1955) to obtain definitions of 'effective' and 'ineffective' type use. From the definitions obtained, it appears that many of the characteristics seen in individuals who are effective in their use of type can be related to aspects of Ego Development

theory (e.g., Loevinger, 1976). Study Four uses a quantitative approach to exploring the impact of Neuroticism and Ego Development on perceptions of effective and ineffective type use. Using logistic regression analysis, the results indicate that aspects of Ego Development are associated with perceived effectiveness of type use. Overall, this chapter suggests that developing the Myers-Briggs theory further to include aspects of Ego Development would enable coaches to work with type in more depth when engaged in developmental coaching.

Chapter Three looks at another way of using psychological type theory in developmental coaching, by setting psychological type theory back into the original Jungian context. A coaching case study, underpinned by the systems-psychodynamic paradigm, is presented to demonstrate how the dynamics of the psyche in relation to psychological type can enable more extensive use of type theory in developmental coaching.

Chapter Four, the process intervention analysis, describes how the personal characteristics necessary for successful engagement in a leadership development program were identified and assessed. The selection criteria were derived from the existing research and literature, and designed to assess potential as opposed to current competence. The evaluation makes recommendations for future assessment processes, and, in particular, there is discussion regarding the use of the Bar-On EQ-i in a test-re-test model of evaluation. In conclusion, this chapter suggests a model of leadership development potential and methods of assessing this.

The recurring themes that emerge from the thesis are (1) the skills and knowledge, particularly psychological knowledge, that the coach may need in order to work effectively with in-depth development, and, (2) the characteristics and perspectives of

the client that enable them to benefit from in-depth development (3) the importance of

the client's level of development.

Throughout the thesis, the contribution of the research to current knowledge and

practice are discussed.

Prologue

Professional Background and Current Situation

After completing my Psychology BSc course in 1995, my main experience of working in psychology was in clinical settings, mainly adult mental health, as a nursing assistant and assistant clinical psychologist. I have been working in the field of Occupational Psychology since 1999 when I obtained my MSc in Applied Psychology, and have been Chartered since 2003.

Currently, the majority of my work as an Occupational Psychologist is in the area of coaching and development, as well as providing licensed training in psychometrics (BPS Level A & B, MBTI®, 16PF®) via an accredited organization as an associate. Most of the coaching and development interventions either explicitly or implicitly include some work using the Myers-Briggs; sometimes as a starting point for the work, or sometimes part way through to help clarify some of the issues that arise during the work. However, even when it is not being used overtly with a client, it is a framework for personality, motivation, relating and cognitive processing that I often use implicitly as a reference point during my work with them.

Professional and Theoretical Questions

During my time working in psychology I have undertaken a variety of training courses and encountered many interesting theories and models, particularly in the area of personality models and their relevant psychological interventions.. These training courses included Myers-Briggs qualifying, the Enneagram, Emotional Intelligence, the Hogan Development Survey (career derailers), hypnosis, & psychosynthesis counselling. The insights gained from these experiences have all had a profound

effect on my existing ways of working and my thoughts about my desired ways of working.

A topic of current interest in the psychological type community at the moment is the search for the 'missing dimension' of the Myers-Briggs model. Several researchers have realized that there is a gap in the model with regard to the 'psychological health' of the individual and how effectively they manifest their type. Some researchers are looking at this from the point of view of the balance within the type (i.e., using one's information gathering and decision making preferences together appropriately), others are looking at adding in a 'Neuroticism' factor as per the Five Factor Model of personality. (The different approaches to the type problem will be described in detail in Chapter Two, the empirical research.) The model of the Enneagram that I have studied (Riso-Hudson, 1996) describes each of the nine personality types in a developmentally hierarchical model, looking at the manifestation of a personality type from the individual operating at their highest potential, through the typical manifestations, and down to the most destructive and detrimental manifestations, leading into psychological disturbances, personality disorders and psychopathology. The theory suggests that people can fluctuate within this hierarchy and that some people may find that they gravitate to one end more than the other, but that this is not necessarily a fixed point. This model inspired me to consider how the sixteen Myers-Briggs types may be seen from operating at their highest potential through to counter-productive behaviour (but not as far as psychopathology), and how useful a model this would be to coaches and type practitioners. In Jungian terms, these counter-productive aspects of one's type would form part of the 'shadow'.

In his work, Aion, Jung (1979) suggests that individuals need to become conscious of their 'shadow' and 'dark aspects of their personality' in order to work towards self knowledge. He also states that, "If an inferiority is conscious, one always has the chance to correct it" and "...if it is repressed and isolated from consciousness, it never gets corrected" (Jung, 1970, p.14). This raised the question - *If a developmentally hierarchical model were developed for the Myers-Briggs personality types, would it help type practitioners to introduce people to their 'shadow' more easily and address dysfunctional or ineffective tendencies?*

I also considered what the conditions necessary for an individual to reach their potential are, and why it is that some individuals function well naturally within their personality, whilst for others their personality can be a limiting factor. My initial thoughts were that these differences may be related to the difference between being flexible versus being entrenched in one's personality. However there are also theories in the literature regarding the role of Emotional Intelligence (EQ) and healthy personality functioning (e.g., Bar-On 1985) and some work emerging regarding Myers-Briggs types in conjunction with EQ (e.g., Maddox 2006). A concept somewhat related to EQ is that of Ego Development Level (Loevinger, 1976; Cook-Greuter, 2002). This model of personality suggests that people develop through a hierarchy of stages, characterized by increasing self-awareness, more effective interpersonal relationships, a broader world view, and an increased ability to deal with complexity as they develop through the levels. This has raised the question - *Do people with higher EQ or higher levels of Ego Development use their type more effectively?*, and therefore, *Should coaching work to develop personality type include a focus on EQ, or, indeed, take Ego Development level into account?*

This, in turn, led to another question that a number of other coaches, psychologists and researchers have been considering; *Where are the boundaries between therapy and coaching?* In addition to this, I considered how differently psychologists may work as coaches compared to non-psychologist coaches. This seemed to be a recent topic in coaching literature too, with Grant (2000) providing the initial discussion papers on this subject and initiating the work that has resulted in the recent title, 'Coaching Psychologist'. So my questions are - *Is there a difference between the work of coaching psychologists and non-psychologist coaches?*, and , *How can coaching psychologists differentiate themselves from non-psychologist coaches to clients, when all the work comes under the heading of 'coaching'?*

Exploring the Questions – The Thesis

My epistemological position regarding psychological research within the area of personality tends towards social constructionism, in that I believe that there will almost always be error present in research methods and findings because we are dealing with people's different perspectives rather than with absolutes. As Willig (2001) explains,

> Social constructionism draws attention to the fact that human experience, including perception, is mediated historically, culturally and linguistically. That is, what we perceive and experience is never a direct reflection of environmental conditions but must be understood as a specific regarding of these conditions (p. 7).

For this reason, I am of the opinion that the questions asked of research participants will be subject to interpretation, no matter how carefully they are constructed, and the responses given by the participants will be subject to their experiences, environments, beliefs, values and attitudes. Therefore, the general methodology applied to this

thesis will take constructionist considerations into account – either from the approach

of trying to deliberately harness these individual perspectives and interpretations, or

by trying, as far as is possible, to control for them. For this reason, a range of

research methods is employed throughout the thesis, including both qualitative and

quantitative approaches. It should also be noted that, from the constructionist

position, myself as the researcher will also have an influence on the research, starting

from the point of having a particular interest in the research topics, through to

designing the methods, asking the questions, and interpreting and reporting the

findings.

The literature review component will aim to synthesise the latest research and

literature regarding the boundaries between coaching and therapy and the differences

between coaching and developmental psychological coaching. I envisage that the

outcome of this review will add to the debate regarding how coaching at a deeper

level can be differentiated from goal focused, performance coaching, and to what

extent depth coaching may take on some aspects of therapeutic work. The outcomes

of this literature review will be relevant to the case study as the case study will

explore the use of techniques, typically used in therapy, that may be adapted for use in

psychological type related coaching.

The empirical study will explore the idea that there may be a missing

dimension to the existing Myers-Briggs model that limits its use in developmental

coaching. Perspectives on the current use of Myers-Briggs in coaching is investigated

using a focus group, followed by an attempt to identify what practitioners believe may

be a useful addition to the model. The potential roles of Neuroticism and Ego

Development are then explored using quantitative methods.

The case study will illustrate how a coach can work in more depth with psychological type by placing the Myers-Briggs model of type back into the original Jungian context. The underpinning model for the session described in the case study is a systems-psychodynamic approach.

The process intervention analysis will describe the identification and assessment of the characteristics of leadership development potential. The analysis will explore the factors that are believed to contribute to engagement in and ability to learn from development activities and coaching. The development program had a key focus on the development of emotional intelligence and was underpinned by Ego Development level theory, thus having some clear connections to the themes presented in the empirical project.

This thesis will provide insights regarding the developmental process, particularly with regard to personality, from a variety of perspectives. (1) how working with individuals developmentally, and coaching in particular, is evolving; (2) the skills and knowledge needed by coaches to work effectively at a developmental level, (3) the type of additional information that would be useful to enable coaches to work with the Myers-Briggs model in more depth, and, (4) the individual characteristics that need to be considered when embarking on a program of development. These insights will be of both theoretical value and of practical and applicable value to those working as developmental coaches.

Chapter One

Critical Literature Review

Defining and Differentiating

Performance Coaching, Developmental Coaching,

Coaching Psychology and Therapy

The nature of coaching has been continuously changing since it was first introduced into organisational settings in the early 1980s, and, as a discipline, it is still evolving (Berg & Karlsen, 2007). Currently there are an expansive variety of styles and approaches to coaching and, as a result, defining and differentiating exactly what coaching is has become increasingly less straightforward. This difficulty in defining coaching has significant implications for coaches, particularly when they are trying to market their approach to potential clients and provide a precise and informative description of what coaching is. In addition to this, many coaches use a variety of approaches within their own practice, so any attempt to define how they work can be very complex.

This chapter will review the existing literature regarding the need to define coaching, the suggestions for definitions of coaching, and the comparison of coaching to therapy. The place of formal training in psychology will also be considered, and, in conclusion, a model for defining coaching is proposed that draws together the key themes from the literature.

The Need to Define Coaching

Coaching, as an industry, has been growing rapidly. The Harvard Business School review estimated that there were 2,000 executive coaches in the US in 1996, 10,000 in 2002 and projected that there would be 50,000 by 2007 (cited from Berglas, 2002). Grant & Zackon (2004) surveyed 2529 professional coaches from The International Coach Federation, a worldwide professional coaching body, and found that they had entered coaching from a variety of previous professions, the majority of which were consultancy, management, executives, teaching and sales. Only 4.8% of the sample had a background in psychology. Whilst this diversity can bring a range of methodologies and professional experience to coaching practice, Grant (2006) makes the point that, "Because coaching is an industry and not a profession, there are no barriers to entry, no regulation, no government-sanctioned accreditation or qualification process and no clear authority to be a coach; anyone can call themselves a 'Master Coach' " (p. 14).

With reference to the diverse range of coaching styles, and the diversity among coaches themselves, Grant (2006) suggests that such diversity is both a strength and a liability for the profession of coaching. He suggests that, from a positive perspective, this diversity means that the coaching industry is drawing on a wide range of methodological approaches and educational disciplines; however, this also means that there is a lack of clarity as to what professional coaching really is, and to what makes an effective or reputable coach. He goes on to say that this diversity may also lead to differing perspectives regarding ethical and best practice standards that should apply to coaching.

The GROW model (Whitmore, 1992) has, for a long time, been the most popular coaching model for executive and organisational coaching. The GROW

model is a goal focused, facilitative process for coaching that, during a coaching session, aims to establish the goal, the options and the eventual course of action for a particular issue that the client has brought to the coaching session. This style of coaching tends to be widely referred to as 'performance coaching' and is the type of coaching that is usually taught to managers in organisations during in-house coaching initiatives as it is systematic and work focused. Although it could be argued that all coaching is aimed at improving performance, and can therefore be described as 'performance coaching', for the purpose of this review the term 'performance coaching' will be used to describe specific goal focused coaching that follows a set process such as the GROW model. For this type of coaching, no knowledge of psychology or therapeutic techniques is necessary, and non-work issues are not usually addressed. Therefore, becoming a professional coach using this style of coaching is open to anybody who has, or can develop, the necessary facilitation skills.

Since the introduction of performance coaching, other methods, styles and paradigms of coaching have emerged. Although the fundamental objective is still to improve an individual's performance, the route to achieving this may vary considerably; for example, goals and objectives may emerge as a result of the coaching, rather than being set out at the beginning, non-work issues may be addressed in the coaching sessions, and the focus may be on improving performance via personal development. The options for training to be a coach have become much broader, for example, there are training programmes available in Gestalt coaching, cognitive-behavioural coaching, NLP coaching, to name a few, most of which have a more developmental focus and psychological basis than performance coaching. For the purpose of this review, this type of coaching (i.e., developmental and psychological) will be referred to as 'developmental coaching'.

In summary, it appears that coaching has evolved and can now include more developmental and psychological aspects, but how can a definition that differentiates between performance coaching and developmental coaching be made client-friendly and jargon free?

Jackson (2005) stressed the need to categorise styles of coaching, predominantly for the purpose of better informing clients about the options available and to manage client expectations. However he concludes that coaching is too broad a field to be defined or used comparatively, and that a multi-dimensional model would be necessary. This has been echoed by many other authors who have attempted to compare and contrast different coaching models (Bluckert, 2005; Bachkirova, 2008; Simons, 2006). Additionally, comparisons between coaching and therapy are often included in these discussions. There is a general suggestion in the literature that descriptions of coaching approaches need to be made more explicit and that there could be different categories of coach. One of the main problems is finding definitions of coaching that are brief, meaningful to clients and that create the appropriate level of expectation for the client.

Bachkirova and Kauffman (2009) provide several other reasons, in addition to that of being able to market one's offerings to a client, for the need to define coaching. Firstly, for the purposes of learning and sharing knowledge about coaching, they state that it would be helpful for authors to be explicit about how they are defining coaching. Likewise, for those seeking training in coaching, training providers should be able to clearly define their position on coaching. Another reason they suggest for the need to define coaching is to allow coaches the ability to make decisions about referring clients on to other professionals, such as therapists. That is to say, the boundaries between coaching and therapy are not always clearly defined.

The case for the need to define coaching, therefore, has implications for coaching training, the setting of boundaries, and managing client's expectations. Additionally, for the coach, more clarity around what styles of coaching they are competent to use will help them select steps for further professional development and enable them to be aware of the potential limitations of their practice.

Definitions of Coaching

Early definitions of coaching tended to focus on skills development and performance, either by instruction or facilitation. For example, Parsloe (1995) defined coaching as "... directly concerned with the immediate improvement of performance and development of skills by a form of tutoring or instruction" (cited in Palmer & Whybrow, 2008, p. 2), whilst Downey (1999) considers the more facilitative approach, defining it as "... the art of facilitating the performance, learning and development of another" (cited in Palmer & Whybrow, 2008, p. 2). These definitions may accurately capture the nature of 'performance coaching', but they do not offer much insight into the nature of 'developmental coaching'. Bachkirova (2008) distinguishes these two types of coaching as follows:

> The developmental coaching, for instance, in contrast to performance
> coaching, is less focused on the specific performance-related behaviours. It
> is more open to the long-term and emerging needs and aspirations of the
> client and so may justify interventions that in performance coaching would
> be considered too open-ended and/or unnecessarily psychologically deep (p.
> 359).

The distinction between performance and developmental coaching is a good starting point for beginning to look at the differences in coaching as it is evolving, yet there is

a great deal of diversity within the realm of developmental coaching, indicating the need for even more sub-division of this category.

Berg (2006; cited in Berg & Karlsen, 2007) proposes a two dimensional model whereby different types of coaching are positioned on axes relating to 'complexity' and 'time consumption'. In his model, there is a steady progression along both axes starting with 'knowledge coaching' (low complexity and low time consumption), through 'skill coaching', 'personal coaching', 'result coaching', and finally, with high complexity and high time consumption, 'development coaching'. However Berg's model does not explicitly include the level of competence or skill required by the coach, although this may be implied by the 'complexity' axis. Additionally, it does not follow that more complex types of coaching would necessarily be more time consuming than less complex types.

Bachkirova and Kauffman (2009) suggested attempting to define coaching by exploring the following four questions: (1) what is coaching for? (2) what does coaching involve? (3) where is it? (i.e., what is the context?), and (4) who is it for? However, they were unable to find definitions related to any of these four questions that would universally define coaching and account for all of the diverse styles and methods. In summary, they suggested that these four questions could help individual coaches to define their own coaching practice.

These suggestions for defining coaching are either not suitable for use with clients, do not describe boundaries with any clarity, or are not universally applicable. So perhaps a universal definition of coaching or a simple taxonomy may not be entirely achievable; an alternative approach may involve attempting to create definitions based on underpinning theory or qualifications.

Much of the literature that attempts to define coaching makes little to no mention of any theoretical underpinning or robust supporting research. This is supported by Whybrow & Palmer's (2006) observations that many psychologists reported that they joined professional coaching bodies for support and guidance, (e.g., The International Coach Federation, The Association for Coaching, The European Mentoring & Coaching Council), but found that they made little reference to psychological models or a research basis for coaching practice.

In his research in which he interviewed coaches from a variety of coaching backgrounds, Jackson (2005) found that some coaches did, in fact, see that their work was underpinned by theory whilst others did not. However, he does not specify whether any of the coaches sampled had a specific background in psychology. It should also be noted that his sample for the research was very small (n=8). In a recent study by Price (2009) using a sample of 192 coaches, 49% of the sample had a psychological or therapeutic background, and the remaining 51% tended to be from management or HR with no psychological or therapeutic background. So, should a distinction be drawn between coaching with a psychological basis vs. coaching that does not have a psychological basis?

Palmer & Whybrow (2008) note that, over the last 10 years, since the growth of 'coaching psychology', definitions that aim to distinguish this from other forms of coaching have emerged that include attention to psychological theory and practice. For example, they cite Grant and Palmer (2002): "Coaching psychology is for enhancing performance in work and personal life domains with normal, non-clinical populations, underpinned by models of coaching grounded in established therapeutic approaches" (p. 2). So how is coaching psychology different from other forms of coaching? And, who is entitled to define themselves as a coaching psychologist?

Defining Coaching Psychology

The recent emergence of the term 'Coaching Psychologist' may offer some distinction

between psychological and non-psychological models of coaching; however its exact

definition has been a topic of debate in coaching, psychology and therapy literature

(Whybrow & Palmer, 2008). Coaching psychology came to the fore as a result of

work by Grant and Palmer in 2001. They recognised that psychologists were

becoming involved in executive and organisational coaching in increasing numbers,

however, unlike other areas of psychology, there was an absence of literature

regarding the underpinning research and theory for coaching. Although executive

coaching has been gaining popularity since the late 1980s, Whybrow & Palmer (2006)

comment that "...the profession of psychology has taken a long time to establish itself

formally within the coaching space and recognise the need for a specific focus on

coaching psychology" (p. 57).

In 2004 they carried out a survey of 109 psychologists who practiced coaching

and had become members of the newly formed British Psychological Society (BPS)

Special Group in Coaching Psychology (SGCP) and found that members wanted the

SGCP to support 'the appropriate use of the descriptor *coaching psychologist* by

psychologists using coaching skills' (Whybrow & Palmer, 2006, p. 59). It is worth

noting that the membership of the SGCP has grown rapidly and now has over 2000

members (Palmer & Whybrow, 2008), which is indicative of the need for

psychologists who coach to have a more explicit recognition of this area of their

work.

The increasing amount of psychologists who are coaches and the ever growing

membership of the SGCP indicate that coaching psychology is indeed a specific area

of applied psychology, however there has been considerable and continuing difficulty

defining exactly what coaching psychology is and is not (Palmer & Whybrow, 2008). The one consistency in definitions of coaching psychology is that they include the application of psychological theory. Does this, therefore, imply that all coaches using a psychological underpinning for their practice are entitled to call themselves coaching psychologists?

In a survey of SGCP members (2004), Whybrow and Palmer found that most members considered that a psychology degree was an important training requirement for becoming a coaching psychologist in conjunction with some other specific coaching qualification such as a diploma or certificate course. However, Whybrow (2008) stresses that having a background in psychology is not a sufficient basis for becoming a coaching psychologist and that other skills and competencies are necessary. It is well documented in both the literature and in coaching training that skills in relating to others, building rapport, listening and communicating appropriately are more important for effective coaching than techniques or models (e.g., Howgego, Yellowlees, Owen, Meldrum & Dark, 2003). Nevertheless, Seligman (2005) states that coaches who are psychologists are viewed in a more credible light than non-psychologist coaches or unqualified life coaches. However, many developmental coaches do not have a background in psychology and cannot, therefore, describe themselves as coaching psychologists. So how can they define themselves? Bachkirova (2008) believes that, increasingly

> "... coaches who work developmentally need to be more knowledgeable of
> the nature of the self, psychology of individual development and the nature of
> processes involved in facilitating individual development, including blocks to
> development and the dynamics of helping relationships..." (p. 360).

Developmental coaching underpinned by psychological theories such as these may open up deeper issues for a client that some coaches may not be equipped to deal

with. Bachkirova (2008) defines four different categories of practitioners that work as coaches: (1) non-psychologists and novices to coaching, (2) psychologists who have expertise in one or two non-therapeutic areas of psychology, other than counselling/psychotherapy (3) non-psychologists who are experienced counsellors/therapists, and, (4) psychologists who are qualified in counselling. She suggests that the main issue for coaches from the first two groups, as compared to groups three and four, would be in recognising their limits in terms of their ability to deal with some of the psychological issues that may arise. Nevertheless, is it fair to say that some coaches with no formal background in psychology, such as a psychology degree, may still practice developmental coaching competently from a psychological perspective with other forms of training? Additionally, is it logical to conclude that, having a background in or degree in psychology implies a real or sustained appreciation of the application of psychological theory or methods?

Whybrow & Palmer (2006) agree that "relatively crude indicators such as a degree in psychology, experience, or chartered psychological status clearly do not demonstrate whether a person has the necessary skills, specific experience and rounded knowledge base required to practice effectively in the coaching domain" (p. 67). Nevertheless, coaches in Bachkirova's second category, if engaged in coaching work, would be entitled to refer to themselves as Coaching Psychologists.

So far, the literature seems to be drawing distinctions between performance coaching – coaching focused on achieving a specified goal, developmental coaching – coaching that aims to bring about change within the individual, and coaching psychology – coaching that is underpinned by psychological theory and is practiced by coaches with a psychology degree. However, these three categories are not necessarily distinct. It

appears that most forms of developmental coaching will have a basis in psychological theory, thus suggesting that there is likely to be an overlap between developmental coaching and coaching psychology. Also, the name 'coaching psychology' only implies an underpinning of psychological theory in one's practice, but does not define how one may work or what the limits of their work may be. Additionally, as mentioned above, developmental coaching covers a range of methods and approaches, including some degree of psychological knowledge, and may, therefore, need further sub-division; and, the presence of developmental coaching does not imply the absence of performance coaching approaches where necessary. Conversely, it is unlikely that a coach who is only qualified to carry out performance coaching will make any more than the occasional journey into the area of developmental coaching.

This increased focus on psychology in both developmental coaching and coaching psychology leads to another issue in defining coaching: is there a clear distinction between coaching and therapy? When considering to which area of psychological practice coaching psychology is most similar, Whybrow (2008) suggests that it shares a similar purpose with counselling psychology, although there are also apparent differences. Bachkirova (2008) also makes reference to the counselling aspect of developmental coaching, stating that "the more developmentally focused the coaching is the closer it becomes to counselling in terms of the context of interventions, transcending the contextual boundaries", later adding that

> ... this is why the role of coaching psychology as a subject area that focuses
> on the theories of individual development and understanding of the
> psychological implication of practical interventions in development, is
> becoming increasingly important for all those who coach (p. 360).

Developmental coaching can often enter into non-work related issues, particularly if they have a bearing on the client's work performance, and, unlike performance

coaching, it can sometimes be remedial and address areas of disorder or dysfunction. As such, the debate about the difference between coaching and therapy is not only confined to the field of coaching psychology, but also includes developmental coaching.

The Boundary between Coaching and Therapy

The perceived link between coaching psychology and therapy is twofold; firstly, therapy is concerned with the treatment of a problem or disorder that the client is experiencing; developmental coaching can address similar issues. Secondly, psychologists are often seen by the public as a profession concerned with therapeutic issues. Grant (2006) cites Webb & Speer's (1986) observation that "unfortunately in the public's mind, psychologists are often confused with psychiatrists and have long been seen by the public as being focused on therapy and clinical work" (p. 16). Hence, the boundaries between coaching, psychology and therapy can be rather unclear, particularly in the eyes of the client. In fact, the inclusion of the word 'psychologist' may even give an erroneous impression to a client.

More complex issues arise when looking at the perceived similarities and differences between developmental coaching, coaching psychology and therapy. In terms of the similarities, most coaching techniques and therapeutic/counselling models take a client-centred approach, aim to facilitate the client in finding their own solutions (Bluckert, 2005) and are set in the context of Rogerian core conditions such as unconditional positive regard, congruence and empathy (Rogers, 1957; Senior, 2007). Many of the basic facilitation skills are also used in both coaching and counselling settings, for example, listening, non-directive communication, building of rapport, and effective use of silence, and both can be aimed at bringing about

behavioural change and self awareness (Bluckert, 2005). However, unlike therapy, performance coaching is focused on improvement of someone or something that is already functioning relatively well, and will tend to avoid personal issues or dysfunctions. In contrast, developmental coaching, although mainly concerned with healthy and normally functioning individuals, may address areas of dysfunction when appropriate, informed by psychological theory.

Yet the idea of developmental coaching having an overlap with therapy does not appear to be solely present in relation to addressing dysfunctions. Simons (2006) states,

> from my own work as a leadership development consultant and coach, it is
> apparent that effective coaching must include an element of counselling in that
> I do not believe that one can work with a coachee on present and future
> behaviour without addressing the influences from their past – and that may
> include the original establishment of attitudes, prejudices, feelings, values,
> beliefs and so on which underpin behaviour (p. 24).

Simons goes on to make the point that a high degree of self-knowledge is essential for leadership and coaching leaders can involve dealing with issues arising from the clients' self concept. Again, improving leadership performance is another common area for coaches to be working in, so this seems to be a highly relevant point. Bluckert (2005) makes reference to West and Milan's (2001) work on leadership development coaching, in that they hold the view that the development coach draws on both consulting and counselling in their practice.

So where do the boundaries between coaching and therapy actually lie? Are there consistent similarities and differences, or is the distinction somewhat blurred? This debate has been on-going for many years; however the next section will focus on the recent literature regarding this topic.

Contracting

A key difference that can be seen between coaching and therapy is the contracting of the work. Spinelli (2008) comments on findings from Jopling (2007), who believes that coaches are more explicit in their contracting than therapists and will make roles, expectations, flexibility and limitations clear at the start, whereas therapy contracts tend to be more about logistics such as payment and commitment to meet. Cavanagh (2009) agrees that one of the key differences is in contracting, stating that the boundaries of a coaching contract provide a greater licence to challenge, whereas the therapeutic contract is more about support and help. Spinelli (2008) takes this point to make a further distinction between the coaching and therapeutic contracts; that therapeutic models tend to be inflexible with regard to changes to times, places, duration and media of sessions, whereas coaching sessions are often changed in response to the coachee's circumstances. Sessions can take place over the phone, there can be email contact, and there may be some self disclosure or even a professional relationship outside of the coaching sessions. Another contractual difference between the two disciplines can be in the definition of who the client is and the limits of confidentiality. In therapy, the client is usually the only client and confidentiality agreements are between the therapist and client, perhaps with some agreement regarding clinical supervision. (Exceptions to this may occur where a client is legally required to undertake some form of therapy). In coaching there can often be a three way split with the organisation that has commissioned the coaching often being the main client, the coachee also being a client, and a confidentiality agreement that may permit some feedback to the organisation. Bachkirova (2008) makes the point that when coaching is sponsored by an organisation the goals of the coaching can be aligned towards the goals of the organisation and focus the sessions

with the coachee on areas that are of interest to the organisation. So what happens when the coaching reveals a need for the client to work on some fundamental but less 'immediately organisationally useful' issues? Again, different coaches may take different views on this matter, however the main point here is that counsellors and therapists are not usually restricted by context in this way.

The Relationship

The other major differences between coaching and therapy tend to be less clear and very dependent on the type of coaching, type of therapy, and on the client. Some authors see a difference in the nature of the relationship between the professional and the client. Grant (2006) states that "the dynamics of the coaching relationship differ from the often overtly hierarchical relationship that is associated with consulting, clinical or counselling work" (p. 18). Jopling (2007) also tends to view the coaching relationship, as a whole, as being more balanced and egalitarian than a therapeutic relationship. However, this can be a grey area and be partly due to the perception of the client. Often, coaching clients will ask the coach what, 'in their expert opinion', they should do. In addition to this, in counselling training there is a significant amount of time devoted to the exploration of the power balance – in general, not suggesting that the counsellor is in a powerful position, but that the client may perceive this and there may be some projection or transference as a result that should be worked with as part of the therapy. This leads to another area of the coaching relationship that is often seen as a differentiator in comparing therapy to coaching – the use of the relationship itself in the work. Gestalt techniques (e.g., Perls, 1977), increasingly used in coaching, have a major focus on the 'use of self' and the dynamics of the coaching relationship; however, most non-gestalt coaches do not

incorporate this into their work. Spinelli (2008) comments "my experience of working with coaches leads me to the view that coaches are less at ease than the majority of therapists in addressing and working with the coach-client relationship in its immediacy..." (p. 246). He acknowledges, nevertheless, that these views are beginning to be challenged by a growing number of coaches.

Mental Health of Clients

Another hotly debated topic in the literature is concerned with the mental health of the clients. Most definitions of coaching clearly state that coaches only deal with normal, non-clinical clients (e.g., Grant & Palmer, 2002) and that the focus is on improving and enhancing functioning, whilst therapy is more concerned with addressing problems and issues. However, there are many points made within the same body of literature that throw some doubts on this. For example, Grant (2006) cites recent studies that suggest that between 25 % and 50% of individuals presenting for coaching actually have issues that meet clinical mental health criteria. Several authors have suggested that people may request coaching to deal with mental health problems as it is less stigmatised than therapy. For example, Spinelli (2008) states that "coaching addresses and serves the part of society which might not make use of therapy or which would regard the use of such services as stigma" (p. 242). Berglas (2002) also suggests that executive coaching may be incorrectly considered by some as an acceptable form of psychotherapy, and Tobias (1996) postulates that the term 'executive coaching' came into the business world because 'coaching' sounded less threatening than other types of interventions. In Bachkirova and Cox (2005), an observation by Carroll (2003) is cited; that those who work in psychotherapy and counselling believe that coaching is just a different name for what they do.

Critical Literature Review

Goals and Intentions

In attempting to define the difference between coaching and therapy, Bluckert (2005) suggests that the main area where "there is clear daylight between the two disciplines" (p. 93) is in the *intentions* of coaching and therapy. He states that "the primary goal of coaching is to improve a person's effectiveness at work in ways linked to overall business strategy", where therapy "also addresses non-work aspects of an individual's life". He concludes that "what is acceptable for one intervention may be inappropriate for the other" (p. 93). This suggests that coaching interventions should be confined to dealing with workplace issues, the present and the future, and that therapy can span issues across work, personal life, and the client's past. Bachkirova (2008) confirms that there seems to be current agreement among practitioners that therapy and counselling can include elements of coaching where appropriate, but that it is not appropriate to do psychotherapy within coaching. As previously mentioned, the fundamental goal of coaching is to improve performance; however the way in which the process of the coaching will facilitate this improvement can be very different. The distinctions offered by Bluckert regarding the intentions fit well with goal-focused performance coaching; however, as developmental coaches may address non-work issues and have emergent goals for the coaching rather than explicit goals, this distinction is not a perfect fit for developmental coaching.

Competence

Whybrow (2006) suggests that, as the boundaries between coaching and counselling skill sets are not clear, a useful concept is to consider the *competence* to work with the presenting issues; when it is appropriate to be coached or counselled, and when it is appropriate to refer clients on to more suitably qualified professionals. This,

however, opens up another, highly important issue – do coaches have the skills and knowledge needed to identify mental health problems in clients or the need for onward referral?

Bachkirova and Cox (2005) suggest that coaching can uncover underlying psychological issues, and Berglas (2002) points out that if these underlying issues are ignored during coaching, not only can it prevent real progress for the client, but it can also worsen psychological problems. Grant (2006) stresses the need for coaches to be highly skilled in dealing with mental health issues. He goes on to say that, when a client presents for therapy they are aware that they have some symptoms or distress and have an expectation of treatment, whereas clients who present for coaching may not be aware that they have a mental health problem and be reluctant to engage in a therapeutic relationship. In his view, coaches need good diagnostic skills and "the ability to consider psychopathological issues whilst engaging in the type of goal-focused fast-paced relationship that characterises coaching'" (p. 18). This view suggests that, rather than making an onward referral, the coach who is appropriately qualified may be skilled enough to deal with mental health issues using coaching techniques; would this then constitute ignoring the issues and causing some of the problems suggested by Berglas? Bluckert (2005) makes the additional point that, even if the coach believes that a client would be better helped by a therapist, the client may not welcome the suggestion or follow it up.

Price (2009) asked 192 coaches to complete the sentence, "When you think about how your coaching is different to therapy, the things that come to mind are …". He was surprised to find that only 17% of the sample's first response was related to qualifications, training or personal competence. However, when he asked coaches to choose from a range of options their reasons for deciding not to start coaching, 57%

stated that the main reason was that the client appeared to have mental health issues, and, likewise, when asking them to choose why they may have decided to end a coaching contract, the top response (66%) was also that the client appeared to have mental health issues. Price comments on the fact that the coaches did not see qualification or competence as a major boundary in the distinction between coaching and therapy (the most popular responses were that coaching is future-oriented (24%), the process of coaching is more short term and less deep (23%), and the purpose of coaching was to achieve goals and improve performance (22%)), but that working beyond the coaching/therapy boundary, distinguished by the presence of mental health issues, would be beyond their competence and lead to the decision not to coach the individual.

Bachkirova (2008) supports the notion that coaches need to be able to identify underlying psychological issues and suggests a model for coaches that begins with assessment. She clearly states that this is not just assessment of the client and context, but that the assessment should take into consideration the coach's preferred framework for working and the contractual arrangements. From this assessment, the coach can make a decision about the appropriate course of action or, if deemed necessary, onward referral for the client. She suggests that, if underlying psychological issues are identified, the coach may decide to proceed with the work themselves; however the interventions would need to bring in some psychological theories and counselling methods to enhance goal focused coaching. This suggests that, in addition to possessing the skills necessary to make a diagnosis and a referral to therapy, as discussed by other authors, there may be situations where coaches may decide to acquire skills and abilities to carry out interventions that combine coaching with therapeutic approaches.

The Role of Psychology in Coaching

At this point, it seems appropriate to return to the topic of psychology in relation to coaching. The points made above clearly indicate that the competent practice of developmental coaching requires some knowledge of psychological theory and, in some cases, a deep knowledge of psychological theory including psychopathology may be required in order to identify the client's needs. So does this mean that developmental coaches would be more effective if they had a formal background in psychology? Bachkirova (2008) comments that, in the past, coaches avoided associating their work with in-depth psychological work, however she now perceives a 'U-turn' (p.351) in this attitude with professional coaches acknowledging the need for a psychological underpinning of coaching interventions.

Whybrow (2008) states that psychologists have a wealth of theoretical, conceptual and evidence based knowledge about the make-up and development of people, including how people relate to each other, how they change, the influence of context and behavioural patterns. They also have a good grounding in research methods and statistical analysis. Grant (2006) supports this, and adds that psychology can contribute to coaching by adapting and validating therapeutic models for use with non-clinical populations and in commercial settings. Both Whybrow and Grant are of the opinion that professional psychologists have clear codes of ethical practice and that the qualification, training and regulatory processes enhance this.

Overall, the literature seems to support Bachkirova's (2008) belief that "... the more developmentally focused the coaching is the closer it becomes to counselling ..." (p.360). Again, this suggests that 'developmental coaching' encompasses a range or continuum, rather than being a categorical definition.

Towards a Model for Defining Coaching

From the review and assimilation of the literature, it would appear that there are two major issues arising; the first being the ability to define developmental coaching approaches concisely, and the second being the clarification of the coaches' competencies, skills, knowledge and training that support these approaches.

A distinction in the coaching definition debate that seems to be clear is that of performance versus developmental coaching. There seems to be clear agreement between the authors that performance coaching is goal focused, present and future oriented, likely to use a process model such as GROW, focused only on issues related to the workplace, and will not involve exploration of emotional or underlying psychological processes. This form of coaching requires little or no psychological knowledge or therapeutic skills, other than positive regard for the client and good listening and facilitative skills.

The defining of coaches who take a more developmental or transpersonal approach to coaching is much more complex. It is fair to assume that coaches who usually work developmentally would not exclude the use of performance coaching techniques where appropriate, so defining one's self as not being involved in the use of performance coaching techniques may not be particularly accurate. There is also the likelihood that, within the realm of their skills and competency for developmental work, they will choose how deeply and psychologically to work with their clients as appropriate. Additionally, some developmental coaches will have the capability to work at a deeper level, or even up to a transpersonal level, than other developmental coaches. This makes defining how they work more difficult in terms of explaining their preferred approach to a client and setting up the client's expectations. An alternative may be to define one's coaching approach in terms of the particular type of

coaching training they have had; for example, an NLP coach, a cognitive-behavioural coach, a gestalt coach, a transpersonal coach or a psychodynamic coach. Again, this can be problematic for several reasons. These types of terms may mean nothing to a client and require a long explanation to supplement them. Additionally, the coach may not draw upon only one model or theory of coaching in their work, so such a distinction may be limiting and inaccurate.

The second major issue – the clarification of skills, knowledge and competencies – appears to be indicating the need for coaches to increase their therapeutic and counselling skills. In their 2004 survey of SGCP members, Whybrow and Palmer (2006) report that respondents had expressed the need for counselling skills to be an integral part of any coaching qualification. In addition to this, coaches are becoming increasingly advised to have frequent supervision, (e.g., Bluckert, 2005; Whybrow & Palmer, 2006), a requirement that is essential for counsellors and therapists. So, is coaching naturally evolving into a more therapeutic profession as Spinelli (2008) suggests? Or will the divide between performance-related coaching and developmental coaching become increasingly vast? Bachkirova and Cox (2005) believe that "understanding counselling theories, application of these in coaching, plus continuous reflection on the process could serve as a contribution to the process of development of the theoretical knowledge in coaching" (p. 9).

Spinelli (2008) states that "... something that bridges therapy and coaching will evolve ... Whether it will still be labelled as coaching or whether some new term emerges, I don't know, though I suspect the latter in the long term" (p. 248). Spinelli (2008) expands on this, putting forward the concept of a professional continuum; the more that coaching moves towards developmental coaching, the more it will become

similar to therapy and the more knowledgeable the coach will need to be regarding therapeutic practices and psychopathology.

Bluckert (2005) concludes his considerations of the links between coaching and therapy by stating, "A new category recently approved by the British Psychological Society (BPS) is that of Coaching Psychologists. It would hardly be surprising to also see the term Coach-Therapist emerge in the near future" (p. 96). However, in the light of the literature, Spinelli's idea of a professional continuum rather than a taxonomy or categorisation approach seems to be emerging as a potential method of describing the varying approaches to coaching, although the value of this for marketing coaching to clients would be questionable.

The continuum idea is less limiting than a taxonomy approach as it allows a coach to consider their whole repertoire of potential interventions. For example, a developmental coach may choose to use performance coaching where appropriate, and a transpersonal coach may choose to use a developmental or performance approach. In this way the continuum model does not limit the coach but provides a 'cut-off point' regarding their level of capability. However, a one dimensional continuum cannot account for all of the variables in coaching that have been explored above.

Combining the suggestions of Spinelli (2008), Whybrow (2008) and Bachkirova (2008) regarding a developmental continuum, a competence element and an increasing degree of psychological knowledge, respectively, as major aspects in the distinction of coaching, a three dimensional model illustrating the variation in coaching interventions can be derived. On one axis the breadth of the coaching intervention can be placed, from performance, through developmental, to transpersonal. On a second axis the degree of psychological knowledge necessary can

be positioned, and as a third dimension, the extent to which the approach is becoming

more akin to therapy can be expressed (see Figure 1).
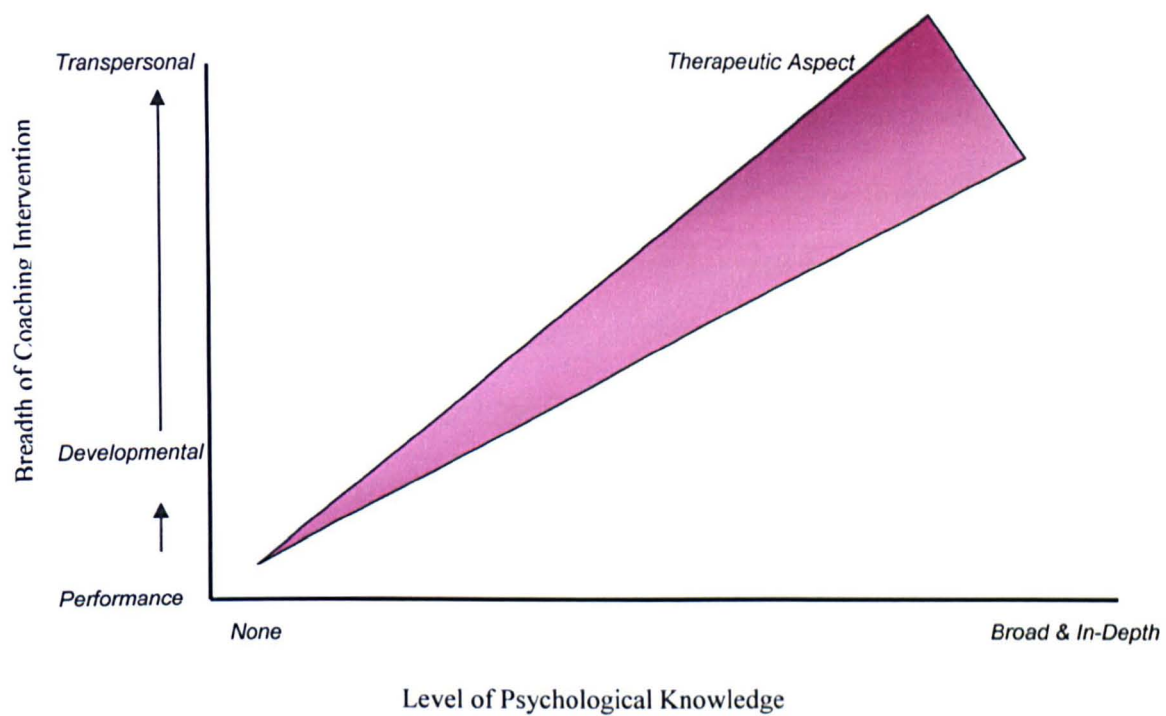
Figure 1: A Proposed 3- Dimensional Continuum-Based Model of Coaching Interventions

This model may be a useful tool for coaches and researchers to use in drawing

comparisons and contrasts between performance coaching, developmental coaching

and 'coach-therapy'. It may also help coaches to assess their level of skill,

competence and knowledge and inform them about their own training or development

needs. Additionally, once a coach has used this model to assess their level of skill, it

may help them to clarify their style of coaching, in terms of techniques, boundaries

and limits, to potential clients.

That having been said, this model should always be considered within the

coaching context, to ensure that the coaching approach being used is appropriate to

both the client's issues and to the coaching contract. For example, if the agreed

coaching contract is only two or three sessions, it is likely to be inappropriate to

embark on any psychologically deep interventions as there may not be sufficient time for the client to complete the exploration or reach a resolution. Likewise, although a coach may have the capability to work psychologically and developmentally, the suitability of his or her approach must be assessed in accordance with the client's presenting issue, the client's current level of development and the client's readiness for coaching. Nevertheless, it is clear from this review that defining precisely how one operates as a coach may not be something that can be done simply or concisely.

In conclusion, the findings and ideas put forward in the coaching literature have implications for the design of future coaching training courses and for the need for 'top up' training, particularly in the area of identifying mental health issues, for existing experienced coaches. It is clear that certain styles of coaching – those that are more developmental - are likely to have a psychological basis, deal with non-work issues where appropriate, are focused on personal development, and generally work at a fairly deep level with clients. Although the 3-dimensional model of the coaching continuum proposed here may aid coaches in defining their particular way of working and their appropriate level of skills and knowledge, it seems that the 'definition of coaching' issue will continue on and, hopefully, resolve itself naturally as the profession of coaching continues to evolve.

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Chapter Two

Empirical Research

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Exploring the Influence of Neuroticism and Ego Development on the Effective

Use of Psychological Type

Introduction

This research investigates suggestions made by critics of the Myers-Briggs theory of

psychological type, that (a) the theory is an incomplete model of personality (e.g.,

McCrae & Costa, 1989; Michael, 2003; Cook-Greuter, 2004), and that (b) this lack of

comprehensiveness has implications for the practical application of the model,

particularly in the field of developmental coaching (e.g., Scoular & Campbell, 2007).

The question of whether there is, in fact, a missing dimension in the Myers-Briggs

model is investigated. In order to understand some of the concepts and issues that

will be addressed in this research, a summary of the relevant aspects of the Myers-

Briggs model is given below, followed by a review of the literature regarding the

criticisms of the Myers-Briggs model in the light of the possible missing

dimension(s).

The literature review begins with a summary of the Myers-Briggs theory and

original Jungian model. This is necessary in order to fully understand the studies that

follow. It then focuses on the criticisms from supporters of the five factor model

(e.g., McCrae & Costa, 1989) who suggest that Neuroticism is the missing dimension,

and from those who suggest that a 'vertical' developmental aspect is the missing

dimension and that Ego Development stage theories would make the model more

complete (e.g., Cook-Greuter, 2004). Four research studies are then described. The

first is a focus group interview exploring MBTI qualified coaching practitioners' use

of the Myers-Briggs in practice. The second short study uses a gap analysis technique

to explore the type of developmental interventions for which MBTI qualified

practitioners believe the Myers-Briggs is useful, and how they would like to be able to

use it in developmental work. The third study employs a repertory grid technique

(Kelly, 1955) to define effective and ineffective use of one's psychological type, and

the fourth study takes a quantitative approach to exploring the relative contributions

of Neuroticism and Ego Development to perceptions of effective and ineffective use

of one's psychological type.

The Myers-Briggs Model of Personality Types

The Myers-Briggs model of personality is based on the 'Psychological Type' theory

of the Swiss psychologist, Carl Gustav Jung (1875-1961). Jung's first attempt at

developing a typology identified the difference between people who were

predominantly introverted (internalised energy) and people who were predominantly

extraverted (externalised energy); he called this pair of energetic orientations the

attitudes. He later added in the *functions* which are the different ways that people

perceive and take in information (sensation or intuition) and make judgements

(thinking or feeling). Combining these attitudes and functions resulted in a typology

of eight psychological types – Introverted *or* Extraverted Sensing *or* Intuition, and

Introverted *or* Extraverted Thinking *or* Feeling. As Jung's development of the theory

was based on observations of his patients, his descriptions of the different

psychological types tended to be somewhat negative and concerned with the poor

development or imbalance of their psychological types. His book on the subject,

'Psychological Types' (1990) was first published in 1921 and the first English

translation was released in 1923.

Jung's theory of type was modified and further developed to make it more accessible and acceptable to a wider audience by Katherine Briggs and her daughter, Isabel Briggs-Myers. Briggs and Myers believed that Jung's typology, if adapted to describe normally functioning people rather than those with psychological problems, could be useful in helping people to identify the kind of employment to which they would be best suited. They began work on the adaptation of Jung's theory in the late 1940s. Myers and Briggs described Jung's typology in language that was easy to understand and used examples that were evident in every-day behaviour, making it accessible to the wider population. They developed his theory further by adding in another attitude pair that related to how people deal with their external environment – *Judging or Perceiving* – making it easier for people to consider the combinations and interactions within their type preferences (Briggs-Myers, 2000). Their development of Jung's typology resulted in there being sixteen different personality types and the possibility of denoting the nature of each type using a four letter abbreviation (e.g., ESTJ – preferences for Extraversion, Sensation, Thinking & Judging).

For each type there is a hierarchy of preferences and a difference in how those preferences operate, depending on the combinations of the preferences; this is referred to as the 'dynamics' of type. Each function (Sensing, Intuition, Thinking, Feeling) is combined with an attitude (Extraversion or Introversion) creating a combination referred to as a 'function-attitude'. Of the functions in the person's four letter type code, one function-attitude will be predominant for the individual (the 'dominant function') and the other will act in support of the dominant function (the 'auxiliary function'). The combination of the dominant and auxiliary functions provides the individual with a degree of balance between externalising and internalising, and between taking in information (perceiving) and making evaluations (judging). The

other function-attitudes that do not form part of the individual's four letter type code are present in the individual's psyche but are less conscious and accessed less frequently. The least conscious function-attitude is known as the inferior function and is a key feature of the stress response ('The Grip') as conceptualised by type theory (Quenk, 2002).

In their version of Jung's type theory, Myers and Briggs emphasise the positives inherent in each type and make it clear that there are no better or worse types to be. Their descriptions of the types describe people in positive ways, making only slight reference to the potential pitfalls or development needs that a type may experience. This is a significant departure from Jung's original work which tended to describe the pathology of the types; his typology was originally designed to help with the diagnosis of psychological problems (Michael, 2003).

The main focus of their work was the development of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator® questionnaire (MBTI®), a questionnaire designed to help people to discover their personality type. The first version of the MBTI was published in 1962. The MBTI is a self-report questionnaire with a forced choice format. Every item requires the respondent to choose between two options that are related to either end of one of the preference dichotomies. As the response format is dichotomous rather than normative it does not provide any indication of the strength, intensity or balance of one's personality type; as its name suggests, it merely provides an indication of a type. For this reason the outputs of the questionnaire are treated as a working hypothesis of the respondent's true type and this hypothesis is explored during a discussion with a type practitioner where a 'best-fit' type is decided upon by the respondent. Despite having good evidence for reliability and validity, with an average alpha reliability of .75 and validity, measured by the percentage of respondents

agreeing with the questionnaire outcome on all 4 dimensions, of 87% (OPP, 2009),

the questionnaire is subject to distortion (deliberate or unconscious) and there is no

measure or safeguard within the instrument to account for this. In the light of the

psychometric properties and methodology of the MBTI, truly valid research requires

the use of the best fit type, however relatively few research studies take this approach.

