

Anna Cybulko

University of Warsaw, Poland

ORCID: 0000-0002-0875-8276

anna.cybulko@uw.edu.pl

Ewa Gmurzyńska

University of Warsaw, Poland

ORCID: 0000-0003-3726-1573

gmurzynska@wpia.uw.edu.pl

Aleksandra Winiarska

University of Warsaw, Poland

ORCID: 0000-0002-5155-923X

aa.winiarska@uw.edu.pl

Lawyers' Personality and Its Implications for Conflict Resolution and Mediation: Empirical Research of the MBTI Inventory Test among Law Students

Osobowość prawników i jej wpływ na rozwiązywanie konfliktów i mediacje. Badania empiryczne z wykorzystaniem testu MBTI wśród studentów prawa

CORRESPONDENCE ADDRESS: Anna Cybulko, PhD, Assistant Professor, University of Warsaw, Faculty of Law and Administration, Krakowskie Przedmieście 26/28, 00-927 Warsaw, Poland; Ewa Gmurzyńska, PhD, Dr. Habil., LL.M, University Professor, Director of the Center for American Law Studies, Co-director of the Center for Dispute and Conflict Resolution, University of Warsaw, Faculty of Law and Administration, Krakowskie Przedmieście 26/28, 00-927 Warsaw, Poland; Aleksandra Winiarska, PhD, Assistant Professor, certified mediator, University of Warsaw, Institute of Applied Social Sciences, Nowy Świat 69, 00-927 Warsaw, Poland.

ABSTRACT

The paper examines the personality type predispositions of law students, as indicated by the MBTI test results. Discussion reflects on their potential implications for practice of law when it comes to conflict resolution strategies, including the use of mediation. Drawing on American studies, the authors refer to the compatibility hypothesis, which states that personality type is correlated with occupational preferences, and attempt to test these findings in the Polish context. On the basis of empirical data concerning law students at the University of Warsaw, as well as results coming from other research, they discuss whether certain personality types are particularly predestinating for undertaking law studies and whether this differs in different countries, taking also into account the gender dimension. The discussion further reflects on how lawyers' personality type may impact their approach to conflict and conflict resolution strategies. The analysis also refers to implications of personality types on practice of law, where lawyers can be either in the role of mediator or represent the parties. In this respect the paper links theory, research and practice in the field of dispute resolution and handling conflict.

Keywords: lawyers; conflict resolution; personality type; MBTI; mediation

INTRODUCTION

Lawyers are a particular group and seem to be different from representatives of other professions, as well as the general population, on several levels. In particular, these differences concern how lawyers approach solving problems, as well as what values they take into regard when making decisions and what motivates them.¹ In popular opinion, lawyers are often regarded as individuals who look rationally at the outside world, are competitive, distant and detached emotionally, reluctant to empathize, and concentrated on success and prestige.² Research collected over the last 50 years in regard to US lawyers and law students shows that these groups differ from the general population from the perspective of psychological types.³ These findings are in line with the compatibility hypothesis, which states that psychological type is correlated with occupational preferences.

Our article aims to test the compatibility hypothesis in the Polish context with reference to students of law at the University of Warsaw. On the basis of empirical data, we examine whether law students at the University of Warsaw are characterized by particular personality types, in accordance with the assumption that "people usually choose professions which give them an opportunity to express and use their preferences related to their psychological type, and they derive the greatest satis-

¹ S. Daicoff, *Lawyer, Know Thyself: A Review of Empirical Research on