Most of the research using the MBTI uses the scores from the questionnaire

(converted to a continuous format to allow for correlation) resulting in questionable

outputs as the scores produced are not, strictly speaking, suitable for research for the

reasons provided above. As Myers, Quenk and Kirby (1995) note, MBTI research

converts categorical responses into continuous scores for statistical purposes, whereas

trait measures are originally created as continuous scores, suggesting that research

using continuous scores should be interpreted with caution. Additionally, most

studies tend to look at each preference individually rather than in combination, thus

distorting or diluting the qualitative meaning of the preferences; so more robust

research needs to be based on combinations of the preferences or whole type

preferences (Gardner & Martinko, 1996).

Personal Development Using Psychological Type

Jung postulated that people are born with an innate disposition to develop a certain

psychological type, however their freedom to develop and express this type is

influenced by environmental variables (Myers, McCaulley, Quenk, Hammer &

Mitchell, 2009). He suggests that in the lifecycle of type development, environment

permitting, a child will first express their preference for Introversion or Extraversion.

From an early age, their dominant function will begin to develop and be seen; games,

activities, interests and behaviours that are related to the nature of the dominant

function will be evident. During teenage years, the auxiliary function begins to develop, resulting in the person becoming more equipped to take a balanced approach to life. Jung suggested that individuals will eventually experience a period he calls 'mid-life', during which they become drawn to more use of their non-preferred functions, whilst toning down their expression of their preferred styles. Individuals who resist this may become more rigid and one-sided in their personalities, whilst those who embrace it will become more balanced and flexible.

In addition to the lifecycle of type development, Jung specified stages of actual preference development that he referred to as 'differentiation' and 'individuation'. Jung believed that individuals begin life in an 'undifferentiated' state; that is to say that they have little awareness of the distinction between their psychological functions and that the functions are fused together. According to Jung, a function can only be directed effectively and consciously if it is distinct from the other functions within the psyche. He describes the concept of differentiation as follows:

> Differentiation consists in the separation of the function from other functions, and in the separation of its individual parts from each other. Without differentiation direction is impossible, since the direction of a function towards a goal depends on the elimination of anything irrelevant. Fusion with the irrelevant precludes direction; only a differentiated function is *capable* of being directed (p. 424, 1990).

There are three forms of differentiation described by Jung; (1) mental process differentiation, (2) preference pair differentiation, and (3) internal differentiation (Myers et al., 2009). Mental process differentiation is concerned with the individual's ability to distinguish between the process of perception (gathering information) and the process of judgement (making evaluations). If these two mental processes are

undifferentiated, the result is that the individual will be prone to prejudice or rigid

beliefs as they will be quick to make judgements without first gathering information.

Preference pair differentiation (e.g., understanding that Thinking is a different process

to Feeling) is necessary in order for the individual to consciously direct their functions

and to consider when it may be appropriate to draw upon a different style.

Additionally, undifferentiated preferences are expressed ineffectively as the two

different processes are interacting. For example, a person with undifferentiated

Thinking may believe that they are making an objective evaluation, however the

influence of the Feeling aspect will result in them only attending to the aspects that

are important to them. Likewise, a person with undifferentiated Intuition may be

prone to superstition as patterns or theories may be perceived as fact and reality. A

lack of differentiation between preference pairs can result in the functions remaining

undeveloped and ineffectively expressed, and also prevents the individual from

realising that there are alternative (i.e., opposite) ways of responding to a situation

(Myers et al., 2009). Internal differentiation refers to the differentiation within a

function or attitude. This means being able to consider the different aspects of a

particular function and use them effectively. An undifferentiated function is

expressed with rigidity, or in 'black and white' terms, and is mainly employed

unconsciously and without considered direction. Myers et al. (2009) comment that

this type of differentiation is perhaps the most difficult to achieve. Jung used the term

'individuation' to describe the process of differentiation, through to integration of the

other parts of the psyche, including non preferred sides and shadow aspects, *'having*

for its goal the development of the individual personality' (p. 448, 1990)

Myers and Briggs included the concept of type development in their version of type theory; however they presented it in a much simplified form, summarised by Myers et al., (2009) as:

> ... the end result of good development is that individuals are comfortable and effective in the processes that come most naturally to them and with the strengths of their type, *and* they have an ability to use the processes that go against the grain; to focus on the processes most adaptive for the task; to turn off or turn on the process as needed; to control use of their processes instead of feeling controlled by them (p. 13)

They comment that 'Myers' simple, clear language for describing good development masks the depth, complexity, and nuances of the Jung-Myers approach to type' (p.13).

Myers and Brigg's version of Jung's theory is often criticised for being over-simplified and taking too much of a positive focus, thus limiting its potential for use in development (e.g., Spoto, 1995). For example, one of the issues regarding the over-simplification of the theory relates to the notion of the inner tensions and dynamics of the preferences. Jung's typology has as its core the idea of the dynamics of opposites. Jung postulates that, although an individual will have predominant or preferred functions, the opposite functions will be attempting to come to the fore, thus creating constant dynamics and tensions within the individual, and that personal development comes from acknowledging, exploring and managing these tensions. In relation to this, Spoto (1995) sees the Myers-Briggs model as being concerned with the 'problem of differences' in its treatment of the preference pairs (i.e., how does one person differ from another), and neglecting of the 'problem of opposites' (i.e., how is an individual's type working within them), thus losing some of "the heat and passion" of Jung's original work (p. 7).

Another common criticism of the Myers-Briggs model is that it has an overly positive focus (e.g., McCrae & Costa, 1989) and makes little mention of the negative aspects of an individual's personality. However, Jung considers the acknowledgement and integration of the 'shadow' sides of personality to be essential for growth and development:

> The shadow is a moral problem that challenges the whole ego-personality, for no one can become conscious of the shadow without considerable moral effort. To become conscious of it involves recognising the dark aspects of the personality as present and real. This act is the essential condition for any kind of self-knowledge (Jung 1979, p. 872).

Although Myers and Briggs were fully aware of the complexity of Jung's theory and of the shadow sides of the personality, they do not make this explicit in their popular model of type theory. The focus tends to be on the positive aspects of type, with the only clear reference to a shadow aspect being in their description of the activity of the inferior function, and even this is seen to be described too positively (Quenk, 2002). For certain developmental interventions using the Myers-Briggs, (e.g., team building, basic self-awareness, first stages of a development process), their popular model is sufficient; however, for more in depth interventions, such as developmental coaching, the issues noted above regarding over-simplification and over-positivity may present a challenge.

The Use of Myers-Briggs in Practice

Following the work of Myers and Briggs, personality type theory became popular in counselling settings and spiritual work, and since the 1980s it has become one of the most used management and leadership development tools in the business and

organisational sectors (Harvey, Murry & Markahm, 1995). It is also applied

extensively in team development and team building.

In his observations of Myers-Briggs development workshops, Michael (2003)

notes that, "participants learn the fundamentals of type theory; what are their types;

identify their dominant and least developed functions; and begin to appreciate type

diversity so that different types can work more effectively together" (p. 74).

However, Myers et al. (2009) note that many MBTI users are only vaguely aware of

type dynamics (the combined value of the four letter type code and the hierarchy of

the functions) and, therefore, erroneously see type as the sum of its four letters.

Therefore, typical use of the Myers-Briggs may not always go into the level of depth

that Michael suggests.

With the ever growing prevalence of executive coaching, the Myers-Briggs is

regarded as a useful model for use in coaching work. A recent survey by McDowell

and Smewing (2009) regarding the use of psychometrics in coaching found that the

MBTI was by far the most commonly used psychometric employed by coaches, with

49% of coaches in the sample reporting using the MBTI® in their coaching work.

Michael, citing research by Ennis (2002), states that coaches commonly use the

Myers-Briggs to gather critical information about their clients, and adds that it is often

one of the initial steps that coaches use in enhancing their client's leadership

development.

The available Myers-Briggs resources for coaches focus on the strengths,

development needs, stressors and coaching styles that each of the sixteen types will

tend to have (e.g., Krebs-Hirsh & Kise, 2000). From the resources available, the

developmental suggestions for coaches are aimed at facilitating the client in the

development and appropriate use of their non-preferred functions. With regard to

potential dysfunctional behaviours, the literature about type development warns against becoming one sided and rigid in one's use of type in older age if opportunities for development are missed, however there is little mention in any of the popular type resources of the issues that a particular type can have when over-using their preferred styles on an everyday or habitual basis, or of ways that they can improve and further differentiate their own preferences. This can lead coaches who want to work with clients on personal development using the Myers-Briggs to have few directions in which to go with the use of psychological type work beyond that of helping clients to gain awareness of their preferences and the opposites. Additionally, as the resources available for coaching and development work are likely to emphasise the 'gifts' and positives of their type and overlook the negatives, it can be difficult for a coach to integrate type theory with evidence of negative or dysfunctional behaviour. For example, how can a coach integrate a client's positive Myers-Briggs description with a 360° feedback profile that clearly states that the client is displaying negative behaviours? Conversely, how can a coach use the Myers-Briggs information to facilitate the development of further potential beyond type awareness in their clients? Looking at Jung's model of development, although individuals may become aware of the difference between perceiving and judging, and of the difference between the opposite functions when going through the Myers-Briggs process, they are unlikely to become aware of the need for differentiation of their actual preferences. Additionally, although their awareness may be raised regarding their psychological type, this may only be the beginning of the differentiation process for them. As the field of coaching is moving more towards personal development coaching and psychological coaching (e.g., Bachkirova, 2008), the ability to use the Myers-Briggs in depth with

clients may be limited by the available training, resources and popular presentation of the Myers-Briggs theoretical model.

The Myers-Briggs is not the only adaptation of Jung's original psychological type theory, however it is the model that this research will focus on as it is the most widely used (Michael, 2003). In 1998 it was estimated that 3.5 million MBTI questionnaires were being administered per year and, at this time, the indicator was available in over 30 languages (Briggs-Myers, 2000). It should also be noted that this research is only concerned with the development of the model, theory and application of the Myers-Briggs and not with the development of the MBTI questionnaire.

Is There a Missing Dimension in the Myers-Briggs Model?

Isabel Myers was always clear that the Myers-Briggs did not tell the whole story, stating that "Type does not explain everything. Human personality is much more complex" (Briggs-Myers 2000, p. 42). McCaulley adds, "Each person is unique. An ENFP is like every other ENFP, like some other ENFPs, and like no other ENFP" (quoted in Briggs-Myers, 2000, p 42). Type is a broad brush approach to personality and is overlaid by traits, environmental and genetic influences, experiences, and individual characteristics. Scoular and Campbell (2007) comment that coaches often use additional questionnaires and models of personality to fill in the gaps left by the Myers-Briggs, such as the Hogan Development Survey, which looks at possible career derailing behaviours, or the FIRO-B, which assess interpersonal needs. They note that the need for using additional methods comes from the fact that the MBTI does not account for Neuroticism, and that this absence of a measure of Emotional Stability or Neuroticism is one of the main criticisms of the MBTI® made by coaches: "Critics of the MBTI note the scientific consensus that there are five major

personality scales making up the key components of individual difference, and the

MBTI only has four." She goes on to say, "This criticism is entirely valid, the fifth

scale is indeed missing in the MBTI, and there are indeed clients where coaches think

to ourselves, "is something else the problem here?" (p. 3).

Michael (2003) comments that "Using the MBTI alone provides an incomplete

picture of managerial behaviour" (p. 77), and discusses the additional information that

can be gathered from considering the interaction between psychological type and

needs, particularly the need for achievement and the need for power. He suggests

using the FIRO-B® or aspects of emotional intelligence to obtain a more complete

picture. With regard to the combined use of emotional intelligence (EQ), Maddox

(2006) states that

> ...type will influence the development of EQ; ...EQ will influence the
>
> development of type." He goes on to explain "EQ influences the effectiveness
>
> with which type is applied, and type influences the ease with which different
>
> aspects of EQ are learnt (p. 10).

These criticisms and the supplementing of type with alternative models in

practice suggest that the Myers-Briggs is lacking an indication of personal

effectiveness. In fact, Myers noticed that there was a variation in personal

effectiveness in using type and, therefore, included a range of 'research items' in her

earlier versions of the MBTI that did not give an indication of preference, but that she

hypothesised may have a bearing on effective use of type. Unfortunately, she died

before her work in this area was completed. Nevertheless, a research team has

recently finished her work and launched the MBTI Step III® questionnaire (Myers et

al., 2009). This will be discussed in more detail later. Returning to the point made by

Scoular and Campbell, the absence of a measure of Neuroticism is one of the main

criticisms of the Myers-Briggs, not only by coaches, but also by researchers (e.g.,

McCrae & Costa, 1989; Furnham, 1996).

Psychological Type and Neuroticism

Neuroticism, also called 'Emotional Stability', is a personality trait that includes

anxiety, hostility, depression, self-consciousness, vulnerability and impulsiveness

(McCrae and Costa, 1980). It is one of the factors that, along with Extraversion,

Openness, Conscientiousness and Agreeableness, form the Five Factor Model (FFM).

Numerous studies have gathered data on personality traits and, via factor analysis,

have consistently found that five independent broad factors seem to make up

personality (aka the 'Big Five'; e.g., McCrae & Costa, 1987; Digman, 1990;

Goldberg, 1990). Although many researchers have been involved in the discovery of

these five factors through a variety of methods, the names most frequently associated

with the five factor model are McCrae and Costa, as they also created the NEO-PI™

questionnaire for measuring these factors. While the MBTI is the most popularly

applied personality measure in non-clinical settings, the NEO-PI is the measure most

widely used by researchers (Furnham, 1996). McCrae and Costa (1989) correlated

scores on the NEO-PI™ and MBTI and found statistically significant correlations

with all four of the MBTI dichotomies. The significant findings were also those

where a relationship could be predicted (see Appendix 1). MBTI Extraversion,

Intuition, Feeling and Judging correlated respectively with NEO-PI Extraversion,

Openness, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness. Neuroticism was not significantly

correlated with any of the Myers-Briggs preferences.

These findings have been replicated by numerous studies (e.g., Harvey, Murry

& Markham, 1995), however in a study of managers, Furhnam (1996) found

significant yet inconsistent correlations between subscales of NEO-PI Neuroticism

and the MBTI Introversion and Feeling scores. It should be noted, however, that all

of these studies were based on scores from the MBTI questionnaire which, as

previously noted, are not strictly measures of intensity.

Harvey et al. (1995) comment that the lack of correlation between the four

main MBTI scales and Neuroticism is not surprising "given the MBTIs goal of not

assessing individuals on dimensions that might be perceived as being

'undesirable'"(p. 2). They add that the lack of a Neuroticism measure may not

present an issue to practitioners who are merely interested in finding an individual's

type, but that it poses a limitation to practitioners who want to measure the full profile

of personality dimensions as per the FFM. Bayne (2005) confirms that, as

Neuroticism cannot be construed positively, it would detract too much from the

positive tone of the Myers-Briggs theory. Nevertheless, he notes that its omission is,

indeed, a limitation of the MBTI, although, in his opinion, it does feature in a

'peripheral way' in Myers-Briggs theory as a possible explanation for 'type

falsification' (p.11). McCrae and Costa (1989) comment that the absence of a

Neuroticism measure "omits information that may be crucial to employers, co-

workers, counsellors and the individuals themselves. For many, if not most,

applications, some measure of Neuroticism would be useful" (p. 36). What is not

clear from these studies, however, is the influence of Neuroticism on psychological

type. Is it being suggested here that Neuroticism should be included as part of the

Myers-Briggs in order to make the theory more complete and bring it in line with the

FFM? Or does Neuroticism have an impact on how type will be expressed or used?

A recent development that links the Myers-Briggs dimensions with the five

factor model is the Golden Personality Type Profiler (GPTP; Golden, 2005). The

GPTP is a questionnaire that provides information about type preferences (E/I, S/N, T/F, J/P) but it also includes a Neuroticism/ Emotional Stability scale based on the five factor model, in this case called the Tense vs. Calm scale. In this questionnaire the Tense vs. Calm score reflects the individual's response to stress, divided into two sub scales: Concerned vs. Optimistic and Unsure vs. Confident. Golden acknowledges that Jung's original model did not include Neuroticism but states that it is added to the GPTP "in order to better ensure the comprehensiveness of the GPTP" (2005, p. 20). The GPTP does not integrate the two models (i.e., does not explain what the influence of Neuroticism on type would be), but treats the Tense vs. Calm as an additional piece of information. It should also be noted that individuals of certain types may score differently on the Tense vs. Calm subscales because of their type; for example, people with NF preferences are likely to score highly on Optimism, and people with ETJ preferences may naturally report higher Confidence. Therefore, interpretation of type and Neuroticism together may be somewhat complex.

As mentioned earlier, Myers included a number of items in the earlier versions of the MBTI (Forms C and F) that she was using to research the effective use of type. These items were based on her observations of the varied use of type in individuals with the same preferences. She analysed the responses and formed hypotheses about different patterns of responses and an individual's type development. Myers' overall name for these scales were 'Sufficiency Scales', and she believed that they measured 'Degree of Adjustment'. Although Myers categorised these Sufficiency Scales into two broad areas – 'Self-confidence' and 'Unconscious Security/Strain' -research into the factor cluster of these scales by Saunders (1987) revealed that they all loaded onto one factor which he renamed 'Comfort-Discomfort'. From here, Saunders developed a version of the MBTI that included these Comfort Scales called the Type

Differentiation Indicator (TDI) or Form J. The Comfort scales were divided into seven subscales – 'Guarded-Optimistic', 'Defiant-Compliant', 'Carefree-Worried', 'Decisive-Ambivalent', 'Intrepid-Inhibited', 'Leader-Follower' and 'Pro-active-Distractible'.

Research using the Sufficiency scales has revealed some connections with Neuroticism, although the findings vary between studies. Harvey et al. (1995) factor analysed the scores on MBTI Form F (including the Sufficiency scales) and found a five factor solution that corresponded to the FFM. However, although the coefficient alpha estimates of scale reliability for the items that loaded onto the four main MBTI scales were high, the items that loaded onto the Neuroticism factor only managed to produce an alpha coefficient of .66. Additionally, it is important to note that eight of the Sufficiency scale items did not load onto any of these five factors. Harvey et al. conclude that this version of the MBTI could be used as a big five instrument, however the Neuroticism scale would need to be made more robust.

Johnson (1995) correlated the NEO-PI and the TDI using scores from a sample of 335 (see Appendix 2). The composite scores of the five subscales, Conscious Strain, and the overall Neuroticism scales are also provided. These correlations indicate that there are significant relationships between these five Comfort scales and elements of Neuroticism, however the Hostility and Impulsiveness subscales have less consistent relationships. The reason that Johnson only used these five subscales and did not include the Guarded-Optimistic and Defiant-Compliant subscales was because he interpreted these two subscales as being connected to the unconscious ego defence mechanism of repression, whereas he believed the other subscales were connected to the more conscious defence mechanism of suppression. For this reason, Johnson referred to these two subscales

as the 'Unconscious Strain' scales and to the other five scales as the 'Conscious Strain' scales. Unfortunately, omitting the Unconscious Strain scales from the correlation study does not provide information about their potential relationship to Neuroticism. Johnson went on to carry out a factor analysis of the data and found that the two Unconscious Strain scales did not load onto Neuroticism, but that Defiant-Compliant loaded onto the factor he named 'Logical-Affective' and believed was similar to the Thinking-Feeling scale, and Guarded-Optimistic loaded onto a factor that he named 'Contained Emotions'. In this factor analysis, although Hostility loaded onto Neuroticism, its highest loading was on to a factor that he named Agreeableness (a sixth factor, separate from the Logical-Affective factor). Johnson's findings indicate that the Conscious Strain Comfort scales may indeed have a relationship to Neuroticism, but that the Unconscious Strain scales may be measuring a different construct.

Poling & Johnson (1995) carried out a similar study, however they used the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (Eysenck, 1975) in their comparisons with the TDI. Data on the two instruments from a sample of 573 students was compared. They also found significant correlations between Neuroticism and Intrepid-Inhibited (.41), Leader-Follower (.26), Carefree-Worried (.59), Proactive-Distractable (.37), and they also found a significant negative correlation between Neuroticism and Guarded-Optimistic (-.33). However, what is more interesting, is that significant correlations were also found between EPQ Psychoticism and Guarded-Optimistic (-.31), Defiant-Compliant (-.24), and Proactive Distractible (.37). They went on to create derived Extraversion, Psychoticism and Neuroticism scales from correlating the MBTI Form J data at the item level with the EPQ scales. These derived scales all correlated significantly with the EPQ scales. Psychoticism is associated with

adaptability to society. The traits making up Psychoticism are Cold, Aggressive, Egocentric, Impersonal, Impulsive, Antisocial, Unempathic, Creative and Tough-Minded (Ryckman, 2000) and most of the non-type items that loaded onto this scale were items from the Unconscious Strain scales. In addition, some of the items from the Harvey et al. (1995) study that did not load onto Neuroticism were correlated with Psychoticism. Therefore these findings indicated that the Unconscious Strain scales are measuring something other than Neuroticism, but that Myers believed had a bearing on effective use of type.

In summary, there is considerable evidence of a relationship between Neuroticism and the Conscious Strain subscales of the comfort scales, and evidence that the Unconscious Strain subscales are not related to Neuroticism, but may be related to aspects of Psychoticism. It should be noted, however that all of these studies have used MBTI preference scores, converted to continuous scores, as dependent variables. As mentioned earlier, preference MBTI data is related to the consistency of responses and is not an indication of the strength of preferences. Myers, Quenk and Kirby (1995) note that:

> ... the most compelling argument against looking at shared and unshared variance as evidence of scale similarity is that this fails to recognize critical differences in the nature of the scales and how scale scores are derived. The MBTI converts discrete, categorical responses into "continuous scores" for statistical ease, whereas the NEO-PI scores were *created* as continuous scores (p. 8).

The question of whether or not, in any case, Neuroticism has an impact on the effective use of one's type is central to this discussion as this would represent the practical and theoretical value of combining Neuroticism with the Myers-Briggs beyond merely 'completing' the model so that it corresponds more closely to the

FFM. McCrae & Costa (1989) explored relationships between the MBTI Form G

(type related items only – no Comfort scales) and the NEO-PI using a sample of 468.

They found correlations between NEO-PI Neuroticism and MBTI Introversion and

Feeling, similar to the findings of Furnham (1996). However, what is interesting

about this study is that for 105 of the subjects, they included peer ratings of the NEO-

PI. The data showed correlations between the peer rated NEO-PI scales and the

corresponding MBTI preferences, however there was no observed correlation between

MBTI preferences and NEO-PI Neuroticism. Not only does this indicate that no

particular MBTI preference is regarded as showing more Neuroticism than any other,

but it may be suggesting that aspects of Neuroticism may not be observable to third

parties and, therefore, may not have an influence on perceptions of effective type use.

Although Myers et al. (1995) acknowledge that correlations between trait

Neuroticism and some of the Comfort scales have been found, they state that these

scales should not be interpreted in the same way as trait Neuroticism. They point out

that Myers originally began research on the Comfort scales to identify patterns that

were potential enhancers or inhibitors of type use. They emphasise that, 'She did not

aim to identify a "fifth dimension of personality' that, added to the four typological

dimensions, would be the minimum number of dimensions needed to describe people"

(p. 5), and that her goal was to provide insight into why some people express their

types effectively whilst others of the same type are 'ineffectual or maladaptive in their

typological behaviour'. They also point out that the Comfort Scales are designed to

be used in the context of the individual's type, rather than an additional measure that

will indicate a positive, negative or typical characteristic. Although they recognise

that the Comfort scales indicate both negative and positive potential, some 'negative'

aspects of the Comfort scales may be beneficial to certain types and detrimental to

others. They also note that, from anecdotal evidence, scores on the Comfort scales can be reflective of temporary states rather than stable characteristics.

With regard to the statistical evidence for a relationship with Neuroticism, they note that although the correlation of .65 (Johnson, 1995) indicates that the shared variance between trait Neuroticism and some of the Comfort scales (Conscious Strain) is 42%, this leaves 58% of the variance unaccounted for. It should be noted that the inclusion of the Unconscious Strain subscales in this analysis would have reduced this effect further as they have been found to be largely independent of Neuroticism and potentially more akin to Psychoticism using the Eysenck model.

Very recently (2009) Myers' work on the Sufficiency scales was completed by a team of type researchers who have produced the MBTI Step III® questionnaire (Myers, NcCaulley, Quenk, Hammer & Mitchell, 2009). The questionnaire aims to explore an individual's type development and used the original Sufficiency scale items from form F (as opposed to the factor analysed subscales from the Form J/TDI). The questionnaire items have been clustered to measure three broad scales – 'Confidence', 'Stamina', and 'Compensatory Strain'. Confidence reflects "how adequate one feels in the face of the external and internal difficulties perceived" (p. 22, Myers et al., 2009), and has subscales of Shyness, Worry, Dependence, Evidence of Failure, and Indecisiveness. Stamina measures resilience -"the tendency to go to pieces under pressure" (p. 23, 2009); and Compensatory Strain reflects unconscious defences – "unconsciously motivated acts or attitudes that contribute nothing to the solution of the underlying difficulty giving rise to them, but merely ease the discomfort of it" (p. 23, 2009). Compensatory Strain has subscales of Resistance, Defensiveness, Stubbornness and Cynicism. Although all three scales have been found to correlate with each other statistically, from the face validity of the scale

descriptions it would appear that Confidence and Stamina are related to

Neuroticism/Emotional Stability, whilst Compensatory Strain appears to be related to

ego defence. Myers et al. (2009) note that a person with low Confidence can be a

problem to himself, where as a person with high Compensatory Strain is a problem to

other people. They add that individuals with high Compensatory Strain are often

unaware of their underlying sense of insecurity. This may account for the inter-scale

correlation.

It would appear that, even if Neuroticism can be related to effective/ineffective

use of psychological type, other influences may also be present. Thus far, there are

indications of influences from unconscious ego defences and aspects of Psychoticism.

Looking again at the different traits of Psychoticism - Egocentricity, Impulsivity, and

Lack of Empathy in particular – and the potential influence of unconscious ego

defence, this could be indicative of level of Ego Development being an influence on

how effectively one expresses their psychological type.

Psychological Type and Ego Development

In addition to the 'missing' element of Neuroticism discussed above, another noted

limitation of the current Myers-Briggs theory is its lack of a 'vertical' dimension.

Cook-Greuter (2004) describes personal development as being both horizontal and

vertical; horizontal development is the acquiring of new learning, new skills and new

knowledge, whilst vertical development (also known as Ego Development) is

concerned with changing how we see the world, being able to expand our cognitive

capability for making meaning of the world, and taking a broader perspective. She

comments that being aware of one's personality type is 'horizontal' development as it

is acquiring new information and knowledge, however using this information for

development of self-understanding, understanding others, and expanding one's

perspective would be 'vertical' development. She notes that, in terms of

psychological type, some individuals are able to read others' styles and respond

appropriately and skilfully, and that this can be explained in terms of their level of

emotional intelligence – a concept closely related to the vertical developmental levels.

She adds that, in her view, the Ego Developmental stage that an individual is capable

of operating at is as, if not more, important as their personality type.

In order to consider the applicability of Ego Development theory in terms of

its potential influence on effective type use, it is first necessary to describe the stages

of Ego Development. Most stage/level models of Ego Development are based on the

work of Loevinger (1976).

Loevinger's Model of Ego Development

Loevinger (1976) suggested that Ego Development takes place in a sequence of stages

across the lifespan. In her model, the first stage of development is the Presocial (or

Autistic) stage during which the infant cannot distinguish between animate and

inanimate aspects of its environment. This is followed fairly quickly by the

Symbiotic stage, characterised by the child being able to distinguish its mother from

the environment, but not itself from the mother. It is following these two early stages

that Loevinger believes that Ego Development begins. It starts with the stage that she

refers to as the Impulsive stage during which the child is aware of their separate

existence and exercises their own will. It is at this stage that the child sees others as

sources of supply to be exploited.

The stages that follow the Impulsive stage are those that adults, who are

capable of later stages of development, may find themselves reverting to under certain

circumstances, or they may have their development halted at one of these stages. Loevinger's Opportunistic stage, usually seen in very young children, is characterised by the need to 'win' and maintain control. Individuals at this stage are manipulative and concerned with getting the better of people. They will obey rules, but only because they do not want to get caught, indicating a poor level of moral development. The next stage is the Conformist stage, where individuals will relate well to certain groups and follow the norms and rules of those groups, however they will show a lack of understanding of and prejudice towards other groups. This is a stage often seen in older children and teenagers. If development continues, the individual will progress to the Conscientious stage where they are less concerned with trying to get acceptance from groups and fit into norms, and more concerned with achievement, morals and ideals. According to Loevinger, few people move into the next stages which she calls Autonomous and Integrated. The Autonomous stage is characterised by inner conflict caused by the different opinions and views the individual can hold as they no longer see the world in terms of absolutes. Their awareness of the 'shades of grey' and multiple perspectives can make them question their own viewpoint. They are focused on individuality and self-fulfilment. The Integrated stage is the final stage in Loevinger's model and this is where the individual has the ability to resolve the conflicts experienced in the previous stage and have a sense of identity that is integrated.

Loevinger considered Ego Development to be distinct series of qualitative categories or stages, rather than a linear trait. Her 'Milestones of Ego Development' model is shown below in Table 1.

Table 1: *Loevinger's Milestones of Ego Development (1966)*

Stage	Impulse Control & Character Dev't	Interpersonal Style	Conscious Preoccupation
Impulse ridden	Impulse ridden, fear of retaliation	Exploitative, dependent	Bodily feelings, especially sexual and aggressive
Opportunistic	Expedient, fear of being caught	Exploitative, manipulative, zero-sum game	Advantage, control
Conformist	Conformity to external rules, shame	Reciprocal, superficial	Things, appearance, reputation
Conscientious	Internalized rules, guilt	Intensive, responsible	Differentiated inner feelings, achievements, traits
Autonomous	Coping with inner conflict, toleration of differences	Intensive, concern for autonomy	Ditto, role conceptualisation, development self-fulfilment
Integrated	Reconciling inner conflicts, renunciation of unattainable	Ditto, cherishing of individuality	Ditto, identity

Loevinger (1970) developed the Sentence Completion Test (SCT) to assess leadership development level. The SCT is a projective test in which the individual is presented with the beginning of a sentence and they are required to complete it. There is a scoring protocol and usually a check for inter-rater reliability, however it is still subject to some variation between raters.

Loevinger's theory of Ego Development has been adapted by several others (e.g., Kegan 1982; Wilber 2000; Cook-Greuter 2004; Torbert 2004; Eigel & Kuhnert 2005; Joiner & Josephs 2007) for application to the adult developmental process and to leadership development theories. Their versions of the developmental stages are fairly similar in nature; it is mainly the names given to each of the stages and the number of stages in each theory that differ (see Appendix 3). This levelled model of

personal development is often referred to as a 'Vertical' approach to development (Cook-Greuter 2002; Wilber 2000).

Cook-Greuter's (2002) adaptation of Loevinger's model is likely to be more applicable to the exploration of the influence of Ego Development level of psychological type as she describes each level in terms of changes in behaviour, affect and cognition. Additionally, she clusters the developmental levels into broader categories of 'Pre Conventional', incorporating the Impulsive and Self-defensive levels, 'Conventional', incorporating the Conformist, Self-conscious and Conscientious levels, and 'Post Conventional', incorporating the Individualist, Autonomous and Construct-Aware Levels.

Cook-Greuter's Model of Ego Development

Cook-Greuter's (2002) descriptions of the ego levels are summarised below:

Impulsive Level: People at this stage only see the world in terms of crude dichotomies with no options or shades of grey. They see others as sources of supply or gratification for themselves and they are ruled by basic impulses. Operation at this level is usually only seen in very dysfunctional adults or where there are actual developmental problems.

Self-Defensive Level: At the Self-Defensive level of development individuals can only see the world from the perspective of their own needs. They are incapable of psychological insight into themselves or others. Their motivation is self protection; they need to win and see everything as a war of wills. They are often manipulative and exploitative towards others and have a strong need to be in control. They look to blame others for any problems they encounter, and this will occur fairly often as they frequently have problems, particularly with interpersonal relationships. As they

accept no responsibility and have no insight into themselves, they have no sense of remorse. Individuals at this level are likely to show a false outward persona to mask their anxiety, lack of real self-confidence and vulnerability. They will have an underlying fear that others will be trying to control or dominate them. The positive aspects of this style are that they can be tenacious sales people or willing to take physical risks, however in general they are ineffective in the workplace. The most common defence mechanisms used at this level are fantasy, acting out and projection. People at this level use simple language and often describe things in dichotomies (e.g., good/bad, right/wrong, fun/boring).

Conformist Level: For individuals at this level their identity is defined by their relationship to the groups they belong to and their adherence to the norms or customs of those groups. Others who are not part of the group or who do not fit the norms are rejected and criticised, thus there is an 'in-group – out-group' dynamic. Conformists will adapt in order to be accepted and not rock the boat. The norms or the rules will be accepted without question and they will base their judgements of others on superficial information such as their appearance, their car, their status etc. They can become materialistic and use symbols (e.g., clothes, cars, music) to illustrate their identity and their aspirations may revolve around obtaining the material possessions that are owned by others who they admire. They are sensitive to the opinions and evaluations of others as being accepted is so important, and shame is the dominant feeling they experience if something goes wrong for them. They have little or no real understanding of those who are different to themselves. On a positive note they are often people pleasing, helpful and conflict avoidant. The defences used most often by Conformists are projection (think that others all think like they do) and introjection (accepting other's norms and rules). They will also use suppression to push aside any

feelings or needs that do not fit the norms. In communication they tend to give others advice; however they evaluate others according to their own preferences or norms. They will use 'shoulds' and 'oughts' frequently, and they also tend to use a lot of clichés and set phrases.

Self-Conscious Level: At this level, individuals become capable of self-reflection and they have the ability to step back and see themselves fairly objectively. The individual at this level will start to express their own opinions and views and take their own direction, no longer needing to fit in like they did at the Conformist level. As they now focus on what they, as an individual, believe to be right, they may criticise others' opinions and views and discredit anything that does not fit their viewpoint. Feeling as if they now know the 'right answers', individuals at this level will enjoy getting into debates with others or imposing their opinions on others. They can also display perfectionistic tendencies or high standards at this level. The positive aspects of the Self-Conscious level include perfecting procedures, looking for better ways to do things and seeing alternative solutions. In their work they are likely to enjoy changing or initiating things. The main defences used at this level are intellectualisation and rationalisation.

Conscientious Level: Individuals at the Conscientious level have the ability to be part of different groups or associate with people who are different to them without feeling torn or confused. They become interested in what makes other people tick and are also capable of accepting feedback about them selves and of self awareness. It is at this stage that individuals can be truly introspective and concerned with whether they live up to their beliefs; this can lead to severe self criticism. Individuals at this level often have a future focus, whilst also being able to consider the past. They are concerned with actions that have benefit to others, however they believe that there are

answers to everything and take a scientific view of the world. They will have an understanding of individual differences and may even seek out the views of others who may have alternative opinions, however these views will only be accepted if they do not encroach on the individual's fundamental beliefs. Rather than shun or belittle others, people at the Conscientious level will use their skills of persuasion and logic to influence others. They often have a need to accomplish something meaningful and can become preoccupied with getting things done and taking responsibility. Unfortunately this means that they are not focused on the present moment and, in addition, they can become over worked. The defences most often employed at this level are intellectualisation, rationalisation and suppression of negative aspects.

Individualist Level: Individualists become aware that reality is actually subject to perception; that is, people interpret the world according to their own beliefs, preferences, frameworks and perceptions. Thus the scientific approach of the Conscientious level is no longer valid, and the Individualist takes a more holistic and fluid approach to seeing the world. Individualists become very psychologically minded and enjoy observing their own process; process becomes more interesting to them than the results. They are also more oriented to the present than those at the previous stages, as well as being able to take a past and a future perspective. Individualists can be more aware of their physical feelings and develop more of a body-mind connection. They no longer have the need to try to explain everything and realise that the truth can never be found; paradoxes and contradictions can be intriguing. They can become concerned with the wish to accomplish something personally, independent of any socially approved task. Individualists do not merely pay lip service to understanding and appreciating the views of others who are different to themselves, they really do appreciate different viewpoints and will search

for different viewpoints within themselves too. The downsides of the Individualist

style is that they can be so concerned with allowing everybody to air their views etc,

that they can be frustratingly slow to make decisions. For the Individualists

themselves, a downside of their level is the sense of internal confusion and conflict

that can result from attempting to hold various viewpoints and from knowing that

there may be no truths; as well as shades of grey there is the entire spectrum to deal

with.

Autonomous Level: At the Autonomous level, the confusion and conflict experienced

by the Individualist is resolved as the individual is able to take a systems view of the

world. They have the ability to perceive patterns and trends and synthesise, and they

have an understanding of complex interconnected systems. Individuals at this level

have a well integrated sense of identity, including the integration of sub personalities

and an acknowledgement of the shadow. They are actively concerned with self-

actualisation and appreciate the learning they can get from interacting with others. It

is at this stage that true authenticity can be obtained. Although individuals at the

Autonomous level will experience paradoxes and contradictions, they will accept

these as part of life rather than getting frustrated by them. They may get angry about

injustices and other issues of importance to them, however they will not seek to blame

others or punish. Their defences are used maturely and often include suppression,

altruism and humour.

Construct-Aware Level: Individuals at this level have an awareness of the ego and its

methods of self-preservation. The realisation of this permits them to see how

constraining the ego can be to self realisation. As well as understanding that the

absolute truth can never be found, individuals at the Construct-Aware level will also

see thought and cognition as illusive and constructed. They no longer see opposites

(e.g., good/evil, life/death, etc.) but view these constructs as necessary to define each other, or as 'two sides of the same coin'. Individuals at this level become true, dis-identified observers of their processes, and they are also likely to have transpersonal 'peak experiences'. Their view of the world is across all time frames, plus they have vision prior to and beyond their own lives. They make use of mature defences such as sublimation and non-hostile humour. The risk at this stage is falling victim to hubris – feeling superior to others.

Cook-Greuter (2002) also included an even higher level of development, the 'Unitive Level', in her model. This is the level of enlightenment experienced by very few people. They have the ability to perceive the concrete and limited quality of objects simultaneously with the object's eternal and symbolic meaning.

Development through Ego Levels

According to Cook-Greuter's theory, in adults, development progresses through the stages in sequence and, although an individual may get the occasional sense of the higher levels, they will habitually view the world from the level that they have reached developmentally. The levels of development that are below the one that the individual has reached will still come in to play when the individual is under pressure, being defensive, feeling threatened, lacking energy, etc., or, in fact, when they are with people that they feel extremely at ease with. Individuals capable of operating at higher levels may also revert to the styles of the lower levels when certain situations require it, however this will be done with consciousness and deliberation. Therefore, the level that one can be operating from at any given moment is not always fixed at their most advanced level of development and will fluctuate according to their circumstances. However, the theory states that the limit of one's functioning is set by

the level they have reached, i.e., somebody who has not developed beyond the Self-Conscious level may get some brief flashes of the Conscientious viewpoint, but will not be able to operate from this perspective.

Development from one level to the next comes from being able to move from the subjective nature of each level to the objective; that is to say that when one is at a certain level it is subjective in that they are identified with it and may find it difficult to dis-identify and look at their attitudes and behaviours objectively. Once they have moved out of a given level, they have the ability to reflect on it from their new perspective and see it objectively. Transition between the levels occurs when the truth or logic that an individual is operating from at a given level begins to fall apart or become questionable. Therefore, before developing into the next level, the individual may go through a period of fluctuation or confusion as the logic of their current level fails and they begin to see the viewpoint of the next level. On moving to the next level of development, there is a period of instability while the individual attempts to fully understand their new perspective. These transitions can occur with age, as more complex situations and relationships become part of life, or as a result of difficult experiences, or as a result of structured personal development (e.g., coaching or therapy).

Cook-Greuter (2002) provides a summary of various studies by herself and Torbert regarding the distribution of the developmental level in the general adult population (see Appendix 4). Developmental level was assessed using the Leadership Development Profile (LDP) which is a sentence completion survey tool based on Loevinger's SCT and developed by Cook-Greuter, Dal Fisher, David Rooke and Bill Torbert (in Torbert, 2004) for Harthill Consulting. From this data it would seem that

the Self-Conscious level of development is where most people operate, followed by the Conscientious level.

Cook-Greuter notes that the difference in the UK distribution compared to the US distribution is thought to be a result of the sample being volunteers for the study, and that those who are at higher levels are more likely to volunteer for such research: "Active interest in developmental measures and theory is in and of itself an indication of Conscientious or later development" (S. Cook-Greuter, personal communication, Dec 2009).

Ego Development and Type Development

Looking back at Jung's theory of type development and the concepts of 'differentiation' and 'individuation', connections can be clearly seen with the development of ego as described by Loevinger and Cook-Greuter. Cook-Greuter (2002) describes the pre-conventional and conventional stages of Ego Development as stages of 'differentiation' in that there is " ... a movement away from the symbiotic embeddedness of the newborn" (p. 4). During these stages the individual is gaining an increased sense of identity, the recognition of how they differ from others, the ability to direct their actions more consciously and less impulsively, and, generally, a trend towards using the more positive and constructive aspects of their personalities rather than the negative aspects. This is how the changes in psychological type may be manifested as an individual is developing through differentiation as described by Jung. Cook-Greuter described the development thorough the post-conventional stages as 'integration', which is similar to Jung's concept of individuation. The individual becomes aware of their negative aspects, is willing to go beyond their egoic comfort zone and be flexible in their actions, can truly appreciate the differences they see in

others, and can monitor their actions with increasing levels of mindfulness. Typologically, this is similar to acknowledging one's shadow, accessing non-preferred functions, and reducing the amount of tension within the psyche. Therefore, from a theoretical developmental perspective, a connection between Jung's theory of development and Ego Development theory is suggested.

Ego Development and the Myers-Briggs

As previously mentioned, Cook-Greuter (2004) notes that the absence of a vertical dimension is a significant limitation of the Myers-Briggs. In Cook-Greuter's work, she notes that the current Myers-Briggs model comes under the heading of 'Different, but equal' in that all types are equally valid and what matters is the fit between an individual's style and the context in which they are operating. She suggests that,"

....another way people differ from each other, the developmental stage, is as important and sometimes more so than how they differ in personality type and preferences" (2004, p. 276). Wilber (2000) agrees with this view, stating that that if a typology can be combined with each of the developmental levels "you can start to see what a truly multidimensional psychology might look like!" (p. 54).

Joiner and Josephs (2007) comment that those who are familiar with typologies such as the Myers-Briggs may see certain type characteristics as being connected to certain developmental levels. Indeed, when one first reads the generic descriptions of the levels, one might see the Self-Defensive level having some connection to a poorly functioning SP temperament; focused on action in the present with no concern for consequences; the Conformist level having some of the qualities of the SJ temperament; wanting to belong, conform, be harmonious; the scientific nature of the Conscientious level having some qualities of the NT temperament, and

the Individualist showing the inspirational and collaborative aspects of the NF

temperament. However, Joiner & Josephs go on to say that from their research they

have found that level of Ego Development and personality type are completely

unrelated, and that every personality type can be found at every level. Wilber (2000)

also believes that each type can exist at each of the major levels of development.

Darnell, Hammer & Young-Eisendrath (1985) compared scores on the MBTI

of 89 males with their scores on the SCT and found that higher MBTI preference

scores were not associated with higher levels of Ego Development. The only

significant correlation observed was between Intuition and Ego Development level.

This finding will be discussed later in the light of results from other studies.

Ego Development and Personality

Unfortunately, there has been very little other research looking at the MBTI and Ego

Development. Most of the studies exploring the relationship between personality and

Ego Development have used the five factor model or other trait measures. McCrae

and Costa (1993) note that, in Loevinger's opinion, Ego Development "is the master

trait which organizes and integrates all others" (p. 22). In an early study using the

Extraversion and Neuroticism scales of the Eysenck Personality Inventory (N=240

males), McCrae and Costa (1980) found no relationship between SCT scores (i.e.,Ego

Development level) and either Neuroticism or Extraversion. However they did find a

small yet significant relationship between Ego Development level and Openness as

measured by factors M and Q1 of the 16PF (Cattell, 1973) and by the Experience

Inventory (Costa & McCrae, 1978). Kurtz and Tiegreen (2005) compared the scores

of 120 university students on the SCT with their scores on the NEO-PI and found

significant correlations between Openness to Experience and ego level, and between

Agreeableness and ego level, but no correlation between Neuroticism and ego level.

In a further study, McCrae and Costa (1983) exploring whether happiness or well-being is related to ego level, they found that there was no linear relationship between Neuroticism and Happiness with ego level. They conclude that Neuroticism can operate equally at all levels of Ego Development.

Westenberg and Block (1993) explored the relationship between ego level and a range of personality characteristics in a sample of 98-104 subjects that they had gathered data from at age 14 and age 23. They administered the SCT, the California Adult Q-Set (CAQ) (Block, 1978), (and the Wechsler Intelligence Scale (WAIS) to control for verbal fluency). With the help of Loevinger and Cohn, they mapped constructs from the CAQ against the Ego Development levels and derived likely scoring patterns between the constructs and each ego level as few constructs were thought to have a clear linear relationship. Although the actual scores predicted varied somewhat from the scores obtained, the patterns of the relationships were as predicted. Variables found to be associated with Ego Development were Ego Resliency, Interpersonal Integrity, Conformity, and Need Regulation, each of which had several subscales. Self Ease – a measure of subjective well being and comfort with oneself – was not found to be related to Ego Development. Westenberg and Block state that this confirms the findings of McCrae and Costa (1983) regarding a lack of relationship between happiness and Ego Development, and confirms Loevinger's belief that none of the levels of Ego Development can safeguard against feelings of inadequacy or negative thoughts, and that Neuroticism and psychopathology can exist at any stage of Ego Development. Lorr & Manning (1978) compared the SCT with the Interpersonal Style Inventory (Lorr & Youniss, 1973) and found that aspects of Ego Development were related to Nurturance,

Conscientiousness, Trust, Tolerance, Interpersonal Sensitivity and Psychological

Mindedness. The authors of both these studies conclude that some aspects of Ego

Development are related to individual differences in personality.

In summary, the research suggests that any psychological type can exist at any

level of Ego Development, Ego Development has been found to be distinct from

Neuroticism, yet have some relationship with Openness, and that some aspects of Ego

Development can be related to personality variables, although the relationships are not

always linear. It is also worth noting that Ego Development has been found to be

unrelated to Intelligence (e.g., Newman, Tellegen and Bouchard, 1998). The

observed relationship between Ego Development with Openness, and, from the

Darnell et al. (1995) study, the relationship with Intuition on the MBTI, need to be

interpreted with caution. An aspect of higher Ego Development is a tolerance of

ambiguity, the willingness to try new things and accept potential failure, and an

awareness of the connectivity between different things (systems view). These are also

characteristics found in both Openness and Intuition, however it does not imply that

individuals with a preference for Intuition or high trait Openness have higher levels of

Ego Development. It may be the case that they find it easier to develop these aspects

of Ego Development, however there are a range of other perspectives (e.g.,

interpersonal sensitivity, self monitoring, mindfulness, tolerance, presence, etc.) that

Intuition and Openness will not have a bearing on. Likewise, one could say that

individuals with Sensing preferences may find the 'presence' and 'reality testing'

aspects of Ego Development come to them easier, or that people with Feeling

preferences may develop the interpersonal aspects with more ease. Nevertheless, at

low levels of Ego Development, all of these preferences are likely to be

undifferentiated and, therefore, expressed somewhat maladaptively.

With regard to Ego Development and the trait approach, Costa and McCrae (1993) stated that "Its emphases on personality development, on the individual expression of traits, and on the internal structure of traits point to new questions that traditional factor models have typically ignored" (p. 22). They go on to add that Ego Development theory should not be seen as an alternative to trait theory, but that it should be "an elaboration of our basic knowledge about individual differences" (p. 22). Loevinger (1994) agrees with this perspective:

> They [Costa & McCrae] say, and so do others, that stage theories and factorial theories of personality are not in opposition; they are complementary approaches. I agree. I have always presented Ego Development as one among several lines of development, never as the sum total of personality (p. 6).

Ego Development appears to be theoretically connected to the path of type development (differentiation and individuation) set out by Jung, and numerous studies show that Ego Development level predicts performance, particularly in leadership, (e.g., Harris & Kuhnert, 2007), more than personality variables do (e.g., Strang & Kuhnert, 2009). So can the type approach also be complemented by the Ego Development model? Would Ego Development combined with psychological type provide an indication of effective use of type? Does Neuroticism have an influence on this?

The Present Study

The literature review above suggests that there may be a dimension, or possibly several dimensions, missing from the current popular model of the Myers-Briggs. Myers, herself, was considering ways to add to the current type model by finding ways to explore type development and effective type use, while McCrae & Costa (1989) believe that the absence of a Neuroticism measure not only makes type theory

incomplete, but leaves out important information about an individual. Scoular and Campbell (2007) have observed that coaches have been using additional tools and models to supplement typological information, and, although Jung believed that people can only develop if they are made aware of their shadow sides, the Myers-Briggs model makes a point about focusing on the positives. Theoretically, it would appear that Ego Development models may provide some of this missing information, however, the research that Myers was conducting contained clear 'Neuroticism-like' elements.

From the above literature review, the research questions to be explored in this study are:

- From the perspective of type practitioners, is there a missing dimension in the current Myers-Briggs theory?

- If so, to what does it relate? (a) Neuroticism, (b) Ego Development, or (c) a combination of the two?

- And what are the implications of this for Myers-Briggs practitioners?

The following 4 research studies aim to explore these broad research questions. Study One describes a focus group interview with experienced Myers-Briggs practitioners to provide a preliminary and broad exploration of all three research questions. Study Two explores whether Myers-Briggs practitioners perceive a gap between the current and desired applications of the Myers-Briggs model for developmental applications, and what this gap may involve. Study Three uses the repertory grid approach (Kelly, 1955) to obtain definitions of 'effective' and

'ineffective' type use, and Study Four explores the impact of Neuroticism and Ego

Development on perceptions of effective and ineffective type use.

Study One: Focus Group Interview Exploring the Use of Psychological Type in Practice

Study One: Introduction

As an initial exploration of some of the issues raised by the literature review, and to inform the design of the empirical research, a focus group interview with experienced Myers-Briggs practitioners was carried out to explore, in broad terms, their use and perceptions of the Myers-Briggs in coaching practice.

As noted earlier, the Myers-Briggs version of Jung's theory of psychological type has been greatly simplified and has a strong focus on the positive aspects of type. Despite the fact that Myers, herself, was looking to add to the existing Myers-Briggs model, and there is a suggestion that coaches, in particular, are supplementing the Myers-Briggs with additional tools and models, the MBTI is still the most popular psychometric used for development in organisations.   Michael (2003) notes that, "As executive coaching has become ever more popular in organizations today, the use of the MBTI as a leadership development tool has increased even more" (p. 68). This is supported by the recent survey by McDowall & Smewing (2009) who found that the MBTI was the most used psychometric in coaching.

So how do Myers-Briggs practitioners use the MBTI in practice, and particularly in coaching? Are they aware of any limitations of the Myers-Briggs, and if so, what do they believe the current model is lacking?

Study One: Method

Participants

A group of eight qualified MBTI practitioners were invited to take part in a focused group interview to discuss their use of MBTI in development and coaching. Six of the group members were also qualifying trainers in MBTI and of these six, five were Chartered Occupational Psychologists. These same six individuals were also all trained in Gestalt coaching and were users of a range of other psychometrics. The seventh member had used type extensively in coaching and team building but did not use any other psychometrics. The eighth member of the group was a therapist and often used the Myers-Briggs and emotional intelligence psychometrics as part of therapeutic interventions. Therefore, the group were made up of individuals with a considerably good knowledge of the Myers-Briggs and its practical and ethical applications. The average time since qualifying as a MBTI practitioner was 8 years. There were 3 males and 5 females in the group.

Procedure

A semi-structured interview was designed with three broad questions aimed at exploring the ways in which type is used in practice and any perceived limitations in the use of type. Question 1: 'How and when do you use the Myers-Briggs, particularly in coaching?'; 'Question 2: 'What issues, if any, do you encounter when using the Myers-Briggs?'; Question 3: 'Do you believe that there is anything missing from the Myers-Briggs theory and/or resources?'. The questions were put to the group one at a time and open discussion was encouraged. Probing and follow up questions were used as appropriate, as probes can be a crucial aspect of interviewing (Robson, 1993). As this was an open exploration of the issues and not a test of any

particular hypothesis, care was taken not to influence responses via the questioning or probing, however sometimes probes were used to ensure that topics relevant to the research questions were covered if they had not naturally emerged during the interview. The group discussion was recorded and notes were captured on a flip chart.

Following the group interview, the group were tasked with generating a list of developmental insights that the Myers-Briggs could address, and a list of those that it did not address but that would be useful or desirable.

Analysis

The interview was transcribed (Appendix 5) and analysed using a Template Analysis approach (e.g., King, in Symon & Cassell, 1998). The template analysis approach was deemed appropriate as it offers a high level of flexibility and, therefore, avoids some of the limitations in analysis that can result from methods with greater a-priori structure, such as grounded theory; however it is still necessary to be mindful of maintaining a balance between being open to the data whilst having some degree of structure and process (King, 1998). Additionally, this approach enables the researcher to be open to themes and topics that are elicited by the interview that were not initially considered to be issues relating to the research questions. Using this technique, an initial template of themes and issues is created to provide some guide for analysis, and this is added to and developed during the analytic process until a final version of the template is derived. King suggests that templates should be designed collaboratively, with 2 or more researchers involved, to force the researcher to justify the inclusion of each code, and to clearly define how it should be used. However in this case only one

researcher was involved, so a literature based approach was adopted to ensure objectivity.

The initial template (see Figure 2) was derived from the research questions and the issues raised in the literature. The three high order codes (1-3) were based on the three broad questions that were asked of the group. The lower order codes are based on information from the existing literature (the sources are indicated) or are aimed at further clarifying the higher order codes.

Initial Template

1. The Use of Myers-Briggs used in coaching

      a. Frequency (Michael, 2003; McDowell & Smewing 2009)

      b. When (timing) Myers-Briggs is used in coaching

      c. Why Myers-Briggs is used in coaching

2. Issues encountered when using the Myers-Briggs in coaching

      a. Positivity (e.g., McCrae & Costa, 1989)

      b. Over simplified (e.g., Spoto, 1995)

3. What may be missing from the existing Myers- Briggs theory and resources

      a. The use of supplementary psychometrics (Scoular & Campbell, 2007)

      b. Neuroticism (e.g., McCrae & Costa 1985)

      c. Ego Development (e.g., Cook-Greuter 2004)

      d. Effective type use (e.g., Myers, McCaulley, Quenk, Hammer & Mitchell, 2009)

Figure 2: Initial Template for Interview Analysis

During the analysis, many issues were raised by the group that had not been included in the initial template or derived from the literature review. These were added to the initial template and a final template was developed (see Figure 3). Ego Development (3.c) per se was not brought up during the interview and was, therefore, excluded from the final version of the template. In discussing the issues that practitioners had encountered using the Myers Briggs in coaching (2), the issue of dealing with dysfunctional or problem behaviours was not forthcoming, so a prompting question about this was asked –

> "...think of situations where the client has big problems, like glaring obvious ones, or they're always getting into fights or something, or their 360 feedback says they are unpleasant in some way, and you do their MBTI with them, and you might point out that, yes, you are a an ENTJ so watch out for the details and watch out for the people stuff, yet you're thinking 'but it's actually because you're an ENTJ that you are causing this problem'.... How do you deal with those sorts of things, because the books say that ENTJs are wonderful, but watch out for details and watch out for people. So how do you deal with the 'not so good' bits? ". (49)

Likewise, in the discussion regarding what may be missing from the current Myers-Briggs theory, the issue of using supplementary psychometrics was not forthcoming, so, again, a prompt question about this was asked –

> " ... is there anything that you think is actually missing from the theory, not the questionnaire, but the theory, that would make it easier to use or have wider applications?". (90)

Final Template

1. The Use of Myers-Briggs in coaching

    a. Frequency

    b. When (timing) Myers-Briggs is used in coaching

        i. When a type related issue is identified

        ii. They happen to know the MBTI and refer to it

        iii. It forms part of a program that includes the coaching

    c. Why Myers-Briggs is used in coaching

        i. Contracting with clients

            1. Client expectations from psychologists

        ii. Applicable to many situations

        iii. To address a type related issue

        iv. Coachee requests it

    d. How it is used

        i. Implicit use

            1. To hypothesise about a third party

            2. Within a wider framework

        ii. Explicit use

            1. To make theoretical knowledge of MBTI transferable to work place

            2. To help a client understand how they are viewing a problem

            3. To create a common language

        iii. How practitioners use it for development

            1. Developing the non-preferred functions

            2. Practitioners unaware of the potential dysfunctional behaviours from preferred styles (ego shadow)

3. Practitioners are aware of the potential dysfunctional behaviours from preferred styles (ego shadow)

2. Issues encountered when using the Myers-Briggs in coaching

a. Positivity

b. Over simplified

    i. Coachee only has basic understanding

    ii. Non-psychologists may use it in a more simplified way

    iii. Clients may not understand how it can be used by psychologists

c. Client over-identifies with their type

    i. Rigidity/limiting

    ii. Use it as an excuse

d. Client cannot get to best fit type

    i. They struggle to get there

    ii. They do not want to get to best fit – see it as 'more developed'

e. Client has decided on the 'wrong' type for them

    i. Interventions are often short or one off

    ii. Working with clients over a long time period can help get to best fit

f. Purpose of use of MBTI is unclear

    i. Everybody just does it

g. Addressing dysfunctional behaviours

    i. Explore/address these from the client's frame of typological reference

    ii. Obtaining thematic evidence from a range of sources to enhance credibility

    iii. Use of self/actual experience of the client

    iv. Move away from use of the MBTI

3. What may be missing from the existing Myers- Briggs theory and resources

    a. The use of supplementary psychometrics (Scoular & Campbell, 2007)

        i. Which psychometrics

            1. 16PF

            2. Emotional Intelligence

            3. 360

            4. FIRO-B

            5. Hogan

        ii. Purpose of using other psychometrics

            1. Different view

            2. Deeper level of psychometric than MBTI

            3. To get more depth

            4. To get a common picture/themes/patterns

            5. Single psychometrics do not work well alone

            6. Different aspects are covered by different psychometrics

            7. Can provide a more psychodynamic view- enable exploration of tensions

            8. Can help to explain some of the MBTI theory easier than Myers Briggs (e.g., Grip)

    b. Neuroticism

        i. For fit with big five models of personality

    c. Effective type use

        i. Individual's awareness of how skilful they are in use of type

    d. Social desirability measure

i. Questionnaire is easy to fake

ii. Self assessment is easy to fake

e. Emotional Intelligence

i. Connecting emotional intelligence to a cognitive model

f. Clarity about the relationship between preference and behaviour

Figure 3: Final Template for Interview Analysis

As the final template is fairly lengthy and detailed, a thematic analysis approach (e.g., Braun & Clarke, 2006) was adopted to reduce the data to key themes, and to identify connections between some of the coded template items. Like template analysis, thematic analysis is both flexible and rigorous as a methodology in that it allows the researcher to analyse, interpret and collate the information according to suggested methodologies, whilst allowing unanticipated insights to emerge from the data. Braun & Clarke suggests several methods of searching for themes from coded data, including the use of tables and card sorting techniques, however for this study their suggested 'thematic map' technique was adopted as it provides a visual interpretation of the positioning of the data in relation to the high order codes, and in relation to each other. The initial thematic map (Figure 4) included all of the high order (1, 2, 3), second order (a, b, c, etc.) and third order (i, ii, iii, etc.) coded items from the template. The links between the items are shown by the lines in the diagram. The links were used to identify items that were connected thematically and from this analysis, two main themes were observed, each with sub-themes. These themes are shown in the final thematic map (Figure 5).
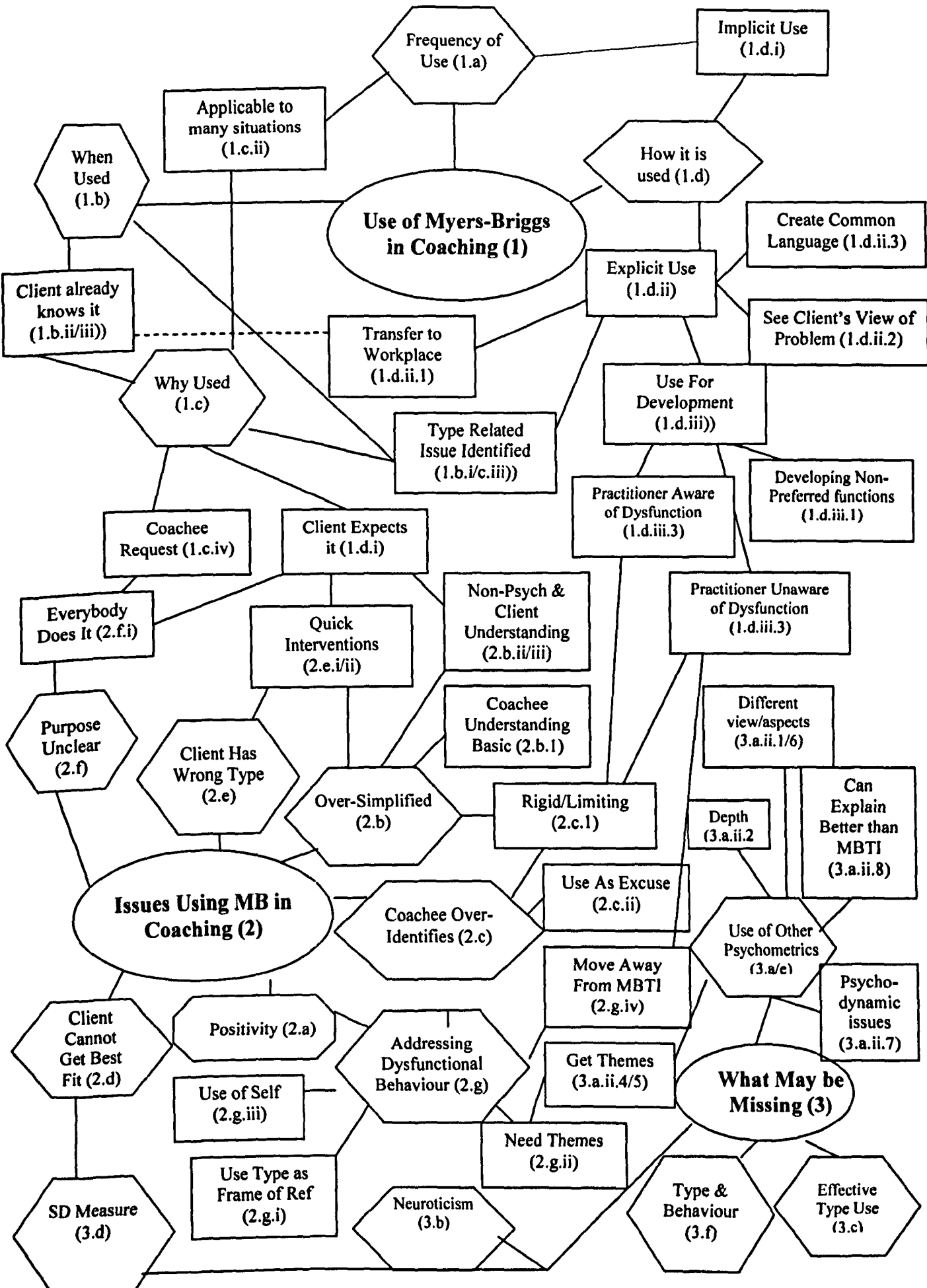
Figure 4: Initial Thematic Map

Frequency of Use of
Myers-Briggs in
Coaching

Applicable to Many
Situations

Popular/Well
Known

Implicit Use =
Always

Explicit Use –
Very Frequently

Simplification of Type
Theory

Purpose

Sponsoring Org/Buyer
Understanding

Time Permitted to
Work With MBTI –
Often One-off or
Short Timescale

Coachee Understanding
of MBTI

Practitioner's Use & Knowledge of
Type Theory is Limited to the
Myers-Briggs Model (i.e.,not Jung's
theory)

Misunderstanding Leads
to Wrong Type or
Inappropriate Use

Myers-Briggs
Emphasises
Positives

MBTI Can be
Falsified – Other
Tools May Provide
More Credibility

No Accounting for
Effective Type Use

Lack of Clarity re
Type & Behaviour

Development Involves
Exploring the Non-
Preferred Styles

Other Psychometrics
Provide More
Depth/Different Views

Figure 5: Final Thematic Map

Study One: Results and Discussion

The thematic analysis identified two main themes from the group interview data (1) the frequency of use of Myers-Briggs in coaching, and (2) the simplification of type theory. Each of these had sub-themes, as can be seen in Figure 4. The interpretation of the thematic analysis is presented in the order of the two main themes with sub-themes, supported by illustrative quotes from the interview transcript as appropriate. Theme 2, and, in particular, the practitioner perspective of theme 2, is more relevant to the research question and is, therefore, discussed in more depth than theme 1.

Theme 1: The Frequency of Use of the Myers-Briggs in Coaching

Regarding the frequency of use of the Myers-Briggs, two different aspects of 'use' were described by the interviewees – explicit use and implicit use.

Explicit Use: Explicit use is the deliberate introduction of the Myers-Briggs into the coaching work, often in response to the emergence of an issue that could be addressed using type. From the discussion, it would seem that many issues could, in fact, be addressed using type, and therefore the Myers-Briggs was explicitly introduced to sessions very frequently. It was stated that "... there aren't many applications that the MBTI isn't suited to ..." (7), followed by the same participant with, "... generally, more often than not, I do" (9). This explicit introduction of the Myers-Briggs may take place with clients who are new to type, but also with those who are already familiar with type and already have it as a frame of reference; this is often due to the fact that the MBTI has been part of a development program with which the coaching is associated. In addition to this, as the Myers-Briggs is fairly well known, clients who have heard about it may ask to use it in their coaching ("... sometimes I've had

situations where people ask to do it ..." (18)), or the sponsoring organisation may expect the coach to use it – "Yes sometimes it can come from the coachee themselves or from the sponsoring organisation. Again, they may have selected you for that situation and be expecting that" (19). This explicit use of the Myers-Briggs may not always be confined to one feedback session, but may actually provide a framework or language that is used in subsequent coaching sessions:

> B: Personally, I try to integrate it. That is to say, have it there all the time as a
> constant reference. Rather than just saying 'we do a feedback session on session
> 2' I have it there in front of us as a lens that we can look through (5).

This is not to say that the Myers-Briggs is always used in coaching, but it's use is frequent and, in accordance with the findings of McDowall & Smewing (2009), it is more likely to be used over other psychometrics: "If we are just talking about coaching, I sometimes do coaching without psychometrics – I often use psychometrics and I may use MBTI – but I would never use the MBTI on it's own (97). (The last part of this comment will be discussed further in relation to theme 2).

Implicit Use: The implicit use of the Myers-Briggs was not considered in the initial template as it had not been found in the existing literature. This implicit use of the Myers-Briggs is described in the following extracts from the interview:

> N: When it hasn't been part of a program then actually during the session I can
> hear all the MBTI stuff coming out. So I will be using it anyway, whether or not
> I have done it with them. So I might be thinking 'that sounds like introverted
> feeling there', or whatever, and then what I tend to do, depending on the client
> and their, um, 'warmth' towards psychometrics, I will then perhaps do a session
> on it. So then they will be aware of it as well. But regardless of whether I do it
> or not I find it's always present for me; I'm always aware of it (10).

> I: So if they are saying certain things to you, you will be bearing in mind 'oh,
>
> that's about their such and such a preference' (11).
>
> N: Yes, but I might not necessarily even know their type, or they might be
>
> talking about someone else– they might be talking about their relationship with
>
> their boss or whoever it might be – and I become aware of certain things (12).
>
> A: Same for me as well, and same as N, but that I am always using it implicitly
>
> ... (18).

This implicit use implies that the Myers-Briggs may always be present in the mind of Myers-Briggs qualified coaches, even if they do not explicitly use it with the client.

Theme 2: The Simplification of Type Theory

Although the simplification of type theory, per se, was not mentioned explicitly by the interviewees, the thematic analysis identified this as the likely root cause of most of the issues that the group voiced in relation to their use of type in coaching. The simplification of Jung's original typology by Myers and Briggs has been a noted criticism in the literature (e.g., Spoto, 1995), as is the positive bias of Myers and Brigg's type descriptions (e.g., McCrae & Costa, 1989). Their version of Jung's type theory does not include the influence of the shadow, the psychic conflicts and ego defences, or explicit information regarding undifferentiated types. Additionally, although Myers was exploring effective use of type in relation to type development, this is not currently part of the popular Myers-Briggs theory.

In relation to this theme, the issues that emerged can be related to the 3 stakeholder groups that are usually involved in coaching work – the sponsoring organisation or buyer of the service, the coachee, and the Myers-Briggs practitioner/Coach.

The Sponsoring Organisation: Coaching contracts are often negotiated with a representative of the sponsoring or purchasing organisation rather than with the client them selves, so the purpose and duration of the coaching is often subject to the influence of a third party who is not actually part of the coaching relationship. Dembkowski, Eldridge and Hunter (2007) describe this as a 'triangular relationship', and note that it "can best be managed when each party involved fully understand their specific roles and responsibilities" (p. 12). However, from the interview data it would appear that the sponsoring organisation may not always have a clear purpose in mind when requesting the use of the Myers-Briggs in coaching, or allow adequate resources to use the Myers-Briggs effectively in some cases. This is illustrated in the following extract:

> Ax: If they've got used to using it in a certain way, that they don't actually consider how it is being used (42).
>
> I: What? They just all do it – like 'everyone who comes to work here gets MBTI'd'? (43).
>
> Ax: Yes. And working with people who think they know so much about MBTI – and they do – but we all have different patterns of using it. Especially non-psychologists - working with non-psychologists. And you're the one psychologist working with non-psychologists and you try to suggest a certain approach, and they think you are difficult and just trying to get work out of them (44).

This suggests that some organisations use the Myers-Briggs as a matter of routine for all employees either without considering their objective purpose, or having lost track of their objective. The second part of the extract suggests that the level of understanding that a client may have, particularly if they do not have a background in psychology, can make it difficult for a psychologist Myers-Briggs practitioner to convince them of the need for other approaches in the use of the Myers-Briggs.

Another key issue that emerged from the discussion was the issue of

inadequate time to work with the Myers-Briggs for some clients:

T: B's comment has just reminded me of something that I don't think is

particularly helpful with the MBTI, when you work with people who are quite

different from their industry. I've been doing a lot of work in construction, and

in particular, female engineers. One person, she reported ESTJ because that's

what the industry wanted and that's what every body around her was, and I

worked with her for 18 months, and half way through that time she realised that

she wasn't ST, she was NF. And she relaxed into that and then absolutely

progressed in her career. You know, she really grew once she accepted her

personality. So it was great in that way, that in over 18 months it enabled her to

become comfortable with her personality, but initially if they were all just doing

it for a short thing, she really did present as what the industry wanted from her

(45).

J: Building on what T said, it can be one of the times when it gets in the way.

Because if the sponsor won't pay for 18 months worth of coaching, there's a

danger that you leave people still taking their first tentative steps on the journey

of type discovery because the client says 'sorry, I'm only paying for 3 sessions',

or 'the coaching contract is only of this finite time duration' (46)

I: Yes, sometimes you know that somebody's not in the right type and you have

to leave them with that.... (47)

J: The client won't pay for the 18 months support coaching, so you have to leave

them, knowing you've left them in the wrong place (48).

These statements suggest that the sponsor organisations' contract with the coach can

sometimes impact the effectiveness with which the Myers-Briggs is used with a

coachee. Whilst many clients will find their best-fit type fairly quickly, for some it is

a process that unfolds over time and by reflecting on experiences with the coach over

a number of sessions. Therefore, the 'triangular relationship' that provides the

context for coaching can create issues for the client, as well as for the coach.

The Coachee: Several examples of the effect of the simplification of the Myers-

Briggs in terms of the client's understanding of it were elicited from the interview.

These issues of simplification seem to influence in two different ways, however; on

the one hand there is the effect of the simplification of type theory as understood by

both the coachee and the coach, and on the other hand there is the level of complexity

of type theory that the client can (or chooses to) understand. The former will be

explored in the 'Coach' section that follows. The latter issue is illustrated by the

following extracts:

> N: I often find that people have a basic understanding, but the issue can be
>
> much more complex – like about the relationship between the inferior function
>
> or whatever it might be – and that's quite difficult to explain if they're at a level
>
> of just basic understanding of the MBTI. To then try and take them to looking
>
> at the unconscious and things, it can be quite difficult (27).

This illustrates that, even though the coach may have a good awareness of the Myers-

Briggs model, it can sometimes be difficult to explain these more complex aspects to

a client. Referring back to the implicit use of the Myers-Briggs, there is an indication

that the coach may be forming hypotheses in relation to type theory, but that they may

then struggle to work with these due to the client's basic level of understanding of

type theory.

Another issue that was raised during the interview was that of a coachee over-

identifying with their type, resulting in the type work becoming a constraint to

development rather than an enabler:

T: Yes, I agree. Sometimes it is unhelpful with clients when they are just looking for an identity and they kind of latch onto it and that's who they are. And they won't move from that no matter what you do or how you work with them. That's them (28).

I: So are you saying that sometimes they can over -with the type that they've got? (29)

T: Yes, no matter how many times you say it's not about putting you in a box, how you can see other people, how you can be flexible, they seem to be really enjoying being their type (30).

I: So sometimes it can make them, not worse but.... (31).

T: Rigid (32).

I: Trap themselves? (33)

T: Yes, trap themselves (34).

J: Yes, sometimes they will use it to almost legitimise why they shouldn't change ... (35)

These extracts suggest that, although the coach may be trying to make the coachee understand type theory, the coachee will either selectively attend to certain aspects and disregard other information, or may not be capable of understanding the theoretical underpinning of type theory. Another issue highlighted during the interview that was related to the level of understanding that the client was capable of / selectively attended to was related to their understanding of being effective or well developed. The following extract describes this issue:

J: Some of the clients that I've worked with, there's a bit of an ego thing going on, and they consider themselves sufficiently well developed individuals that they have comfortable access to all the functions, that it's almost about not getting the best fit because they think 'I'm, so adept at exploring my extraverted thinking and my introverted thinking...' It's almost like they are justifying why you can't put me in a box (even thought it's not a box) but because they want to

demonstrate their competence in having mastered all of the functions, and all of

the orientations, and therefore it doesn't apply (40).

Although it was the intention of Myers and Briggs to make type theory accessible to

everybody, the issues described above suggest that there may be some individuals

who struggle to understand the more fluid aspects of the theory and can only

conceptualise it in absolute or black and white terms. This may relate to their level of

Ego Development as individuals at the Self Conscious levels and below (Cook-

Greuter, 2002) tend to conceptualise things in bi-polar terms (i.e., black and white,

right and wrong) and may struggle with psychological concepts. Alternatively it may

relate to the length of time available for type exploration, as discussed above. These

misunderstandings of type can actually cause more issues for individual effectiveness,

thus having the opposite effect to the intention of working with the Myers-Briggs.

The Coach/Myers-Briggs Practitioner: As previously mentioned, most of the coaches

that participated in the group interview are actually MBTI qualifying trainers and

psychologists, thus placing them in a position of considerable expertise regarding the

Myers-Briggs version of Jung's type theory, however few of them have explored the

original Jungian model. From the thematic analysis of the issues and limitations that

emerged during the interview, it seems that the simplification of Jung's theory by

Myers and Briggs may, again, be a large part of the root cause. From the initial

presenting of the question, "... so how do you deal with the not so good bits?" (49),

most of the interviewees demonstrated that they were struggling to understand the

link between the Myers-Briggs and dysfunctional behaviour. For example:

> Ax: The parts they are likely to miss? Or not pay attention to? (50)
>
> I: When they're actually not functioning that well in some way. How do you
>
> use the MBTI to work with the dysfunctional behaviour? (51)

Ax: Dysfunctional behaviour? (52)

However, one of the coaches demonstrated that they had an understanding of the

dysfunctional sides of the Myers-Briggs that were being questioned: "Do you mean

the dysfunctional sides of the MBTI that they may not be aware of?" (54).

Nevertheless, there was evidence that most of the coaches were unclear about the

issue; the next two comments put forward contained the statements "I'm not sure that

that's answering your question" (55), and "I'm not sure if this answers your question,

but ..." (58). This suggests that the positivity of the Myers-Briggs model has

eclipsed Jung's original and less complimentary description of the types and that

practitioners are unlikely to be aware of the potential downsides of the manifestations

of an individual's preferences.

The Myers-Briggs version of the theory emphasises the role of an individual's

non-preferred functions as their development needs, rather than addressing the

shadow sides of each function or describing the effect of lack of differentiation on the

expression of the functions. Therefore, many practitioners will focus their

developmental activities on the non-preferred functions. This is clearly illustrated in

the following extract:

> Ax: I've got a client who's the manager of a small business and he's ENTP,
>
> he's also a narcissist so that's part of the tension, he decides on a change in the
>
> company and the customer services people can't keep up with the change, they
>
> have problems actually implement it. And back with the management team,
>
> they brainstorm all these ideas, and when they come to the next month's
>
> meeting, they haven't actually closed anything off. And, there's not much
>
> motivation for him to close anything off and be more 'J-like'. He's not being
>
> held accountable. I just found it useful to look at, he's a big picture person, and
>
> he gets bored quickly, and thinking about the importance of holding people
>
> accountable and closing things off, etc. And actually hearing people – the F bit.

> So MBTI has supported me to try to handle this difficult character, in trying to
>
> get him to do some competencies that his team want him to do and his
>
> department want him to do. (69)
>
> I: So you linked it to his type? (70)
>
> Ax: I linked it to his type, I linked it to his development area, I linked it to some
>
> of the problems the management team were having in not coming to decisions.
>
> (71)

This extract shows that, even though the 'lack of closure' and 'easily bored' issues are potentially problems associated with the ENTP preferences, the coach still looked to the non-preferred functions to try to resolve these issues. In addition, it is worth noting the terminology used by Ax in the last statement – "I linked it to his development area" – reinforcing the hypothesis that the Myers-Briggs encourages practitioners to only focus on the non-preferred functions as areas for development. Given that Jung clearly believed that becoming aware of one's shadow is "essential for any kind of self knowledge" (Jung, 1979, p. 872), this tendency to consider only the non-preferred functions as the development needs within the type context is limiting. It is also reflective of the over-simplification of type development noted earlier by Myers et al. (2009). What is being indicated in the case example provided by Ax is poor differentiation of the coachee's actually preferred functions, yet this is not being addressed as this part of type development theory is not made explicit by the popular Myers-Briggs model.

Another sub theme emerging from the theme of the coach's knowledge and use of type theory was that there is no accounting for effective use of type. Unfortunately, these areas were not adequately explored during the interview and the subject was moved on by other participants and not revisited. As this is key to the research question, it would have been of great benefit to explore this issue in more

detail. Analysing the extracts that relate to this theme, however, can shed a little light on this area from the perspective of the coaches:

> I: For this next question, I'm going to feed you a bit of a line. A lot of people
>
> think there's something missing from the MBTI, and when I start the
>
> presentation I'll show you some of this, but is there anything that you think is
>
> actually missing from the theory, not the questionnaire, but the theory, that
>
> would make it easier to use or have wider applications? (72)
>
> B: Neuroticism? (73)
>
> I: Can you say more about that? (74)
>
> B: Well, just that it's one of the big 5 but not covered by MBTI. (75)
>
> F: I would say, awareness of skill in using your own type and the non-preferred.
>
> There's no information about that. (76)
>
> I: Awareness? (77)
>
> F: I suppose the awareness is the first part of the skill, but how aware people are
>
> (78).
>
> I: How well they are using it? (pause) ...... Any other thoughts? (79)

In analysing this extract, it is noted that a fairly leading prompt question was asked of the group. This was due to the group struggling to answer the initial question about how they deal with dysfunctional behaviour. Although B mentioned the absence of Neuroticism, the follow up question indicates that he is noting this from the theoretical perspective of the big 5 being a more comprehensive categorisation of personality like, for example, McCrae & Costa's view, rather than for any developmental purpose. However, without the opportunity to confirm this assumption, it unfortunately remains a hypothesis, particularly in light of the statement cited earlier from Scoular and Campbell (2007), that it is the absence of Neuroticism that may leave coaches unable to deal with the 'something else' that they may be sensing. F followed up his comment very quickly with her statement about

'awareness of skill in using type', changing the course of the questioning. Again, only surface level information was gained about this as the group did not contribute further, despite the pause for additional contributions. Once again, the course of the discussion changed before any additional probing questions could be asked. As this section of the interview relates strongly to the wider research questions regarding the role of Neuroticism and effective use of type, it is regrettable that more clarity was not obtained at this stage. However, subsequent parts of the interview revealed sub themes that have some bearing on this.

The question about the use of other psychometrics was asked as a direct prompt to explore the issues raised by Scoular & Campbell (2007); "Has anybody ever had to use anything with the MBTI to get the rounder picture, or something that they need? Like using the EQ or something with it." (90). The responses to this indicated that other psychometrics were, indeed, often used to gain different perspectives – e.g., "So something like 16PF, a trait instrument to give a different view." (91)-, or more depth – e.g., "I just think the EQ is a much deeper level of psychometric, it goes to a different level of personal regard and self awareness. So it's just adding to ...." (94). This sub-theme stemmed from two other sub-themes; that other tools may have more credibility, and that there is a lack of clarity regarding the relationship between type and behaviour.

Although the interviewees were all keen Myers-Briggs users, there was a fairly consensual lack of confidence in the use of Myers-Briggs for dealing with dysfunctional behaviours. This appears to be partly related to the fact that the Myers-Briggs has no social desirability measure and that both the questionnaire and the self-assessment process are subject to distortion. The views of the interviewees in relation to this are illustrated by the following extract:

F: .... Some people say 'do I need the questionnaire if I am guessing myself',

and others say 'why don't you do a 360' which I know goes against the theory.

There's the whole MBTI Step I - Step II thing – Step II tells you but Step I you

decide. So there's some incongruence there. It's the tool. The questionnaire

doesn't have any sort of SD scales. There's a lot of scepticism about the

questionnaire. (80)

J: So back to T's engineer – if she wanted to fix it to look like ESTJ.... (81)

T: It's quite transparent as a questionnaire (82).

Z: You can answer as you want to be seen (83).

T: And self assess and do the exercises. Not saying she did it consciously. (84)

There appeared to be a lack of confidence in using the Myers-Briggs alone to address

dysfunctional behaviours. Statements from the interviewees indicated that they

would need some other data (including 360° observations, use of self-experience

during coaching, or other psychometrics) to feel confident in addressing these issues,

or that they may move away from the Myers-Briggs completely. The following

statements illustrate the various views in relation to this theme:

B: Another thing, if you are brave enough, if you see it actually enacted in front

of you, and it's played out in your coaching working relationship with them, to

actually reinforce the message with this is actually happening in the here and

now. (64)

I: Is that the use of self thing? (65)

B: Yes, use of self. What's happening between you and me right now. (66)

A: I probably... I might move away from the MBTI to talk about, you know,

the impact you are having on me right now. And then maybe come back to it.

But not try to use the MBTI to deal with it. Say they've done a 360 or the reason

you are in there is because they are a bit difficult, you might talk about actual

situations rather than do it using MBTI. (67)

T: ... I don't think I trust it on its own. (101)

Ax: What worries me about coaching with MBTI or 360, it doesn't work well

on its own. But together they work very well. I think it's something about

observable behaviour from the 360, other people's view and then using the

MBTI to look at patterns. (102)

These statements indicate a lack of confidence about exploring dysfunctional

behaviour via type theory alone, and the need for more tangible and realistic

information to support coaching around these issues. In relation to dysfunctional

behaviour, a view that was raised several times during the discussion was that of

gathering information from a variety of sources in order to collate evidence and

themes with which to address these issues. For example, J: "When it's part of a

recurring pattern or theme I've found that it's easier to address what you're talking

about there than if it's just a stand alone" (56); T: "It's the belt and braces approach,

use a few tools to get a common picture" (99). This raises the question 'is the need

for evidence from a variety of sources due to a lack of confidence in the Myers-

Briggs, or a lack of confidence in addressing dysfunctional behaviour'?

From the interview, it would appear that part of the answer to this issue is

related to the sub-theme identified and named as 'lack of clarity about the relationship

between type and behaviour': F: "This thing between preference and behaviour. You

know the theory that you can go against, but surely there should be something more

rigorous" (88). This need for additional information regarding actual behaviours or

details is illustrated by the following statement about using the Myers-Briggs in

conjunction with the FIRO-B (see Waterman & Rogers, 2000):

N: I guess it looks at behaviour, but it's back to everyone is saying about

getting a bit more. Thinking back to what A was saying earlier about the ENTP

narcissist, I think it would be interesting to see what's an ENTP narcissist or an

> ISTJ narcissist. I think the FIRO adds that for me. If I have 2 ESTJs in a team then you look at something like the FIRO, you can see how their behaviour would differ even thought they've got the same preferences. They can look very different and approach people and situations very differently, even thought they are the same type. I guess any of those things are going to add a bit more, but I particularly like using the FIRO for that. To show that behavioural element.
>
> (105)

Whilst this use of additional psychometrics seems valid, given that the Myers-Briggs does not predict precise behaviours but can be related to motivations and broader patterns. However, other coaches reported using additional psychometrics in order to more simply or diagnostically explain more complex aspects of type theory, or to take a more psychodynamic perspective (see below).

> F: I like it with the Hogan, you know, the HDS. Because I sometimes find that people don't necessarily relate to the Grip, but actually sometimes they relate to the exaggerated dominant. But they don't necessarily get it until they've experienced the Grip. And somehow that is more diagnostic and informative. It completes the picture because it doesn't just talk about the positive, it talks about the strengths overplayed as well as the derailers. It gets to the heart of some things. (109)

> B: I think the FIRO, and the 16PF I would say, if you want a more psychodynamic view looking at some of the tensions that go on inside someone, and how that links to the manifest behaviour that you seen and how it links to their preferences, well, I think that gives you a lot of richness? (106)

These are areas that the original Jungian model would be able to address, but the simplified Myers-Briggs version does not make explicit. This echoes the criticism made of the Myers-Briggs by Spoto (1995), that there is only a focus on the problem

of differences (the difference between the functions), rather than the on the problem of opposites (the internal tensions within an individual). Additionally, the other tools mentioned by the coaches (FIRO-B, 16PF, HDS) do not actually explain the 'Grip' aspect of type theory or relate to psychodynamic tensions; the FIRO-B is concerned with interpersonal needs and behaviours, the 16PF is concerned with traits, although it does include Neuroticism, and the HDS describes the effect of overplayed strengths. As the Myers-Briggs was originally based on a psychodynamic theory, it is interesting that coaches are turning to trait approaches to explore this, rather than working with the Myers-Briggs.

Study One: Summary and Conclusions

Due to the nature of the interviewing technique used here, it is only possible to generalise about the themes that have been identified. That is to say, as there was no disagreement from group members regarding the statements being made by others, it is assumed that there is a degree of consensus, however it must be noted that consensus and agreement for each comment were not checked during the interview. Additionally, the group were made up of 8 relatively experienced type practitioners, so caution needs to be employed if making generalisations from the findings of this study to the wider population of Myers-Briggs practitioner coaches who have a more varied level of experience with the Myers-Briggs. Nevertheless, the main themes that emerged from the interview were (1) the frequency of use of Myers-Briggs in coaching, and (2) the simplification of the Myers-Briggs model, particularly in relation to the practitioners use and knowledge of type theory.

With the inclusion of the implicit use, the frequency of use of Myers-Briggs in coaching is very high; in fact, it is almost always used. This is interesting, given that

when complex issues arise, the Myers-Briggs is either abandoned or supplemented due to an apparent lack of confidence in its ability to deal with dysfunctional behaviours, and because of its focus on positive functioning. This finding confirms the suggestion that for most of the common applications of type, the existing Myers-Briggs version of type theory is adequate and useful. However for deeper developmental coaching or for dealing with non-positive issues, it is considered inadequate. The original Jungian model of the psyche describes the dysfunctional aspects of type, the behavioural manifestations of poor development and differentiation, the role of the shadow, and the dynamic tensions that can be at work within the individual. Therefore, the original Jungian model does include information that would make it applicable to developmental coaching, yet these aspects are not usually part of the knowledge base of Myers-Briggs practitioners, so there is a tendency to turn to other methods and psychometrics to fill the gaps. This is interesting in the light of comment 106 ("I think the FIRO, and the 16PF I would say, if you want a more psychodynamic view looking at some of the tensions that go on inside someone ...") which suggests that Myers-Briggs practitioners may not be aware of the potential to use the Myers-Briggs to explore psychodynamic issues, despite it being well known that it emerged from the psychodynamic paradigm.

Although this study was intended as a preliminary and broad exploration of the issues raised in the literature review regarding the use of the Myers-Briggs by coaches and the possibility of there being 'something missing' from the current model, the findings support the suggestions that the Myers-Briggs is very frequently used in coaching, but that the model is lacking something, particularly in relation to addressing dysfunctional behaviour. The interview did not shed much light on the role of Neuroticism and/or Ego Development in relation to type theory, but did

indicate that, for certain interventions the Myers-Briggs is adequate and useful, but for deeper developmental issues it is considered inadequate.

Reflecting on the use of a semi-structured interview with a focus group from the epistemological position of social constructionism, there are several points to consider; for example, to what extent did the experience and training of the focus group participants effect the way they interpreted the questions and/or reported how they work with clients?; how were they interpreting the questions and the comments of the other participants?; and how may I have influenced the course of the discussion with my use of words and my preconceived beliefs about the issues being discussed? There is likely to be some influence of each individual's subjective experience on the way the discussion developed and was understood by them. In terms of my part during the discussion, I was aware of trying not to lead the group towards my own agenda. A more important point of reflection is my role in undertaking the thematic analysis; although a methodology was being followed, the method allowed for a degree of subjectivity on my part in terms of deciding where I could see the data connecting and what the key themes were. Nevertheless, as the analysis generated several themes that I had not previously anticipated when developing the initial template, it would appear that using the template and thematic analyses helped to counter a fair degree of the potential subjectivity that these methods enable.

Generating a list of development activities

Following the discussion/group interview, the group were asked to generate a list of developmental insights that the Myers-Briggs (theory, process and questionnaire) could address, and a list of those that it did not address but that would be

useful/desirable. Through a process of ranking and voting, the group generated a list of 10 items in total. These items are listed below.

Myers-Briggs currently can: Help clients to discover their Type preferences

Identify a client's potential 'blind spots'

Identify a client's sources of stress

Identify a client's reaction to stress

Help a client to appreciate interpersonal differences

Identify a client's order of preferences (Type dynamics)

Myers-Briggs does not: Identify how effectively a client uses their Type

Identify how flexible a client is in their Type (i.e.,ability to 'flex' between preferences)

Assess a client's level of emotional stability

Identify a client's level of Type development

The list of developmental insights that the Myers-Briggs does not cover relate to type development, effectiveness and Neuroticism.

The next stage of this research aims to explore the question, 'Will Myers-Briggs practitioners perceive a gap between the current popular model of the Myers-Briggs and what is needed for effective development work using type with clients?' The list of developmental insights generated by the group was used to inform this study. As the participants in this focus group were experienced type practitioners, any differences in perspectives between experienced and novice practitioners are also explored.

Study Two: Current and Desired Applications of the Myers-Briggs Model for Development – A Gap Analysis

Study Two: Introduction

The earlier literature review suggested that there may be something missing from the current model of the Myers-Briggs. Personality researchers (e.g., McCrae & Costa, 1989; Furnham,1996) believe that the lack of a Neuroticism scale, as per the well-established five factor model, not only makes the Myers-Briggs theory an incomplete taxonomy of personality, but omits essential information about an individual (Costa & McCrae, 1989). Myers (2009) was working on a method of assessing an individual's level of development, believing that this would make her model more complete, and coaches report supplementing the Myers-Briggs with other models and tools in order to gain a more complete picture of the individual (Scoular & Campbell, 2007). The group interview described in Study One confirmed that coaches will tend to use other tools to supplement the Myers-Briggs, particularly if they are presented with dysfunctional or maladaptive behaviours from their clients. As mentioned earlier, the original Jungian typology placed more emphasis on the dysfunctional and maladaptive behaviours of the types, yet the Myers-Briggs adaptation mainly focuses on the positive aspects. For this reason, Myers-Briggs practitioners are largely unaware of the potential dysfunctional behaviours that can occur as a result of one's preferred type (see Study One). Nevertheless, the practitioners from the group interview research also stated that they find the Myers-Briggs extremely useful in coaching and development, although there can be some issues with regard to the contracting of any interactions (e.g., number of sessions, lack of follow up, leaving people with the 'wrong' type or further entrenched in their behaviour, etc.).

When questioned about potential 'missing elements' to the current Myers-Briggs model, one of the practitioners who took part in the group interview noted the absence of an indication of effective use of type (concurrent with Myers' opinion) and one noted the absence of a measure of Neuroticism (concurrent with McCrae & Costa). The group also noted the absence of a clear connection between type and behaviour in the current model. As the group reported that they find the Myers-Briggs extremely useful (i.e., in its current form), there is also a question regarding how important, in practice, these perceived 'gaps' in the Myers-Briggs model actually are. The following study aimed to explore whether Myers-Briggs practitioners perceive a gap between the current and desired applications of the Myers-Briggs theory for developmental applications? As the group was comprised of very experienced type practitioners, it posed the question of whether only experienced type practitioners would note any 'missing elements', or whether less experienced or novice practitioners would share this opinion.

Study Two: Method

Participants

Two groups of Myers-Briggs practitioners were invited to participate in this study. One group was made up of 17 (7 males and 10 females) newly qualified Myers-Briggs practitioners who had just completed their MBTI qualifying training. The mean age of the group was 41, with a standard deviation of 7 years. The second group were 10 (1 male, 9 females) experienced Myers-Briggs practitioners with a mean average of 8.4 years of using the Myers-Briggs. The mean age of this group was 40 with a standard deviation of 7.6 years. These two diverse groups were

selected so that any difference between the perceptions of experienced vs. non

experienced practitioners could be explored.

Procedure

A list of 10 developmental activities was generated by the group of experienced

Myers-Briggs practitioners, as described in Study One. This list included activities

that the Myers-Briggs (the theory, not just the questionnaire) currently can address

and cannot address. The list formed the basis of a 'gap analysis' style questionnaire

(see Appendix 6). Respondents were required to rank the items in order of

importance using ranks of 1 to 10. Ranking was selected as the preferred method of

response as it would clearly demonstrate gaps between ratings of useful and desirable

and not allow respondents to mark all items as 'desirable'.

The questionnaire was administered to the newly qualified practitioner group

in paper and pencil format at the end of their training program. The experienced

practitioner group were sent the questionnaire via an email attachment and returned

their responses in the same manner.

Analysis

Frequencies and ranges were obtained to see which aspects of the Myers-Briggs were

perceived as being most useful for development, and which aspects would be most

desirable. The ranking of the items was analysed using the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks

test for paired samples to explore whether there were differences between the 'actual'

and 'desired' rankings of the development activities. This analysis was selected as the

data was non-parametric and the sample was relatively small, which is suitable for

this type of analysis. Comparisons were made between the 'actual' and 'desired'

rankings for the whole group, and for the newly qualified and experienced groups separately.

Study Two: Results

Group Data Analysis

The difference between the 'actual' rankings and the 'desirable' rankings for the whole group (N=27) were analysed using the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test. A significant difference was obtained for item 1, 'Help clients to discover their type preferences' with the mean 'actual' ranking being significantly higher than the mean 'desirable' ranking (Z=-2.37, p<0.018); indicating that, although the Myers-Briggs was considered to be useful for helping clients discover their type preferences, there are other uses for which the Myers-Briggs that are considered to be more desirable. The mean rankings for the 'actual' and 'desirable' ratings for the whole group are shown in Figure 6.

It is noteworthy that item 10, 'Assessing the client's level of emotional stability', was fairly consistently rated as not desirable, gaining the lowest mean rank (1.59) with very little variance (SD=1.39).

The data from the newly qualified and experienced practitioner groups were also analysed separately.
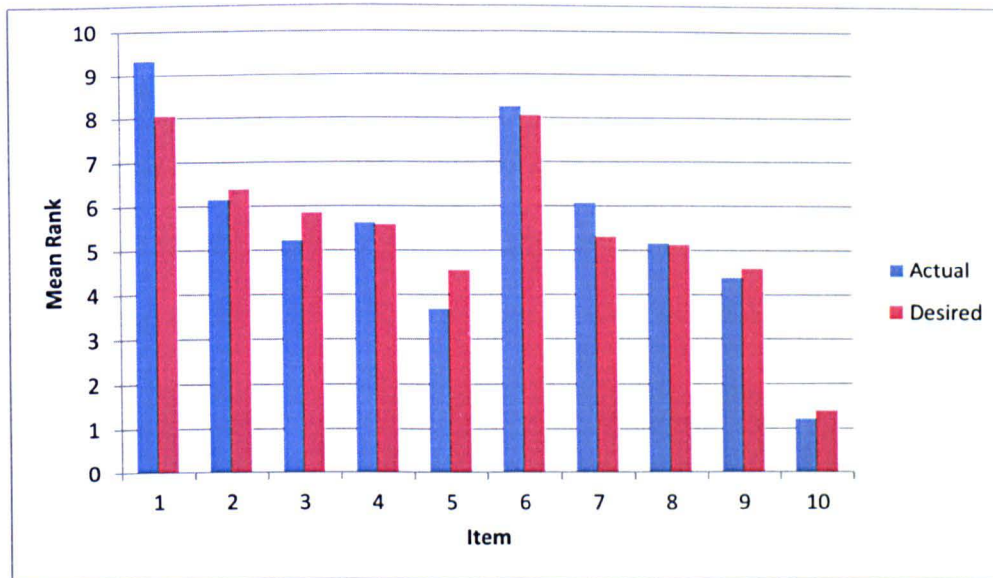
Figure 6: Mean item rankings for whole group N=27

'Newly qualified group' analysis (N=17): The Wilcoxon test comparing the 'actual' and 'desirable' ratings for the items revealed one significant difference for item 3, 'Identifying a client's source of stress', (Z=-2.07, p<0.038), with the item being rated as being more desirable than the actual use.. This indicated that, although the Myers-Briggs is seen as useful for identifying a client's source of stress (mean rank = 5.12), it was considered to be more desirable for development work in relation to some other items (mean rank = 6.12). No other significant differences between the rankings were observed.

'Experienced' group analysis (N=10): The Wilcoxon test identified a significant difference between 'actual' and 'desired' ratings for item 5, 'Identifying a client's level of development (Z=-1.97, p<0.49), with the 'desired' ranking being higher than the 'actual' ranking. This indicates that, although the group recognised that the Myers-Briggs is not actually useful for identifying a client's level of development, (mean rank = 2.9), experienced practitioners would like to use type for this purpose in

development (mean rank 5.2). No other significant differences between 'actual' and 'desired' rankings were observed.

Comparison between groups: A Mann-Whitney test was used to explore the differences in rankings between the experienced and newly qualified groups. Item 2, 'Identifying a client's potential blind spots,' was ranked significantly lower in usefulness by the newly qualified group than for the experienced group (Z=-2.466, p<0.015). No other significant differences were observed between the rankings of the two groups. The ranked order of the items for the newly qualified group and experienced group is shown in Table 2. Items that were ranked differently between the Actual and Desired ratings are marked with an asterisk (*).

Table 2: *Order of rankings of developmental items*

	Newly Qualified		Experienced	
Rank	Actual	Desired	Actual	Desired
1	Helping clients to discover preferences	Helping clients to discover preferences	Helping clients to discover preferences	Helping to appreciate differences *
2	Helping to appreciate differences	Helping to appreciate differences	Helping to appreciate differences	Helping clients to discover preferences *
3	Identifying type dynamics	Identifying a client's reaction to stress *	Identifying a client's potential 'blind spots'	Identifying a client's potential 'blind spots'
4	Identifying a client's reaction to stress	Identifying a client's sources of stress *	Identifying type dynamics	Identifying effectiveness of type *
5	Identifying a client's potential 'blind spots'	Identifying a client's potential 'blind spots'	Identifying a client's sources of stress	Identifying a client's sources of stress
6	Identifying a client's sources of stress	Identifying type dynamics *	Identifying a client's reaction to stress	Identifying level of Type development *
7	Identifying effectiveness of type	Identifying effectiveness of type	Identifying effectiveness of type	Identifying type dynamics
8	Identifying how flexible their Type is	Identifying how flexible their Type is	Identifying how flexible their Type is	Identifying how flexible their Type is *
9	Identifying level of Type development	Identifying level of Type development	Identifying level of Type development	Identifying a client's reaction to stress *
10	Assessing level of emotional stability	Assessing level of emotional stability	Assessing level of emotional stability	Assessing level of emotional stability

Study Two: Discussion

The significant difference between 'actual' and 'desired' ratings on the item 'Help clients to identify their preferences' is interesting as, with closer examination of the data, it appears that, although the primary aim of the Myers-Briggs process is to get clients to discover their type, practitioners consider it more important to use the

process to help clients appreciate individual differences. This effect was slightly stronger in the experienced group, who rated the appreciation of individual differences as the most desirable use of the Myers-Briggs (newly qualified group rated it as second most important). The finding that the newly qualified group rated 'identify a client's potential blind spots' lower in both the 'actual' and 'desirable' ratings compared to the experienced practitioners may be an indication of the positivity of the Myers-Briggs model (i.e., its tendency to emphasise the positive aspects of one's type). One could hypothesise that newly qualified practitioners will be more focused on the positive aspects of each type, and experienced practitioners who have had experience using the Myers-Briggs developmentally may be more aware of its potential to address blind-spots. Nevertheless, the newly qualified group rated the stress reaction and source of stress items higher in both 'actual' and 'desirable' than the experienced practitioners, suggesting that they are likely to feel comfortable working with the stress model presented by current Myers-Briggs theory (see Quenk, 2002).

For the experienced group, there was the recognition that the current Myers-Briggs model is not useful for exploring a client's level of development, however they rated this as something that would be fairly desirable, ranked as 6th most desirable (from 9th rank as actual). However, an indication of effective use of type was ranked as 4th most desirable (from 7th rank as actual), suggesting that it is something that experienced practitioners would value. It should be noted, however, that the difference between 'actual' and 'desired' rankings was not significant, indicating that the desirability of this item was not rated similarly by all of the group (rankings ranged from 9-1, SD 2.32). The newly qualified practitioners rated level of development as 9th most desirable, and effective use of type as 7th most desirable.

This suggests that experienced practitioners may be more aware of the importance of these aspects of individual development than newly qualified practitioners. The between group difference in rankings, however, was not significant for these items.

The most consistently rated item was item 10, 'Assessing a client's level of emotional stability'. This was consistently rated as something the Myers-Briggs cannot be used for, but, interestingly, was consistently rated as the least desirable item for developmental work. This may be because few of the newly qualified group had any knowledge of trait Neuroticism, or because both groups believed that all the other items presented were of more importance.

The forced ranking form of response may have distorted some of the differences between the 'actual' and 'desired' items as there was a considerable range of ranks for each item and the range (1-10) is relatively narrow. However, a Likert scale would have most likely led to most items being rated as highly desirable and not discriminated effectively. An additional disadvantage of the use of ranks rather than a Likert scale, is that some of the items on the list are clearly more important and fundamental when using type than others, so they will always take up the top positions, thus reducing the range of movement available between 'actual' and 'desired' rankings. For example, the items 'helping a client to discover preferences' and 'helping a client appreciate individual differences' are fundamental to type use, and would, therefore, be expected to take up the top rankings in both the 'actual' and 'desired' ratings.

The small sample size, although suitable for the statistical tests used, should be noted. This study is only intended as a preliminary exploration of the issue of whether or not practitioners perceive a missing element to the current Myers-Briggs model for use in development, as per the hypothesis. Additionally it was used to

explore any differences between less and more experienced practitioners. The findings indicate that, in general, practitioners from both levels of experience rate the developmental aspects that the current Myers-Briggs is useful for, as those that they most want it to be useful for. Experienced practitioners may have more of an awareness of the 'gap' left by an absence of an indication of developmental level or an indication of effective type use, but not to an extent that is significantly different to the less experienced practitioners.

If further exploration were required, the issues raised regarding the importance of emotional stability could be clarified. Also, using these results to form the basis of a group interview or focus group may be a more effective way to explore their meaning than using another quantitative measure.

The implications of this small study for the following research studies are that practitioners at all levels of experience are likely to be suitable participants, however it is important that they are Myers-Briggs qualified so that they understand how and what the Myers-Briggs is used for, and they have a good understanding of the type model. There is also an indication that practitioners, particularly experienced practitioners, would find an indication of effective use of type and level of development to be useful when using type developmentally.

Study Three: Defining Effective Use of Psychological Type

Study Three: Introduction

Study 1 indicated that the Myers-Briggs is perceived as being very useful in coaching,

but may not be particularly useful in addressing ineffective or dysfunctional

behaviour. In these cases, practitioners may turn to other models and tools. In study

2, experienced practitioners indicated that they would find a measure of effectiveness

of type use or an indication of type development useful to complement the

developmental activities for which they already use the Myers-Briggs. This raises the

question, *'what are the actual definitions of effective and ineffective use of type '?*

The following research study, Study 4, aims to explore observable aspects of

effective and ineffective type use, and, in particular, the influence of Neuroticism and

Ego Development on perceptions of effective and ineffective type use. However,

prior to addressing this particular question, there is a need to define 'effective' and

'in-effective' type use; therefore, the aim of this research, Study 3, is to generate

definitions of effective and ineffective type use.

The terminology 'effective type use' is widely used in typological literature

(e.g., Myers 2009); however it does not appear to have been clearly defined. It is

suggested in the literature that it is related to type differentiation (e.g., Myers, 2009;

Jung 1990), and to type development (Myers, 2009), although they are actually very

similar concepts; "Both Jung and Myers used the term *differentiation,* but for Myers,

this concept was subsumed under her broader ideas about *type development"* (Myers,

2009, p.13). As noted earlier (p. 6), Jung believed that only a differentiated function

could be directed; that is to say that only a differentiated function could be used

effectively. Therefore it is implied that, from Jung's perspective, effective use of type

involves the conscious direction of one's functions, free from any distorting influences from other functions (mental process differentiation and preference pair differentiation) or from the unconscious aspects of particular preferences (internal differentiation). The connection between Jung's theory of differentiation and effective type use is clarified by Myers et al. (2009), who state that, "All three levels of differentiation probably have to occur for type to be used effectively, in a mature, developed way" (p. 15). Their definition of good type development is as follows:

> According to Myers, the end result of good development is that individuals are comfortable and effective in the processes that come most naturally to them and with the strengths of their type, and they have an ability to use the processes that go against the grain; to focus on the processes most adaptive for the task; to turn off or turn on the processes as needed; to control use of their processes instead of feeling controlled by them (p. 13).

As explained in the introduction to this chapter, Myers tended to simplify her descriptions of the type development process, however her version of the theory was strongly based on Jung's theories of differentiation and individuation. Myers and Kirby (1995) clarify that the goal of type development is not equal development and use of all the functions, but "rather the ability to use each mental process with some facility when it is appropriate" (p. 20). In defining the effect of type development on an individual, Myers and Kirby (1995) state that:

- Type development broadens perspectives and skills so that views become more accurate and decisions become more sound.

- Development softens biases against those who are different. Through development, people learn to understand, appreciate and make use of each other's differences. This increased tolerance and acceptance of

others enhances relationships and increases the effectiveness of human

interactions. (p.38)

It is reasonable to suggest, therefore, that these definitions of good type development

are, in fact, definitions of effective type use. However, is it reasonable to assume that

these definitions are shared by Myers-Briggs practitioners? This study aims to elicit a

definition of effective and ineffective type use from the perspective of Myers-Briggs

practitioners. These definitions will be used to inform the hypotheses for Study 4

which will explore the factors that contribute to perceptions of effective type use. As

the questionnaire that will be used in Study 4 will be based on third party observer

ratings, the definitions of effective and ineffective type use that are elicited need to be

related to observable differences. Therefore, the methodology used to create these

definitions should employ techniques that explore a third party perspective.

The repertory grid technique (Kelly, 1955) was selected as a technique for

gathering information regarding the constructs that are relevant to perceptions of

effective and ineffective type use and, consequently, to create definitions of

observable characteristics that define effective and ineffective type use. The rep grid

technique minimises the influence of the researcher as it explores the participant's

perspective and understanding of the research question. By conducting rep grid

interviews with several participants, the aim of the study was to look for any common

understanding of the concept of effective/ineffective type use and the elicitation of

similar constructs. However, Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Holman (1996) note that as

the rep grid technique is sensitive to individual differences, any attempts to combine

data from different individuals may result in distortions. Nevertheless, they go on to

add that when one individual employs a similar construct to that of another, it can be

suggested that the individuals are, in fact, construing the world in similar ways. In a

study by Langan-Fox and Tan (1997), the rep grid technique was used successfully on

a sample of individuals to explore organisational culture and to inform the creation of a questionnaire. To analyse and synthesise rep grid data from their sample group, Langan-Fox and Tan used a content analysis method, as suggested by Stewart and Stewart (1981), to look for clusters of similar constructs between interview participants. The themes to which the clusters of constructs related were then used as questionnaire items. Stewart and Stewart also suggest that it is useful to note the number of items that fall into each category in order to gain an idea of the frequency with which the constructs were elicited from the sample group.

Statistical procedures for analysing grid data can also be advantageous for looking at commonalities between elements and constructs. In order to perform statistical analyses, each construct needs to be rated numerically by the interview participant; usually by treating the two poles of the elicited construct as a continuous scale to enable the interviewee to rate each element (e.g., 1-5 rating). Statistical analysis reorders the grid to group similar constructs and similar elements together; although Easterby-Smith et al. advise some caution in using statistical analysis as "there is a problem in deciding whether the cluster is an artificial outcome of the computational process or a meaningful reflection of a person's understanding…. " (p. 18). Therefore, interpretation of the resulting data needs to be undertaken with caution. Using a statistical analysis on a grid, for the purposes of this study, can identify any constructs that do not tend to fit the pattern of the other responses and that, it can be assumed, are related to individual or unique characteristics of the selected elements that are not necessarily related to the research question.

As Study 2 indicated that experienced type practitioners are likely to be more aware of issues regarding effective type use and type development than novice type practitioners, (i.e., the importance of these aspects of individual difference for

developmental work), experienced practitioners were asked to participate in this study. Additionally, the participants would be asked to select people who varied in their perceived effective use of type as elements for the rep grid, so adequate time and experience in using personality frameworks, and type in particular, was necessary.

Study Three: Method

Participants

Seven experienced type practitioners, with an average of 11 years experience of using the Myers-Briggs participated in rep grid interviews; six females and one male, with an age range of interviewees 30 – 62. The psychological type preferences of the participants were INFP x 2, INTJ x 2, ENFJ, x 1, ISFJ x 1, INFJ x 1. Five of the participants were the same Gestalt coaches who took part in the focus group in Study One. The other two participants had very similar backgrounds in terms of being qualified to use a range of other psychometrics, however they were trained in styles of coaching other than Gestalt.

Procedure

The participants were interviewed individually. Participants were informed that the aim of the research was to create clear definitions of effective and ineffective type use. They were asked to consider 6 elements – 2 people who habitually use their type ineffectively, 2 who use their type with an average level of effectiveness, and 2 who use their type very effectively. Although some participants asked for more clarity about the meaning of 'effective type use', it was made clear that the objective was to get their view of the meaning and that no further definition could be given. The triad method of construct elicitation was used in which elements were selected three at a

time and the participant was asked to consider a feature that two of the elements had in common that was different from the third. Notes were also taken to aid definition of the constructs in later content analysis. This process continued until the participant began to struggle to elicit further differences. Easterby-Smith notes that this is often the way that an interview is drawn to a close and that it is not advisable to push it further. Following the elicitation of the constructs, the participants were required to rate each element on a 1-5 scale in relation to the constructs.

Analysis

The cluster analysis method was employed for each individual grid. As cluster analysis requires that only the elements or constructs are similar if individual grids are to be combined, whereas the principal components analysis requires that both elements and constructs are similar, the cluster analysis technique was a closer match to the research question (i.e., creating definitions that would discriminate between the three categories of elements). The WebGrid 5 program was used to perform the analyses. For each individual grid, the results of the cluster analysis were used to assess the similarity between each category of elements, and to identify any constructs that clearly did not correlate with any others. Only constructs that had a similarity match of 83% or above were retained for further analysis; any that were below this level were excluded as, on further inspection, they tended to relate to individual differences that were not relevant to the research question (e.g., the construct, 'Neutral energy/Positive energy'). Only 3 constructs were excluded at this stage. In 4 out of the 7 individual grids, there was clear distinction between the three categories of elements – ineffective, average and effective. In the other 3 individual grids, there was clear distinction between the ineffective and effective categories, but some

overlap with the average category and both the ineffective and effective categories. The cluster analysis was not, however, used to obtain clusters of constructs as it was believed that, as noted by Easterby-Smith et al., many of the clusters would be simply based on the computational process rather than on any semantic similarity.

To obtain the clusters of common themes, a content analysis method was employed (Stewart & Stewart, 1981). The retained constructs for all the participants were written onto cards and sorted into clusters based on their similarity. Only clusters with 3 or more constructs in them were retained; the remaining constructs were excluded from further analysis as they were not common to other participants (e.g., the construct, poor at initiating contact vs. socially confident). 6 constructs did not fit with any of the other themes and were excluded from further analysis. The final thirty six constructs were entered into one combined grid for analysis using the WebGrid 5 program. From this grid, a clear distinction between the three categories of elements and a high level of correlation between all of the constructs was found (see Figure 7). Again, this analysis was not used to obtain the clusters of constructs as the program did not allow for semantic comparison.

Cluster analysis was then performed on each of the common themes. Data regarding the matches between the three categories and between the constructs was obtained (see Figures 8-17).

For the final part of the content analysis, the themes were analysed to see whether they corresponded to Jung's and Myers' definitions of effective type use (development). This final step in content analysis is suggested by Stewart and Stewart where a-priori data exist.

Definitions were then created based on the themes that emerged from this content analysis.

Study Three: Results

Cluster Analysis

The final thirty six constructs were entered into one grid and a cluster analysis was

performed. The obtained element matches were 83% between the 2 'Effective'

elements, 70.1% between the 2 'Average' elements, and 82% between the 2

'Ineffective' elements. The match between the 'Ineffective' and 'Effective' elements

was 18% - 32%, indicating a good level of differentiation. The match with the

'Average' elements and these poles ranged from 41% - 75%, indicating a degree of

variability in observable characteristics in those rated as average. Twenty eight of the

constructs formed one broad cluster (> 87%) whilst the remaining 8 clustered together

with approximately 85% of a match. All thirty six constructs were matched at

approximately 75%. As previously noted, these clusters were not used to generate

clusters of similar constructs as there was a high chance of the clusters being purely

mathematical. This is because of the narrow rating scale (1-5) and because the

elements selected were highly likely to result in a low to high scoring pattern for the

elicited constructs in most cases. The cluster analysis for all thirty six retained

constructs is shown in Figure 7.

Figure 7: Cluster Analysis of Constructs Used in Final Definitions

Content Analysis

The content analysis yielded ten themes. The themes were (1) Defensive vs.

accepts/seeks feedback, (2) Oblivious of impact on others vs. aware of impact on

others, (3) Adapts to others in-genuinely vs. adapts with authenticity, (4)

Impulsive/acts on instinct vs. consistent and grounded, (5) Acts without mindfulness

vs. mindful/self-monitoring, (6) Believes their way is right vs. accepts others' views,

(7) Tells others vs. facilitates others, (8) Has a narrow/simplistic perspective vs. has

a broad and complex perspective, (9) Only uses one style vs. adapts style

appropriately, and (10) Unconscious issues evident vs. can manage inner conflict.

The constructs relating to each theme was entered into the cluster analysis program to

explore the level of discrimination between the three categories (ineffective, average

and effective) and the level of match between the constructs. The cluster analyses are

shown in Figures 8- 17. From these cluster figures the level of match and difference

between elements and constructs can be seen, and the frequency of the theme

occurring can be seen in the number of constructs per theme.

Focus Group
"Is Defensive vs Accepts/Seeks Feedback"

Defensive	2	2	3	2	3	5	Objective Self Evaluating	100 90 80 70
Defensive/dismissive of feedback	1	2	3	4	3	4	Seeks personal development	
Defends self against feedback	1	2	4	5	5	5	Accepts/considers feedback	
Takes things personally/victim	1	2	2	3	5	5	Internal Locus of Control/Rational	

100 90 80 70

Effective 2
Effective 1
Average 2
Average 1
Ineffective 2
Ineffective 1

Figure 8: Cluster Analysis for 'Is Defensive vs. Accepts/Seeks Feedback' Theme

Focus Group
"Oblivous of Impact on Others vs Aware of Impact on Others"

100 90 80 70

Lack of self awareness	1 2 4 3 4 5	Self aware
Lacks self awareness	1 1 2 3 3 5	Aware of impact of own behaviour
Unaware of impact	1 1 2 2 5 5	Aware
Unaware of impact on others	2 1 1 2 4 5	Aware of impact on others
Oblivous of Impact on Others	2 1 3 5 4 4	Aware of impact on others

100 90 80 70 60

Effective 2
Effective 1
Average 2
Average 1
Ineffective 1
Ineffective 2

Figure 9: Cluster Analysis for 'Oblivious of Impact on Others vs. Aware of Impact on Others' Theme

Focus Group
"Adapts to Others Ingenuinely vs Adapts with Authenticity"

100 90 80 70

Manipulative	1 1 1 4 5 3	Authentic
Trying opposite style looks odd	1 1 3 3 5 5	Flexibility appears genuine
Adapts Obviously/Unsubtley	1 2 3 4 5 5	Adapsts Authentically
Tries to adapt inappropriately	1 3 2 4 5 5	At ease with different types

100 90 80 70 60

Effective 2
Effective 1
Average 2
Average 1
Ineffective 2
Ineffective 1

Figure 10: Cluster Analysis for 'Adapts to Others In-genuinely vs. Adapts with Authenticity' Theme

Focus Group
"Impulsive/Acts on Instincts vs Consistent & Grounded"

100 90 80 70

Frivolous	1 2 2 3 5 4	Mature/Grounded
Impulsive	1 1 3 4 4 5	Adventurous
Changeable/unpredictable	2 3 3 3 4 5	Consistent

100 90 80 70

Effective 1
Effective 2
Average 2
Average 1
Ineffective 2
Ineffective 1

Figure 11: Cluster Analysis for 'Impulsive/Acts on Instinct vs. Consistent & Grounded' Theme

Focus Group
"Acts without mindfulness vs Mindful/self-monitoring"

100 90 80 70

Responsive	1	2	2	2	3	5	Self aware/be self
Operates on autopilot	1	3	3	4	4	4	Adapts to their situation
Gets carried away in own style	1	2	3	5	5	4	Stops and thinks
When losing shouts louder	2	2	4	5	5	5	When losing stops and reflects

100 90 80 70

Effective 2
Effective 1
Average 2
Average 1
Ineffective 2
Ineffective 1

Figure 12: Cluster Analysis for 'Acts Without Mindfulness vs. Mindful/Self-Monitoring' Theme

Focus Group
"Believes Their Way is Right vs Accepts Others' Views"

100 90 80 70

Imbalanced view	3	1	1	2	5	5	Non judgemental of non-preferred
Self centred	2	2	1	3	4	5	Aware of others' views
No awareness of others' perspectives	1	1	2	4	4	4	Can read others
One style fits all	1	1	3	4	5	4	Understands people are different

100 90 80 70 60

Effective 2
Effective 1
Average 2
Average 1
Ineffective 2
Ineffective 1

Figure 13: Cluster Analysis for 'Believes Their Way is Right vs. Accepts Others' Views' Theme

Focus Group
"Tells others vs Facilitates others"

100 90 80 70

Closed minded	3	2	2	4	4	5	Facilitative
Tells others what to do	1	2	4	4	5	5	Facilitates/seeks views
Selective listening	2	1	3	5	5	4	Good listening

100 90 80 70 60

Effective 2
Effective 1
Average 2
Average 1
Ineffective 1
Ineffective 2

Figure 14: Cluster Analysis for 'Tells Others vs. Facilitates Others' Theme

Focus Group
"Has a Narrow/Simplistic Perspective vs Broad & Complex"

Sees situation from own perspective	1	2	3	3	5	5	Wise
Evaluates from self perspective	1	2	5	3	4	5	Broad perspective
Struggles with complexity	1	2	4	4	4	5	Handles complexity well

100 90 80

100 90 80 70 60 50

Effective 2
Effective 1
Average 1
Average 2
Ineffective 2
Ineffective 1
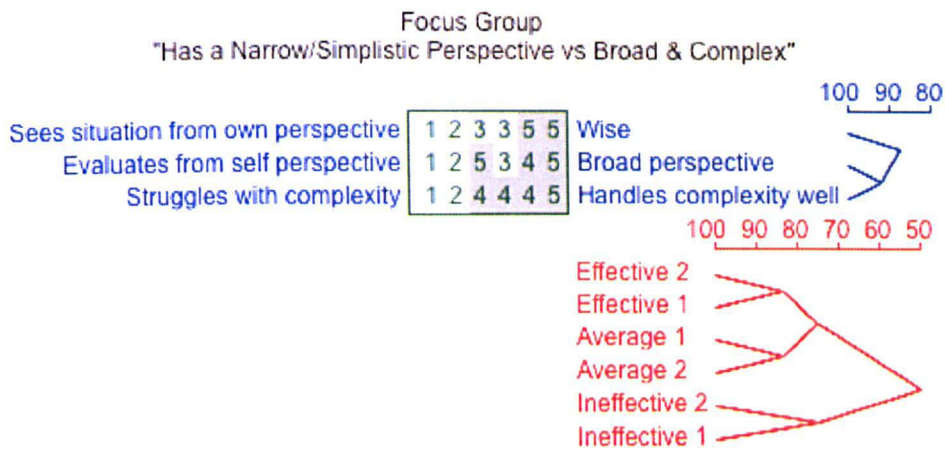
Figure 15: Cluster Analysis for 'Has a Narrow/Simplistic Perspective vs. Broad & Complex' Theme

Focus Group
"Only Uses One Style vs Adapts Style Appropriately"

Uses one style	1	1	3	3	4	5	Adaptable
Uses own preferences indiscriminantly	1	2	2	4	3	5	Uses own preferences appropriately
Pushes their type	3	2	3	5	5	5	Implicit/subtle use of type

100 90 80 70

100 90 80 70 60

Effective 2
Average 2
Effective 1
Average 1
Ineffective 1
Ineffective 2
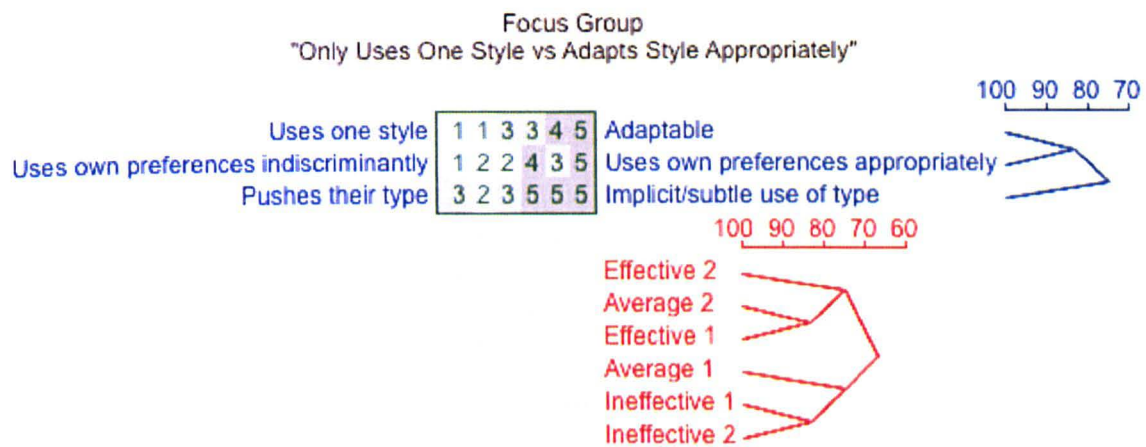
Figure 16: Cluster Analysis for 'Only Uses One Style vs. Adapts Style Appropriately' Theme

Focus Group
"Unconscious Issues Evident vs Can Manage Inner Conflict"

Trapped in Own Conflicts	2	1	1	3	5	4	Can manage feelings appropriately
Inner conflict evident	1	1	2	3	5	5	Self worth/comfort
Shows negative sides of preferences	2	2	2	4	4	5	Uses preferences to good end

100 90 80

100 90 80 70 60 50

Effective 2
Effective 1
Average 2
Ineffective 1
Ineffective 2
Average 1

Figure 17: Cluster Analysis for 'Unconscious Issues Evident vs. Can Manage Inner Conflict'' Theme

For the themes 'only uses one style vs. adapts style appropriately' (Figure 11) and

'unconscious issues evident vs. can manage inner conflict' (Figure12), there is some

overlap between the average elements and the ineffective and effective. However it should also be noted that these themes only contain 3 constructs each and therefore a slight difference in scores can have a very large impact. There is still a clear distinction between the 'ineffective' and 'effective' categories.

The final content analysis – comparison of the themes elicited from the rep grid to Jung's and Myers' definitions – is shown in Table 3. From Table 3 it can be seen that the rep grid themes correspond to all of the main aspects of Jung/Myers' descriptions of well developed types, which implies effective type use. Although the first two themes obtained from the rep-grid analysis are not explicitly stated in the available Myers-Briggs materials, they are likely to be implied by the other aspects of good type development. The added use of the themes elicited from the rep grid interviews, over and above those from the Myers-Briggs and Jungian literature, is that they are derived from observable behaviours.

Table 3: *Correspondence Between the Rep Grid Elicited Themes and Jung/Myers' Definitions*

Effective Type Use Theme Elicited from Rep Grids	Jung/Myers' Definition of Effective Type Use
Is defensive vs. accepts/seeks feedback	
Oblivious of impact on others vs. aware of impact on others	
Adapts to others in-genuinely vs. adapts with authenticity	Authenticity – "Trying to be someone other than who you are, ... , causes confusion and misdirects energy needed to develop one's type" (*p.16)
Impulsive/acts on instinct vs. consistent and grounded	Trust and excellence in the use of the dominant function to provide purpose and consistency (**p. 20)
Acts without mindfulness vs. mindful/self-monitoring.	Conscious control over and facility in the use of a function (**p. 23)
Believes their way is right vs. accepts others' views	Softened biases against those who are different (**p.38)
Tells others vs. facilitates others	Appreciate and make use of others' differences (**p.38)
Has a narrow/simplistic perspective vs. has a broad and complex perspective	Broadened perspectives and skills so that views become more accurate and decisions more sound (**p. 38)
Only uses one style vs. adapts style appropriately	The ability to use each mental process with some facility when it is appropriate (**p. 20) Can make choices about their behaviour (**p.20)
Unconscious issues evident vs. can manage inner conflict	Absence of unhealthy projections ("... habitually attributing one's unacceptable negative, qualities to others, it tends to be a sign of poor type development" (* p. 16)
	A well-developed auxiliary function to provide balance and support (**p. 20)

* Myers et al. 2009; **Myers & Kirby 1995

Translating the Themes into Definitions

The purpose of this study was to create definitions of effective and ineffective type use that could be used to form the hypotheses for a questionnaire study exploring the influences of Ego Development and Neuroticism on effective use of type (Study 4).

In this study, respondents to the questionnaire would be asked to rate an individual who uses their type effectively and an individual who uses their type ineffectively on a series of scales. To translate the 10 themes that were elicited by the rep grid analysis into behavioural definitions, each theme was re-phrased and elaborated on for ease of understanding. The constructs that contributed to each theme and the original notes from the interviews were used to inform these definitions. In some cases, the themes needed to be sub-divided to avoid multiple characteristics being described in one defining point. In addition, it was important to ensure that the definitions did not contain any type-related nuances or biases, and that each point can be applied to individuals of any type.

The analysis of the rep grid data indicated that individuals considered as 'average' in their use of type by interview participants varied greatly in their ratings on the constructs. Therefore, creating specific definitions of average effectiveness in type use is not possible from the data obtained. All that can be said at this stage is that an 'average' individual will fall between the descriptions of 'effective' and 'ineffective'.

The definitions of ineffective and effective type use relating to the themes derived from this study are shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Definitions of Ineffective and Effective Type Use

Ineffective Type Use	Effective Type Use
Becomes defensive when faced with unfavourable feedback or criticism	Accepts and learns from negative feedback or criticism
In the face of criticism, becomes hostile, dismissive or self-pitying	Looks for opportunities to get feedback from others for personal development
Is oblivious of their impact on others	Is aware of their impact on others
Appears inauthentic or in-genuine when trying to adapt their behaviour	Can be flexible and adaptable in behaviour whilst maintaining authenticity
Acts according to their instincts and urges	Is considered in their actions
Can be impulsive, changeable or unpredictable	Is adaptable and flexible, yet consistent in their personality
Operates on 'autopilot', without self-awareness	Is mindful of their behaviour and self-aware
Can only understand situations from a narrow perspective or their own experience	Can understand situations from a range of perspectives
Tends to tell others what they should do, irrespective of individual differences	Helps others to find out what they should do according to their unique circumstances
Evaluates things simplistically e.g., right/wrong, black/white, good/bad	Is able to deal with complexity, uncertainty and 'shades of grey'
Tends to use the same style of behaviour for most situations	Can use other preferences when necessary
Their unconscious issues are often evident in their behaviour	Can manage inner conflict and feelings appropriately

Study 3: Discussion

From the rep grid interviews, common themes were elicited from the group of

participants that were relatively consistent with the type development characteristics

found in the Jung and Myers literature. As well as being consistent with the type

development characteristics, many of the themes correspond with aspects of Ego

Development, and some contain aspects of Neuroticism and Psychoticism. The

following paragraph explores the relationship of the 'effective type use' themes with

the other theories discussed in the introduction to this chapter.

The 'defensive vs. accepts/seeks feedback' theme may contain aspects of all

three (i.e., Ego Development, Neuroticism and Psychoticism), in that individuals at

lower levels of Ego Development tend to reject feedback, whilst those at higher levels

actively seek feedback, however this rejection of feedback may be due to underlying

insecurities or poor coping. The aggression that can be associated with defensiveness

is also an aspect of trait Psychoticism. In Jung's terms, accepting the negative aspects

of oneself (i.e., the shadow sides) is part of good type development and essential for

change and growth. The second theme, 'oblivious of impact on others vs. aware of

impact on others', was raised by most of the interviewees. This theme can be related

to aspects of Ego Development, in that self-awareness and self-regulation increases as

one develops through the levels, and it can also be related to the Unempathic and

Egocentric aspects of the Psychoticism trait. 'Adapts to others in-genuinely vs. adapts

with authenticity' can, again, be related to Ego Development theory as it is a

characteristic that develops in accordance with the levels, however it does not

correspond with Neuroticism or Psychoticism. It does, however, correspond with

Jung and Myers' theory of type development. 'Impulsive/acts on instinct vs.

consistent and grounded' can be related to all three theories in that Impulsivity is a

sub scale of both Neuroticism and Psychoticism, and because individuals at a lower

level of Ego Development tend to act according to their instincts. However, the term

'impulsive' may relate to slightly different behaviours according to the different

theories. Impulsiveness in terms of Neuroticism may be defined as having a tendency

to react strongly and in a 'knee-jerk' fashion to events, whereas Impulsiveness in terms of Psychoticism may be defined as acting according to one's urges without consideration. From the corresponding aspect of Jung/Myers' type development theory, impulsiveness relates to a lack of conscious control over one's preferences. For this reason, the definition of this them has been divided into 2 separate points in order to cover the subtle differences in interpretation; 1) acts according to their instincts and urges, and 2) Can be impulsive, changeable or unpredictable. 'Acts without mindfulness vs. mindful/self-monitoring' corresponds to the Ego Development theory and to Jung/Myers' type development theory, however it is not a noted aspect of either trait Neuroticism or Psychoticism. The same can be said for the themes 'tells others vs. facilitates others' and 'has a narrow/simplistic perspective vs. has a broad and complex perspective'. The themes 'believes their way is right vs. accepts others' views' and 'only uses one style vs. adapts appropriately' do not appear to relate to trait Neuroticism, however they may link to the Tough-Minded and Unempathic aspects of Psychoticism. These two themes clearly relate to both the Ego Development and type development theories. The final theme, 'unconscious issues evident vs. can manage inner conflict' may be related to the Anxiety, Self Consciousness, and Vulnerability aspects of trait Neuroticism, but may also be related to lack of differentiation (Jung) resulting from interference from other preferences, poor type development (Myers) leading to projection, or poor Ego Development (Cook-Greuter) in terms of lack of awareness or ownership of one's shadow side. The exact nature of these unconscious issues may vary greatly between individuals, as may the observable behaviours that relate to this theme.

In summary, all of the themes can be related to Ego Development theory, yet only 3 appear to be connected to Neuroticism. 5 themes may be considered as being

related to trait Psychoticism, however in many cases the definition of the aspect of

Psychoticism to which they relate is similar to the definition of the corresponding

aspect of Ego Development.

The rep grid technique for eliciting the constructs was beneficial in that it was

free from interviewer pre-conceptions and it allowed the participants to select the

elements for their grid based on their understanding of the term 'effective type use'.

As a methodology it embraces the social constructionism position in that it seeks to

identify personal constructs. Yet, nevertheless, similar themes emerged from the

interviews between participants, and these themes largely corresponded with the

existing themes from the Jung/Myers type development literature, adding more

validity to the outcomes. The use of a statistical process to explore the level of

differentiation between elements was useful, although, as noted by Easterby-Smith et

al., using this method to form the actual construct clusters would have resulted in a

loss of semantic information and become a mathematical exercise. The content

analysis approach was clearly more suitable for this part of the analysis. Following

the content analysis, the use of the cluster analysis technique on the constructs relating

to each theme provided a useful indication of the differentiation between the 3

element categories, and of the level of match between the constructs, however, in all

cases caution in interpreting the resulting data should be exercised due to the small

number (3-5) of constructs contributing to each theme.

An additional consideration to note when interpreting the data is to note that

elements from different individual's grids were combined in the later stages of the

analysis. As the constructs being elicited were relatively common amongst

participants, and the level of differentiation between the effective and ineffective

ratings was fairly consistent, it may be assumed that this combining of elements was

acceptable for the effective and ineffective categories. However, with the range of variance in the ratings of 'average' individuals, the data relating to the aggregated 'average' category needs to be interpreted with caution.

If possible, future research of a similar nature may consider using a set of uniform elements for each individual grid, i.e., individuals that are known to all participants. However, not only might this prove difficult, but it may be that one person's perception of an ineffective individual is, in fact considered average or effective by another, and vice-versa. Another aid to uniformity when there is a plan to combine the data from various grids, may be to create a schedule of comparison triads rather than drawing the triads randomly. This would ensure that each individual participant provides the same number of constructs, and that between grid comparisons may be easier to achieve, particularly where non-statistical methods of grid aggregation and analysis are being utilised.

The outcomes of this study have provided themes upon which descriptions of effective and ineffective type use can be based. Care has been taken to ensure that the resulting descriptions are type neutral, i.e., can be applied to individuals of any type, and use language that will be understood by Myers-Briggs practitioners. These definitions also provide clarity for the term 'effective use of type', which is frequently used in the literature yet never clearly defined or explained.

Study Four: Measuring perceptions of effective and ineffective type use in relation to Neuroticism and Ego Development

Study Four: Introduction

The main introduction to this chapter presented the existing research and literature regarding the potential roles of Neuroticism and Ego Development in relation to psychological type. Trait theorists believe that the absence of Neuroticism not only makes the Myers-Briggs an incomplete account of personality compared to the five factor model, but that it omits valuable information about an individual (McCrae & Costa, 1985). Jung's and Myers' developmental theories suggest that Ego Development stage theories (e.g., Loevinger 1976; Cook-Greuter 2002) would provide important information about the individual's developmental level, and, in turn the effectiveness with which they use their type. As previously described, Myers was developing a diagnostic questionnaire aimed at assessing an individual's type development that included the scales Confidence, Stamina and Compensatory Strain, relating to anxiety, resilience and ego defence respectively (Myers et al., 2009). Existing research on these scales indicate that Confidence and Stamina may be related to trait Neuroticism, and that Compensatory Strain may be more akin to trait Psychoticism, which is a trait that has some similarity to aspects of Ego Development.

Study 3, a rep grid study aimed at defining effective and ineffective type use, led to definitions that could be clearly linked to aspects of Ego Development theory. All 12 items from the definition could be related to Ego Development theory, yet only 3 out of the 12 could be linked to Neuroticism. Additionally, 10 out of the 12 items were similar to Jung's and Myers' descriptions of good type development, with the remaining 2 items in the definition being implicit in their theories. This suggests that

some aspects of Neuroticism may play a part in observations of effective type use, but that Ego Development level may be more relevant. The definition items that could be related to Neuroticism were concerned with defensiveness, impulsivity and management of unconscious inner conflict.

Although it could be argued that both Neuroticism and Ego Development level can provide additional aspects of information about an individual that would be interesting and add value, the question explored by the present study is *'to what extent do Neuroticism and Ego Development contribute to perceptions of an individual's effective use of psychological type?'*

At this point for clarification, definitions of the three variables – Effective use of type, Ego Development, and Neuroticism – are provided below:

1. Effective use of type:

    " ... individuals are comfortable and effective in the processes that come most naturally to them and with the strengths of their type, and they have an ability to use the processes that go against the grain; to focus on the processes most adaptive for the task; to turn off or turn on the processes as needed; to control use of their processes instead of feeling controlled by them" (Myers et al., 2009, p. 13).

2. Ego Development: A sequence of progressive stages during which an individual's ability to perceive and deal with complexity increases. Each stage provides a frame of reference for making meaning of the world. The stage development is not strictly linear, and each stage is described as a set of characteristics. In general terms, development through the levels is characterised by increases in self awareness and mindfulness, and changes in life goals from self-serving to altruistic.

3. Neuroticism: The tendency to experience negative emotions, with subscales of:

- Anxiety: The extent to which one has the tendency to be fearful, imagine negative possibilities and worry.

- Hostility/Anger: The extent to which one is easily angered or upset.

- Depression: The tendency to experience feelings of sadness or low mood.

- Self-Consciousness: The extent to which one is comfortable in social situations, concerned about being judged by others, or prone to embarrassment.

- Vulnerability/Resilience: The extent to which one can cope with the stresses of life.

- Impulsiveness/Moderation: The extent to which one can control one's urges

The Use of a Questionnaire Based Approach

A questionnaire based design is most suitable for this particular study as there is a need to gather data from a large sample in order to adequately test the hypotheses that follow. The questionnaire will require third parties to rate individuals whom they know fairly well on scales relating to Ego Development and Neuroticism, in accordance with the raters' perception of how effectively they use their psychological type. The third party rater design has been selected for three major reasons: a) research has shown that self-reports of effectiveness and self-estimates of Ego Development are subject to distortion, both conscious and unconscious (e.g., Strang & Kuhnert, 2009; Westenberg & Block, 1993), b) as the hypotheses that follow relate to observed effective use of type, it is important to measure the variables from the point of view of what is observable, and c) the questionnaire design is based on prior

research that used third party rating with the Ego Development items that are to be used in this study (e.g., Westenberg & Block, 1993; Rozsnafszky, 1981).

Neuroticism has been reliably measured using a scale based approach and Neuroticism scales appear in many trait based questionnaires, however there are several issues inherent in constructing a questionnaire based measure of Ego Development. Loevinger (1966) is clear that the different aspects of Ego Development do not necessarily follow a linear sequence, and, in addition, each stage of Ego Development is made up of a combination of factors that constitute a stage milestone:

> The manifestations of Ego Development can be classed as milestone sequences and polar aspects. These milestones tend to be observable at a minimal inferential level, while polar aspects are not themselves observable but must be inferred from patterns of observable behaviour. Thus an approach to personality that is at once behaviouristic and quantitative cannot discover or reconstruct the variable of ego level (p.204).

This is to say that some inferences of Ego Development can be made by observation of behavioural traits, however Ego Development level itself is more complex. The use of the SCT or the LDP to measure Ego Development is unsuitable for this study due to the fact that they are projective techniques that require specialist training, they are timely to administer and therefore difficult for large sampling, and the scoring process is time consuming, labour intensive and costly.

As noted in the introductory literature review, several studies have explored the possibility of finding patterns of individual difference variables or traits that can indicate Ego Development level. Lorr & Manning (1978) found that Ego Development level related positively to the traits of Nurturance, Conscientiousness, Trust, Tolerance, Interpersonal Sensitivity and Psychological Mindedness, and

negatively to Avoidance of Involvement and Counter Attack measured with the Interpersonal Style Inventory (Lorr & Youniss, 1973). However it should be noted that their sample, although large (N=648), was relatively young in age (15-21) and, therefore were mostly centred around the mid to low levels of Ego Development.

John, Pals & Westenberg (1998) created three personality prototypes using the California Adult Q-Sort (CAQ) (Block, 1978) – Individuated, Traditional and Conflicted – that correlated broadly with the Post-conventional, Conventional and Pre-conventional ego level domains respectively as measured by the SCT. Interestingly, as mentioned earlier, there were a few instances where Conflicted types demonstrated Conventional and Post Conventional levels of Ego Development. This was hypothesised to be related to the presence of neurotic conflicts that were dealt with appropriately and creatively, suggesting an interaction between Ego Development variables and Neuroticism variables.

Rozsnafszky (1981) obtained self and observer ratings on the CAQ and compared them with SCT ratings. She obtained sets of items that distinguished between the Pre-conventional, Conventional and Post-conventional levels, and also found a high level of agreement between observer and self ratings. However it should be noted that her sample was fairly specific and was comprised of 65 alcoholic males and 26 male medical patients, and she notes that there may be some sampling effects present, particularly with regard to the level of agreement between self and observer ratings.

The study described in the introductory literature review by Westenberg and Block (1993) used a similar methodology (CAQ), however they asked Loevinger and Cohn to firstly provide prototype descriptions of the predicted relationship of CAQ items to Ego Development level, and to estimate the pattern of the variables

relationships to each ego level, as Loevinger believed that not all of them would be linear. The inter-rater reliability ranged from .74 to .91 with a mean of .84, thus providing the items with face and construct validity. These items were used to create developmentally homogenous scales based, in the main, on differentiating developmental patterns. The CAQ scales that were related to level of Ego Development were Ego Resiliency, containing subscales of Psychological Mindedness, Intellectualism and Resiliency (note Resiliency contains several items that would also map onto Neuroticism); Interpersonal Integrity, with subscales of Moral Soundness and Interpersonal Closeness; Conformity, with subscales of Compliance and Friendliness, and Need Regulation, (which contains some aspects of impulsiveness and moderation found in Neuroticism scales). The scale reliabilities, calculated using Cronbach's alpha, were .87 to .95 with a mean alpha of .91.

The study used data from a longitudinal study of a set of subjects deemed to be representative of American society. They had 104 sets of data from the subjects at age 14, and 98 sets of data from the same subjects at age 23. Observer ratings of individuals who had previously been assessed for Ego Development level using the WUSCT were compared with these protocols. Comparing CAQ data with WUSCT ratings, and using the Wechsler Intelligence Scales to control for intelligence and verbal fluency, they found that the patterns predicted by Loevinger and Cohn were obtained, although the exact levels predicted differed, indicating that the items in each protocol were indicative of Ego Development level. Of the scales that were found to be related to Ego Development, all but Conformity showed a significant linear trend in relation to Ego Development level. Conformity had a more complex pattern of relationship with Ego Development.

These clusters are similar to those found by Lorr and Manning's trait approach, and many of the items are similar to those found in the prototype clusters by John et al. and Rozsnafszky, providing additional evidence for the use of these items to measure aspects of Ego Development.

In the light of the outcomes from Study 3 and the information from existing research and literature regarding the connection between Ego Development, Neuroticism and type theory, three hypotheses will be tested. A summary of the support from the literature for each hypothesis is provided first.

Hypotheses

The Relationship between Ego Development and Effectiveness of Use of Type

As, both descriptively and theoretically, the path of Ego Development appears to be similar to Jung's descriptions of the differentiation and individuation processes of type development, and good type development leads to effective use of type, it follows that level of Ego Development should be related to effectiveness of type use. Further support for this comes from Study 3, in which all twelve constructs elicited from the rep grid research were similar in content to characteristics of Ego Development. As the exploratory interviews that elicited these constructs were based on comparisons between individuals that use type effectively and those who use type ineffectively, it follows that perceived effective use of type is related to higher Ego Development. Additionally, in Myers et al.'s Step 3 questionnaire, the construct of 'Compensatory Strain' is related to ego defence; individuals at the lower levels of Ego Development are known to use more ego defences.

> *Hypothesis One: Effective use of type will be positively associated*
>
> *with Ego Development, and ineffective use of type will be*
>
> *negatively associated with Ego Development.*

The Relationship between Neuroticism and Effectiveness of Use of Type

Westenberg and Block (1993) found that ego resilience, defined as *the capacity for*

flexible and resourceful adaptation to internal and external stresses (p. 798), is

strongly related to Ego Development. This empirical finding was based on a

relationship hypothesised by Loevinger and Cohn as part of the same study.

Additionally, in a study by John, Pals and Westenberg (1998), it was found that some

women with 'conflicted' personality styles, characterised by intrapersonal and

interpersonal difficulties and aspects of Neuroticism, had high levels of Ego

Development. This appeared to confirm Loevinger's theory that Neuroticism can

exist at all levels, however it is managed better at the higher levels, probably due to

resilience. Thirdly, the Step 3 questionnaire measures Stamina, defined as *the*

tendency to go to pieces under pressure (p.23, 2009), which appears to describe

resilience.

> *Hypothesis Two: Ineffective use of type will be positively*
>
> *associated with Neuroticism.*

McCrae and Costa (1980) found no significant relationship between the construct of

Neuroticism, measured using the Eysenck Personality Inventory (1964) and the EASI-

III temperament scales (Buss & Plomin, 1975), and Ego Development level measured

using the WUSCT (Loevinger & Wessler, 1970), and, similarly, Kurtz and Tiegreen

(2005) found no significant relationship between the two constructs using the

WUSCT and the NEO-PI-R (McCrae & Costa, 1992). Westenberg and Block (1993)

note that this may be due to the low number of individuals at the pre-conformist ego

levels in these studies, and also due to the heterogeneity of the Neuroticism construct.

They state that some of the facets of Neuroticism are predicted to be related to Ego

Development (i.e., impulsivity and hostility are related to the pre-conformist levels)

whilst others are not. In fact, McCrae and Costa did find small yet significant

correlations between ego level and the Fear and Anger subscales of the EASI-III.

(Unfortunately the Kurtz and Tiegreen study does not provide information about

correlations with the subscales of Neuroticism; only the overall correlation with

Neuroticism is reported.) Additional support for the following hypothesis comes from

the fact that the MBTI Step 3 questionnaire contains a measure of 'Confidence',

which correlates with and is similar in description to aspects of Neuroticism.

Hypothesis Three: Neuroticism is likely to act as a moderator

between Ego Development and effectiveness of use of type.

Study Four: Method

Respondents

The respondents to this questionnaire were all Myers-Briggs qualified practitioners

(i.e., they had all completed an approved course of qualification training as

determined by providers of the MBTI instrument). The majority of respondents

(67.2%) had over 10 years of experience in using the Myers-Briggs, and 25% had >3

years experience. This particular group were regarded as an appropriate respondent

group for this research, as they would be likely to know the psychological types of the

individuals they were rating, and have made observations regarding how the

individuals function in relation to their types. A total of 65 people (23 males, 42

females) responded to the questionnaire, with 61 of them completing the

questionnaire for both effective and ineffective use of type. This resulted in a total of

126 sets of data; 65 for ineffective use of type and 61 for effective use of type. The

modal age category for the group of respondents was 45+ (56.9%). Fourteen of the

12 Myers-Briggs types were represented in the respondent group. One respondent's

type was not provided. The distribution of respondent types is shown in Table 5.

Table 5: *Type distribution of respondents*

ISTJ	ISFJ	INFJ	INTJ
1	0	7	7
ISTP	ISFP	INFP	INTP
2	2	5	9
ESTP	ESFP	ENFP	ENTP
1	0	8	9
ESTJ	ESFJ	ENFJ	ENTJ
1	2	4	6

Procedure

The questionnaire was distributed on-line and a 'snowball' method (e.g., Robson,

1993) of recruiting respondents was used, whereby those initially approached are

encouraged to pass the link to the questionnaire on to other Myers-Briggs

practitioners in their network. Additionally, notices requesting respondents were

placed in on-line Myers-Briggs groups from the website, 'Linked-In'. Each

respondent was asked to rate two individuals, one considered to be effective in their

use of type and one considered to be ineffective in their use of type. The gender, age

and type of each individual rated were collected to enable analysis of age effects or

any typological bias.

To counter the possible effects of mono-operation bias (Trochim, 2006), the two additional criterion measures of Intellectual Openness and Ego Development using the CAQ items from Roznafsky's study were added to the questionnaire. A descriptive criterion measure was also created that briefly described the key feature of each ego level. Additionally, all of the questionnaire items (except the ego level descriptions) have been validated against existing established measures (i.e., the NEO-PI for the Neuroticism and Intellectual Openness items, and the WUSCT for the Ego Development items), and the Ego Development CAQ items have the additional face and construct validity benefit of having been selected or created by experts in Ego Development theory.

The use of observer ratings

The sole use of observer ratings may be considered as having less validity due to mono-method bias (e.g. Trochim, 2006); however, for this study it was necessary to use observer ratings in order to obtain ratings from each category (effective and ineffective use of type), in addition to the reasons provided earlier. The sampling technique for a self report questionnaire would be likely to result in most respondents being of average to high Ego Development level, and therefore not enable comparisons to be made with individuals functioning at the lower levels – this is because individuals at higher levels are more likely than those at lower levels to participate in research (personal correspondence with Cook-Greuter, 2009). Also, most individuals who have been through the Myers-Briggs and know their type will be employed at a managerial level and above, which is likely to exclude sufficient numbers of individuals at the lower levels of Ego Development. Additionally, it is unlikely that individuals would be able, or willing, to objectively rate how well they

are using their type. This would make a comparative analysis between those using their type effectively and ineffectively impossible. An additional issue with using a self-report measure for this study is that Loevinger believed that the individuals were unable to accurately assess themselves in relation to Ego Development, hence the use of projective measures such as the WUSCT. From Rozsnafszky's study where self and observer ratings were used, it appeared that individuals operating at lower levels of Ego Development were less self aware (as suggested by Ego Development theory) and therefore less able to give accurate self ratings. An additional reason for using observer ratings is that the CAQ items are designed for observer ratings and not for self report. That having been said, Rozsnafszky adapted the items to make the suitable for self report in her study.

To counter some of the potential effects of observer bias, the type of the respondent will be analysed in relation to the types of the individuals they choose to rate to check for known type-related biases (e.g., negatively perceiving the inferior function in others).

Using observer and self-reports in conjunction would provide more validity, however asking respondents to pass the questionnaire on to their selected individuals for self ratings would prove methodologically difficult. Additionally, in terms of informed consent, the individuals would need to know that they had been potentially rated as being ineffective in their use of type, and this may not be well received.

Measures

To test these hypotheses a questionnaire was constructed to measure observer ratings of individuals described as using type effectively or ineffectively (see Appendix 7). The descriptions of effective and ineffective type use derived from the descriptions

from Myers and Kirby (1995) and (Myers et al., 2009) were used to help guide

respondents in selecting individuals to rate. The questionnaire contained 101 items

measuring trait Neuroticism and items relating to aspects of Ego Development.

Criterion measures of Intellectual Openness, Roznafsky's Ego Development CAQ

item scale, and descriptors of Ego Development levels were included in the

questionnaire.

Trait Neuroticism

Items from the International Personality Item Pool (IPIP) (www.ipop.ori.org/ipip)

were used to measure trait Neuroticism. The scales selected were based on the NEO

questionnaire and were all highly correlated with the NEO ($r = .90 - .98$). The

Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the subscales – Anxiety, Anger, Depression, Self-

Consciousness, Immoderation, and Vulnerability – were good ($\alpha = .77 - .88$.

However, as the items were designed for self rating, only items that were suitable for

use with an observer rating method were included, so the reliabilities of the actual

scales used in this study were recalculated using the data from the respondent sample

and alpha coefficients of .64 - .97 were obtained (see table 6 for full details).

Ego Development

The Ego Development items used in this study were derived from the studies by

Westenberg and Block (1993) and Rozsnafszky (1981). Both these studies, described

above, used Q-Sort items (Block, 1961) validated against the WUSCT. The

California Adult Q-Set (CAQ) consists of 100 statements about a range of personality

characteristics. Typical use of the Q-Sort technique requires raters to sort the 100

items into categories ranging from items that strongly describe an individual to those

who do not. Each category is assigned a value (e.g., 9 – very like, to 1- not at all like) and items are scored according to the value of the category into which they are placed. However, for this study, a 5 point Likert rating scale was to be used. The CAQ items are designed for observer, rather than self, ratings.

For this measure, the CAQ items relating to the three categories with linear trends – Ego Resilience, Interpersonal Integrity and Need Regulation - were used to measure aspects of Ego Development. Conformity was not included as it does not have a linear relationship with Ego Development. Not all of the scale items were suitable for inclusion in this study as some of them would be overly influenced by the individuals innate type preferences (e.g., 'Holds everything in; keeps a tight rein on his or her emotions'), or may be difficult to rate as an observer (e.g., 'Is concerned with own body and the adequacy of its physiological functioning'). Finally, in order to make the items less jargonistic and easier to interpret, some of the adaptations suggested by Bem & Funder (1978) were used in place of the original item wording by Block. As not all the original items were used in this study, the reliability coefficients were re-calculated and alpha coefficients of .7 - .95 were obtained (see Table 6 for full details).

Additional Ego Development Criterion Measure

Rozsnafszky used a similar methodology to Westenberg and Block to elicit Q-Sort items that could distinguish Ego Development levels, validated against the WUSCT. However, she asked experts in Ego Development to create a set of additional items that would be relevant to different Ego Development levels. Thirteen items were created for this purpose. Of these 13, the 6 items that were able to distinguish between pre- and post-conformist levels of Ego Development, and that were not likely

to show type bias, were included in this questionnaire. In her study, the pre-conformist questions correlated positively with WUSCT measures of lower Ego Development levels (r = .85) and the post-conformist levels correlated positively with WUSCT measures of higher Ego Development levels (r = .86). As not all the items were used in this study, the alpha coefficient was re-calculated as .84.

Intellectual Openness

This scale was included as a criterion measure as several studies have found correlations between Openness and Ego Development level. McCrae and Costa (1980) found significant correlations between the subscales of Aesthetics, Actions, Ideas and Values and Ego Development level from the Openness factor on the Experience Inventory (Costa & McCrae, 1978). They also found significant correlations between Ego Development level and the 16PF factor Q1 (Openness to Change) and factor M (Abstractedness). Kurtz and Tiegreen (2005) found a significant relationship between Ego Development level and Openness to Experience as measured by the NEO-PI-R. The items used in this particular criterion measure were obtained from the IPIP. The Intellectual Openness scale, based on the 6FPQ (Jackson & Paunonen, 1996) was selected for this study as it contains items that appear more related to the type of Openness that is likely to be related to Ego Development level. The correlation between the NEO=PI Openness scale and the 6FPQ Openness to Experience scale is .86. The NEO-PI subscales of Aesthetics, Actions and Ideas all load on to the original 6PFQ Openness to Experience scale. The Values subscale of the NEO-PI is not reflected in the Intellectual Openness scale. (NEO-PI items relating to the Values subscale may be interpreted as political, particularly in the UK at the present time, and are therefore not included in this

study). Another advantage of using items derived from the 6PFQ is that they are

designed to be free of social desirability, whereas the NEO-PI items are not (Jackson,

Ashton & Tomes, 1996). As Openness tends to correlate with the MBTI Intuition

preference (Costa & McCrae, 1989), the effect of type preference needs to be

considered in the interpretation of this criterion measure. The reliability of this scale,

using the data from the respondent sample in the present study, was found to be high

($\alpha = .89$).

Ego Level Descriptions

Brief descriptions of six of the Ego Development levels (Self-defensive – Construct

Aware) were included as an additional criterion measure to estimate Ego

Development level. Respondents were asked to select the description that was most

like the individual they had rated.

Rating Scale: The questionnaire items were rated on a 1-5 Likert scale in relation to

the question "to what extent is this statement accurate for this person?". The scoring

for the items was as follows: For + keyed items, the response "Very Inaccurate" is

assigned a value of 1, "Moderately Inaccurate" a value of 2, "Neither Inaccurate nor

Accurate" a 3, "Moderately Accurate" a 4, and "Very Accurate" a value of 5; for -

keyed items, the response "Very Inaccurate" is assigned a value of 5, "Moderately

Inaccurate" a value of 4, "Neither Inaccurate nor Accurate" a 3, "Moderately

Accurate" a 2, and "Very Accurate" a value of 1. This is the rating scale suggested

by the IPIP.

This rating scale was also used for the Ego Development items, which,

although different procedurally from the usual way of obtaining Q-Sort scores, is

conceptually similar in that judgements regarding the similarity between the item and

the subject are being made. However, the Q-Sort method provides an ipsative

measure of the subject, whereas this approach is looking for a normative measure.

Block (1957) compared normative trait ratings with q-sort ratings and found the

average correlations to be between .79 and .95. He concluded that ipsative ratings are

actually made within the normatively derived frame of reference of the rater,

indicating that using a Likert scale for the Q-Sort items may not be a significant issue.

For the Neuroticism items the higher the score, the higher the level of Neuroticism,

and for the Ego Development items the higher the score, the higher the level of Ego

Development.

Analysis of Scales and Measures

Cronbach's Alpha coefficients were obtained for all scales and subscales to

determine reliability and to refine the scales. The validity of the Ego Development

scale was ascertained by correlating it with the criterion measures. To explore the

intercorrleation of all scales and subscales, a bi-variate correlation matrix was

produced. Finally, a factor analysis was carried out on all items from the

questionnaire.

Reliability of scales

As previously mentioned, both the Ego Development and Neuroticism scales used in

this study did not contain all of the items from the original scales. Additionally, the

Ego Development scales were using a different rating method to that in the original

study, and the Neuroticism items were being used as observer report items rather than

self report. For these reasons, the reliability of all the scales was assessed by

obtaining Cronbach's alpha coefficients using the data obtained from the respondent

sample for the current study.

Although the alpha coefficients for all scales were sufficiently high at the first

calculation (a = .64 or above), 2 items from the Ego Development scales and 3 items

from the Neuroticism scales were omitted to increase the alpha coefficients. These

were: 'Has a clear cut, internally consistent personality' (item 90), and 'Values own

independence and autonomy' (item 88) from the Ego Development scales, and

'Worries about things that have already happened' (item 28), 'Prefers variety to

routine' (item 23), and 'Is comfortable in social situations' (item 49) from the

Neuroticism scales. The final alpha coefficients and number of items per scale are

shown in Table 6.

Table 6: *Alpha coefficients and number of items per scale for scales and subscales of the Ego Development and Neuroticism questionnaires*

Scale	Alpha	No. of items
Ego Development	.95	40
Ego Resilience	.92	23
Resilience	.89	13
Psychological Mindedness	.86	5
Intellectualism	.70	5
Interpersonal Integrity	.84	9
Moral Soundness	.86	4
Interpersonal Closeness	.85	5
Need Regulation	.88	8
Neuroticism	.97	41
Anxiety	.91	8
Anger	.95	10
Depression	.86	5
Self Consciousness	.77	5
Moderation	.64	3
Vulnerability	.91	10
Intellectual Openness	.89	10
Roznafsky Ego Development	.84	6

(N=126)

Validity of Ego Development Scale

The Ego Development scale had already been validated against the SCT in

Westenberg & Block's study; however, to provide additional evidence of convergent

validity the Ego Development scales were correlated with the criterion measures of

Intellectual Openness, Roznafsky's Ego Development scale, and the descriptors of the

Ego Development levels (rated as 1-6). All correlations were significant at the $p<0.01$

level indicating that the Ego Development scale used in this questionnaire is likely to

be measuring a similar construct to other measures relating to Ego Development. The

correlation matrix is provided below (Table 7)

Table 7: *Correlations of Ego Development scale with criterion measures*

	1	2	3
1. Ego Development			
2. Ego Level Descriptions	0.85**		
3. Intellectual Openness	0.72**	0.62**	
4. Roznafsky Ego Dev.	0.89**	0.83**	0.75**

(N=126) **p<0.01*

Inter-Scale Correlations

There was a strong negative correlation between the Ego Development scale and the

Neuroticism scale ($r = -.81$, $p<0.01$). All subscales of the Ego Development scale

were significantly positively correlated with each other, and significantly negatively

correlated with the Neuroticism subscales, with the exception of Self-Consciousness

which did not correlate significantly with Moral Integrity or Need Regulation. All

subscales on the Neuroticism scale correlated significantly with each other, with the

exception of Self-Consciousness which did not correlate significantly with

Moderation. The full matrix of correlations is shown in Table 8.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	*17*	*18*
1. Ego Dev't																		
2. Resilience	.86**																	
3. Psych Minded	.85**	.61**																
4. Ego Resilience	.95**	.91**	.85**															
5. Intellect	.69*	.51**	.67**	.76**														
6. Integrity	.85**	.58**	.73**	.71**	.51**													
7. Moral Soundness	.82**	.57**	.67**	.67**	.48**	.92**												
8. Interpers. Close.	.78**	.52**	.68**	.65**	.47**	.95**	.74**											
9. Need Regulation	.87*	.70**	.66**	.74**	.46**	.67**	.69**	.58**										
10. Neuroticism	-.81**	-.90**	-.62**	-.85**	-.50**	-.48**	-.49**	-.42**	-.72**									
11. Anxiety	-.64**	-.80**	-.43**	-.70**	-.36**	-.35**	-.34**	-.31**	-.54**	.89**								
12. Anger	-.83**	-.80**	-.71**	-.83**	-.54**	-.61**	-.57**	-.57**	-.72**	.88**	.70**							
13. Depression	-.66**	-.79**	-.45**	-.71**	-.41**	.34**	-.38**	-.26**	-.60**	.86**	.74**	.72**						
14. Self Consc.	-.25**	-.47**	-.12	-.36**	-.19*	0.3	0.00	.04	-.14	.55**	.54**	.21*	.44**					
15. Moderation	-.60**	-.52**	-.44**	-.54**	-.37**	-.40**	-.46**	-.29**	-.70**	.56**	.35**	.50**	.43**	.12				
16. Vulnerability	-.74**	-.81**	-.59**	-.78**	-.45**	-.42**	-.45**	-.34**	-.67**	.93**	.77**	.74**	.76**	.55**	.55**			
17. Openness	.72**	.55**	.71**	.75**	.82**	.60**	.53**	.58**	.53**	-.55**	-.42**	-.62**	-.41**	-.17	-.37**	-.50**		
18. Roznafsky ego	.89**	.64**	.82**	.80**	.63**	.87**	.81**	.81**	.75**	-.62**	-.44**	-.73**	-.45**	-.05	-.52**	-.55**	.75**	
19. Ego descriptions	.85**	.68**	.79**	.79**	.53**	.80**	.72**	.76**	.69**	-.65**	-.51**	-.68**	-.51**	-.15	-.50**	-.59**	.62**	.83**

Bold – Total scale   Non-bold – sub-scale   *Italics – sub-sub scale*   ***Bold Italics – Criterion scales***   * p<0.05   **p<0.01

Table 8: *Intercorrelations of mean scores for scales and subscales*

Factor Analysis

As the Ego Development scale items were being used with a Likert rating scale in this study, and the Neuroticism scales were being used for observer ratings, a factor analysis was carried out on the scales. The 81 items from the questionnaire relating to the Ego Development Scale (40 items) and the Neuroticism Scale (41 items) were subjected to a principal components analysis (PCA). The data was found to be suitable for factor analysis as the correlation matrix showed many coefficients above the required level of 0.3, the Kaiser-Meyer-Oklin value was .789, exceeding the recommended value of .6, and the Barlett's Test of Sphericity was statistically significant (Pallant, 2005). It should be noted, however, that the N was not large enough to meet all of the data assumptions for a factor analysis.

The PCA revealed 18 components with eigenvalues above 1, explaining a total of 77% of the variance; however the first two components alone explained 47% of the variance. Component one had an eigenvalue of 35 and explained 36% of the variance, and component two had an eigenvalue of 10 and explained 10% of the variance. The remaining components had eigenvalues ranging from four to one, and explained between 4% and 1% of the variance. An inspection of the screeplot showed a clear break after the second component. Taking the eigenvalues, variance explained and screeplot into consideration, it was decided that two components be retained for further investigation. As there was an expectation that the two factors may be correlated, an Oblimin rotation was performed. The rotation resulted in a two factor solution explaining a total of 54% of the variance; factor 1 contributed 29% of the variance and factor 2 contributed 25%. The correlation between the two factors obtained was -.342.

Interpretation of the two factors indicated that factor one was mainly related to Ego Development, and factor two was mainly related to Neuroticism. 26 of the 40 Ego Development scale items loaded only onto factor 1: 6 items, 5 of which were from the Need Regulation scale, loaded onto both factors but showed higher loadings onto factor one. 7 items from the Resilience subscale loaded onto factor two. As Resilience is similar in nature to aspects of Neuroticism, this was not unexpected. One item from the Intellectualism subscale also loaded onto factor two. From the Neuroticism scale, 25 of the 41 items loaded only onto factor 2, and 13 loaded onto both. Of these 13 items, 9 were from the Anger subscale and showed higher loadings onto factor one, indicating that Anger may be more closely associated with Ego Development than with Neuroticism. 3 items from the Vulnerability subscale loaded higher onto factor 2 than factor 1, and 2 items from this subscale loaded onto factor 2 only. 2 items from the moderation subscale loaded onto factor one only.

Overall, this two factor solution indicates that Ego Development and Neuroticism are two separate factors, although there is a negative correlation between them. From this factor analysis, Resilience appears to be associated more with Neuroticism than with Ego Development, and Anger appears to be more closely associated with Ego Development than with Neuroticism. Although the sample size was not sufficiently large to meet the data assumptions for this factor analysis, indicating that the findings may not be as robust as would be desired, the outcome tends to support the notion that Ego Development and Neuroticism are distinct factors, as previously noted by McCrae and Costa (1980).

Study Four: Results

Analyses

Frequency descriptive statistics for respondents and subjects, including the distribution of types for both the effective and ineffective categories, and means and standard deviations for the scales were obtained. Analyses were carried out to control for three types of potential bias – rater bias regarding categorisation of subjects, rater bias related to the dissonance between the rater and subjects' types, and bias towards those with a preference for Intuition being rated as having higher levels of Ego Development. An inter-rater reliability measure was obtained using correlation, a dissonance scale was included in a logistic regression analysis to control for type related bias, and a MANOVA was performed on the Ego Development scores of subjects with a preference for Intuition compared to subjects with a preference for Sensing.

To test the hypotheses, a MANOVA was performed on the scale data from the two groups (effective and ineffective), followed by logistic regression analyses to explore the factors that contribute to perceptions of effectiveness of type use.

Descriptive Statistics

Respondent and Subject Statistics

A total of 65 people responded to the questionnaire, resulting in questionnaire data for 65 people in the Ineffective use of type category and 61 people in the Effective use of type category. The distribution of age and gender for respondents and subjects are shown in Table 9.

Table 9: *Distribution of age and gender for respondents and subjects*

	Gender		Age			
	Male	Female	18-25	26-35	35-45	45+
Respondent	35.7%	64.3%	1.6%	12.7%	28.6%	57.1%
Subject - Effective	41%	59%	4.6%	9.2%	33.8%	52.3%
Subject - Ineffective	49.2%	50.8%		11.5%	27.9%	60.7%

The distributions of types in each category group showed no observable pattern of difference, and most types were represented in each category (see Table 10).

Table 10: *Type distributions of ratees for Ineffective and Effective Use of Type categories*

Ineffective Use of Type				Effective Use of Type			
ISTJ	ISFJ	INFJ	INTJ	ISTJ	ISFJ	INFJ	INTJ
3	4	2	1	0	2	5	4
ISTP	ISFP	INFP	INTP	ISTP	ISFP	INFP	INTP
5	2	3	4	6	1	1	7
ESTP	ESFP	ENFP	ENTP	ESTP	ESFP	ENFP	ENTP
5	3	3	3	6	1	1	11
ESTJ	ESFJ	ENFJ	ENTJ	ESTJ	ESFJ	ENFJ	ENTJ
4	9	2	4	5	2	2	3
Unknown = 8				Unknown = 4			

Descriptive Statistics for Questionnaire Data

The mean scores and standard deviations for the Ineffective and Effective category groups are shown in Table 11.

Table 11: *Means and Standard Deviations of Ineffective and Effective categories of Ego Development and Neuroticism scales and subscales*

Scale	Ineffective		Effective	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Ego Development	2.8	0.5	4.08	0.42
Ego Resilience	2.8	0.5	4.04	0.44
Resilience	2.76	0.72	3.89	0.58
Psych. Mindedness	2.61	0.67	4.24	0.53
Intellectualism	3.2	0.74	4.18	0.61
Interpersonal Integrity	2.89	0.89	4.34	0.55
Moral Soundness	3.09	1.07	4.54	0.61
Interpersonal Closeness	2.74	0.94	4.18	0.66
Need Regulation	2.59	0.83	3.97	0.68
Neuroticism	3.12	0.68	2.04	0.47
Anxiety	3.31	0.94	2.27	0.69
Anger	3.63	0.84	1.95	0.60
Depression	3.03	0.95	2.04	0.67
Self Consciousness	2.30	0.91	2.03	0.72
Moderation	3.29	0.89	2.46	0.70
Vulnerability	2.89	0.77	1.83	0.56
Intellectual Openness	3.08	0.78	4.32	0.54
Roznafsky Ego Development	2.73	0.71	4.31	0.58
Ego Level Descriptions	2.22	1.15	5.05	0.865

Controls for rater effects and bias

Inter-rater reliability

As the fundamental basis of these analyses is the raters' classifications of individuals as demonstrating either Effective or Ineffective use of type, inter-rater reliability for this concept was tested using the Kappa statistic. Three experienced Myers-Briggs practitioners were asked individually to rate 13 target individuals as either Effective or Ineffective in their use of type. The Kappa statistic calculates how much agreement between raters is actually present compared to how much agreement would

be present by chance alone. The inter-rater agreement is show in Table 12, including

the interpretation of agreement as per the scale cited in Viera and Garrett (2005).

Table 12: Inter-rater reliability for judgements of effective or ineffective as measured by Kappa

Rater	Kappa	p =	Agreement
Rater 1 x Rater 2	.843	.002	Almost perfect agreement
Rater 1 x Rater 3	.831	.002	Almost perfect agreement
Rater 2 x Rater 3	.683	.009	Substantial agreement

Rater-ratee type bias

Although even people of the same type may find that on an individual basis they

experience interpersonal tension between each other, there are three known type

differences that are most likely to cause interpersonal tension or misunderstanding.

These are (1) an individual who has one's inferior function as their dominant function,

(2) an individual who has one's dominant function as their dominant function but in

the opposite attitude (e.g., Extraverted Thinking vs. Introverted Thinking), and (3) an

individual who has the opposite functional pairs (e.g., NF vs. ST). In order to control

for the effect of these type differences between rater and ratee, a dissonance scale was

created. Values of 0 were allocated to cases where the rater and ratee had the same

type, a value of 0.5 was given when there was one letter different, 1 where there were

2 letters different yet the types were diagonally adjacent on the type table, and a value

of 2 where there were 2 spaces between the types on the type table and either 2 or 3

letters different. The latter case would be where any of the 3 known tension

differences would occur. This dissonance variable was entered into a logistical

regression equation with the total Ego Development and total Neuroticism variables,

however it was found to have no influence on the model (B = -0.173, p<0.766),

indicating that type differences had not influenced ratings. Therefore it was excluded from further analyses.

Bias towards the Intuition preference

As previously noted, several studies have found that individuals with a preference for Intuition are often rated as higher on Openness and Ego Development than those with a preference for Sensing (e.g., Darnell et al., 1985). To ascertain whether ratees with a preference for Intuition were rated as being significantly higher on measures of Ego Development or Neuroticism, a one way between groups multivariate analysis of variance was carried out. The dependent variables were Ego Development score, Roznafsky's Ego Development scale, Intellectual Openness and Neuroticism. There was statistically significant difference between ratees with preferences for Sensing and those with preferences for Intuition on the combined dependent variables (F=2.71, $p<0.05$; Wilk's Lambda = 0.91; partial eta squared = 0.09). When the dependent variables were considered separately, the only difference to reach statistical significance, using a Bonferroni adjusted alpha level of 0.0125 was Roznafsky's Ego Development scale (F=6.648, $p<0.01$, partial eta squared = 0.056). This indicates that, for this variable, 5.6% of the variance is due to the Sensing and Intuition preferences. The Ego Development scale fell just below the required adjusted p value (F=4.77, p=0.03). An examination of the mean scores on these variables showed very little difference (Roznafsky mean difference = 0.47; Ego Development mean difference = 0.31). These results indicate that, in this case, those with a preference for Intuition were not scored significantly higher on the measure of Ego Development that was to form part of the regression analyses.

Tests of Hypotheses

In order to test the three hypotheses, a MANOVA, followed by logistic regression analyses were carried out on the questionnaire data. The logistic regression method was selected as the dependent variable was dichotomous (Ineffective vs. Effective) and normal distributions of the independent variables are not assumed. Several different models were attempted before coming to the best fit model. The relevant analyses are described below.

Hypotheses One and Two: Ego Development and Neuroticism

With regard to Hypotheses One and Two, a MANOVA analysis was carried out to determine whether there were significant differences between the effective and ineffective groups on all scales, subscales and criterion measures of Ego Development (Intellectual Openness, Roznafsky Ego Development scale, Ego level description). As there were a total of 18 dependent variables entered into the analysis, a Bonferroni adjusted significance level of $p < 0.003$ was required to determine a significant difference. Significant differences at the $p = 0.000$ level were found between the two category groups on all scales, subscales and criterion measures except for Self-Consciousness ($p = 0.07$).

Tests for predictive variables: In order to test Hypotheses One and Two, the mean total Ego Development and Neuroticism variables were entered into the regression (Table 13).

Table 13: *Logistic regression of effectiveness on Ego Development and Neuroticism: odds ratio, confidence intervals and p value*

Variable	Odds ratio	95% CI Odds Ratio	p =
Ego Development	106.47	15.18 – 746.58	0.001
Neuroticism	0.585	0.169 – 2.028	0.398

The results indicated that only Ego Development was a significant predictor for the category of ineffective or effective type use. The observed odds ratio for Ego Development indicates that, holding all other variables constant, each one unit increase in Ego Development would increase the likelihood of being classified as Effective in use of type by a multiplicative factor of 106.47. Using the Nagelkerke R^2 value, the model fit explained 81.2% of the variance, and the classification values indicate that this model would correctly classify cases 92.9% of the time (Ineffective correctly classified 93.8% of cases; Effective correctly classified 91.8% of cases). The chi-square value for this model was 118.142, df=2, p<0.001, indicating that there is a significant difference between the two categories of effective and ineffective use of type. This supports hypothesis one. Although the association between effectiveness of type use and Neuroticism was negative, the B values were not significant and, therefore, these findings do not support hypothesis two.

Subscale contributions to the model

Logistic regression analyses were carried out to assess the relative contributions of the subscales of both the Ego Development scale and the Neuroticism variables. In the first analysis, the three main subscale variables from the Ego Development variable –

Ego Resilience, Interpersonal Integrity and Need Regulation – were entered into the

regression (Table 14).

Table 14: *Logistic regression of effectiveness on Ego Development subscales of Ego Resilience, Need Regulation and Integrity: odds ratio, confidence intervals and p value*

Variable	Odds ratio	95% CI Odds Ratio	p=
Ego resilience	40.48	7.06 – 232.15	0.001
Need Regulation	1.38	0.53 – 3.595	0.509
Integrity	3.96	1.292 – 12.107	0.05

Need regulation was not a significant predictor, however both Ego Resilience and

Interpersonal Integrity were found to be significant contributors.

Exploring the contribution to the model of the breakdown of these subscale

variables, the components of each subscale were entered into the regression.

Resilience and Psychological Mindedness were significant contributors to the model

(Table 15).

Table 15: *Logistic regression of effectiveness on Ego Development subscales of Intellectualism, Moral Soundness, Interpersonal Closeness, Resilience and Psychological Mindedness: odds ratio, confidence intervals and p value*

Variable	Odds ratio	95% CI Odds Ratio	p=
Intellectualism	.561	.148 – 2.124	0.395
Moral Soundness	1.109	.375 – 3.277	0.851
Interpersonal Closeness	2.58	.816 – 8.16	0.107
Resilience	8.488	1.584 – 45.487	0.01
Psychological Mindedness	37.52	4.833 – 291.299	0.001

Using the Nagelkerke R^2, this model would explain 87% of the variance and correctly classify 95.2% of cases (95.4% for Ineffective and 95.1% for Effective). Interpersonal Closeness fell just below the required significance level. Intellectualism and Moral Soundness were not significant (B=-0.577 and B=0.104 respectively). A similar process was carried out for the subscale variables for Neuroticism (Table 16).

Table 16: *Logistic regression of effectiveness on Neuroticism subscales: odds ratio, confidence intervals and p value*

Variable	Odds ratio	95% CI Odds Ratio	p=
Anxiety	1.264	.410 – 3.897	0.683
Anger	0.096	.029 - .316	0.001
Depression	1.726	.513 – 5.801	0.378
Self Consciousness	1.954	.668 – 5.719	0.221
Moderation	-.767	.316 – 1.864	0.559
Vulnerability	.225	0.043 – 1.181	0.078

These subscale variables only explained 72.6% of the variance according to the Nagelkerke R^2 value, and Anger was the only significant predictor. Vulnerability fell just below the required significance value. All other Neuroticism subscale variables were not significant contributors to the model.

Finally, the most predictive subscale variables from each analysis were entered into a logistic regression equation to obtain the best fit model (Table 17).

Table 17: *Logistic regression of effectiveness on Neuroticism and Ego Development subscales of Anger, Resilience, Psychological Mindedness, Interpersonal Closeness and Vulnerability: odds ratio, confidence intervals and p value*

Variable	Odds ratio	95% CI Odds Ratio	p=
Anger	.312	.086 – 1.137	0.077
Resilience	.801	.072 – 8.892	0.857
Psychological Mindedness	13.056	2.493 – 68.363	0.002
Interpersonal Closeness	4.559	1.103 – 18.832	0.036
Vulnerability	.276	.028 – 2.761	0.273

The variables entered into the regression were Psychological Mindedness, Resilience and Anger. Interpersonal Closeness and Vulnerability were also entered into the regression as they had been close to significant predictors. In this model, Psychological Mindedness and Interpersonal Closeness were significant contributors to the model, with Anger falling just below the required significance level. Resilience and Vulnerability were not significant predictors.

Neuroticism as a moderator

Hypothesis three stated that Neuroticism is likely to act as a moderator between Ego Development and effectiveness of use of type. The Ego Development and Neuroticism variables were centralised (converted to differences from the mean values) and these new centralised variables were entered into a logistic regression equation with a moderation variable (centred Ego Development x centred Neuroticism (Table 18).

Table 18: *Logistic regression of effectiveness on Neuroticism and Ego Development with Neuroticism as a moderator: odds ratio, confidence intervals and p value*

Variable	Odds ratio	95% CI Odds Ratio	p=
Centred Ego Development x Centred Neuroticism	6.278	.297 – 132.731	0.238
Centred Ego Development	0.005	.00 - .057	0.001
Centred Neuroticism	1.484	.423 – 5.210	0.538

The moderation variable, centralised Neuroticism x centralised Ego Development, was not significant (B=0.395, ns), and therefore did not support hypothesis three. The predicted probabilities of Neuroticism as a moderator of Ego Development are shown in Figure 18.
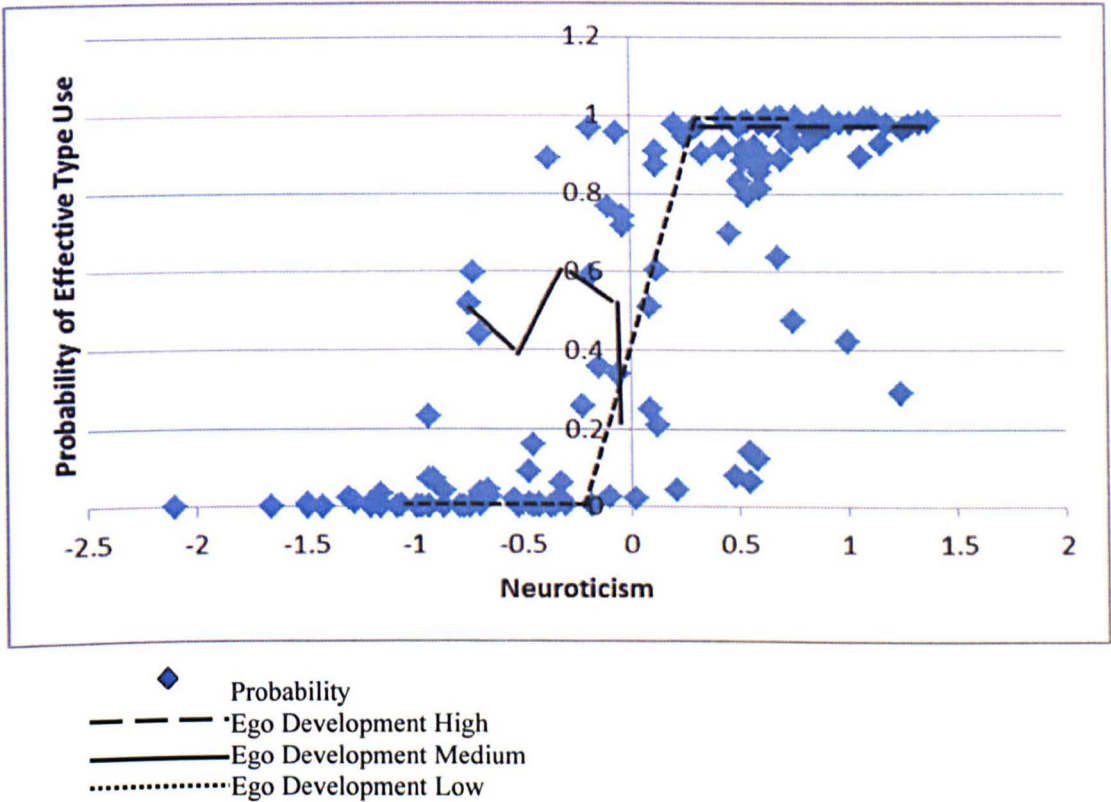

Figure 18: Predicted Probabilities of Neuroticism as a Moderator of Ego Development

Figure 18 illustrates that, although individuals with low Ego Development are more likely to have higher Neuroticism, high Ego Development does not predict an individual's level of Neuroticism.

Logistic Regression Final Model

For the final model, Psychological Mindedness, Interpersonal Closeness and Anger were the variables entered into the regression. This model indicated a good fit (chi-square = 135.77, df=3, p<0.001; Nagelkerke R^2=88% of variance explained; correctly classifying 97% of Ineffective cases and 95% of Effective cases). All three predictor variables were significant contributors to the model, as shown in Table 19.

Table 19: *Logistic regression of effectiveness on Neuroticism and Ego Development subscales of Psychological Mindedness, Anger and Interpersonal Closeness: odds ratio, confidence intervals and p value*

Variable	Odds ratio	95% CI Odds Ratio	p=
Psychological Mindedness	15.86	3.15-79.9	p<0.001
Anger	0.196	0.073-0.53	p<0.001
Interpersonal Closeness	2.90	1.028-8.192	p<0.05

Summary of Results

These results offer support for hypothesis one – that Ego Development will be positively associated with effective use of type – however only two of the subscale variables from the overall Ego Development variable were found to be significant contributors. Hypothesis two – that Neuroticism will be negatively associated with

effective type use – is only supported with regard to the Anger subscale of Neuroticism. Hypothesis three – that Neuroticism would be a moderator of effectiveness of type use – was not supported.

Study Four: Discussion

In considering the findings from this study, it must be borne in mind that the Ego Development questionnaire used in this study is not a precise measure of Ego Development or ego level, but is made up of items that Loevinger et al. believed would correlate with an individual's level of Ego Development.

The results of this study support hypothesis 1 - that effective use of type will be positively associated with Ego Development - although only the Psychological Mindedness and Interpersonal Closeness aspects of the Ego Development variable were found to be significant predictors. Psychological mindedness is, nevertheless, a key aspect of Ego Development. It is concerned with introspectiveness, self-knowledge and an awareness of the motivations of self and others. Loevinger's model of the milestones of Ego Development (see Table 3) shows that, at the higher levels of Ego Development, individuals will have greater tolerance of others and be able to manage inner conflict better. Both Westenberg and Block (1993) and Lorr and Manning (1978) found that psychological mindedness had a positive linear relationship with Ego Development as measured by the SCT. Additionally, Westenberg and Block (1993) note that psychological mindedness has an inverse relationship with the use of immature defence mechanisms such as projection and repression, and therefore has an inverse relationship with Ego Development as individuals at the higher levels of Ego Development tend to use more mature defence mechanisms such as rationalisation. It may be worth noting at this point that the

MBTI Step 3 scale of Compensatory Strain is concerned with ego defensiveness and the lack of self awareness/unconscious motivations; similar concepts to aspects of Psychological Mindedness.

The contribution of Interpersonal Closeness, (described by Westenberg and Block as being concerned with an inclination towards authentic and close relationships), to the perceived effectiveness of type use can also be related to Loevinger's model of Ego Development milestones. Under the 'Interpersonal Style' category, she describes the path of development from manipulative through to cherishing of individuality, and in the 'Conscious Preoccupation' category she describes advantage and control as being features of the Opportunistic level, and reputation and appearance as being major concerns in the Conformist level. These characteristics are absent in the higher levels, which show increases in authenticity and the capacity to form genuine relationships. Together, Psychological Mindedness and Interpersonal Closeness appear to account for a large proportion of Loevinger's milestone descriptions. The finding that these two aspects of Ego Development are predictive of effectiveness of use of type indicates that Ego Development may be a useful construct to combine with psychological type.

Of the aspects of the Ego Development scale that did not contribute significantly to the perceived effectiveness of type use, the absence of Resilience and Need Regulation are not entirely surprising as they tend to be closely related to aspects of Neuroticism. Westenberg and Block (1993) defined the Resilience scale as being related to "the capacity to manage anxiety and tolerate frustrations, criticism and other setbacks" (p.796). The factor analysis and a face validity inspection of the items also support the notion that these subscales are closely related to Neuroticism. Most of the Need Regulation items loaded onto both the Neuroticism factor and the

Ego Development factor, and most of the Resilience items loaded onto the Neuroticism factor. Revisiting the study by John et al. (1998) in which they found women with high levels of Ego Development, yet demonstrating 'conflicted' personality styles, it was suggested that resilience may be a moderator of Ego Development rather than a director contributor. The possibility that Resilience was more of a moderator of Ego Development was explored, however this was not found to be the case. One possibility is that the aspects of Resilience and Need Regulation being measured in this study, whilst having some bearing on actual Ego Development, do not have an observable influence on the effectiveness with which one uses their type. The role of Resilience and Need Regulation in both Ego Development and effectiveness of type use may be worthy of further investigation.

Intellectualism and Moral Soundness were also not found to be significant predictors of effective type use. The inclusion of intellectualism in the Ego Development scale is due to the tendency towards an increase in openness to ideas and a growing interest in intellectual and philosophical matters, often observed in higher levels of Ego Development. Although Westenberg and Block found a linear relationship between Ego Development level and Intellectualism, they note that it is also related to level of verbal fluency and is not purely a function of Ego Development. Although higher levels of Ego Development are positively associated with the ability to cope with complexity and ambiguity and to be open to ideas, the research (e.g., Newman et al., 1998) shows that Ego Development has not been found to be related to intelligence per se. The Intellectual Openness criterion measure did, however, show a significant difference between the effective and ineffective groups (irrespective of preference or Sensing or Intuition), but was not found to be a significant predictor in the model. Again, it may be suggested that Intellectualism is

not an easily observable characteristic, or that, despite it being related to Ego

Development, it does not influence perceptions of effective type use.

The lack of significance of Moral Soundness to the perception of effectiveness

of type use is rather surprising; however, the distribution of scores for this scale show

a very strong negative skew, indicating that most people were rated as very high in

Moral Soundness and few were given low scores. An inspection of the items for this

scale suggests that only those with extremely exploitative behaviour would be likely

to receive below average ratings. Westenberg and Block (1993) note that moral

integrity is "the touchstone of character development" (p. 798) and is strongly related

to Ego Development. One possible explanation for it not being relevant for the

perception of effectiveness type use may be that individuals who are skilled in

adapting their behaviour and responding to the type preferences of others (i.e.,

effective in use of type) may be able to use this manipulatively. Nevertheless,

looking at the data, the ineffective group had a range of ratings on this scale, whereas

the effective group were almost entirely high scoring. This leads to another potential

explanation; that individuals who are ineffective in their use of type may be either

morally sound or not, but that their moral stance does not have any effect on their

capacity for self-awareness or adaptability.

Hypothesis two – Neuroticism will be positively associated with ineffective

use of type – was not fully supported by this study. Only the subscale of Anger was

found to be a significant predictor of effectiveness of type use. Depression,

Moderation and Vulnerability showed a range of scores with relatively normal

distributions for the ineffective type use group, and Self-Consciousness showed a

slightly positive skew; however Anger showed a distinctive negative skew. For the

effective use of type group, there was a very clear positive skew indicating a clear

difference between the groups on this particular subscale. As only Anger was a relevant predictor and the other subscale scores varied in their distributions between the effective and ineffective group, this finding may be due to the heterogeneity of the Neuroticism scale, as noted by Westenberg and Block (1993). Having said this, there were significant differences using ANOVA between the two groups on all of these subscales, and an inspection of the distributions of the subscale scores indicate that those with effective use of type tend to have lower scores than those who demonstrate ineffective use of type.

Anger (or hostility) is a known characteristic of the lower levels of Ego Development, yet it is not believed to be absent in higher levels, although it is likely to be managed better. In relation to effectiveness of type use, and looking at the scale items, it would appear that those who are ineffective in their use of type are more likely to become angry more quickly and more frequently than those who use their type effectively. Again, this would suggest that some form of Resilience may moderate the expression of anger. Perhaps the presence of Psychological Mindedness and Interpersonal Closeness enable an individual to be aware of their feelings, attempt different strategies to deal with situations, and take other people's views and feelings into consideration, rather than reacting impulsively. Another possibility for this finding is that, when one becomes pressured (including becoming angry), they are likely to become more forceful in using the negative aspects of their type and less able to be adaptive and flexible. Therefore, individuals who are prone to anger will demonstrate ineffective use of type more frequently than those who are not. One important finding to note from the factor analysis, however, is that, although 9 of the 10 anger items loaded onto both factors, they were loading more strongly onto the

Ego Development factor, indicating that Anger may be connected more to Ego Development than to Neuroticism.

Hypothesis Three - Neuroticism is likely to act as a moderator between Ego Development and effectiveness of use of type – was not supported by this study.

Overall these findings support the notion that effectiveness of type use is related more to aspects of Ego Development than to Neuroticism, and the aspects of Ego Development that it is related to (Psychological Mindedness and Interpersonal Closeness) tend to correspond closely with Loevinger's milestones of development. Additionally, the concept of Psychological Mindedness relates to the developmental differences described in the differentiation and individuation processes of type development; the increase in self awareness, introspection, awareness of the impact of one's behaviour on others. These developmental changes, naturally, lead to more harmonious and productive behaviours and the capacity for Interpersonal Closeness. Anger, although from the Neuroticism scale, showed stronger loadings on the Ego Development factor than on to the Neuroticism factor, indicating that it may be more akin to Ego Development.

The role of Resilience in this study is somewhat inconsistent with previous research on Ego Development, which tends to find that Resilience is positively associated with Ego Development level (e.g , Westenberg & Block, 1993). Although people with low resilience may develop to the higher Ego Development levels, logic would suggest that their capacity to maintain functioning at their highest level would be affected by their level of Resilience. Therefore, it follows that, although Ego Development and Neuroticism have been consistently found to be independent (e.g., McRae & Costa, 1980, 1992; Kurtz & Tiegreen, 2005) the Resilience aspect of Neuroticism, may be a moderator in Ego Development. However, as this study was

not measuring ego level per se, but was concerned with effectiveness of type use, it is possible that individuals were being rated from the point of view of their most frequently observed characteristics rather than their capacity to maintain such states, and therefore Resilience was not found to be relevant.

Although the results of this study indicate that information regarding Psychological Mindedness and Interpersonal Closeness may provide additional useful information that is relevant to an individual's use of type, there are several suggestions for further research. Again, looking through the epistemological lens of social constructionism, a limitation of this study is that the findings were based on the perceptions of one observer per case. Of course, their perception of effectiveness and ineffectiveness, despite definitions being provided to control for subjective interpretations of these terms, may have been filtered by their own constructs. Likewise, the individuals they may have selected to rate may have been selected somewhat subjectively. For this reason, obtaining more of a 360° approach to data collection to include self ratings and ratings from more than one observer would strengthen the findings, and would help to assess whether a self-report measure could be developed (although there is the possibility that those who are at early levels of Ego Development may not self-report accurately). Secondly, the data collected in this study related to a categorical variable (effective or ineffective use of type), so there is no indication of the characteristics of 'average' use of type. Therefore, adapting the questionnaire so that it would be able to explore more of a range of effectiveness of type use may lead to the development of a questionnaire with a normative basis. Thirdly, although the questionnaire in this study did not aim to measure Ego Development per se, but considered some of the characteristics that are related to Ego Development, comparisons between self-report data and the SCT

would be interesting to make in order to further clarify the role of Ego Development in relation to effectiveness of type use. Finally, the role of resilience could be explored more fully, perhaps by using a normative type of scale that is indicative of frequency of behaviours and characteristics, or asking directly about an individual's consistency of behaviour.

Overall, this study provides a good indication that the characteristics that contribute to effectiveness of type use are linked to aspects of Ego Development. Therefore, using these two theories in conjunction would enhance the existing Myers-Briggs model of psychological type. The place of Neuroticism alongside psychological type would provide additional yet separate pieces of information about an individual. The further development of these findings may lead to the creation of a rating scale that could be used alongside the MBTI, and which would provide valuable additional information to type practitioners and coaches.

General Discussion and Conclusions

Prompted by the literature review, three broad questions were explored in this chapter via the 4 research studies:

1. From the perspective of type practitioners, is there a missing dimension in the current Myers-Briggs theory?

2. If so, to what does it relate? (a) Neuroticism, (b) Ego Development, or (c) a combination of the two?

3. And what are the implications of this for Myers-Briggs practitioners?

The focus group interview described in Study 1 indicated that Myers-Briggs practitioners using type in coaching tend to find that it is limited in application for development by its simplicity and positive focus. Although the current Myers-Briggs model is adequate for many of the interventions for which it is used, such as team building and initial stages of personal development, its simplification can result in it being difficult to use to address dysfunctional behaviours or to identify developmental needs, other than the development of the non-preferred styles. Study 2 indicated that practitioners would be interested in the Myers-Briggs having added dimensions that would provide an indication of type development and effectiveness of use of type. To explore exactly what 'effective use of type' actually meant, Study 3 used a rep grid technique to interview type practitioners. The findings from this, and the findings from the literature review, indicated that effective use of type was very closely related to type development as described by Jung and by Myers, and the definitions that resulted from this were, for the most part, related to characteristics associated with Ego Development. Finally, study 4 aimed to specifically address question 2, and explored the relative contributions of Ego Development and Neuroticism to

perceptions of effectiveness of use of type. The outcomes of this study indicated that certain aspects of Ego Development, Psychological Mindedness and Interpersonal Closeness, and one aspect of Neuroticism, Anger, were predictors of effectiveness of use of type. It is noted, however, that in the factor analysis, Anger loaded more strongly onto the Ego Development factor, indicating that it may be more related to Ego Development than to Neuroticism.

So in response to the research questions, it would appear that there is a missing dimension in the current Myers-Briggs theory and that it relates to type development/effectiveness of use of type. This aspect of psychological type theory has always been present in the Jung-Myers model, but has not been made explicit. As noted earlier, Isabel Myers had also noted this absence and begun work on the questionnaire that is now known as Step 3. Her model appears to be looking at variables relating to ego defensiveness, Neuroticism and resilience, and the questionnaire output is a series of statements for exploration with a coach, rather than an indication of type development; thus taking rather a different approach to the issue.

Although the findings of this research have not led to the creation of a comprehensive measure of Ego Development or any indication of a specific level of Ego Development, they do indicate that effectiveness of use of type is related to level of Ego Development, as the questionnaire used was based on items selected by Loevinger and validated against the SCT.

A limitation of these findings is that they are based on observer ratings rather than on self-report, and they have only led to a model that is predictive of effective or ineffective use of type. A self-report measure that could, in addition, indicate an average or typical level of type effectiveness is likely to be more useful to practitioners and coaches. However, as previously noted, research has shown that self-

reports of effectiveness and self-estimates of Ego Development are subject to both conscious and unconscious distortion (e.g., Strang & Kuhnert, 2009; Westenberg & Block, 1993). This is because individuals functioning at the early stages of Ego Development tend to over-estimate their efficacy due to the fact that they are usually unaware that they have the potential to develop further and that their perspective may not be the only one, and individuals functioning at later stages realise that they will never know everything, that their perspective is not the only one (or the right one), and that development is on-going. This is the reason why the established measures of Ego Development use projective techniques and previous research into aspects of ego development have used third party ratings. Nevertheless, this study clearly sets the foundation for further research in this area.

To more fully understand the relationship between psychological type and Ego Development levels, a study using a refinement of this questionnaire and comparisons with the SCT would be very valuable. Even if each individual level of Ego Development could not be explored, the differences between pre-conventional, conventional and post-conventional levels, as defined by Cook-Greuter (2002) would be useful. Finally, the development of descriptions of each Myers-Briggs type according to level of Ego Development would be useful in helping practitioners and coaches to identify potential areas for development and clarify the path of development for a particular type.

The research here indicates that aspects of Ego Development may be able to predict whether an individual is effective or ineffective in their use of type. This information would be useful for type practitioners and coaches as it would provide an indication of the developmental issues related to the individual's actual type (as

opposed to their non-preferred styles), the types of interventions and learning

experiences that may be useful for the individual, and, in addition, how they [the

coach] may approach the coaching relationship. For example, those with less

effective use of type are likely to be operating at earlier stages of Ego Development;

for them, useful developmental interventions would make use of basic psychological

type interventions and build self-awareness slowly. Additionally, a non-challenging

coaching style may create better engagement. For those who are effective and,

therefore, likely to be operating at later stages of Ego Development, more advanced

use of psychological type to include explorations of inner tensions and the shadow

sides may be beneficial. As a coach, challenge, feedback and the use of the coaching

relationship may be effective and acceptable to the client.

Pritchard (2009) supports this view, and states that the use of the Myers-Briggs in

combination with a measure of Ego Development can enhance the coaching

experience for both the coach and the client:

> ... an understanding of both models and their interaction may help us to gain a
>
> more complete view of individuals, how the world is for them and how we might
>
> work with them as a coach. In addition, failure to take account of either natural
>
> preferences of style or developmental differences can lead us to inadequate
>
> conclusions about a person (p. 37).

Therefore, this research will be useful in helping coaches to explore what an

individual's developmental needs may be, where they are likely to be in terms of their

psychological type development, the style of coaching that will be most beneficial for

them, and the type of actions and goals that will enable their development.

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Chapter Three

Case Study Analysis

</div>

Using the Jung-Myers Model of Psychological Type in Systems-Psychodynamic

Coaching: A Case Study

Introduction

The aim of this case study is to illustrate how a coaching client was able to gain

insight into the root cause of an issue using psychological type theory (Jung, 1990) in

conjunction with the 6 Domain Model of system-psychodynamic coaching

(Brunning, 2007). This study will describe how type can be set back into the original

Jungian psychodynamic context (the 'Jung-Myers' model), enabling the coach and

client to explore more aspects of an individual's personality and employ coaching

techniques that explore inner tensions and dynamics. The suitability for using this

model in systems-psychodynamic coaching is described, followed by a case study,

focusing on one coaching session in particular, to illustrate how the client's presenting

issue, which was connected to a recurrent theme, was addressed using these models.

The Use of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) in Coaching

The use of psychometrics by coaches is now fairly commonplace. In a survey by

McDowall and Smewing (2009) exploring the use of psychometrics in coaching,

eighty percent of the coaches in their sample reported using psychometrics.

McDowall and Smewing found that the MBTI (Briggs-Myers & Myers, 1995) was,

by far, the tool most used in coaching, with 49% of the sample reporting that they use

it.

From the available literature and Study 1 from the empirical research chapter of this thesis, the typical use of the MBTI in coaching, as well as in other interventions, tends to concentrate on recognising one's preferences and developing an awareness of the opposites. For example, Carr, Cooke, Harris and Kendall (2008) state that, "Understanding type will help people to be aware of the strengths they offer in any situation as well as where their blind spots may be" (p. 59). They go on to say that, in using type in developmental coaching, the task of the coach is to encourage an attitude of openness to the opposite perspectives rather than trying to master non-preferred sides. Krebs-Hirsh & Kise (2000) make suggestions for using the MBTI in coaching that mainly involves exploring the non-preferred sides; however, they also include some ideas regarding the potential pitfalls that may arise from a coachee's preferred styles. Whilst these suggested applications are extremely useful and offer a well grounded introduction to psychological type for a client, Jung's original theory of typology may provide additional information that would offer the opportunity to employ other applications of type.

In Jung's theory, the tensions and conflicts of the dynamics of type are absolutely central, and the theory includes the notion that one's non-preferred styles and other aspects of the psyche may have an ever-present influence on the personality. According to Jung, type dynamics involves the competing energies of the psyche and, in particular, the principles of equivalence (opposing forces trying to obtain balance) and entropy (energy invested in one aspect will create equal potential energy in its opposite). Jung believed that, although an individual will have predominant or preferred psychological functions, the opposite functions will be attempting to come to the fore, thus creating constant dynamics and tensions within the individual, and

that personal development comes from acknowledging, exploring and managing these tensions.

In relation to this, Spoto (1995) criticises the Myers-Briggs model for being concerned with the *problem of differences* in its treatment of the preference pairs (i.e., how does one person differ from another), and neglecting of the *problem of opposites* (i.e., how is an individual's type working within them), thus losing some of "the heat and passion" of Jung's original work (p. 7). He goes on to add, "at the very least one would suspect that he [Jung] would have warned us about making too much of typology outside the context and intentions of his work as a whole" (p. 10). Fortunately, Spoto is not implying that we should be considering typology in the context of Jung's entire life's work and theories, but just placing it in the context of Jung's theory of the psyche. The following section aims to place psychological type theory back into the Jungian concept of the psyche, and explain how different aspects of the psyche can influence one's psychological type.

Psychological Type in the Jungian Context

The psyche, according to Jungian psychology, is the total personality through which psychic energy flows continuously in various directions; inner to outer, conscious to unconscious. The dynamic movement of this energy is an outcome of conflicts and tensions present within the psyche. The psyche, although not a rigid structure, has several key components; the ego, the persona, the shadow, the self, and the conscious and unconscious areas, including the collective unconscious. Psychological type, per se, only represents a small part of the total psyche, however the other parts of the psyche will have an influence on type in terms of its development, dynamics and tensions. Figure 18 is a representation of Jung's map of the psyche, compiled from a

range of available diagrams from the literature (e.g., Stein, 2004; Jacobi, 1973; Spoto, 1995).

There is not sufficient scope in this particular study to fully explore Jung's concept of the psyche, so the following is a brief description of the key features and an explanation of how they can add to the exploration of psychological type. To describe the use of the Myers-Briggs theory of psychological type set into the Jungian context, the term 'Jung-Myers' model will be used, as suggested by Quenk (2002).
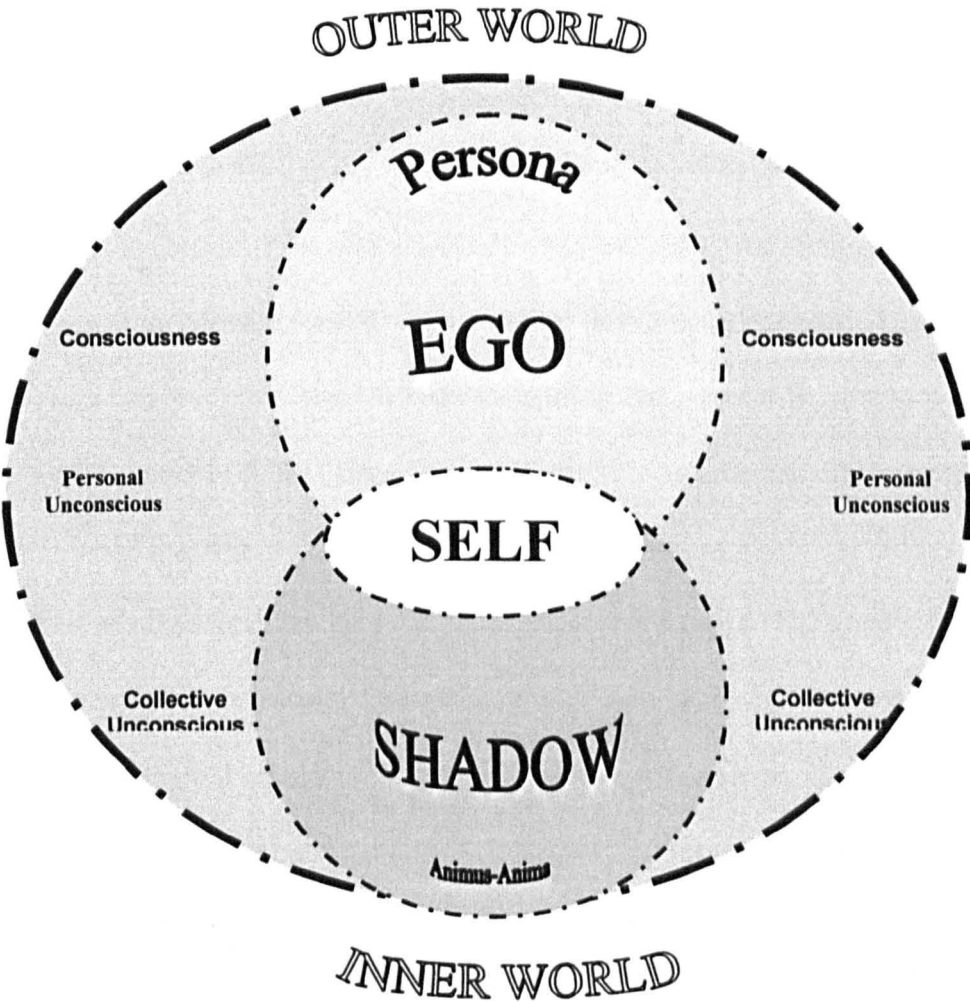

Figure 19: Diagram representing Jung's model of the psyche

The ego is particularly important in relation to type as it is the source of our conscious identity; who we are, what we like and dislike, how we prefer to be.

Therefore, this is the area of the psyche that an individual is likely to be referring to when assessing their preferences. Jacobi (1973) points out that, although most of the ego is in the conscious area, some of it is unconscious and is in the shadow. The shadow represents the undeveloped, unconscious and inferior part of our psyches. This would account for the parts of ourselves or personality characteristics we may have that we are not always aware of but, when we see them in others, we are judgemental and critical (projection). Typically, when a type practitioner is working with a client they are only addressing part of the conscious ego and the positive aspects of the preferences. The shadow aspects of the preferences are rarely addressed. The non-preferred functions theoretically lie on the periphery of the unconscious ego, with the inferior (least preferred) function being more embedded in the unconscious (Jacobi, 1973; Spoto, 1995). It is well accepted by most users of the Myers-Briggs that the inferior function can erupt from the unconscious during times of stress or when the individual has been over-using their dominant function, as per Quenk's stress model (2002). However, what practitioners are not often aware of is that the inferior function, even when not making an active appearance, influences our perceptions of others and can give rise to negative projections. The identification of these projections can be essential in working with individuals on their personal development. It could be argued that exploring relevant aspects of the shadow should be part of any developmental work involving type. In fact, Jung states:

> Unfortunately there can be no doubt that man is, on the whole, less good than he imagines himself or wants to be. Everyone carries a shadow, and the less it is embodied in the individual's conscious life, the blacker and denser it is. If an inferiority is conscious, one always has a chance to correct it (1970, p.14).

Part of the ego, and the part that faces the outer world, is the Persona. The word 'Persona' was used by Jung to describe the mask we wear in order to interact

with others according to expectations, social convention and inner motivations. The persona is an essential part of the personality for the individual's integration with society as it will help the individual to adapt their personality to suit different environments. Thus a healthy persona will be an adaptation of the individual's real personality. 'Too little' persona may result in a person being seen as a rebel or social misfit, and 'too much' can result in falseness, inauthenticity, poor personality development and, ultimately, inner psychic conflict. Jacobi (1973) defines the interaction of the ego and persona as "a compromise between the demands of the environment and the inner structural necessity of the individual" (p. 28), and the persona itself as a 'cloak around the ego'. From the point of view of type, a healthy persona should be representative of the individual's preferences, plus their individual personality traits. However, some people can be over-identified with the persona and experience in-authenticity. This identification with the persona can be due to habituation, social pressures, influences from childhood, defensiveness or anything that has given the individual a message indicating that the character of the persona is a preferable way to be.

Returning to the concept of the shadow, the aspects of the personal unconscious that contribute to the shadow are rejected experiences or impulses, our non-preferred functions and the negative aspects of our ego and persona. In relation to Jung's theory, Stein (2004) states that every ego has a shadow, and that this shadow is opposite to the persona in that it contains aspects of the individual's personality that they would not like to be associated with or seen by others, or that they may deny to themselves. The contents of the ego's shadow, being unconscious, are not experienced by the ego but are projected onto others by the ego. Sharp (1987) adds that:

...the shadow and the persona function in a compensatory way: the brighter the

light, the darker the shadow. The more one identifies with the persona – which

in effect is to deny that one has a shadow – the more trouble one will have with

the unacknowledged "other side" of the personality. (p. 95).

When working with psychological type, knowledge of the shadow and the tensions

that can be created between the preferred and non-preferred styles can be essential in

helping individuals to gain insight and self awareness. Additionally, becoming aware

of one's projections can help personal development.

As well as the personal unconscious, Jung suggested that we also have a

collective unconscious which, according to Jung, resides in the deep unconscious and

is a store of memories and attitudes from our existence as humans. It consists of

inherited instincts and archetypes that can often affect our beliefs, expectations and

behaviours. Jung describes it as "...a deposit of world processes embedded in the

structure of the brain and the sympathetic nervous system [which] constitutes, in its

totality, a sort of timeless and eternal world-image which counterbalances our

conscious momentary picture of the world" (1981, p. 376). Some aspects of the

collective unconscious may affect an individual's personality and use of type, in that

it contains archetypal images that can influence the development of the persona. So

in a coaching situation, for example, a person who becomes a manager in a business

may draw on his 'archetypal image of a business manager' (e.g., direct, efficient,

emotionally detached, decisive, uncompromising, etc.) and create a persona based on

this which may be unlike their true self. Our archetypal images may also cause us to

predict other's behaviour on the basis of very little information about them, or to

stereotype people.

As well as the 'dark', negative shadow, Jung also believed that individuals can

suppress or repress potentially positive aspects of themselves. Therefore, exploration

of the shadow is not all about acknowledging one's negative aspects, but is also about

releasing potential. Jung does not seem to have given a separate name to this 'light'

shadow, but acknowledges its existence:

> If it has been believed hitherto that the human shadow was the source of all
>
> evil, it can now be ascertained on closer investigation that the unconscious man,
>
> that is, his shadow, does not consist only of morally reprehensible tendencies,
>
> but also displays a number of good qualities, such as normal instincts,
>
> appropriate reactions, realistic insights, creative impulses, etc. (Jung, 1978,
>
> par. 423).

This unconscious potential is partly made up of aspects of ourselves that do not fit

with our ego image; i.e., aspects that go against our type preferences and conscious

ego.

In summary, most of the aspects of the psyche are important in getting a

deeper understanding of one's psychological type and putting type into context. The

workings of the psyche as a whole, the dynamics of the energies, the striving for

balance and the effect of entropy can help us to explore the 'problem of opposites'

within the individual as well as the 'problem of differences'; a key part of working

with type, as emphasised by Spoto. This setting of the Myers-Briggs model into the

Jungian context will be referred to as the 'Jung-Myers model'. This is a term used by

Quenk (2002) to describe a model that incorporates the Myers-Briggs language and

model of typology (i.e., four dichotomies that combine to make a whole type, and the

hierarchy of one's preferences) with the Jungian theories of equivalence and entropy

within the psyche, compensation, the unconscious, type development and projection.

Being aware of the Jung-Myers model of type adds more to the understanding of type

dynamics, moving it further than merely the acknowledgement of a hierarchy of

preferences; it enables one to explore the dynamic tensions within the individual that come from their psychological type and from the influence of other aspects of the psyche. Standard use of psychological type theory focuses mainly on the conscious ego part of the psyche and on identifying an individual's preferences. Whilst this is a valuable first step to self-understanding and, in certain circumstances, a valid stopping point, there is a lot further that one can go in working with type, particularly in psychodynamic coaching.

Type and Psychodynamic Coaching

Psychological type is a good fit with psychodynamic coaching, not just because it emerged from Jung's psychodynamic work and is underpinned by psychodynamic theory, but because working with psychological type in coaching is mainly about helping the client to gain insight. Roberts and Jarrett (2007) considered the primary aims ('output' or 'insight') and the primary focus ('individual' or 'organisational') of the main approaches to coaching currently practiced in the UK. These approaches were (1) the GROW model (Whitmore, 2009), (2) cognitive-behavioural models, (3) role consultancy (systems-psychodynamic), and (4) therapeutically informed models (e.g., Gestalt, psychodynamic, Rogerian; see Figure 19).
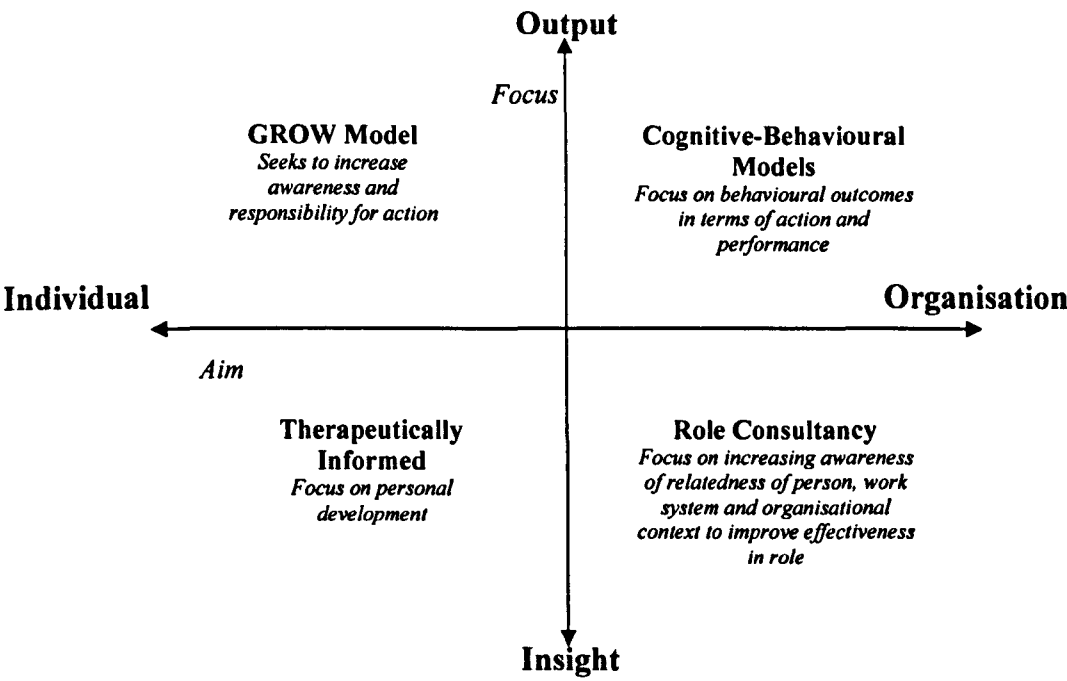
Output

Focus

GROW Model
*Seeks to increase
awareness and
responsibility for action*

**Cognitive-Behavioural
Models**
*Focus on behavioural outcomes
in terms of action and
performance*

Individual

Organisation

Aim

**Therapeutically
Informed**
*Focus on personal
development*

Role Consultancy
*Focus on increasing awareness
of relatedness of person, work
system and organisational
context to improve effectiveness
in role*

Insight

Figure 20: Four models of coaching (Roberts & Jarrett, 2007)

In this model, both of the coaching approaches that had the primary aim of 'insight',

be it focusing on the individual in the therapeutically informed models, or focusing on

the organisation in the role consultancy model, included those from the

psychodynamic paradigm.

The term 'psychodynamic' comes from a combination of the Greek words,

'psyche', meaning mind or soul, and 'dynamis', meaning strength or power.

Neumann and Hirschhorn (1999) state that "The operable psychological word for

psychodynamic is 'within' " and that, "[those who work with psychodynamics] ...

study the activity of and the interrelation between various parts of an individual's

personality or psyche" (p. 684).   In describing the methods and processes of

psychodynamic work, Neumann and Hirshhorn state:

> A fundamental assumption of psychodynamic theories is that sources of
>
> energy and motivation frequently are inaccessible to the conscious mind of

those people involved even though behaviour and emotions are being

affected. Further, unconscious behaviour can be understood in the light of

developmental experiences and their corollary in the present. Researchers

and practitioners are required, therefore, to make assertions or

interpretations about an individual's or group of individuals' inner

dynamics (p. 685)

Unlike most other coaching models, coaches working from the psychodynamic

paradigm will attend to unconsciously motivated aspects of the client's functioning,

such as defence mechanisms, transference, anxieties and containment (Roberts &

Brunning, 2008). Psychodynamic coaching is an inductive method, as opposed to

deductive; hypotheses are formed by the coach, often in consultation with the client,

following the gathering of information. The psychodynamic theory is referenced in

relation to these hypotheses. The coach, therefore, has a role within the process, as

the coach's own frameworks, biases and projections can come in to play when they

are making interpretations; this is countertransference.

Neumann & Hirschhorn note that the use of psychodynamics alone can limit

the level of work to individuals and small groups. So the combining of

psychodynamics with organisational theory enables a client's issues to be positioned

in the light of structures, processes, organisations and environments, thus increasing

the usefulness of the theory.

The combining of organisational or social context with psychodynamics is

known as 'systems-psychodynamic coaching' or 'role consultancy'. The systems-

psychodynamic model places the client's presenting issue in a systemic context, thus

involving exploration of both the personal and organisational arenas (Obholzer,

2007). In describing the unique features of systems-psychodynamic coaching,

Brunning (2007) states that it is "the creation of an enabling framework where the

transformation of meaning that links the person, the role and the organization can take place" (p. 149). Roberts and Brunning (in Palmer & Whybrow, 2008) note that the methods used in systems-psychodynamic coaching are distinct from those used in psychodynamic therapy. They state that, "On the whole, psychodynamic coaches do not deliberately attempt to surface deep unconscious material, not do they directly interpret it" (p. 264). They go on to say that the coach offers hypotheses and points out links to the client. They list the main techniques used in this style of coaching as 'listening with the third ear' (attending to communication other than what is actually said), 'using one's own feelings as data', and 'providing containment and staying in role'.

Brunning's '6 Domains Model' of systems-psychodynamic coaching emphasises this inter-connection between Person, Role and System, with the 6 domains encompassing the client's personality (1) and their life story (2), the skills, competencies and abilities of the client (3), the client's aspirations and career progression to date (4), the current workplace environment (5), and the current organisation role (6) (see Figure 20).
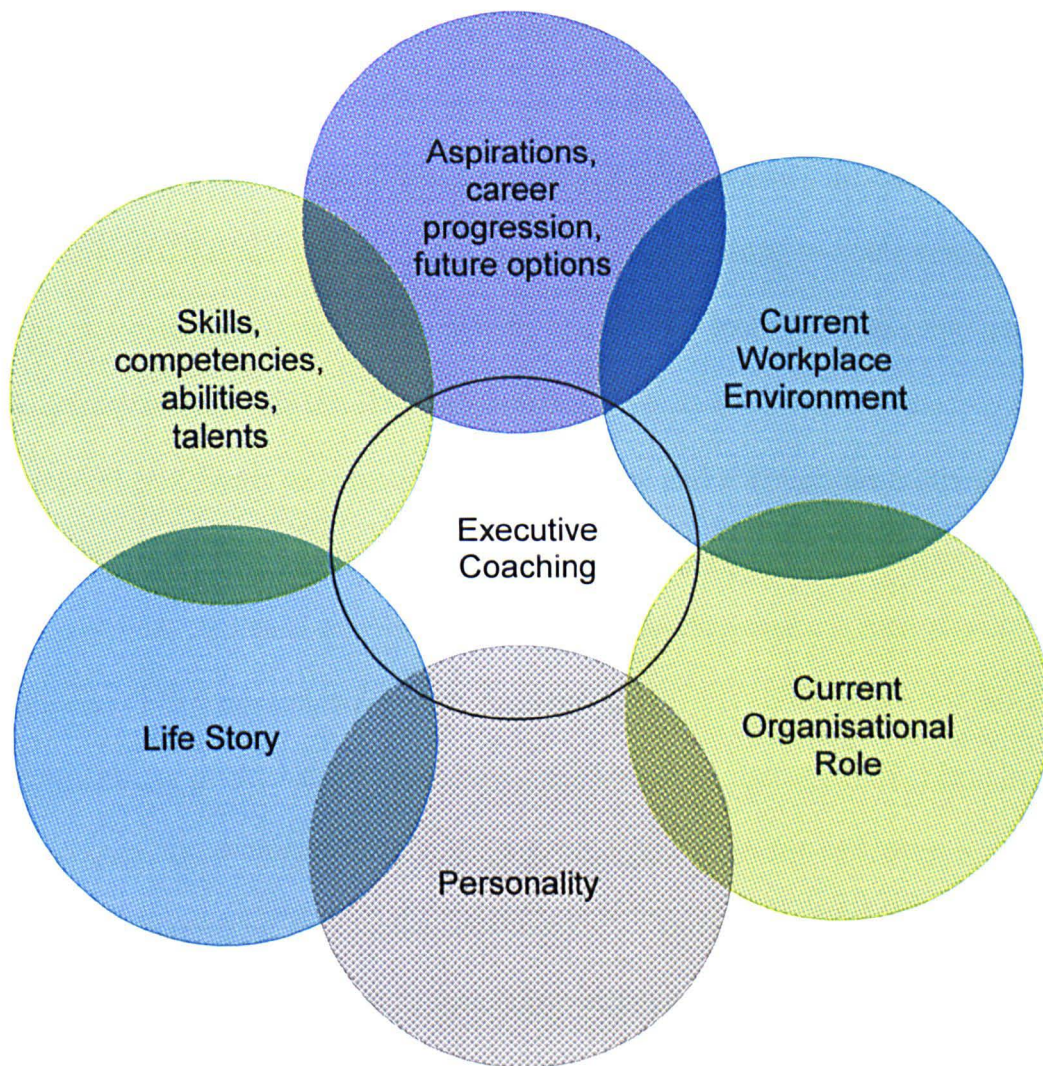
Figure 21: The 6 Domain Model of Executive Coaching (Brunning, 2007)

In this model, Brunning proposes that the 6 domains can all have an influence on each other, and disruption in one domain may affect the others. Brunning suggests that the coach should be aware of the content of each of these domains so as to be able to draw on them as needed during coaching. She also suggests that this model could be used as a diagnostic to locate the most appropriate focus of the coaching work. However, she stresses that the coach and client should avoid getting stuck in one domain, and that the coach should try to become "*meta* to all domains" (Brunning, 2007, p. 135).

The MBTI can be of particular use in addressing aspects of each domain in this model – obviously, starting with the Personality domain. It can also be related to aspects of the Life Story domain (influences on type development), the Skills, Competencies and Talents and the Aspirations domains (working to one's strengths and motivators), and the Current Environment and Current Role domains (motivators, values, key drivers). Using the Jung-Myers model of type, the coach can use psychological type theory to explore the inner tensions and unconscious motivations at work between the Personality domain and the other domains. Typically, coaches working psychodynamically may be reluctant to use psychometrics in their work; Kwiatkowski (2007) notes that for some coaches, particularly those who work from psychodynamic or person-centred paradigms, the idea of including external data in their coaching may sit uncomfortably. However he goes on to say that, even in psychodynamic coaching, personality instruments "... can be helpful in understanding certain aspects of personality, and in structuring engagement, communication, and thinking with the client ..." (p. 154). In her case illustrations of using the 6 domains model, Brunning includes a vignette involving the use of the MBTI with a client and describes the techniques used to enable the client to access one of their non-preferred functions and thus achieve a more balanced approach to her work. The case study that follows, aims to illustrate how a client's presenting issue was addressed using the Jung-Myers model of psychological type within a systems-psychodynamic context.

Case Study

Neumann and Hirshhorn (1999) note that the favoured methodology for psychodynamic research is the case study. This is because the description of any psychodynamic issue or event will be highly idiosyncratic. Hence that is the method

used here to illustrate how a client was able to gain greater insight into her issues using the Jung-Myers model in conjunction with the 6 Domains model of coaching. Additionally, in his 'Agenda for Coaching-Related Research', Bennett (2006) suggests that more coaching related research is needed. Among his suggestions for potential areas for research he includes the application of theories related to the practice of coaching, and the technical process of coaching. It is envisaged, therefore, that this case study will contribute to these areas of coaching research.

This particular case was selected because, as a result of the client's presenting issue and its connection to recurrent themes, a systems psychodynamic approach was adopted in conjunction with the Jung-Myers model. From a psychodynamic perspective, the case illustrates the influence of the unconscious, the action of defences and anxiety, and the inner tensions of the client's psyche. Although transference is a key part of psychodynamic coaching, the main focus of this case study will be on the psychodynamic and typological interpretations and on the resultant coaching techniques. Relative to the 6 domains model of systems-psychodynamic coaching, the main area of focus was the client's Personality domain, which she perceived to be in conflict with her role and environment. This issue had an influence on other domains, and was ultimately linked to the Life Story domain. In relation to the Jung-Myers model of psychological type, the following aspects of type in the context of the dynamic psyche were present in this case:

- The identification with the ego.

- Distortions of the preferences.

- The influence of archetypes.

- The effect of energic tension within the psyche

- The importance of type dynamics

- The emergence of the non-preferred styles as an unconscious coping mechanism

The background of the client will be described according to the 6 domains model and the case history and emergent themes from the coaching work so far will be summarised. In order to demonstrate how a recurrent issue was resolved, one particular coaching session will be described and analysed. Illustrative sections of the case will be reported and examined in detail. Due to the nature of this study, the interpretations of the client's issues and statements will all be based on the psychodynamic and Jung-Myers theories; however it is acknowledged that coaches operating from other paradigms may have been likely to have interpreted the presenting issues and statements differently, and chosen to conduct the session using different methods. It should be noted that the client's name has been changed in order to maintain confidentiality.

The Coaching Relationship

The client, Jennifer, is, herself, a coach and our coaching relationship began as part of a peer coaching arrangement during a coach training course. In addition to knowing each other from the course, we have a professional relationship outside the coaching relationship, and frequently work together on projects. Our peer coaching relationship has continued for 5 years. Sessions take place as required, and are usually 3-5 times per year. Typically, in psychodynamic therapy, the therapist would take care not to self-disclose or have any relationship with the client outside the boundaries of the therapy. This was to allow the therapist to be a 'blank screen' upon which the client would project and engage in transference. Alternative models of the

'therapist'/client relationship have since been included in psychodynamic work. For example, 'Relational Psychoanalysis' "is fundamentally a collaborative endeavour between the therapist and client, which is characterised by a relationship of mutuality" (Day, 2010, p.3). In this particular coaching relationship, the client and myself have a relationship outside the coaching environment; however, Jennifer originally approached me to request coaching, and the relationship appears to work very well. According to Younggren and Gottlieb (2004), dual relationships in therapeutic settings not only need careful consideration at the outset, but require periodic re-evaluation. They suggest that the therapist and client should revisit the topic regularly to prevent damage to the therapeutic alliance, and that the therapist has the obligation to anticipate situations that may damage the therapeutic alliance. Myself and Jennifer frequently discuss the appropriateness of the continuation of coaching, and, to date, are both in agreement that it is working well in terms of rapport, trust and an appropriate balance of support and challenge. As our sessions are coaching, rather than therapy, and are not continuous but are held as the need arises in relation to a particular emergent issue, the boundaries required in therapeutic sessions are less applicable, and this is an acceptable condition for psychodynamic coaching (Roberts & Brunning, in Palmer & Whybrow, 2008). Although some themes have emerged over the years, there is no one single issue being addressed by the coaching; at each coaching session, Jennifer decides on the issue she wants to address.

Jennifer was happy to have her case used as part of this thesis as she supports continued learning and believes that she is "a good case to learn from". Additionally, as a trained coach she understands the need for case studies and recorded sessions for continued development of the coach.

The Client's '6 Domains' in Brief

It should be noted that this is only a very brief summary of the 6 domains in relation to the client as only the information relevant to the current case study is reported. As the Personality aspect is of particular relevance in addressing the issues of Jennifer's case, this section is described in some detail. In practice, Brunning suggests that the coach be familiar with the considerable body of knowledge that is likely to exist for each area in order to draw on them during coaching.

Life Story: Jennifer is 48 years old, and runs her own coaching business. She is married and lives with her partner and her 2 teenage sons. Jennifer is the youngest of four and has two brothers and a sister. Her parents divorced when she was eight, and her father passed away in the year prior to the session that is reported in this case study.

Skills and Talents: Jennifer has a degree in psychology, and a diploma in coaching. In addition to her coaching skills, Jennifer is a keen artist and had been studying art formally for several years at the time of this session.

Aspirations and Career Development: Jennifer is keen on continued learning and has undertaken various professional development courses (e.g., psychometrics, coaching, art therapy) over the past few years. She has recently been exploring the possibility of introducing art therapy techniques to the coaching environment, particularly in group coaching settings.

Personality: During previous coaching sessions, several psychometrics have been used at different times to explore emergent issues (e.g., the Enneagram; Riso & Hudson 1996; the Bar-On EQ-I (EQ-i), Bar-On, 1997; Hogan Development Survey

(HDS), Hogan & Hogan, 1997; and Hogan Personality Inventory (HPI). Jennifer was already aware of her MBTI preferences prior to the start of our coaching arrangement.

Jennifer has Myers-Briggs type preferences for Introversion, Intuition, Feeling and Judging (INFJ). Typically, INFJs look for meaning and purpose in what they do. They like to have a vision about how things should be and aim to gently relate to others according to this. They enjoy creativity and thinking about what makes people tick. One of the typical pitfalls is that they can become stressed and withdrawn when the world doesn't fit their ideal vision. Jennifer fits this description very well and creativity, in particular, is a major driver for her.

Jennifer's enneagram type is four. Type fours have an ego structure built around the fear of having no identity and, therefore, driven by the need to find oneself and one's true identity. For this reason, type fours often have issues around identity, uniqueness and self-expression. These issues have been the themes of previous coaching sessions, particularly around the subject of authentic self-expression and feelings of alienation.

Jennifer's trait personality profile as measured by the Hogan Personality Inventory (HPI) indicates that she is curious, creative, imaginative and enjoys generating new ideas. Her EQi profile suggests that she is less likely than most to see things in an objective and realistic manner, instead preferring to take an abstract perspective. However when she is under pressure, feeling defensive or experiencing stress, this creativity can become distorted; her HDS profile indicated tendencies towards eccentricity. At these times Jennifer can get extremely caught up in her imagination and lose sight of the reality of a situation. Additionally, Jennifer has tendencies towards self-doubt and apprehension.

Organisational Role: Jennifer is an independent executive coach and operates on a contractual basis. Although most of her work is one to one coaching, Jennifer occasionally has contracts for group facilitation and coaching. As an independent coach, Jennifer is responsible for bidding for and contracting for coaching work, and is not bound to any particular model or paradigm of coaching. Jennifer also works on assessment and development centre projects, usually on an associate basis.

Workplace Environment: Jennifer operates as an independent coach, and is therefore not employed by any particular organisation. Most of her clients are employees of fairly large private sector companies. Typically, she will travel to the client's place of work when coaching. Occasionally, the client will arrange an appointment in an off-site location. When not actually engaged in coaching, Jennifer is based at her home office.

Key Themes from Previous Sessions and Psychometric Profiles

Identity appears to be a key issue for Jennifer. Jennifer sees herself as being creative, caring, artistic and individualistic. These characteristics very closely match the characteristics of her Myers-Briggs psychological type and enneagram personality type. Additionally, Jennifer recognised these characteristics and said that she has often been judged as bizarre, weird and unrealistic by others and this has made her feel like she needs to sometimes hide this side of herself in order to fit in. However she finds that her interest in art is a productive way to channel these tendencies.

Another issue related to identity that has emerged during the coaching sessions is concerned with self image. With regard to enneagram type fours, Riso & Hudson state that: *They direct their hostility at themselves because..... Fours have rejected their real self in favour of an idealized self-image* (1996, p. 142). This appears to be

true for Jennifer as she is frequently frustrated or disappointed with herself; however she often expresses conflicting views about the actual nature of this idealised self. At times it is congruent with her personality – she aspires to be a person who channels creativity and insight successfully into their work and lives; at other times she expresses a wish to be practical, logical and grounded – characteristics that are at odds with her personality. Again, this is not an unusual paradox for a person with a type four personality – *Ironically, although Fours cling to their "differentness", they also envy and resent people who seem to enjoy a more normal existence* (Riso & Hudson, 1996, p. 141). Likewise, it is not unusual for INFJs to feel like misfits in the world and for them to both enjoy and despise this feeling simultaneously. However, in Jennifer's case this is a serious issue because it is exacerbated by her tendency to want to please (or at least, not upset) other people and because of her general tendency to be self-doubting.

When working with Jennifer using her EQ-i profile as the basis for a session, it emerged that she is more likely than most people to be aware of and understanding of the feelings of others, and to demonstrate concern for others; and this is also congruent with her auxiliary Extraverted Feeling preference. In discussing this with Jennifer, whilst she accepted that relationships and friendships are very important to her, she recognised that she often over invested in these tendencies to the extent that they frequently became problematic for her. She feels that she must always maintain her pleasant and helpful social role, even when she does not feel like it, otherwise she will be letting others down and will appear selfish. These tendencies also make it almost impossible for Jennifer to say 'no' to people, leading to her taking too much on, getting into uncomfortable situations, or undertaking activities that she does not

enjoy. Sometimes she will agree to something and then play out a passive-aggressive pattern of avoidance behaviours that add to her feelings of stress and negativity.

A recurrent topic in our sessions is Jennifer's general lack of self confidence and feelings of insecurity about herself. Coupled with her interpersonal sensitivity, this results in her being acutely sensitive to the opinions or feelings that others may hold about her. She constantly worries about saying the wrong thing, appearing to be strange or making a fool of herself. This is exacerbated by her tendency towards the eccentric end of the HDS Imaginative-Eccentric scale as noted above, and the feedback she has had from others about appearing weird, bizarre or unrealistic. Because of all this, she finds it difficult to express her opinions in front of others and sometimes tries to 'hide her true personality'. This is also reflected in her HDS profile where she has elevated scores on the Careful-Cautious scale; suggesting that Jennifer will have a fear of being rejected or criticised by others. Another feature of this profile is the tendency to dwell on situations after the event and feel embarrassed and regretful. Jennifer agrees that she often does this, ruminating for a considerable amount of time, and it leads to feelings of resentment towards herself. Jennifer frequently believes that others are thinking badly of her and this is indicative of a 'survival game' (Delunas, 1992) that individuals with NF Myers-Briggs types tend to indulge in when they are pressured or highly defensive. This 'mind reader game', as it is called by Delunas, exacerbates Jennifer's tendency towards feeling negatively judged by others.

In summary, the main themes that have emerged from previous sessions for Jennifer are:

- issues of identity and self expression

- a tendency to let her imagination run to the point of reality blindness or eccentricity

- sensitivity to the opinions (real or imagined) of others

- comparing herself to others and to external perceived 'norms'

- a general lack of self confidence

- being very connected to emotions and experiencing 'emotion swings'

- the ability to cope with stressful situations

With regard to issues of transference and countertransference, the key issues that Jennifer expereinces often emerge as transference during the coaching sessions. Although the conditions of the relationship - 'providing containment' – "the client needs to feel safe" (Roberts & Brunning, in Palmer & Whybrow, 2008) – are open, trusting and accepting, Jennifer will frequently apologise to me for things that occur during the coaching, such as long pauses or changes in subject. This is reflective of how she relates to most other people in professional settings.

Although our next coaching session, reported below, was open to any issue that Jennifer wished to explore, these themes tended to feature prominently. The reporting of this session will focus on how the use of psychological type theory, set in the context of Jung's concept of the psyche and underpinned by Brunning's 6 domains model, helped to address Jennifer's presenting issue and result in some deeper insight about the inner tensions that were affecting her behaviour.

Presenting Issue

Jennifer's focus for the session initially concerned issues she was having in developing her idea about combining art and coaching. Jennifer is hoping to bring art

into her work as she is keen to find a niche in coaching that she feels represents her true interests and nature. Jennifer opened the coaching session by stating:

> *"The problem I'm having is that I'm trying to make a new start in the coaching that I do and bring the art stuff into business, but.... (pause). I am really excited about it; however, as soon as I start thinking.... Well, basically I don't get to the stage of even really practically thinking about it. I seem to be getting in my own way and thinking that I can't do it, and I have no ideas, and 'who am I to do anything like that?', and actually I'm supposed to be creative but everyone else has more ideas than me. Stuff like that. I end up putting everything off, and not looking at my books, and not thinking about ideas, because it all seems too big and scary."*

Just within this opening statement describing the presenting problem several of the domains in Brunning's model are implicated: role (as a coach), skills (art), aspirations (a new idea) and personality (*"I'm supposed to be creative"*). From a psychodynamic perspective, I sensed feelings of anxiety and hypothesised that Jennifer may be using the ego defence mechanisms of suppression and/or displacement (*"I end up putting everything off, and not looking at my books, and not thinking about ideas"*). In terms of Jennifer's recurrent themes, the self confidence issue is clearly present throughout the statement. Additionally, the identity issues are extremely prevalent in this opening statement (*"I'm supposed to be creative"*) with Jennifer's ideal identity of being a creative person putting pressure on herself to perform. *"Everybody else has more ideas than me"* is an extreme generalisation and is also evidence that Jennifer is once again comparing herself to others with a

somewhat distorted perception. Therefore, this opening statement suggests that Jennifer's issue could be interpreted as having a psychodynamic basis, and that a psychodynamic coaching approach with the Personality domain as a key focus was an appropriate way to continue the session.

Identification with the Ego and Distortions of the Preferences

The statement *"I'm supposed to be creative"*, preceded by the self-deprecating comments is very suggestive of Horney's theory regarding the conflict between one's idealised self-image and the actual self. Horney suggests that anxious or neurotic individuals create a perfectionistic idealised self-image against which their actual self inevitably falls short. This leads to unconsciously motivated self-loathing and self-hatred that, in turn, results in feelings of inferiority in comparison with others. She adds that 'compliant' individuals (characterised by the need to be liked, wanted, appreciated and guided by others) are likely to project these feelings onto others and believe that others despise them, resulting in the individual becoming shy, inhibited and withdrawn (Ryckman, 2000).

In relation to the Jung-Myers model, Jennifer's auxiliary extraverted feeling preference, being the mode in which she interacts with the outer world and with others, is likely to place her as a 'compliant' type according to Horney's theory, and this fits with her pattern of behaviour. Additionally, there is evidence of identification with the ego image of being creative; a characteristic that is often connected to the INFJ type. Another hypothesis at this point is that, by attempting to 'force' her creativity which she is likely to channel through her dominant introverted intuition, Jennifer is distorting this function such that the more negative qualities of introverted intuition – vagueness, becoming lost and muddled, and overwhelmed by thoughts and

ideas *("... it all seems to big and scary")* – may be over-riding the positive aspects of

the function. This exaggeration of and distortion of one's dominant function is

described in the first stage of Quenk's (2002) theory of stress, in which she suggests

that the individual under pressure over-relies on their dominant function to the extent

that it begins to operate in an unbalanced and distorted manner, often alienated from

support from the other functions.

The Influence of Archetypes

Although there were numerous options for how to proceed from this point, I decided

to explore a 'positive' aspect of the statement and ask about the 'excitement' part of

the idea. The intention was to try to harness the positive nature of Jennifer's

dominant function of introverted intuition. According to the Jung-Myers theory,

individuals feel energised and motivated when operating in their preferred modes, and

therefore targeting where the energy and 'excitement' was experienced was a way of

trying to access the positive qualities of the dominant function. Jennifer began to talk

about how the idea formed and where the inspiration came from, and then stated, *"It*

seemed exciting because it seems I've never really felt like I completely fit in the

business world, that maybe I'm not that easy to accept because I think people see me

as a bit...(pause) fluffy". This statement indicates a tension between Jennifer's

personality and the work environment and role domains, possibly arising from

Jennifer having an archetypal image of a 'business-like person' that she was

comparing herself to. Jennifer continued by saying that she believed that her Myers-

Briggs 'Feeling' preference was often the source of her perceived difficulties at work,

and that *"I have to work hard to cover up quite a lot, to be accepted in a business*

environment", adding that that she believes that Feeling is very 'female' and that in

business *"you have to be quite male"*. Again, this was evidence of a pervasive

archetypal image of a 'business person' being used as the reference point.

The Effect of Energic Tension within the Psyche

This theme of 'not fitting' into the business environment and the tension between

Jennifer's personality, values and interests and the work environment continued as

Jennifer described how she was trying to find a 'credible and scientific' basis for her

ideas in order to be more acceptable to the business environment. When asked *"How*

motivating is it for you to look for a scientific basis", Jennifer responses were,

"Partially, but that's the blockage. I don't know where to find it." "... It feels

frightening", "... Everything's an effort and I'd rather just want to go to bed", "...I

feel stalled", "... It feels like too much work to do. I like the fact that art is intuitive

and it just emerges, whereas this is effort". The feeling of being stalled, blocked,

effortful and overwhelmed indicated that Jennifer was attempting to use her non-

preferred styles when undertaking this task (Sensing and Thinking tend to represent

factual, evidence based information and rationale). This would push aside her natural

preferences. The result is an inner tension between her natural preferences and her

non-preferred functions, thus bringing any productive use of the functions to a

stalemate position. This state of inability to act as a result of energic tension between

the preferences is described as follows by Jung:

> When there is full parity of the opposites, attested by the ego's absolute
>
> participation in both, this necessarily leads to a suspension of the will, for the
>
> will can no longer operate when every motive has an equally strong
>
> countermotive (1990, p. 479)

This hypothesis was supported when Jennifer added, *"I think I've disconnected the two things. I'm not thinking about if I'm faced with working with people this is what I would do, I'm just thinking about building up credibility and that's disconnected to the end result."*

In order to re-connect to this *'end result'*, a projected time line visualisation was suggested. Jennifer was asked to visualise herself using an art coaching technique on the actual project that she was considering using it for, and the intervention being well received and successful. Then working backwards again, we explored what knowledge or basis could have led to this successful outcome. At this point Jennifer realised that psychological knowledge about people was the key skill for success in this area, and that she already possessed this - *"Actually, it's knowledge about people, isn't it"*. Moreover, she gained insight into how she could make the artistic approach meet the business world; she realised that she could communicate her idea and approach in terms of the objectives and benefits it would bring, therefore taking a Thinking approach to framing it that she felt was a better fit to business – *"I need to start at the other end. What are the objectives? What tasks could get people engaged?"* This led to a solution being formulated about how Jennifer could resolve the perceived mismatch between the task, her personality, and the working environment.

Visualisation, as a technique is widely used in psychosynthesis counselling (e.g., see Assagioli, 1975) which has its roots in psychodynamic psychology. Looking at this intervention from the perspective of the Jung-Myers model, visualisation as a technique was a good fit with Jennifer's preference for introverted intuition, and allowed Jennifer to see herself playing to her natural strengths and motivations. Theoretically, this exercise should have reduced the tension that she was

holding between her opposing preferences and, therefore, allow the Thinking preference to come forward more naturally and with the positive aspects of the preference coming through.

The Importance of Type Dynamics

Although Jennifer had gained some clarity about how to take this particular project forward, the session continued on to look at Jennifer's apparent blocks to creativity. Firstly Jennifer was asked to clarify what the word 'creative' actually meant to her, and she responded: *"Having ideas. Being able to come up with good ideas".* Jennifer recalled a situation where she had worked with two other women, both of whom, she knew, had preferences for ENFP. *"I might be able to come up with ideas but not quickly. I need something to help me get to ideas; I don't just come up with them. I need something to connect things to".* She went on to say, *"They expected me to come up with ideas there and then, and I came up with nothing and felt uncreative".* It was clear from these statements that Jennifer was comparing her preference of Introverted Intuition to the other women's preferences for Extraverted Intuition. The process of generating ideas would be markedly different for each, with Extraverted Intuitives very quickly generating many ideas based on initial inspirations until they begin to formulate the one that may be most useful, and Introverted Intuitives getting the seed of one single idea, and then letting it develop by thinking about how it relates and connects to other things. As Jennifer was familiar with type theory, this was explored with her in relation to the description of her own process provided earlier and in the context of type theory. This small section of the coaching session illustrates the importance of the type practitioner being aware of the type dynamics aspect of the theory.

The Emergence of the Non-Preferred Styles as an Unconscious Coping Mechanisms

In relation to the issue of having creative ideas or feeling creatively stuck and blocked, Jennifer stated that:

"Interestingly when I'm just waking up in the morning I do think about them [ideas] or have different ideas and they float in and out ... ".

(Coach): "So there are times where you are definitely experiencing more creative flow going on? "

(Jennifer): "Yes, and it is when I am least expecting it ".

This exchange was of particular interest as, once again, it illustrated that being in a more relaxed state (i.e., less inner tension) could naturally lead to creative ideas being generated. It may also be interpreted as an expression of the Transcendent function. According to Jung when there is energic tension between the functions, a third function will arise: "Since life cannot tolerate a standstill, a damming up of vital energy results, and this would lead to an insupportable condition did not the tension of opposites produce a new, uniting function that transcends them" (1970, p. 479). He postulated that the transcendent function often appears in a symbolic form; sometimes in the form of dreams, and that it can appear when we are not consciously looking for it, e.g., after meditation, resting, taking a break from the problem, upon waking. Jennifer's natural flow of ideas when relaxed could also be connected to the idea of the 'flow state' (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990) used in current positive psychology psychodynamic theories.

It seemed appropriate at this point to explore the differences between Jennifer's creative 'blockage' state and this 'creative flow state' using an empty chair

technique (e.g., Perls, 1977). This a technique that originated in family systems therapy (e.g. Satir), and is now widely used in various forms of coaching from the 'therapeutically informed' area such as psychodynamic, Gestalt, and psychosynthesis as it aims to provide insight into the individual's inner processes. (Similar techniques are also often used in goal focused approaches such as NLP with the aim of anchoring a particular state).

Two chairs were set up and Jennifer was asked to envisage one as being the chair that contained all the feelings regarding creative flow, and the other chair containing the feelings of creative blockage. Jennifer first sat in the creative 'blockage' chair and described it as having a feeling of nothingness. She had no access to the external world, could not think, and experienced no feelings – *"I feel really immobile", "No just ...I can't do it ... I can't think", "I have no access to it [the external world]. I'm just in my own world of nothingness"*.

When in the 'creative flow' chair, Jennifer's posture and energy changed immediately; she was sitting upright and seemed more alert, yet more relaxed. She described the change in herself as being more aware, physically free, happier, and feeling like things were possible – *"I can see the trees. I can move my shoulders, I feel happier. I feel like things could be possible. It's relaxing"*. When asked to explore what the difference between the two states was, Jennifer stated that in the 'creative flow' chair there was no judgement from within, and went on to describe how she could sense a feeling of opening or lightening in her heart area. Jennifer was asked to look at the empty 'blockage' chair from her position in the 'creative flow' chair and describe what was there. She described it as a 'weight, a heaviness, and a constraint', adding that it seemed to 'have a container over it to prevent her seeing out'. Exploring whether she could sense any benefits or qualities of this, Jennifer

stated that it seemed to have some use in terms of logic or practicality, but that it was

like *"putting a blindfold, earmuffs and straight jacket on"*.

Jennifer was asked to return to the 'blockage' chair and her posture and energy

changed immediately. She described her experience in the 'blockage' chair: *"It is like*

being wrapped up. Maybe it's kind of a protective thing but it's gone too far." "This

is where I go when I feel really terrible. There's no point. It's just numb. I think

that's from other stuff. Because 'no point' was when my dad was poorly. I think

since then all the problems I've had with coaching and stuff have been about that. I

just work from ST [Sensing and Thinking] because I can't do the NF [Intuition and

Feeling] stuff in coaching". In response to being asked what Jennifer would need to

get from 'blocked' to 'creative flow', she replied that she needed to *"take off the*

bandages".

This was an interesting use of language ("bandages") and suggestive that there

was some sort of protective element to the personality characteristics that she was

adopting in the 'blocked' position. There were several possible options for why

Jennifer had been finding herself operating from the Sensing and Thinking (ST)

preference modes. It could have been a 'grip' response to stress (Quenk, 2002) in

which the non-preferred aspects of the personality take charge but are driven by

unconscious energy, and are therefore not consciously controlled or directed, nor are

they productive. Alternatively it could have been that Jennifer was protecting herself

using the ego defence mechanisms of intellectualisation (the disassociation of painful

thoughts and feelings by taking a logical and detached viewpoint) and/or repression

(the ego's unconscious attempt to prevent undesirable impulses from reaching

consciousness). By repressing her natural preferences, the opposing styles were able

to come to the fore; however they were operating under considerable energic tension.

We continued to work with the 'bandages' image and Jennifer realised that the 'bandages' had helped her to engage with people following the loss of her father without exposing her pain and making them feel uncomfortable. In exploring why the 'ST' personality was still clinging on, Jennifer realised that without it she felt vulnerable and exposed. This part of the session introduced the Life Story domain as a key influence on Jennifer's current level of functioning, as her father's death had been the trigger for the blockages and tensions that she was experiencing.

We continued with the chair exercise to facilitate a virtual discussion with the 'ST' personality; recognising its qualities and contribution, attempting to set it back into a supportive rather than a driving role. Jennifer was asked if she sensed any resistance to letting the 'ST' personality go. She stated that, *"I don't want it to go, but I want it to leave the good stuff and assist this* (pointing to herself) *to be grounded and practical"*. Jennifer mentally thanked the 'ST' personality for its help and repositioned it accordingly, afterwards stating that she felt no resistance at this point yet had a feeling of real gratitude towards it. She added that she did not feel that it had actually gone away, and finished the session by stating: *"I feel that this chakra* [heart] *feels really satisfied and opened. (Pause) I feel quite hopeful. And I feel pleased that I've acknowledged that part, because I think I've just been angry at it. (Pause) Because it felt like it denied me from doing something that I loved, which I thought was coaching, but actually it's this whole new idea."*

Conclusions

The aim of this case study was to illustrate how setting psychological type back into the Jungian context (the 'Jung-Myers' model) enabled it to be used synergistically with psychodynamic coaching to successfully provide insight and resolution to a

client. The systems-psychodynamic paradigm (Brunning's model in particular) was selected as a theoretical underpinning for the coaching approach for this case as it was a good fit with the Jung-Myers theory and was relevant to the client's presenting issue. Having information about Jennifer's '6 domains' was useful in being able to hold the information, select the direction to take the session in, and recognise the impact of one domain on another.

In terms of the Jung-Myers model, knowing Jennifer's Myers-Briggs type helped to inform what was congruent or incongruent with her authentic self and motivations during the session. Being able to then apply theories from the Jung-Myers model – the type dynamics, energic tensions, archetypal influences, transcendent function, unconscious aspects of the psyche – and combine these with other aspects of psychodynamic theory, provided the opportunity to make more of the Personality domain from Brunning's model.

Although this session began with a 'goal oriented' presenting problem, i.e., working with a blockage to developing an idea, and a goal-focused approach to the session may well have resulted in an effective goal-oriented action plan, taking a systems-psychodynamic approach led the session into having a more developmental outcome. Additionally, although a goal-focused approach may have resulted in an action plan, without getting to the underlying issues and psychological/personality issues present, the effect may not have been lasting or transferable to other issues. Additionally, there would have most likely been unconscious resistance to carrying out the action plan.

Obviously, not all coaching interventions using the Myers-Briggs will need to use a Jung-Myers approach. Nevertheless, as a coach, having an awareness of the Jung-Myers model will enable more extensive use of the Myers-Briggs if and when

required. One obstacle to using this model may be the ability of the coach to familiarise themselves with a range of psychodynamic theories. In addition to being aware of the Myers-Briggs model, including type dynamics and development, the coach would need to at least be familiar with Jung's concept of the psyche and the nature of psychic energy, Quenk's theory of stress, and Freud's (1946) theory of ego defence mechanisms. This may require them to consult a range of sources.

Additionally, although the 6 Domains model is not a necessary condition to working with the Jung-Myers model, it provided a useful underpinning in the case reported above. Brunning (2007) states that, in order to use her 6 Domains model successfully, "the coach would need to be reasonably knowledgeable in the sphere of human systems, psychology, organizational and group dynamics, the impact of change, and individual development, both psychological and professional: in other words everything that constitutes the content of the circles of the diagram" (p. 135). This breadth and depth of knowledge would most likely be relevant for any coach using a systems-psychodynamic approach.

In addition to the coach needing to have an awareness of various psychological theories, the client also needs to be sufficiently 'psychologically minded' to engage with coaching at this depth using psychological type. Without this, the coach may still be able to work with type at an implicit level, however the client may miss out on the insights regarding how and why they were responding to a given set of circumstances. Moreover, the coach will need to have a good degree of self-awareness to enable them to manage their biases, perceptions and projections during the coaching process. Another issue that the coach may face is the potential for this approach to cross over from coaching into therapy, and therefore there is a need to develop therapeutic skills.

It should be noted that this study was mainly concerned with framing the client's presenting problem in the context of known psychological models and exploring the process of the session with regard to these. Typically, psychodynamic interactions would also make reference to any transference or counter-transference, however in this case, other than the methods of 'using one's own feelings as data', which in itself is a function of countertransference, there was little new transference information to work with.

Reflecting on my experience as a coach during the work with Jennifer, and during this session in particular, I became aware that there were various points in the process where I made a choice which way to take the session or which issues to pick up on and explore further. Although coaching is mainly a facilitative process, helping the client to find their own solutions, it is inevitable that the coach, through their questions, observations and challenges, will have an influence on the course of the session. My own biases and preferred ways of working led to a focus on psychological type issues and an interpretation of the presenting problem from this perspective. Other coaches may have taken an alternative perspective and led the session towards a different outcome. Another potential source of influence on the coaching process in this case is the dual relationship that I have with Jennifer. As previously noted, we periodically discuss the suitability of this relationship and have agreed that we are satisfied with the boundaries, rapport, trust, etc. Reflecting on this myself with the social constructivist position in mind, I am aware that my knowledge of Jennifer outside of the coaching environment may influence how I direct the sessions and how I interpret which issues are important for her. For this reason, having the slightly more concrete data from the various personality assessments available, all of which have suggested similar recurrent themes, helps me to remain

objective. Nevertheless, the sessions will be influenced by this dual relationship in a way that a 'coaching only' relationship would not be subject to.

From analysing and writing up this case study, I have had several new insights about my role as a coach. I was drawn to the six domains model of coaching as I tend to view a person holistically and my own personal belief is that non-work issues are often relevant to the issues being presented by coaches, and that potential development comes from this holistic perspective. This often leads my coaching interventions into more of a therapeutic territory and uses a range of psychological theories, and also tends to work with the unconscious, touching on transpersonal coaching. As described in the model presented in Chapter One, I need to ensure that my skills and knowledge are appropriate to the style of coaching I often engage in. I also need to remain responsive to the client's presenting issue and use appropriate techniques, rather than those that I am most interested in. One other key learning point is that the coach-coachee relationship needs to be very trusting and core therapeutic conditions must be present to enable developmental and transpersonal coaching. Without this, the natural emergence of issues from the client's unconscious is likely to be blocked by insecurity and interference. Therefore, time needs to be devoted to developing the relationship prior to any in-depth coaching work.

Future research using the Jung-Myers model in coaching could explore its efficacy in other styles of coaching such as those from the goal-focused paradigms according to Roberts and Jarrett's (2007) definitions. Also, cases that illustrate other aspects of the Jung-Myers model may be of interest, for example the tensions between the persona and the true self, or the intrusion of the shadow aspects of the ego.

Chapter Four

Intervention Process Analysis

Identifying and Assessing Characteristics that Contribute to Potential for Leadership Development

Introduction

Identifying high potential individuals can be a difficult process, as research has clearly indicated that current performance alone is not related to future potential; potential for leadership roles in particular. The intervention described in this study involves the research, design, implementation, evaluation and subsequent revision of an assessment process for selection to a leadership development program. This intervention was carried out in response to the client's request for help in identifying suitable candidates following some issues regarding previous cohorts of the development program, and an action research approach (e.g., Lewin, 1946, cited in Dickens & Watkins, 1999) was employed, working in partnership with the client.

A recent survey of talent management practices by Xancam Consulting (retrieved from www.xancam.co.uk, 2010) found that many organisations use current performance as a measure of high potential, despite research showing that performance alone is not an indicator of future potential (e.g., Lombardo & Eichinger, 2000). This is supported by De Meuse, Dai & Hallenbeck (2010), who state that, "Previously, most companies developed and promoted their high performers, without realizing that current performance in one situation does not guarantee high performance in a different one" (p.120). The Xancam survey report states that organisations that assess against *research based* models of potential are likely to make

more accurate judgements, and add that 'potential' needs to be defined in the context of the particular organisation. However, typically, identification of talent and potential, in practice, tends to come from ratings or recommendations from business managers based on current performance.

In this context, the term 'research based models of potential' refers to the process of gathering information from empirical research studies to create the criteria against which to assess leadership potential, as opposed to using an organisational competency model. This intervention process analysis details how, in response to the client's issue, the idea of developing such a research based model of potential was explored, resulting in the creation of a model based on the work of Lombardo & Eichinger (2000), Lombardo, Ruderman & McCaulley (1988), Covey (2004), Hogan and Hogan (2004), and DeMeuse, Dai & Hallenbeck (2010), and tailored to suit the organisational context and the aims of the leadership development program. The intervention used an action research based methodology throughout; the project was carried out with close collaboration with the client, and several cycles of consultation, reflection and design were carried out in order to address the client's issues. I was part of the Leadership Consulting team and acted as a coach and Myers-Briggs specialist on the leadership development program. In this particular action research project I was involved from the beginning as I was the member of the team with the most experience of assessment, psychometrics and ethics, and statistical analysis. I carried out the design of the assessment criteria and process, and the evaluation of the process, in addition to being involved in every step of the process with the client.

Background to the Project

The client organisation for this process intervention will be referred to as

Construction-Co in order to maintain confidentiality. Construction –Co is an

engineering and construction group with over 140 years of experience in the field.

There is a shortage of skilled and experienced engineers in this business sector, and as

part of their approach to retaining employees and developing a management and

leadership culture to meet current and future needs within the organisation,

Construction-Co identified the need for a high potential development program for

their highest performing current managers aged between 25 and 35. The contract for

this program was awarded to Leadership Consulting, an occupational psychology

consultancy that adopts the scientist-practitioner approach to developing solutions for

clients.

In an earlier project with this client, an 18 month, seven module program

known as the High Potential Program (HIPO) was designed that encompassed the

areas of business skill development, leadership development and leader (personal)

development. Each module included business skills and acumen input from one of

the business's directors, personal and leadership development sessions with a

psychological emphasis (psychometric profiling, self awareness, interpersonal

relations, peer feedback), and a one to one coaching session. The developmental

model that theoretically underpinned the program was the Leadership Development

Level framework (Torbert, 2004) which is based on Loevinger's (1976) Ego

Development level theory, as described in Chapter Two. Although leadership level

was not formally assessed or evaluated, a goal of the HIPO process was to develop

participants according to the theory behind developmental level framework;

facilitating them to develop self-awareness and introspection, develop skills in

relating to others, challenge current perspectives, use feedback effectively, and experience ambiguity and uncertainty. To facilitate this, delegates were required to form Action Learning Groups and undertake real business related projects outside of the program modules. The Action Learning projects were crucial to the program as they gave the delegates the opportunity to work outside their usual area of expertise, go beyond their comfort zone, and form new relationships around the business. Delegates were encouraged to actively reflect on the learning gained from these experiences with their group, their sponsor or during their coaching sessions. The program was based around the knowledge, skills and attitudes that Construction-Co was envisaged to need from its leaders in five to ten years time.

Each HIPO had up to 12 delegates. The program was open to employees from any area of the business. Prior to the start of the part of the project being focussed on here, the HIPO was run twice. HIPO1 was followed 1 year later by the start of HIPO2, so there was some overlap in the programs.

At the start of the first project, Leadership Consulting initially suggested using a job analysis approach to identify the criteria that future business leaders would have to meet, followed by an assessment centre for selection to the HIPO assessing this criteria, using external assessors; however this was rejected by the client on the grounds of time, cost and their perception of the necessity of taking this approach. It is not unusual for clients to have this opinion; Richie (1994) states that, "The assessment centre approach is often criticized by managers as being too expensive, too time consuming and/or not a real test of potential" (p. 22). He goes on to add that the benefits of using external assessors are that they provide an independent view of candidates, and can serve as a check on management nominations, in particular checking against recommendations made for reasons of friendship, the "looks like

me" phenomenon, or political gain. Also, he notes that the assessment centre may uncover a person's hidden strengths that are not evident in their current position. Despite these recommendations, the client in this case initially rejected the assessment centre approach. It was eventually agreed that to be selected for the HIPO, senior managers and directors would be asked to nominate candidates. There was also an option for candidates to self-nominate. Each candidate would then be interviewed and, if successful, would also be assigned a sponsor and a mentor. Interviews were conducted by business managers plus a consultant from Leadership Consulting.

The Present Study

Identification of Need

HIPO1 was deemed by the client to be a successful program, in that the delegates were dedicated to the program, enthusiastically took part in the action learning groups and showed observable signs of development during the eighteen months. HIPO2, however, did not run as smoothly as the previous program; delegates complained consistently about the workload, they demonstrated more difficulty in grasping some of the theories and business acumen information, and they frequently demonstrated a 'group think' mentality and would unite defensively against the program leader. They did not engage well with the action learning projects, failing to complete the projects and rationalising this failure in terms of lack of time, lack of commitment of other group members and, in some cases, not seeing the point of the action learning. For these earlier HIPO programs, no formal methods of evaluation, other than delegate evaluation sheets, had been factored into the program.

In addition to the directors and business sponsors who had worked on the program, the program leader and the coaches agreed that the delegates on HIPO2

appeared to be less able to deal with complexity and were not as introspective or receptive to feedback as those on the previous HIPO. The client arranged a consultation meeting with the project team from Leadership Consulting, and the issue for discussion was 'is the talent pool already exhausted or is the selection process at fault?' Construction-Co asked Leadership Consulting to work jointly with them on addressing this problem and, under advisement of the Leadership Consulting team, agreed to take on an action research methodology to do so. As noted by Dickens and Watkins (1999), the two essential aims of action research are to improve and to involve. They go on to add that "The validity of the theory is judged by a simple criterion: whether it leads to improvement and change within the context. It must both solve a practical problem and generate knowledge" (p. 132). As these were also the aims of the current project, and the client was to be closely involved, an action research methodology was deemed appropriate.

Analysis of needs and problems

After a fact-finding and review meeting with the client, the Leadership Consulting team discussed the issues in the light of psychological theory and research, and hypothesised that the problems observed in the HIPO2 group may be down to one or a combination of the following factors:

(1) Lack of group diversity: The diversity of personality types using the Myers-Briggs model (Myers, 2000) was very narrow in HIPO2 compared to HIPO1. The distribution of best-fit types is shown in Tables 20 and 21. Using the temperaments division (Keirsey, 1997) of the Myers-Briggs types (NT, NF, SJ and SP types), which are the clusters of types that are related to work and leadership style, and to fundamental motivations, the HIPO2 group predominantly contained delegates

with the SJ temperament (7 out of 10), and was lacking any delegates with the NF or

SP temperaments. In contrast, HIPO1 had representation from all four of the

temperament groupings. Typical characteristics of individuals with the SJ

temperament are reliability, loyalty, traditionalism and the need for a sense of

belonging, however they are also prone to reluctance to change and experimentation,

and tend to prefer to be given clear guidance and expected outcomes from superiors,

as opposed to taking independent direction. This lack of diversity within the group

may have resulted in the group being presented with fewer different perspectives or

role models to learn from within the group, and a group 'comfort zone' to revert to.

ISTJ 2	ISFJ	INFJ	INTJ		ISTJ 3	ISFJ 1	INFJ	INTJ
ISTP 1	ISFP	INFP 1	INTP		ISTP	ISFP	INFP	INTP
ESTP	ESFP	ENFP 1	ENTP 1		ESTP	ESFP	ENFP	ENTP 2
ESTJ 1	ESFJ 1	ENFJ	ENTJ 2		ESTJ 1	ESFJ 2	ENFJ	ENTJ 1

Table 20: *HIPO1 MBTI Types*   Table 21: *HIPO2 MBTI Types*

Total N = 10   *Total N = 10*

This raised the question: was the lack of diversity in personality types in HIPO2

due to an unidentified issue in the selection process, such as the "like me"

phenomenon warned against by Ritchie (1994)? Or due to organisational

homogeneity (e.g., Schneider, Goldstein and Smith, 1995), which would mean that

there is a lack of diversity within the organisation to select from? Or was it simply an

artefact of this particular group? Either way, the question was raised: were the issues

observed in the HIPO2 group anything to do with the lack of diversity of personality types?

(2) Developmental level of the delegates: In relation to the Torbert development model (the philosophy of which underpinned the HIPO program), some of the HIPO2 candidates may have come to the program at an earlier level of leadership development than previous candidates, or have reverted to an earlier level due to pressure or due to group cohesion coupled with perceived threat. Although leadership level was not formally measured, the 'group think' and 'in-group, out-group' tendencies of the HIPO2 delegates, and their defensiveness against feedback and challenge indicate that the group may have intermittently reverted to the 'Diplomat' level of Torbert's theory. This level is concerned with adhering to the norms of the 'in-group', and rejecting difference. At this level there is also a tendency to defend oneself against feedback or criticism rather than evaluate it and learn from it.

(3) High Potential Derailment Factors: As the delegates tended to complain about the workload and not engage fully in the action learning projects, they may have lacked the necessary motivation for the program. Motivation was not part of the interview or assessment program for the process, however it is believed to be a key factor in leadership potential (e.g., McCall, 1994), as well as being important for the willingness to undertake the additional workload. As previously noted, De Meuse et al. (2010) suggest that, in their research, tendencies towards defensiveness, blame and unwillingness to adapt were observed in individuals with high potential that were eventually derailed and unsuccessful, but not in successful high potentials. These are amongst the characteristics displayed by many of the group members in HIPO2. This would suggest that, although they may have been correctly identified as having high

potential, the contra-indicatory derailment factors were not identified during the selection process.

Leadership Consulting took these suggestions back to the client for discussion at the next consultation meeting. As a result of the discussion, the internal sponsors of the HIPO at Construction-Co decided that there was a need to change the process used to select HIPO delegates. The Leadership Consulting team had been advocating an assessment centre approach for selection to the HIPO from the beginning, and now suggested the organisation consider using a research based approach to identifying the assessment criteria based on the latest findings regarding leadership potential. At this point, the terms of engagement were re-clarified: This project would use an action research approach; involving the client, taking account of existing research, ensuring that formal methods of evaluation were factored in, and any modifications suggested by the evaluation were to be employed in future projects.

Formulation of Solutions

Leadership Consulting carried out a review of the most recent empirical literature regarding leadership development theories, and the following theories were found to be of particular value as they were a good fit with the aims and approaches of the leadership development program.

Lombardo and Eichinger (2000) define 'potential' as follows: "... potential involves learning new skills (or honing current ones) in order to perform in first-time situations" (p. 322). They identified four different areas of learning agility: (1) People Agility – self awareness, treating others constructively, resilience under pressure, (2) Results Agility – ability to get results under tough conditions and inspire others to go the extra mile, (3) Mental Agility – the ability to take a different perspective and deal

with complexity and ambiguity, and (4) Change Agility – having curiosity, an interest

in new ideas and the willingness to experiment. People Agility appears to have some

commonalities with emotional intelligence, and Results Agility contains aspects of

motivation and resilience. It is clearly noted that Mental Agility is not the same as IQ

or level of scholastic intelligence, and numerous studies have confirmed that

IQ/scholastic aptitude are not related to leadership potential (e.g., Ritchie, 1994;

Sternberg, Wagner, Williams & Horvath, 1995). Mental Agility is more akin to what

Sternberg et al. refer to as 'practical intelligence', leading to 'tacit knowledge' – the

knowledge and learning that develops from experience. From their research, they

found that each of these areas of learning agility was significantly associated with

being considered a 'high potential' and with staying out of trouble. From further

analyses using correlation, they concluded that learning agility – the willingness to

learn from experience – is key to potential, irrespective of age, gender, or role. The

importance of learning agility and comfort with ambiguity for leadership potential has

been confirmed by other researchers in the field, for example, McCall (1994), De

Meuse et al. (2010), and White & Shullman (2010).

In a critical review of previous research regarding learning agility, De Meuse

et al. note that both successful and derailed executives were found to be a) very

bright, b) had been identified as having high potential early in their careers, c) were

outstanding achievers, and d) were ambitious and willing to sacrifice. However, the

consistent factors that differentiated between the successful and derailed executives

were that the derailed executives were unable or unwilling to change or adapt, and

were reliant on a narrow set of skills. The derailed executives were also found to be

defensive or secretive about failure, and often tended to blame others, whereas the

successful executives admitted their mistakes and took responsibility (e.g., Lombardo, Ruderman & McCauley, 1988).

In summary, the research indicates that leadership potential is unlikely to be predicted by current or past performance alone, however learning agility has been found to be a key indicator of future potential. The different aspects of learning agility can be related to emotional intelligence, resilience, motivation, practical intelligence/tacit knowledge, and comfort with complexity, ambiguity and change. Defensiveness, lack of acceptance of failure and a tendency to deflect blame have been found to impede success in individuals who would otherwise been considered as having high potential.

A paper reviewing recent research regarding the identification of potential and leadership development was compiled and presented to the client prior to the next consultation meeting. In summary, the key features of the paper were the suggestions that:

- Values based approaches to aligning leadership to strategy as suggested by the research (e.g., Covey, 2004; Barrett, 2006) should be included. Bringing the Construction-Co values into the selection process would satisfy suggestions made in the research regarding the need to tailor high potential models to the particular organisation (e.g., Xancam survey report).

- Motivation should be assessed as, not only has this been found to be key for leadership potential (e.g., Lombardo & Eichinger, 2000), but the lack of motivation appeared to be a factor in the problems experienced in HIPO2. In addition, motivation is linked to the 'results agility' factor reported by Lombardo and Eichinger.

- Acceptance of feedback (absence of defensiveness) should be assessed during the process, as suggested by the literature review presented by De Meuse et al.

- Individuals must demonstrate a good level of cognitive agility and learning ability, as per the 'mental agility' and aspects of the 'change agility' factors of the Lombardo and Eichinger research.

- Emotional intelligence should be assessed, however no specific scoring pattern was to be used as a deciding factor (unless there were very unusual responses), but it was to be used to assess the individuals' patterns of emotional intelligence and create an awareness of development needs. As aspects of the program were aimed at developing emotional intelligence, some development needs in this were considered to be acceptable. Emotional intelligence was included as it is similar to the 'people agility' aspect of learning agility described by Lombardo and Eichinger.

- Regarding the research on career derailment (e.g., Hogan & Hogan, 2004), it was decided that an assessment of career derailers be included in the process.

These aspects of the research were selected from the available literature due to their fit with the leadership development program's ethos and aims; the requirement for learning from new experience from the action learning projects, the focus on developing self and other awareness, and the amount of commitment required from participants on the program. They were also selected based on their relative recency and the robustness of their underpinning theories or research methods.

As there was little research to suggest how some these high potential attributes (emotional intelligence, motivation, cognitive agility, learning ability, absence of defensiveness, absence of career derailers) could be assessed in a selection setting, a

range of selection methods was used with a view to refining the process for the future following evaluation. At the request of the client, an interview to assess career aspirations and commitment was included and it was suggested that business managers conduct these interviews.

The assessment process was not based on clearly demonstrating a high level of competence in each area in the style of a typical assessment centre. The ethos of the assessment was that delegates needed to show that they have a good level of motivation, learning ability and cognitive agility; however they may show development needs in the area of emotional intelligence as these can be addressed during the HIPO (provided there was no evidence of serious dysfunction). The only essential part of 'emotional intelligence' that was required was that the delegate was able to accept feedback (i.e., did not become defensive or make excuses). This was assessed by the psychologist who conducted the one hour individual feedback session with the delegates during the assessment day. To ensure objectivity and consistency, each psychologists' rationale for their assessment was discussed with the panel and the assessor conference.

The organisational values aspect of the suggested assessment criteria formed the basis for the presentation topic. The candidates were required to present on how they envisaged the organisational values connecting to the longer term business strategy. A group exercise, fact find, interview, written exercise and in-tray exercise were also included as part of the assessment.

As all the candidates were current incumbents and many of them were known to the assessing managers, the external psychologists from Leadership Consulting carried out the majority of the assessment in an attempt to reduce the types of bias suggested earlier by Ritchie (1994) or the effect of prior knowledge from the

managers. Business managers assessed the group exercise and conducted the interviews, and were not allocated to assess any candidate that they had a particular interest in or knowledge of.

Implementation of Solutions

Two two-day assessment centres for a place on the HIPO3 were held with 11 candidates on each. The exercises and psychometrics used in this assessment were rated on a typical 1-5 rating scale, however some psychometric information was used as secondary evidence. The assessment methods are shown in Table 22.

	Cognitive Agility	EQ	Learning Ability	Derailers	Motiv-ation	Engage-ment	Aspir-ation
ABLE	√		(√)				
MQ			(√)	(√)	√		
EQ-i		√	(√)	(√)	(√)		
Interview			√	√		√	√
Written	√		√		√		
In Tray	√	√			√		
Present-ation	√		√		√		
Group Ex.		√	√	√			

√ = Primary evidence   (√) = Secondary evidence

Table 22: *Assessment centre exercise/criteria matrix*

Although the aim was to build up a picture of each candidate to consider against the high potential capabilities, there was still an agreed scoring requirement in

place; candidates were deemed successful if they had no more than one development area (average score of 2) provided that they showed strength (4+) in at least two other leadership capabilities, and that they demonstrated a minimum required level (3+) of cognitive agility, learning ability and motivation. The rationale for this was that cognitive agility and learning ability are indicative of innate ability and these abilities, plus motivation, are necessary to both the leadership potential model and for coping with the demands of the HIPO.

The candidates' pattern of emotional intelligence was assessed using the BAR-ON EQ-i (Bar-On, 1997). The EQ-i is a self-report measure that provides an overall EQ score plus ratings on the composite scales of Intrapersonal EQ, Interpersonal EQ, Adaptability, General Mood, and Stress Management. The ABLE Business Decision Analysis test (published by OPP Ltd.) formed part of the assessment of cognitive agility and learning ability as it is a test that requires candidates to look for patterns in data and, during the process of the test, learn and apply the principles that they discover. The Motivation Questionnaire (MQ, published by SHL Ltd.) was used as part of the assessment of motivation.

Absence of career derailers was included in the assessment centre as a test for the possibility of assessing this leadership potential factor, although it was acknowledged at the time that the assessment may prove difficult. Hogan & Hogan (2004) stated that, "... the derailment themes coexist with strong social skills, which means that they will be largely invisible during an interview or conventional assessment centre" (p. 14). They go on to add that the derailment characteristics become more evident with time and familiarity with the individual. Nevertheless, assessment of derailers was attempted via an interview question and from observations of the group exercise. A potentially opportunity damaging score would,

therefore, only be assigned to this if a candidate demonstrated glaringly obvious signs of adversarial behaviour. Although the Hogan Development Survey (HDS, Hogan & Hogan, 1997) can identify an individual's most likely career derailment characteristics, the questionnaire outcomes do not indicate a habitual mode of functioning but indicate characteristics that may emerge at times of pressure. Therefore it was not used as part of the selection process. It is, however, used developmentally towards the end of the HIPO program.

The first session for HIPO3 was carried out two months after the assessment centre. One of the 12 delegates left the company shortly after the first session for personal reasons, however all the others stayed with the program, and were active in the action learning projects and demonstrated a high level of commitment to the program.

Evaluation of Outcomes

Two types of evaluation for this process were carried out – (1) the evaluation of the assessment techniques, (2) the evaluation of the changes in emotional intelligence (using EQ-i) for successful candidates following the program using a test-re-test design. The diversity of Myers-Briggs personality types of the group of successful candidates is also reported.

The action research approach emphasises involvement of participants in the project (Dickens & Watkins, 1999), and as such, the views of the participants on the HIPO3 were sought as part of the evaluation. The participants were aware that a new approach to selection for the program had been employed and that the process was to be evaluated. Additionally, the coaches on the program and the organisation's

internal sponsors were also invited to put forward their views to contribute to the evaluation.

The first stage in the evaluation of the assessment centre approach was to analyse the data from the centre to look for patterns and discriminators between the successful and unsuccessful candidates, predictors of success, and any exercise effects. At this stage the evaluation was based on the assumption that the assessment centre selected the candidates who have high potential for leadership ('hits'), did not select any candidates who did not, in reality, have high leadership potential ('false positives'). One weakness in this analysis is that it assumes that the process did not exclude any candidate whose actual leadership potential was not identified ('false negatives'). The reasons for this are discussed later.

Analysis of the leadership capabilities: Analyses of each leadership capability and of the inter-capability relationships were assessed by correlating total scores on each leadership capability with each other, and correlating these with the total assessment centre score (Total AC) and ABLE test scores from the total candidate group (N=22). The outcomes are shown in Table 23.

There were significant expected correlations between candidates' overall scores for cognitive agility, learning ability and motivation, indicating that this cluster of capabilities are all positive indicators and do not contradict each other, thus giving some support for the high potential capability model used. Emotional intelligence correlated significantly with learning ability and motivation, but not with cognitive agility, indicating that it is independent of the 'mental agility' aspect of the learning agility model, but may have some bearing on 'results agility'.

Career aspiration, commitment and absence of derailers correlated negatively with the majority of the other measures. The first two were only measured by the interview and did not form part of the leadership potential model, but were included at the request of the client. Absence of career derailers was assessed in the interview and the group exercise.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1									
2	.469*								
3	.477*	.613**							
4	.651**	.325	.387						
5	.623**	.675**	.443*	.586**					
6	.615**	.295	.529*	.427*	.495*				
7	.319	.250	.103	-.185	.187	.137			
8	.203	-.166	-.089	-.148	.052	.073	.277		
9	-.274	-.454*	-.284	-.443*	-.440*	-.169	.151	.590**	

* $P<0.05$ **$P<0.01$ $N = 22$

1. Assessment centre score 2. ABLE test 3. Cognitive Agility 4. Emotional Intelligence

5. Learning agility 6. Motivation 7. Absence of career derailers 8. Commitment

9. Aspirations

Table 23: *Inter-capability correlations*

The lack of correlation could be an indication of a different perspective and scoring judgement by the managers who conducted the interviews and observed the group exercise, as compared to the psychologists who assessed other components; however it is also possible that, as career aspiration and commitment are not part of the potential model, the lack of correlation may indicate that they are independent and

unrelated to potential. Alternatively, and more likely, it may indicate that the assessment methods used in this instance were inadequate as measures of these two constructs. Additionally, career aspiration, commitment and absence of derailers did not show any discriminative validity between the successful and unsuccessful candidates. It was recommended that the interview be excluded from the process in the future, and the assessment of career aspiration, commitment and absence of derailers are not assessed. This would also reduce the amount and time and the number assessors from the business needed for the centre.

The assessment of defensiveness was not included in the assessment centre scoring, but was noted during the assessor conference. Evidence of defensiveness was only noted for 2 out of the 22 candidates, and they had both performed poorly in other areas of the assessment.

Comparison of Successful and Unsuccessful Candidates: The differences between the successful and unsuccessful candidates on each exercise were explored using t-tests and ANOVAs and recommendations regarding assessment methods were made. As the selection process did not automatically put through the candidates with the highest overall scores, as typical assessment centres do, but instead looked at the overall picture of the candidate that was presented, these between group analyses seemed appropriate. These are summarised in Appendix 9. These findings were presented to the client, and a provisional design for future assessments was agreed. The suggested revised assessment process (Table 24) would be significantly reduced and look as follows:

Exercise	Cognitive Agility	Emotional Intelligence	Learning Ability	Motivation
ABLE test	√		√	
MQ motivation Q			(√)	√
(Competency based) EQ		(√)	(√)	
Presentation	√	√	√	√
Role Play		√		√
Alternative Fact Find	√		√	

√ = Primary evidence   (√) = Secondary evidence   *Italics = New options – to be validated*

Table 24: *Revised assessment matrix for assessing leadership potential*

This revised assessment process will need further evaluation in terms of evaluating the efficacy of the role play, fact find and alternative measure of EQ. One potential issue to note with this design is that there is no longer a need for assessors from the business. The pros of this are that the external assessors are all experienced occupational psychologists, have no prior knowledge of the candidates, are likely to have high inter-rater reliability for the assessment scoring and can be objective during the assessor conference. Also, the business assessors do not need to give up their time to attend the assessment centres or spend time learning the exercises or assessment techniques. The disadvantages are that the client may feel excluded, and in addition, it may reduce the support and buy-in for the process from the business managers.

Evaluation of the Success Criteria

The next stage of the evaluation was determining whether the assessment process selected candidates that were actually high potential leaders. Although there was data from the assessment centre for the unsuccessful candidates, there was no scope to use this group as a comparison group for test-re-test evaluation as it was considered to be

insensitive as most of them had been extremely disappointed not to have been selected. A noted limitation of action research is that, as it is designed to carry out and apply research in naturally occurring settings, it does not emphasise the use of limits or controls (Dickens & Watkins, 1999). The only options for evaluation of the success criteria in this case was to try to ascertain whether or not the process identified 'wins' and no 'false positives', and to look at the diversity within the group to ensure that the assessment centre was not biased towards any particular type of person.

Personality Distribution of Successful Candidates: The Myers Briggs best-fit types of the 11 successful candidates are shown in Table 25. The assessment process did not result in a lack of diversity within the group; each temperament group is represented.

ISTJ	ISFJ	INFJ	INTJ
2		1	1
ISTP	ISFP	INFP	INTP
1			
ESTP	ESFP	ENFP	ENTP
		2	1
ESTJ	ESFJ	ENFJ	ENTJ
2			1

Table 25: *Distribution of MBTI Types of Successful Candidates for HIPO3*

From observations made of the delegates by both the client and by the team from Leadership Consulting, and post-program interviews, support for the absence of 'false positives' was as follows:

- Delegate engagement in the program – the 11 delegates who remained on the HIPO3 engaged fully with the program, the assignments and the action learning groups.

- Observable development – all three coaches on the program and the program leader observed developmental changes in all of the candidates – some more than others however.

- Self report – each delegate was interviewed by the HR business manager on the last day of the program to discuss their reflections on the process and their future aspirations. Although the details of these interviews was confidential, the HR business manager reported that, as a group, the delegates reported having found the program valuable and were able to articulate how they had changed and developed.

Test-re-test Evaluation Using the EQ-i: As the HIPO program has a large focus on increasing self-awareness and interpersonal awareness ('people agility'), it follows that the program should increase the delegates' emotional intelligence, particularly on the interpersonal and intrapersonal factors. Several weeks after the last HIPO3 session, the delegates were asked to complete the EQ-i questionnaire again for evaluation purposes. Comparisons with the EQ-i data obtained from the assessment process were made using t-tests. The outcomes for the five composite scales are shown in Table 26.

	Mean pre	SD pre	Mean post	SD post	t	Sig.
Total EQ	108.82	6.97	98.27	11.40	2.68	.025**
Intrapersonal	110.00	7.06	101.73	12.00	2.03	.069
Interpersonal	100.09	11.71	88.82	17.33	2.66	.024*
Stress Mgmt	108.18	8.87	100.64	14.31	2.25	.048*
Adaptability	111.27	7.37	101.64	11.63	2.35	.041*
Mood	106.82	7.52	98.36	11.38	2.22	.050*

N = 11   df = 10

Table 26: *Mean, Standard Deviation and T-test comparisons for pre- and post- EQ-i scales*

The delegates' scores for Total EQ, Intrapersonal, Stress Management, Adaptability and General Mood all *decreased* significantly at post-test. Intrapersonal EQ also decreased but not significantly. As it is highly unlikely that delegates on the program actually experienced a decrease in emotional intelligence, two hypotheses can be considered in the light of these results – (1) possible distortion in the pre-test scores, and (2) the possibility of response shift bias.

(1) The test-re-test reliability for the EQ-i is given as 0.85 after 1 month and 0.75 after 4 months (Dulewicz, Higgs & Slaski, 2003) both of which are acceptable levels of reliability. However, in a study by Day and Carroll (2008), a sample of 73 students (mean age of 22 years) were required to complete both the EQ-i and the MSCEIT on two occasions – the first as if they were applying for a job (applicant condition), and the second time, 2 weeks later, in an 'non applicant' condition. The EQ-i is a trait based measure of emotional intelligence, and the MSCEIT (Mayer, Caruso & Salovey, 1999) is a structured ability measure of emotional intelligence where there are right and wrong responses to scenario based questions. The

researchers hypothesised that the EQ-i would be subject to more distortion than the MSCEIT, and that in the applicant condition, EQ-i scores would be elevated even though the participants were not instructed to deliberately fake their responses, but to respond as if they were actually putting themselves forward for the job. The hypothesis was confirmed, and t-test analyses showed that all composite scale scores on the EQ-i were higher for the applicant condition than for the non-applicant condition, whilst scores on the MSCEIT remained consistent. Of additional note, the social desirability measure in the EQ-i only reached a significant level for 10 of the participants in the applicant condition, and 8 of the participants in the non applicant condition. This indicates that the type of distortion found in the applicant condition was not the type of distortion that triggers a social desirability warning on the EQ-i.

In the light of this study, one could hypothesise that the scores from the assessment centre may have been subject to distortion due to the selection conditions, and therefore candidates may have reported higher EQ than was actual. In the evaluation condition, there was no motivation for distortion. It should be noted, however, that in many cases the re-test scores were below average when compared to the general population norm group.

(2) A second hypothesis to consider is that of response shift bias. In a study by Rohs (1999), it was found that pre and post ratings of self reported leadership skills taken before and after a 10 week leadership development program showed no significant improvements. However, using a then-post method of data collection, where participants rated themselves at the end of the program as they were post program, but also as they retrospectively believed themselves to be at pre program, significant improvements were found in all areas. Rohs notes that in the pre-post condition, both sets of data indicated a high level of leadership skill, where as in the

then-post condition the 'then' ratings were low to average and the 'post' ratings were high. He suggested that these differences were a result of response shift bias; following the program, participants had a deeper understanding of leadership skills than they had a pre program, and this effected how they responded to the leadership skills questionnaire items. In the then-post condition, the participants are responding to the items from the same perspective for both ratings, eliminating the effect of response shift bias.

This research gives rise to the hypothesis that in the pre HIPO condition, the candidates/delegates responded to the EQ-i relatively honestly, but following the HIPO program their perspective on what the questions and concepts actually meant may have changed. In addition, after 18 months of self-awareness, coaching, feedback, etc., they may have become more aware of how much further they could develop in the area of emotional intelligence. This is supported by the fact that the re-test scores often fell below average, indicating that the delegates may have been completing the questionnaire more self-critically.

Unfortunately, as the program has ended and it is not possible to access the delegates, these hypotheses are unable to be tested at this point.

Discussion and Conclusions

This intervention explored the effectiveness of using research-based criteria to identify high potential for leadership development. The assessment criteria were based on the four types of learning agility identified by Lombardo and Eichinger (2000) – people agility, results agility, mental agility and change agility – which can be conceptualised as emotional intelligence, motivation, cognitive agility, and learning ability. The high potential derailment factors noted by De Meuse et al.

(2010) – defensiveness, reliance on a narrow skill set, and inability to change – also formed part of the model for the assessment.

The assessment process appears to have successfully identified individuals who developed as a result of the subsequent leadership program. The assessment process enabled identification of individuals who were able to benefit from the leadership program, and, in addition, the process did not result in any lack of diversity in terms of personality types of the successful applicants.

The attempt to evaluate an increase in emotional intelligence using a test-re-test of the EQ-i did not show any improvement, and in fact, showed a significant decrease. However, this was discussed in the light of response shift bias theory and research regarding distortion in trait based EQ measures such as the EQ-i. Suggestions for improvements and refinements to the assessment process were recommended and will need to be evaluated in the next action research phase; however there is good evidence for the use of the ABLE Business Decision Analysis test as a measure of cognitive agility and learning ability, and for the use of a presentation exercise in the assessment process. Using a matter closely related to the organisation for the presentation topic, such as strategy or values, can add a tailored approach to the assessment process. The presentation exercise was the most consistent discriminator between those who were successful and unsuccessful on the assessment centre.

In order to identify whether any 'false negatives' (i.e., unsuccessful candidates at the assessment centre who actually have high leadership potential) may have resulted from the assessment process, future data collection regarding performance appraisals, promotions or other success criteria may need to be collected from both the successful and unsuccessful candidates, and comparisons made. However, the

sensitive nature of this would necessitate the method of data collection and research design being given careful consideration.

Some limitations of this research arise from the action research basis of the methodology, which requires that the research approaches the subject in its natural state (Trist, 1976, cited from Dickens & Watkins, 1999) and that it is, therefore, not always possible to exercise experimental control. The inability to do further research using the unsuccessful candidates is particularly relevant as it is not possible to ascertain the possibility of false negatives resulting from the assessment process. Additionally, it was not possible to access the development centre participants to explore the changes in emotional intelligence seen in the test-re-test of the EQ-i. However, the benefits of using the action research approach allowed Leadership Consulting to explore the issue in conjunction with the client, and to try out a range of options during the assessment centre in order to find out which methods were most effective and which criteria proved most predictive.

The research-based criteria were selected due to their suitability to this particular organisation and environment, so its potential for generalisation to other situations cannot necessarily be inferred from this study. Nevertheless, overall, this project has indicated that research-based high potential capability models can be used in an assessment centre setting to identify potential for leadership development, and can help to identify those who have high potential, yet the possibility of not benefiting from this type of development due to defensiveness and intolerance of change or ambiguity.

Reflecting on my learning from this intervention, I have gained insights from a variety of interlinking perspectives; as a researcher, as a practitioner, and as a

consultant in a commercial setting. In future, from the outset of the process, I would carefully consider how to facilitate the client's understanding and acceptance of best practice; for example, in this case, the use of an objective selection method from the start. There is a need to balance theoretical and research based justifications with the client's commercial objectives for the project. From the client's perspective, a selection process is time consuming and costly, however if they realised that an ineffective process could potentially result in low morale and wasted investment and see the commercial impact of this, they may be more willing to explore the possibility of following best practice. Therefore, being able to construct a balanced case is essential.

In a similar vein, robust evaluation methods should be incorporated into the initial design of a project. While this may not be news to practicing psychologists, in reality it can be difficult to persuade the client to invest resources in this phase of the project. However, as a consultant it is important to demonstrate that your interventions have had an impact and, in particular, an impact that will benefit the business commercially. Perhaps those who buy-in psychological consultancy services (usually HR) may realise that their endeavours will also be more valued by the business if they can demonstrate commercial benefits from these joint projects. For this reason, I believe that the evaluation stage of a project should be jointly designed by the consultant/psychologist and HR.

Another point that I have been considering is managing the balance between the issues that are important from the client's perspective with the theoretical basis that I may be working from. For example, in this intervention the client was keen to assess the candidates' levels of commitment. Understandably, the client would be reluctant to invest in employees that may not stay with the business, however research

suggests that high potential individuals are likely to enjoy change and seek out new challenges, so commitment to an organisation per se may be incompatible with high potential. Indeed, the commitment measured during the assessment process negatively correlated with the other indications of high potential. Therefore, finding ways to meet the client's needs for retaining high potential employees, e.g., encouraging continuous challenge and development, may be more beneficial than merely complying with their wishes (i.e., including commitment in the assessment criteria) when there is a high potential for this to fail.

Overall, there are often challenges experienced by consultant psychologists when working within commercial settings, so insights into how to bridge some of these gaps in project objectives is valuable.

Epilogue

I began this thesis with many questions. Some have been fully answered, and some only partially answered; however, for these partially answered questions, the way has been opened for further exploration.

The starting point that prompted this research was the question - *If a developmentally hierarchical model were developed for the Myers-Briggs personality types [similar to the Riso-Hudson enneagram], would it help type practitioners to introduce people to their 'shadow' more easily and address dysfunctional or ineffective tendencies?* In order to answer this question, I first needed to find out to what the different levels of a hierarchy would be related. I had a notion that the answer may lie in emotional intelligence (e.g., Bar-On, 1985) or in Ego Development theory (Loevinger, 1976). Although I could find nothing specific in the literature to explain either the difference or connection between EQ and Ego Development, my research into Ego Development suggested that it incorporated aspects of EQ, but also incorporated the ability to deal with complexity, make changes in overall pespective and move towards a systems point of view. Ego Development theory was presented as a levelled developmental model, so was a good fit with what I was hoping to achieve.

It was necessary to acquire empirical evidence to support my instinct that Ego Development theory would add something valuable to the psychological type model. The outcomes of the empirical research chapter indicated that people demonstrating characteristics of higher levels of Ego Development were perceived as using their type effectively, and vice versa. This research may pave the way for the creation of a developmentally levelled model of psychological type, with empirical evidence to support it.

The other questions I had at the start of this thesis were concerned with the differences and/or similarities between coaching, psychological coaching and therapy; *where are the boundaries between therapy and coaching?,* and, *is there a difference between the work of coaching psychologists and non-psychologist coaches?* The answers to these questions were not so clear cut; however I feel that the continuum model that I derived at the end of the literature review provides some insight into these issues.

Clearly, several of the findings from this thesis will be of practical benefit to the field of occupational psychology as well as adding to the body of theoretical knowledge. I envisage the additional consideration of aspects of Ego Development in conjunction with psychological type having both theoretical value, adding to a well-established theory, and providing some practical applications for coaching. In practice, coaches may require a tool or assessment that could be used alongside the Myers-Briggs to add in these extra dimensions. The case study illustrates the benefits of using the Jung-Myers model rather than just the Myers-Briggs alone, and demonstrates the potential for more in-depth, developmental application of psychological type. The intervention process analysis project contributes a model of leadership development potential and suggested effective assessment methods. Additionally, a major, and somewhat unforeseen, contribution from this particular section is the consideration of using pre- and post- test questionnaire designs, particularly with the EQ-i, as methods of evaluation.

From the perspective of implications for practice, the outcomes of this thesis suggest the need for coaches to reflect on the appropriateness of their style of practice in relation to their level of skills and knowledge. The conclusions from the literature study and the graph (Figure 1) may help coaches to consider their position in respect

of this. There are suggestions put forward regarding the increased importance of self-awareness for the coach who wishes to work with their clients developmentally and in more depth, and to note the level of development that the coachee is at so that interventions can be appropriate to the client's needs and situation. For coaches using type, the empirical study opens up the possibility of using type to a greater developmental extent in their practice and, perhaps, highlights some of the current limitations and frustrations that they may be experiencing with current type theories. The outcomes of the rep grid study illustrate the differences between effective and ineffective type use with a clarity not commonly found in the existing literature, and the quantitative study suggests the factors that contribute to this effectiveness (Psychological Mindedness, Interpersonal Closeness and Anger). Although further development of this particular aspect of the research is needed to make the findings more easily applicable to practitioners, the results as they stand may provoke type using coaches to expand their use of type in practice.

From an academic perspective, this work adds to the debate about the nature of coaching. Coaching is still a developing field of practice for both psychologists and non-psychologists, therefore the debate about all aspects of coaching is still very much open. This thesis contributes to that debate be drawing together some of the various strands of research and discussion to date and making suggestions regarding the possible future direction of coaching in terms of increased depth of intervention, increased psychological application and the need for clarity of definition. Similarly, in the academic debates regarding psychological type, one of the key topics is the nature of type development. In fact, the focus of the International Association for Type (APTi) 2011 Research Symposium was the debate surrounding the nature of type development. This thesis, I believe, contributes significantly to this debate by

connecting various definitions of type development together, demonstrating the

connection between development and effectiveness, and providing some evidence that

this effectiveness can be related to Ego Development theories. There is clearly much

more to consider about these potential links; for example, how does one's actual type

influence the path of development, and how would one's early environment impact on

the potential for development?

On a personal note, undertaking this course of study has increased my skills

considerably. Not only have I become familiar with statistical techniques that I had

not previously used, but I have learned and seen the value of several new research

methods. Of particular note, in this regard, is the use of the template analysis and

thematic analysis in the empirical research project. Previously, I would have merely

scanned the transcript for main points and common themes; this was actually how I

first attempted to analyse the data. It was pointed out to me that there was no method

behind this, so I used the template and thematic analyses as a methodology. In all

honesty, I initially felt that I was just going through the motions to satisfy the course

requirements and that no additional value would come from it. However, I was

amazed at how using these methods actually transformed the whole outcome and

made me find themes and connections that I had not noted from my earlier analysis.

So in this regard, I am a convert to rigorous qualitative methods.

In addition to the development of skills, I believe that undertaking this

professional doctorate has already made me a more effective occupational

psychologist. I find myself being more questioning, using more research as a basis

for most of my practice, and generally being more precise in my written work. I had

fallen into the trap of using methods and processes that I learned over 12 years ago,

but now I find that I always take a look at the latest research to inform any new

interventions.

   Although my time on this program has often been difficult, frustrating, tedious

and has made me miss out on a number of nice occasions with my family, I can reflect

on the benefits it has provided me with, and look forward to continuing to explore the

areas of psychology that interested me enough to get me started on this path.

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Appendices

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Appendix 1: Summary of correlations between NEO-PI and MBTI (N=468) (Costa & McCrae, 1989)

NEO-PI Scale - MBTI Scale	Correlation Coefficient
Extraversion – Extraversion/Introversion	-.70 ***
Openness – Sensing/Intuition	.70 ***
Agreeableness – Thinking/Feeling	.45 ***
Conscientiousness – Judging/Perceiving	-.47***
Neuroticism	ns

Appendix 2: Correlations between subscales of NEO-PI Neuroticism and five of the TDI Comfort Scales from Johnson (1995)

NEO-PI TDI	Anxiety	Hostility	Depress	SelfConsc	Impulsive	Vulnerble.	Neurotic.
Intrepid-Inhibited	.49***	.34***	.47***	.58***	.11	.47***	.57***
Leader-Follower	.27***	.06	.31***	.32***	.01	.36***	.31***
Carefree-Worried	.52***	.24***	.40***	.48***	.13	.38***	.50***
Decisive-Ambivalent	.32***	.02	.33***	.30***	.26***	.42***	.38***
Proactive-Distractable	.19***	.22***	.36***	.24***	.23***	.38***	.38***
Conscious Strain	.55***	.26***	.56***	.58***	.23***	.61***	.65***

Appendix 3: Comparison of the stages of development in terms of number and names of levels

Loevinger	Kegan	Wilber	Cook-Greuter	Torbert	Joiner & Josephs
Impulsive	Impulsive	Body/	Impulsive	Impulsive	
Opportunistic	Imperial	Preconventional	Self-Defensive	Opportunist	
Conformist	Interpersonal	Mind/	Conformist	Diplomat	
		Conventional	Self-Conscious	Expert	Expert
Conscientious	Institutional		Conscientious	Achiever	Achiever
		Vision Logic/	Individualist	Individualist	Catalyst
Autonomous	Inter-individual	Post-Conventional	Autonomous	Strategist	Co-Creator
Integrated		Systems View	Construct Aware	Magician	Synergist
		Unitive View	Unitive	Ironist	

Appendix 4: Distribution of the levels of development (Cook-Greuter 2002)

Developmental Level	535 managers & Consultants in the UK*	497 managers & supervisors in the USA	4510 USA mixed adult population
Ironist	0.9	<1	0.5
Construct Aware	5.6		1.5
Autonomous	13.5	1.4	4.9
Individualist	23.4	5	11.3
Conscientious	33.5	34.8	29.7
Self-Conscious	21.1	47.8	36.5
Conformist	1.7	8.2	11.3
Impulsive & Self-Defensive	0.4	2.2	4.3

Appendix 5: Study One – Focus Group Interview Transcript

N = 8. Ax, B, T, A, F, N, Z, J.   I = Interviewer

1. I: Some of you I know are MBTI qualified trainers, and all of you have used MBTI in coaching, so what I wanted to know are things like how you use MBTI, at what stage do you use it, at what stage does it not become any more useful, etc. So a general brainstorm about using MBTI in coaching.

2. N: Sometimes in the coaching that I do it's already been part of a leadership program *(1.b.iii)*, and so I can take it into the coaching *(1.c)*.

3. I: So when it's already been part of it, so they know it, do you tend to bring it into the coaching?

N: Yes.....

4. I: What I'm trying to get at is, when is it useful, how is it used, are there limitations to how it can be used in coaching.

5. B: Personally, I try to integrate it *(1.d.ii)*. That is to say, have it there all the time as a constant reference *(1.c)*. Rather than just saying 'we do a feedback session on session 2' I have it there in front of us as a lens that we can look through *(1.c.ii)*.

6. I: So is that when it has been part of a program before, so people already know it? So if you were coaching someone new who had never been exposed to the MBTI, would you make a point of doing a feedback first?

7. B: I might do. I think it really depends on what I have been contracted to do coaching *(1.c.i)* about. Obviously there aren't many applications that the MBTI isn't suited to *(1.c.ii)*, so ... probably. I'm coaching on the basis that I'm a business psychologist, so clients usually expect that approach *(1.c.i.1)*.

8. I: What? That you will use psychometrics?

9. B: That I use psychological methodologies and psychometrics. So there is an expectation on the part of the client that I might do *(1.c.i.1)*, and generally, more often than not, I do *(1.a)*.

10. N: When it hasn't been part of a program then actually during the session I can hear all the MBTI stuff coming out *(1.d.i)*. So I will be using it anyway *(1.a)*, whether or not I have done it with them. So I might be thinking 'that sounds like introverted feeling there', or whatever, and then what I tend to do, depending on the client and their, um, 'warmth' towards psychometrics, I will then perhaps do a

session on it *(1.d.ii)*. So then they will be aware of it as well. But regardless of whether I do it or not I find it's always present for me; I'm always aware of it.

11. I: So if they are saying certain things to you, you will be bearing in mind 'oh, that's about their such and such a preference'...

12. N: Yes, but I might not necessarily even know their type, or they might be talking about someone else *(1.d.i)* – they might be talking about their relationship with their boss or whoever it might be – and I become aware of certain things

I: OK.

13. T: For me, I've always used it within the framework of authenticity and agility *1.d.ii)*, but tend to use it more explicitly when you're trying to help the client become aware of a difficulty they may be having *(1.b.i & 1.c.iii)*. Such as if the client is trying to influence somebody, and when you get talking you find that they know the MBTI, but they haven't brought it into their work, and you often find they are trying to influence someone in the way that they work themselves. Like trying to influence using the big picture stuff when the other person wants the detail. So once they talk it through and find out what's going on, they can use it as a framework for understanding difficulties *(1.c.iii)*.

14. I: So you find out what their issues are, and then say 'I think MBTI might be helpful' and then do a feedback process....?

15. T: Well I often find that they know the MBTI *(1.b.ii)*. Like N was saying, it's part of a program. But they know it academically, but they don't know it in the way they work *(1.d.ii.1)*. So when they talk through a problem, you ask what the MBTI would say about this, and explain that your type does this...what do you think the other person's type may be.... When you talk it thorough you find that quite often they are the opposite type in some way, and you ask ' do you think that might be where your relationship is breaking down, where you are struggling with stuff, where they are pissing you off....?'

16. I: So you are saying that sometimes they may have been through the session and think they know about that MBTI theory, but they haven't actually made the connection to what they are doing at work?

17. T: That's right. They know it theoretically, but they can extrapolate from that *(1.d.ii.1)*, and they can't, in the heat of the moment' apply it. You can't tell them to apply it, but when you are coaching and these problems come up you can help them to use the MBTI to solve it *(1.b.i.2)*.

18. A: Same for me as well, and same as N, but that I am always *(1.a)* using it implicitly *(1.d.i)*, but then sometimes I've had situations where people ask to do it *(1.c.iv)* when it wouldn't be what I would normally do, but they've heard of it and want to do it. And it might be in the middle of a series of coaching sessions *(1.b)*.

19. B: Yes sometimes it can come from the coachee themselves or from the sponsoring organisation. Again they may have selected you for that situation and be expecting that *(1.c.i.1)*.

20. Z: I often find that people do not understand psychometrics, and they think about what the business is getting from it rather than what they get from it. So you have to turn it around and make it about them, then you can start giving them the information about their preferences and where they are naturally going to be drawn that really opens their eyes.

21. I: So making it clear that the process is for them?

22. OK, so we are agreed that it's a fairly useful process to have as part of coaching. Sometimes it is because the client wants it, sometimes you are holding the framework in your mind anyway when you are working with them, or you might stop and say 'let's actually go through this'. But either way, even if people have been through it, they don't always make that transition to how it can be used at work, or they see it as a thing that has been done for the organisation and not really about them. Anybody else got anything to add?

23. Ax: I find it helpful on a one to one just to help them understand how they are viewing their problems, and their experiences *(1.d.ii.2)*.

24. I: So you are getting their interpretation of things?

25. Ax: Um... well how they see their world through their ENTP lens or their ISTJ lens, and helping them use all the functions. And sometimes, when they've got stuck. For example, I had an ISTJ who got made redundant and who'd got really stuck, and the outplacement consultant found it really hard to get him to go to interviews and engage in the selection process. And I was hearing how he was viewing his stuckness. It was very much 'all my prior experiences' - introverted sensing – I didn't have to apply for this job, people used to offer me jobs, and all of a sudden I'm having to do it. What's going on for me? The other part is leading group coaching. I use the MBTI to create trust. There doesn't have to be any other objective – just getting across that we are all equal, we are all different, we all value each other. If there's conflict in the team or the team hasn't done any development before, it's a great starter to get people talking in a common language *(1.d.ii.3)* and valuing each other.

26. I: OK, so at what point, or are they any situations, where the MBTI has stopped being useful? Or something's come up in coaching that you know is MBTI-ish but the answers aren't quite there, or it may be difficult to convey it to the client?

27. N: I often find that people have a basic understanding, but the issue can be much more complex – like about the relationship between the inferior function or whatever it might be – and that's quite difficult to explain if they're at a level of just basic understanding of the MBTI. To then try and take them to looking at the unconscious and things, it can be quite difficult *(2.b.i)*.

28. T: Yes, I agree. Sometimes it is unhelpful with clients when they are just looking for an identity and they kind of latch onto it and that's who they are. And they

won't move from that no matter what you do or how you work with them. That's them *(2.c.i)*.

29. I: So are you saying that sometimes they can over identify with the type that they've got?

30. T: Yes, no matter how many times you say it's not about putting you in a box, how you can see other people, how you can be flexible, they seem to be really enjoying being their type.

31. I: So sometimes it can make them, not worse but....

32. T: Rigid *(2.c.i)*.

33. I: Trap themselves?

34. T: Yes, trap themselves *(2.c.i)*.

35. J: Yes, sometimes they will use it to almost legitimise why they shouldn't change - 'now I know why I've got a problem with you, it's because you are an ENFP..'. And they just project onto everybody else –'you're not an ISTJ so of course I've got a problem with you' *(2.c.ii)*.

36. I: So type can become their excuse for things?

37. B: Conversely, it's also a bit of a problem when they have difficulty finding best fit, to get 4 letters, and they struggle with that. Then it's you as the coach... it creates a difficulty, a tensions sometimes... when the feel they ought to be something *(2.d.i)*.

38. T: Do you find that's when there is conditioned stuff?

39. B: Sometimes, but sometimes you might have to kind of hypothesise what might be going on. Could be me at home vs me at work...

40. J: Some of the clients that I've worked with, there's a bit of an ego thing going on, and they consider themselves sufficiently well developed individuals that they have comfortable access to all the functions, that it's almost about not getting the best fit because they think 'I', so adept at exploring my extraverted thinking and my introverted thinking...' It's almost like they are justifying why you cant put me in a box (even thought it's not a box) but because they want to demonstrate their competence in having mastered all of the functions, and all of the orientations, and therefore it doesn't apply *(2.d.ii)*.

41. I: (laugh) yet to everybody else it's glaringly obvious what type they are!

42. Ax: If they've got used to using it in a certain way, that they don't actually consider how it is being used *(2.f.i)*.

43. I: What? They just all do it – like 'everyone who comes to work here gets MBTI'd'?

44. Ax: Yes. And working with people who think they know so much about MBTI – and they do – but we all have different patterns of using it. Especially non-psychologists - working with non-psychologists. And you're the one psychologist working with non-psychologists and you try to suggest a certain approach, and they think you are difficult and just trying to get work out of them *(2.b.ii & 2.b.iii)*.

45. T: B's comment has just reminded me of something that I don't think is particularly helpful with the MBTI, when you work with people who are quite different from their industry. I've been doing a lot of work in construction, and in particular, female engineers. One person, she reported ESTJ because that's what the industry wanted and that's what every body around her was, and I worked with her for 18 months, and half way through that time she realised that she wasn't ST, she was NF. And she relaxed into that and then absolutely progressed in her career. You know, she really grew once she accepted her personality. So it was great in that way, that in over 18 months it enabled her to become comfortable with her personality, but initially if they were all just doing it for a short thing, she really did present as what the industry wanted from her *2.e.ii)*.

46. J: Building on what Terry said, it can be one of the times when it gets in the way. Because if the sponsor won't pay for 18 months worth of coaching, there's a danger that you leave people still taking their first tentative steps on the journey of type discovery because the client says 'sorry, I'm only paying for 3 sessions', or 'the coaching contract is only of this finite time duration'.

47. I: Yes, sometimes you know that somebody's not in the right type and you have to leave them with that....

48. J: The client won't pay for the 18 months support coaching, so you have to leave them, knowing you've left them in the wrong place *(2.e.i)*.

(pause)

49. I: OK. How you deal with.... Or think of situations where the client has big problems, like glaring obvious ones, or they're always getting into fights or something, or their 360 feedback says they are unpleasant in some way, and you do their MBTI with them, and you might point out that, yes, you are a an ENTJ so watch out for the details and watch out for the people stuff, yet you're thinking 'but it's actually because you're an ENTJ that you are causing this problem'.... How do you deal with those sorts of things, because the books say that ENTJs are wonderful, but watch out for details and watch out for people. So how do you deal with the not so good bits?

50. Ax: The parts they are likely to miss? Or not pay attention to? *1.d.iii.1)*

51. I: When they're actually not functioning that well in some way. How do you use the MBTI to work with the dysfunctional behaviour?

52. Ax: Dysfunctional behaviour? *(1.d.iii.1)*

53. I: I'm trying not to feed words into your mouth...

54. N: Do you mean the dysfunctional sides of the MBTI that they may not be aware of? *(1.d.iii.2)*

55. B: One think I am aware of is that sometimes I use my knowledge of their MBTI preferences in the way that you tackle that. So if it was an ENTJ, I would take on the ENTJ logical, forceful, approach. I'm thinking of an ISTJ that I was coaching where I went step by step, producing evidence, looking at specific behaviours *(2.g.i)*. So, I'm not sure that that's answering your question *(1.d.iii.3)*.

56. I: No, that's part of it. So you try to present it in a way that's more believable to them by speaking their MBTI type...?

57. B: Yes, I think it has some impact. Not that I could do ENFP, being and INTJ and all (laughs).

58. J: I'm not sure if this answers your question *(1.d.iii.2)*, but I've found it helpful where it's been part of a broader developmental program and it correlates with maybe stuff they've had on 360 and/or if they work for an organisation that has leadership or behavioural competencies and it is part of their developmental discussions. When it's part of a recurring pattern or theme I've found that it's easier to address what you're talking about there than if it's just a stand alone *(2.g.ii)*.

59. I: So looking at this information and the observed group exercises there is a theme...

60. J: Yes, so they're getting it from disparate sources, whether they like to admit it or not, it's kind of '64 million housewives cannot be wrong' *(2.g.ii)*.

61. I: So it makes it more credible?

62. J: Rather than a discrediting tool, or psychometric. Not wanting to deal with it.

63. I: So when it keeps coming up as a theme, it's a bit harder for them to do the defensive or denial thing.

64. B: Another thing, if you are brave enough, if you see it actually enacted in front of you, and it's played out in your coaching working relationship with them, to actually reinforce the message with this is actually happening in the here and now *(2.g.iii)*.

65. I: Is that the use of self thing?

66. B: Yes, use of self. What's happening between you and me right now.

67. A: I probably... I might move away from the MBTI to talk about *(2.g.iv)*, you know, the impact you are having on me right now *(2.g.ii)*. And then maybe come back to it. But not try to use the MBTI to deal with it *(2.g.iv)*. Say they've done a 360 or the reason you are in there is because they are a bit difficult, you might talk about actual situations rather than do it using MBTI *(2.g.ii)*.

68. B: You might come back to it another time, it's a matter of timing, isn't it?

69. Ax: I've got a client who's the manager of a small business and he's ENTP, he's also a narcissist so that's part of the tension, he decides on a change in the company and the customer services people can't keep up with the change, they have problems actually implement it. And back with the management team, they brainstorm all these ideas, and when they come to the next month's meeting, they haven't actually closed anything off. And, there's not much motivation for him to close anything off and be more 'J-like'. He's not being held accountable. I just found it useful to look at, he's a big picture person, and he gets bored quickly *(1.d.iii.2)*, and thinking about the importance of holding people accountable and closing things off, etc. And actually hearing people – the F bit *(1.d.iii.1)*. So MBTI has supported me to try to handle this difficult character, in trying to get him to do some competencies that his team want him to do and his department want him to do.

70. I: So you linked it to his type?

71. Ax: I linked it to his type, I linked it to his development area *(1.d.iii.1)*, I linked it to some of the problems the management team were having in not coming to decisions.

72. I: For this next question, I'm going to feed you a bit of a line. A lot of people think there's something missing from the MBTI, and when I start the presentation I'll show you some of this, but is there anything that you think is actually missing from the theory, not the questionnaire, but the theory, that would make it easier to use or have wider applications?

73. B: Neuroticism? *(3.b)*

74. I: Can you say more about that?

75. B: Well, just that it's one of the big 5 but not covered by MBTI (3.b.i).

76. F: I would say, awareness of skill in using your own type and the non preferred. There's no information about that *(3.c)*.

77. I: Awareness?

78. F: I suppose the awareness is the first part of the skill, but how aware people are *(3.c.i)*.

79. I: How well they are using it? (pause) Any other thoughts?

80. F: Or even how to judge your type. Some people say 'do I need the questionnaire if I am guessing myself', and others say 'why don't you do a 360' which I know goes against the theory. There's the whole MBTI Step I - Step II thing – Step II tells you but Step I you decide. So there's some incongruence there. It's the tool. The questionnaire doesn't have any sort of SD scales *(3.d)*. There's a lot of scepticism about the questionnaire.

81. J: So back to T's engineer – if she wanted to fix it to look like ESTJ.... *(3.d.i)*

82. T: It's quite transparent as a questionnaire *(3.d.i)*.

83. Z: You can answer as you want to be seen *(3.d.i)*.

84. T: And self assess and do the exercises *(3.d.ii)*. Not saying she did it consciously.

85. Ax: I think there's something around emotional intelligence and emotionality. There's all this new information about MBTI and emotional intelligence. How do you get emotional based thing from something that's essentially about cognitive processing? *(3.e)*

86. I: So EQ is in there somewhere, but it's unclear how the 2 connect together?

87. Ax: Yes how does that connect with how you take in information and make decisions which is largely cognitive? *(3.e)*

88. F: This thing between preference and behaviour. You know the theory that you can go against, but surely there should be something more rigorous *(3.f)*.

89. I: They say that preference does not explain behaviour, but I think that means because you can behave out of preference. But there is a techiness about even taking about assigning behaviours to the MBTI types - purist type theory.

90. I: Has anybody ever had to use anything with the MBTI to get the rounder picture, or something that they need? Like using the EQ or something with it.

91. B: You say 'had to'? I would sometimes choose to, to get that rounded picture *(3.a.ii.1)*. So something like 16PF *(3.a.i.1)*, a trait instrument to give a different view.

92. Z: I would use EQ. I think they are both very useful tools for development.

93. I: What does it add to it using a trait instrument or EQ? How does it present a rounder picture?

94. Z: I just think the EQ is a much deeper level of psychometric, it goes to a different level of personal regard and self awareness *(3.a.ii.2)*. So it's just adding to ....

95. I: So you may get some idea of how aware they are?

96. Z: I don't go into all the psychology and stuff. The reason I do it is to try to get them to understand themselves better. I don't try to evaluate it. So, as a language and as a framework it is very valuable.

97. T: If we are just talking about coaching, I sometimes do coaching without psychometrics *(1.a)*– I often use psychometrics *(1.a)* and I may use MBTI – but I would never use the MBTI on it's own *(3.a)*. Once I was down that route I would probably use it with something else.

98. Me : Why? What would you hope to add?

99. T: More depth *(3.a.ii.3)*. The only time I would use MBTI on it's own would be for teambuilding. If there was a team build with support coaching afterwards I may only use MBTI. If it's just pure coaching with one person I'd either use none or 2-3. It's the belt and braces approach, use a few tools to get a common picture *(3.a.ii.4)*.

100. I: Is it about finding the themes?

101. T: Yes it is. I don't think I trust it on its own *(2.g.ii)*.

102. Ax: What worries me about coaching with MBTI or 360, it doesn't work well on its own *(3.a.ii.5)*. But together they work very well. I think it's something about observable behaviour from the 360, other people's view and then using the MBTI to look at patterns *(3.a.ii.4)*.

103. N: FIRO? *(3.i.4)*

104. I: What does that add?

105. N: I guess it looks at behaviour *(3.f)*, but it's back to everyone is saying about getting a bit more *(3.a.ii.3)*. Thinking back to what A was saying earlier about the ENTP narcissist, I think it would be interesting to see what's an ENTP narcissist or an ISTJ narcissist. I think the FIRO adds that for me. If I have 2 ESTJs in a team then you look at something like the FIRO, you can see how their behaviour would differ even thought they've got the same preferences. They can look very different and approach people and situations very differently, even thought they are the same type. I guess any of those things are going to add a bit more, but I particularly like using the FIRO for that. To show that behavioural element *(3.f)*.

106. B: I think the FIRO, and the 16PF I would say, if you want a more psychodynamic view looking at some of the tensions that go on inside someone *(3.a.ii.7)*, and how that links to the manifest behaviour that you seen and how it links to their preferences *(3.g)*, well, I think that gives you a lot of richness?

107. I: The FIRO?

108. B: The FIRO, and the 16PF would as well.

109. F: I like it with the Hogan, you know, the HDS *(3.a.5)*. Because I sometimes find that people don't necessarily relate to the Grip, but actually sometimes they relate to the exaggerated dominant. But they don't necessarily get it until they've experienced the Grip *(3.a.ii.8)*. And somehow that is more diagnostic and informative. It completes the picture because it doesn't just talk about the positive *(2.a)*, it talks about the strengths overplayed as well as the derailers. It gets to the heart of some things.

110. I: Yes, the Grip is like you switching to another type in a bad way, and the HDS is almost like an exaggeration of yourself.

111. N: What T said earlier about how you can really try hard to explain that it's not about being put in a box, this shows that you are not being box as there is so much variation between different types and different people, so it reinforces that.

112. (Pause)

113. I: OK, thanks for that. Hopefully we can look at some of these issues through type now.

Appendix 6: Gap analysis questionnaire

Your Type: ....   **Gender: M / F**   **Age:** ....

Using the numbers 1 to 10, please **RANK** the statements below (1 being the most useful, 10 being the least useful). Note that 'Myers-Briggs' in this case is not just the questionnaire, but includes the process of feedback and application.

The first column asks which of the aspects of development the Myers Briggs is currently useful for, and the second column is the 'in an ideal world' what developmental areas would you like to use type for.

	Aspect of Personal Development	The Myers-Briggs is useful for....	I would like to be able to use Type for...
1	Helping clients to discover their Type preferences		
2	Identifying a client's potential 'blind spots'		
3	Identifying a client's sources of stress		
4	Identifying a client's reaction to stress		
5	Identifying a client's level of Type development		
6	Helping a client to appreciate interpersonal differences		
7	Identifying a client's order of preferences (Type dynamics)		
8	Identifying how effectively a client uses their type		
9	Identifying how flexible a client is in their Type (i.e.,ability to 'flex' between preferences)		
10.	Assessing a client's level of emotional stability		

Appendix 7 – Study Three: Type Effectiveness Questionnaire

Instructions
The aim of this research is to explore the differences between people who use type effectively and those who use type ineffectively.

Using the descriptions below to guide you, please think of 2 people that you know the MBTI types of:

1 person that meets MOST or all of the characteristics of the Ineffective use of type and 1 person that meets MOST or all of the characteristics of the Effective use of type.

You will not be asked to name or identify these individuals and all responses are confidential.

Characteristics Associated with Ineffective Type Use:

• When making judgments, tends to be selective in his/her use of information – only attends to the aspects that suit him/her.
• Interpretation of events or situations are distorted or biased by his/her preferences.
• Has difficulty accepting, understanding or appreciating differences in others – believes his/her way is the right way.
• Tends to have difficult relationships and interactions with others.
• Tends to use his/her preferred styles in most situations, even when it is not appropriate.
• Often uses the more negative aspects of his/her type (e.g. over-sensitive, harshly critical, pedantic, novelty-seeking, etc.).

Characteristics Associated with Effective Type Use:

• Tends to make sound and well reasoned judgments
• Views are not distorted or biased by his/her preferences
• Accepting, understanding and appreciative of those who are different
• Can make use of others' type differences
• Has generally good relationships and interactions with others
• Can use a range of preferences as appropriate to the situation
• Makes the best of the positive aspects of his/her type (e.g. compassion, objectivity, awareness, insight, etc.).

Once you have the 2 individuals in mind, please rate your perceptions of them on the questions that follow.

Ineffective Use of Type
To what extent is the statement an accurate description of the individual?

(Rating scale: 1 – Very Inaccurate, w – Moderately Inaccurate, 3 – Neither Inaccurate or Accurate, 4 – Moderately Accurate, 5 – Very Accurate)

1. Knows and understands self well
2. Is introspective; examines own thoughts and feelings
3. Is uncomfortable with uncertainty and complexity
4. Tends to blame others for own failures or faults
5. Is thin skinned; sensitive to anything that can be construed as criticism or insult.
6. Does not cope well under stress or strain
7. Is not easily annoyed
8. Has frequent mood swings
9. Gives up and withdraws where possible in the face of frustration and adversity
10. Worries about being inadequate as a person.
11. Is basically distrustful of people in general; questions their motivations
12. Is often down in the dumps
13. Has a low opinion of his/herself
14. Tends to ruminate and have persistent and preoccupying thoughts.
15. Is basically anxious
16. Behaves in an ethically consistent manner; is consistent with own personal standards
17. Worries about things
18. Is afraid of many things
19. Tries to figure out the intentions behind other people's actions.
20. Is perceptive of a wide range of interpersonal cues
21. Has warmth; has the capacity for close relationships; compassionate.
22. Fears for the worst
23. Prefers variety to routine
24. Is not easily bothered by things
25. Is not easily disturbed by events
26. Gets irritated easily
27. Gets upset easily
28. Worries about things that have already happened
29. Has little self control; expresses emotions impulsively; unable to postpone pleasure
30. Is unpredictable and changeable in behaviour and attitudes.
31. Does things he/she later regrets
32. Easily resists temptation
33. Characteristically pushes and tries to stretch limits; sees what he/she can get away with.
34. Is concerned with philosophical problems, e.g. religions, values, the meaning of life, etc.
35. Quick to protect or defend self from criticism
36. Gets stressed out easily
37. Gets caught up in their problems
38. Is relaxed most of the time
39. Is often in a bad mood
40. Is easily intimidated

41. Is afraid of doing the wrong thing
42. Is afraid to draw attention to him/herself
43. Tends to deny unpleasant thoughts, conflicts or feelings; prefers to believe they don't exist
44. Becomes overwhelmed by events
45. Remains calm under pressure
46. Readily overcomes setbacks
47. Is concerned with communicating feelings; is able to convey his/her own emotions clearly and vividly
48. Is embarrassed easily
49. Is comfortable in social situations
50. Tends to see things in a simple way: all good or bad, black or white, etc.
51. Exploitative: sees people as sources of supply: 'good' to him/her seems to mean 'good to me'
52. Does things mostly out of a need to get back at someone or avoid punishment
53. Is tolerant of others' ideas
54. Is able to control his/her cravings
55. Panics easily
56. Impulsive: when he/she does not get own way, may be self destructive in an impulsive way
57. Takes a conversation to a higher level.
58. Is interested in many things.
59. Wants to increase his/her knowledge.
60. Is open to change.
61. Prefers to stick with things that he/she knows.
62. Tries to avoid complex people.
63. Rarely looks for a deeper meaning in things.
64. Is not interested in abstract ideas
65. Gets angry easily
66. Loses their temper
67. Rarely gets irritated
68. Is calm even in tense situations
69. Seldom gets angry
70. Keeps their cool
71. Rarely complains
72. Often feels sad
73. Is not interested in theoretical discussion
74. Seldom feels sad
75. Is unable to stand up for him/her self
76. Can't make up his/her mind
77. Gets overwhelmed by emotions
78. Can handle complex problems
79. Knows how to cope
80. Feels unable to deal with things
81. Seems to be aware of the impression he or she makes on others.
82. Is verbally fluent; can express ideas well.
83. Appreciates or is moved by works of art, beautiful music, drama, etc.
84. Appears to have a high degree of intellectual capacity.
85. Shows condescending behaviour in relations with others.
86. Keeps people at a distance; avoids close interpersonal relationships.

87. Is power oriented; values power in self and others.
88. Values own independence and autonomy.
89. Behaves in a giving way to others.
90. Has a clear cut, internally consistent personality.
91. Creates and exploits dependency in people.
92. Exploits and takes advantage of people and situations.
93. Is subtly negativistic; tends to undermine and obstruct or sabotage.
94. Is dramatic; exaggerates emotion.
95. Over-reactive to minor frustrations; irritable.
96. Has fluctuating moods.
97. Is self-indulgent.
98. Tends to be rebellious and non-conforming.
99. Is vulnerable to real or fancied thereat; generally fearful.
100. Is calm, relaxed in manner.
101. Worries about being inadequate as a person.
102. Tends to see feelings and motives in others which he or she prefers not to recognise in self.

Which ONE of the following descriptions most accurately describes this individual?

- Has disrupted or dysfunctional relationships. Operates from the point of view of survival of the fittest and sees every situation or interaction as something they need to win. Has little to no awareness of the needs or motives of others and will not understand compromise or consultation.
- Has fairly smooth social relationships with the people and groups they chose to associate with; however may not be in touch with their real selves and is intolerant of those who are different. The primary concern is being seen to fit in.
- Has some idea of what they are actually like as a person and attempts to fine their niche or cultivate relationships that are more in tune with who they are. Functions fairly well when working in their comfort zone, but has difficulty with difference.
- Concerned with achieving goals and maximizing personal strengths. Likely to have a good sense of who they are and how they differ from others, and has some appreciation of the value of these differences.
- Has a very good sense of self-awareness and a genuine appreciation for the differences in others. Able to take multiple perspectives on matters and recognize that there is not always one clear answer or way.
- Demonstrates authenticity and responds to challenge without defensiveness. Has the ability to see everything as part of a wider system and can adapt and respond appropriately to complex situations.

These questions are repeated for the 'Effective Type Use' individual.
The type, gender and age of the rater and both of the individuals being rated was requested.

Appendix 8 – Case study transcript

Italics: Coach
Non-italics: Jennifer

The problem I'm having is that I'm trying to make a new start in the coaching that I do and bring in art stuff into business, but (pause) I am really excited about it however, as soon as I start thinking....well, basically I don't get to the stage of even really practically thinking about it. I seem to be getting in my own way and thinking that I can't do it, and I have no ideas, and who am I to do anything like that, and actually I'm supposed to be creative but everyone else has more ideas than me. Stuff like that. I end up putting everything off, and not looking at my books, and not thinking about ideas, because it all seems too big and scary.

So tell me about the excitement. You said at the beginning you get really excited about it.

That's come from my sabbatical time of doing lots of art and thinking.., suddenly realising....I think it was reading that R&L brain book, when I was reading it I suddenly got excited thinking, I could use this in business and it could be acceptable, and I started thinking about it would be cool to have a new approach. It seemed exciting because it seems I've never really felt like I completely fit in the business world, that maybe I'm not that easy to accept because I think people see me as a bit...(pause) fluffy. And I thought that actually it is more me, I've always wanted to do stuff for people at work that helps them to be more normal and real people and this seemed to be something that could help to bring out their potential in the workplace.

How does this connect to the idea that people may see you as a bit fluffy in the business setting.

I have to kind of be a bit different at work to how I am. Sometimes I feel like, for example, even at Ts workshop I just felt, as soon as I said the introduction, that it was really crap and I just don't fit in business.

SO that was your own thought. Where does that come from?

Not sure if it comes from this, but when at OPP I remember that the receptionist once said about being a consultant, 'you don't really fit here, you're not like the others', and I thought, My God if she thinks that that what might other people think. Happened a few times,. Recently at Headway, the lady said 'is this because you don't want to be in business any more'. And I got paranoid thinking she doesn't think I'm businessey too.

And do you interpret that as negative that people say you don't fit in butisness?

Yes

Is there any part of that that you enjoy?

Potentially yes, that I'm not corporate and more human and maybe more arty, but it makes me feel I don't fit. The bad experiences I've had at work have always been about 'Anna's too F'. I remember Jenny saying she could put a mask on when she goes into business and always did well. I always, ..I have to work hard to cover up quite a lot of stuff to be accepted in a business environment.

Is your view of business environment that F doesn't belong there?

No sure….(long pause).

So do you think Fness can contribute to business?

Yes, but I don't think it's respected.

What can it contribute?

To support people in a team, to having a nice time at work. I think maybe because its such female stuff in business you have to be quite male.

But you were inspired by the art stuff that it could be used in business settings and that it is more like you. So how do you see the 2 things meeting?

I think, if I could base it in psychology so there's research behind the left brain r brain and have some expertise to get into business and sound credible, I could then get in and do the stuff that I like. Like coaching stuff, and to bring more human qualities to the workplace.

So you need to get scientific basis to get the cred to then move on?

Sense of a niche that I'm an expert in. I don't yet have that. If I had an approach I could talk about that approach to get in but haven't come up with it yet. I have a sense it is there and it's new and different and if I could communicate it to people they would see it as something to try.

So by approach do you mean scientific basis?

Not have to be scientific but evidence. I don't want to be a fluff, I don't want to be just a crazy mad person. I want some cred.

So your plan is to find a sort of scientific basis. How motivating is it for you to look for a scienfic basis?

Partially, but that's the blockage. I don't know where to find it. Been to librarly and internetw. Feels frightening.

You do should, must, should have done. Who set the rules of what you should be doing?

Everythings an effort and rather just want to go to bed or read.

Distracting self?

Yes

To clarify – you know what needs to be done and know where to get the information?
No don't know where to get info and that's frightening.

Why frightening?

Feel stalled. See computer screen. Search and not find. Not good at searching. Or feels like too much work to do. I like the fact that art is intuitive and it just emerges whereas this is effort.

Sounds like you are talking research, getting more information, facts, credible – ST type of things?

I always think - I really need to do that, give time to do that but I never do.

Do you know what's stopping you?

Not really. It feels fearful.

So imagine that you've got past that bit, you've found out what you need, can you see anything blocking you from that point?

Maybe the reading. That feels overwhelming that I have to do loads of studying.

Do you?

TO feel I have cred. Maybe I wouldn't in reality. Once I start maybe realised I can pick. I love the idea of learning new psych thories but in reality I never read the Psychologist – its boring – and I feel like I don't keep up to date. Makes me feel like a bad psychologist. I like reading but have had a problem for a while now about reading. I don't give myself the time.

You also said that the idea of spending time reading boring stuff, buton the other hand its interesting. So what's in the gap, what's between doing the reading that's boring but the idea is interesting. Where do the 2 things meet?

I think in between is having to read irrelevant stuff that's a waste of time and not finding the right books.

Do you think, a suggestion, to get that cred you feel you need youhave to do loads and loads of work. But somewhere you already acknowledge a lot of it is going to be irrlecant.

It could be if I don't find the right stuff. I think I've disconnected the 2 things. I'm not thinking about if I'm faced with working with people this is what I would do, I'm just thinking about building up credibility that's disconnected to the end result.

Time line journey, a few months into the future....and you are actually doing the work. A group of people from C perhaps, what are you doing?

Not sure, group of people, involves paint, each person has a white paper, bottles of paint...images.

What benefit are they getting from the images?

I think it was that they are getting insight into something that they could get insight verbally. SO getting intuition or part of brain to understand the problem, to get inspiration.

So that's almost like the end result of what you want. You want people to somehow harness an intuitive process to get insight into. Probably involves the medium of paint. People working individualally although in a group.

People working together, I would love. I would like to work ind as well.

So going back a little, what sort of research or theory would underpin such a thing?

I suppose what I worry about is that they may say I hate drawing, why, wast of time....and I would have to justify it.

So aware of some of the things that may realistically happen. What do you do in response?

Probably try to encourage them. I'd have some logical reason why and how it fits the program.

Can I change the question? You said they might say..... Have you ever felt like that when asked to do something?

Yes, bad experience. Wanted to leave. Drawing class in Oxford. About making everything accurate and measuring. End of busy day. Couldn't do it, too S. I was so annoyed an angry and couldn't wait for class to end. I did something an ddidnt measure and teacher told me off. I left.

So art fits well with who you are, but you were asked to do art in the opposite way. End of busy day. But you did it your way anyway – to your preference.

It felt stressful at the time because I knew I wasn't doing it properly. Made me feel like a rebel.

Anything you can learn from that to use if you meet resistance?

I could maybe find out what people feel like doing and maybe have an S way of doing things. I think its scary with an S preference is having imagination, so maybe doing something that fits more with an S preference. Have some examples. Or maybe have it more about the colours and sensory thing?

Is that something an N would engage in?

Yes. Also, no criticising at all. But I still think there will be a problem. People hate it, pushed into shadow.

Yes, everyone used to draw when they were kids. So knowing who you are going to work with, how would you pitch it. Is there a way you could frame it that fits with that group?

Call is something about the outcome –

Outcome is insights that are hard to get to. Sell it from the outcome focus. How does that fit with you?

I don't want to think it's a waste of time, so its good.

So thought of a way to get over some resistance, speak in their language which is S and Tish, and outcome which is Tish, and don't have to paint Sistine chapel.

Yes, perhaps change from picture to focus on something else, almost a distraction. Give them a task that they can focus on without them realising they are creating something.

SO what knowledge base do you need to work like that?

Clear about what the objective is. How that fits with what they do. Have some sense of ideas and media. Acually it's knowledge about people isn't it?

And have you got any?

(Laughs…..)

So anything missing that would not fit?

It might not work. That would be terrifying, because it would be a waste of time. If they don't get insight.

Could you work with the process?

It depends on the objective. Feels like a big risk. I could probably trial stuff on people who don't think they are arty.

So try it out and get some confidence.

Perhaps chalks or charcoal……

SO where are you in your mind now about your starting point? What information do you need to get, if any?

I need to start at the other end. What are the objectives, what tasks could get people engaged, think about exercises that could meet the objectives, and THEN perhaps look at the theories.

What went through your mind when you said THEN...?

I thought, maybe talk to people like CH, and then I thought courses, I should go an a course, and then I panicked. Well spotted.... Felt scary.

As scary as when we started?

Not as scary. Something about talking about it that I find scary. Thinking, shit I haven't spoken to anyone. IF I spoke to CH I might realised that i don't know anything, which I know is illogical.

Are you doing that thing where you compare yourself to her?

Maybe. And she's done the...I think I just don't feel that I am very creative. I like painting but I'm not actually creative.

What does creative mean to you?

Having ideas. Being able to come up with good ideas.

That's something you don't think you've got?

I might come up with ideas but not quickly. I need something to help me get to ideas, I don't just come up with them. I need something to connect things to.

So you need inspiration. Is that a problem?

(laughs). Again it feels like that research stuff. Till I start doing it I panic and it feel overwhelming. I think, where can I get inspiration from. When I'm just having a nice time I get inspiration when not trying.

When not forcing it?

Like at Ds house, she kept saying I think it could be brilliant, leadership and team stuff, and she was expected me to come up with ideas there and then and I came up with nothing and I felt uncreative. I think it may be the same with CH, both are ENFP!

You know this stuff well enough to know that Ni takes time and connection, and not talk about them till done, if at all. So are you comparing yourself with Ne who come up with lots and lots of ideas?

Think so. And put pressure on self. If I'm saying I have this approach I should have one. I just have a nice idea at the moment.

Do you think using a bit of Ne to get the approach, like brainstorming, is what you need to do?

It could help. Sometimes talking about things I find helpful. But if I was talking to you I'd find it helpful. But say talking about it with F (ENFP), it could work, but she could get excited about an idea that I don't like and then it wouldn't help.

Not hanging out with a load of ENFPs but taking that approach yourself of brain dumping everything possible?

I like that. Yes, it could help? What, on a piece of paper?

I know its not your preferred way of working...

It's very right brain. I wouldn't mind if you did it with me. And thinking of different exercises.

Could have that as an action.

I want to go back to what you said about left to own devices in a relaxed way you can be creative and inspiration comes, but when forcing it it changes creativity and stifles it.

I feel really pressured and start doing my usual shit of 'I'm not creative' and get interference.

How important is it to your identigy to be creative?

Really important.

Why?

Because the 4 stuff, what I like about being a 4, I really like it when I can take an experience and pick out what the meaning of it or the irony is. Whats behind it.

Is that creative?

If you turn it into something. New project at art about the building. Every little thing can be an inspiration, but I can't think of one. I've had lots of little ideas but all shit, and it kills me. I think 'I'm a 4 but a rubbish 4'. Everyone's got one. Some really good ones, like one out of drawing pins. (explains).

When you think of your idea, do you decide its no good or do you compare it to others?

Art teacher has said 'obviously most ideas need work or they will be shit' but at the same time he's very willing to encourage us to create stuff. So I'm really confused.

So is he saying don't go with the first thing?

Yes. I had about 5 different ideas. Each I thought was shit. And I didn't go to the class this week.

And do you reject the ideas or do you try and improve on them?

Interestingly when I'm just waking up in the morning I do think about them or have different ideas and they float in and out, but because they are just little ideas I'm assuming that they are crap.

So there are times where you are definitely experiening more creative flow going on?

Yes, and it is when I am least expecting it.

Do you want to try a Chair ex.
Chair of creative and flowing and no pressure, and that chair is most stuck.
Sit in most stuck and see what happens.

Feel really immobile.

What's voice in head saying?

Nothing.

Any nice feelings?

No just, I can't do it. I can't think.

Where is the external world at the moment?

Not present. I have no access to it. I'm just in my own world of nothing ness.

Move to creative flow chair.

I can see the trees. I can move my shoulders. I feel happier. I feel like things could be possible. Relaxing.

Do you feel physically more relaxed because you look it?

Yes, let go of attention. I don't hate myself.

So in other place you hated yourself?

I couldn't even be bothered to hate myself.

So what kind of resources or changes in yourself are present when you are here?
What is making this happen?

I feel really calm and kind of, open to the world, and also there is no judgement.

From who?

From within.

Where has the judgement person gone?

This part feels free here (chest) and kind of.....Things seem possible because I've left that other bit behind.

If you look over there (other chair) can you see it?

Yes, it's the weight.

Where did the weight come from?

It's a heaviness, constrained.

Why is it constrained?

Its like its got a container over it so I can't see out. And that is the judgement part I think, the critical part. It could be good and useful...

What are the good parts of it?

I guess you need some....I'm not sure if it's logic....or.....practicality.

SO there is a bit of an evaluator in there that tips on its head and turns into bastard critic?

Yes, and its like putting a blindfold, earmuffs and straight jacket on.

What has caused that to happen?

I wonder if it is self consciousness.

When you are here, who are you doing the creativity for?

No one.

Go back over there.

Oh god! It's really heavy.

There is some sort of burden going on over there. What's the burden or who is the burden?

It is like being wrapped up. Maybe it's a kind of a protective thing but it's gone too far.

When you said wrapped up I got the image of the 9 of swords where that woman is tied up.

That's what I had when I was there.

So tell me a bit about that.

It just reminded me. IT feels really unnecessarily constrained. It feels like there's no point.

To what?

To anything.

Why?

This is where I go when I feel really terrible. There's no point. It's just numb. I think that's from other stuff. Because 'no point, was when my dad was poorly. I think since then all the problems I've had with coaching and stuff have been about that. I just work from ST because I can't do the NF stuff in coaching.

You work from ST voluntarily or in a grippy way?

I don't know. You remember I've told you I just havent been coaching like I used to coach. I cant do it any more because I've been here. And I just try and do the 'this is what it's supposed to be like...', not in a Mavis way...

Does it remind you of anybody's way?

I wonder if it is grip? I feel, not even despairing, just really heavy, like there's a weight here. And there's no enthusiasm and no energy except that I hate everything.

Theoretically it sounds like when you go over there you go int ST which there is no energy for.

But I like using T and I value T.

But you say there are positive parts to it but it tips over into being critical... But it's where you keep finding yourself?

ST is the business stuff I suppose.

Is it a safe place being an ST?

I think it feels acceptable.

Acceptable to everyone else?

Like you are doing things properly. You know, order, structure, efficient. I think that's what I'm trying to do, do everything properly. That's the thing over here, have to do it properly. Can't make mistakes.

Who would tell you off if you didn't do it properly and made mistakes?

.........I'd just be shit by my own standards, but also I'd be hated by the universe.

So what do you need there to get you to here?

I need a raft.

That sounds very life saver-y.

I get the image of that card, you know the man with the pole. I need to take off bandages and let some sun in.

It's interesting you call them bandages. You've never talked of bandages before. Why are they bandages now?

There are bandages on that card aren't there?

You've never called them bandages before, you just say she's tied up.

That's true. Maybe it's a protective thing.

Do you think its part of the healing to be there? Perhaps something you needed to go to?

Yes, definitely. I think I needed to go there and went there, but I think I wrongly thought that I needed to because otherwise I would make everyone else around me life difficult.

If you were being yourself?

If was raw without the bandages. I felt like I couldn't fit in society if I didn't have that protection because I'd be too fucked.

So you didn't want to be a burden on people or be a weirdo or be freaking out?

It really, really bothered me being upset in public. Threre's no way I wanted to do that.

So you switched the NF off?

Yes and went in to practical, logical. The main thing is, when I had to do my wedding which was 6 months after my dad died, I was trying to work out how to get my aunt down here and I wrote this horrendous email that I cant look back at, it is there somewhere, and the awful thing is I tried to do a, must have been a ST project plan of how to get my aunt down and her son emailed me and said thanks for the plan

but my mum just doesn't think she can do it and there are her feelings to consider. And I couldn't understand it because it was horrifying me to think that I hadn't thought about her feelings.

Because its so unlike your usual self?

But I hadn't. If I look at that email I probably want to kill myself.

So does the email just look nothing like you? Like you can't see yourself in it?

It's like a micro plan of practicalities and logic.

So its starting to sound like this whole thing ahs been a coping mechanism and has had some purpose. What qualities has it?

I think it has helped me to cope and get on with life. And although it stopped me ...... yeah...it's helped me re-enter normal living, going to work, and ....to some extent being with people.

So it has had some positives?

Yes.

So are you thinking that it's done its deed?

Also I had to do shit loads of paperwork. You just can't...every phone call is....

Is that all finished now?

Yes. So it was useful, If you could do that without feeling anything.

So why is this STness hanging around? Why hasn't it gone?

Maybe I liked some of that. It gave me strength to think...something horrendous could happen and I could continue and I'm OK.

From that comment there, does that mean that if you shake that off you may be vulnerable again?

Yes.

Sorry I feel like I've just put words in your mouth, but it made me think that. What do you think of what I've just said.

That is a worry.

Come back over here – are you alright to carry on? The ST person as we'll call them is sitting over there. If I suggested to you that you thanked them for their contribution, whatever, but now it is time for them, not to bugger off completely, but just slip into the background, perhaps keep some the qualities they had as harnessable

but, not be the driver of the car any more. Would you feel able to do that or is there anything that's making you think they need to stay?

I think as long as I knew they weren't going but could just support this part more, that would be OK.

So they are taking their rightful place in the supporting role, providing that bit of balance so you're not too 'NF' but there not having the control.

This really reminds me of a painting that I did that I might have told you about. We were in the class playing around with trying different shapes and stuff, so it was playing and really nice. I did loads of shapes and enjoying it , then I thought 'that's really mad' , and I mixed it all up, and still thought it was really mad, so I got a big fat brush and covered the whole lot over in black so it looked exactly like the board behind it and you couldn't see it. Then the teacher had come up to me before I covered it over and said 'its interesting that you connected everything up because hers is really random ' and to me its was like introverted N, but typically I hid it and now I look like I'm nothing, I'm the board and you cant even see me.

So the shapes and connecting them up were like a true expression of introverted N and then it was masked behind the black and disappeared.

You know how a painting board has loads of different painting on it, so its like loads of different colours but it merges into a lilacy thing but invisible.

So were you trying to be invisible? Just before you painted it black what went through your head?

Panic.

Panic what?

I thought oh my god it looked crazy. I panicked.

That you might be judged? Or that you were crazy?

Bit of both. I felt the need to obscure it.

Yet there was something in it you could see as an expression of your true self?

I thought, 'it's like the inside of my mind'. I thought shit. Hide that

And is that because the inside of your mind is private or the inside of your mind might be judged?

I thought it might be judged to be crazy.

So we are coming back to this misfit idea?

Yeah. I don't know why, it just reminded me of that feeling that that is out of control. That thought, that 'this' was out of control, and that helped me cope by being in control but like having a rod up..... So we should take the rod out (laughs)

So where do you want the ST part to be?

I don't want it to go, but I want it to leave the good stuff and assist this to be grounded and practical.

So you want it to provide balance so that your true self isn't out of control and mental, but your true self is there, but its just got that little bit of balance

Yes.

So do you feel able to thank the piece for its contribution and ask it to find a more suitable place?

Can I do it in my head?

Give yourself a moment's silence and just reposition it even. What's interesting it that it started off all bad but you're actually recognising that it's a need and a quality its something you want, and that's nice. So just reposition it and place it in your psyche.

(Pause) OK.

Is that OK? Was there any resistance?

No I genuinely feel grateful, and I don't feel like its gone away.

So going back to the project where you were needed to harness those ST ideas for objectives, so you need its input but in your own framework. Do you want to go back to your normal seat? How are you feeling now?

I feel that this chakra (heart) feels really satisfied and opened. (Pause) I feel quite hopeful. And I feel pleased that I've acknowledged that part, because I think I've just been angry at it. (Pause) Because it felt like it denied me from doing something that I loved, which I thought was coaching but actually it's this whole new idea.

Are you ok to stop there?

End of Session

Appendix 9: Summary of findings from Comparisons of Successful and Unsuccessful Candidates at the HIPO3

- The fact find exercise did not discriminate between the candidates as they all performed fairly well on it (F = 1.17, n.s.). This could be because the subject of the fact find was engineering based and was, therefore, a familiar scenario for most of the candidates. However, as a fact find is usually a good exercise for looking at cognitive agility, learning ability, and dealing with complexity and ambiguity, the efficacy of a fact find exercise using a different and unfamiliar scenario could be evaluated in a future assessment centre.

- The written exercise, (writing two letters to two different stakeholders), aimed at measuring emotional intelligence and motivation, did not discriminate between successful and unsuccessful candidates on emotional intelligence (F = 3.84, n.s.). As it is not the clearest measure of motivation, and motivation is measured adequately by other parts of the process, it was recommended that the written exercise be excluded. This will have the added benefit of saving assessor time in marking.

- The in-tray exercise did not discriminate between the successful and unsuccessful candidates (F = 0.67, n.s.). As it is also a very time consuming exercise for assessors it was recommended that it be excluded from future assessment.

- The group exercise was not a clear discriminator between the two groups (F = 0.73, n.s.), however most of the successful candidates scored highly in it. It could, however, be omitted if a different method of assessing emotional intelligence were added into the process. This would reduce the amount of

assessors from the business needed for the process and allow individual assessment.

- The presentation was consistently the clearest discriminator between the two groups (F=10.64, p<0.01) with no evidence of a halo effect in the assessment ratings (i.e., for each candidate there were differences in ratings between the different capabilities being assessed rather than all high ratings).

- The ABLE ability test was a clear discriminator between the successful and unsuccessful candidates (F=5.68, p<0.05).

- The EQi psychometric was not used to discriminate, but to get a picture of the pattern of the candidate's style of emotional intelligence. Only the presentation discriminated between the groups on emotional intelligence (F = 9.34, p<0.01). Therefore it is recommended that another assessment of observable emotional intelligence is added into the process; possibly a role play exercise. Also, an alternative questionnaire measure of EQ to the EQ-i, possibly an ability rather than trait measure, is indicated by the test-re-test evaluation study (see below).

- Absence of career derailers was not measured successfully, however as mentioned above, the assessors were only looking for obvious signs of habitual adverse behaviours. The Hogan Development Survey is designed to measure potential derailers, however this was not used in the process as the Leadership Consulting team beleive that it is better suited to development. On reflection, the consulting team decided to change 'Absence' of derailers to 'Management' of derailers for future assessment. This can now form part of the emotional intelligence cluster as, if an individual is self-aware, copes well under pressure, and is adaptable, they are more likely to be aware of their

potential derailers and manage them. The Stress Tolerance scales of the EQ-i may provide some indication of this. Therefore, it will no longer feature as a separate capability in the assessment model.

The recommended changes would leave some capabilities being inadequately assessed, so it is suggested that a role play exercise aimed at measuring emotional intelligence, cognitive agility and motivation should be included in future assessment processes.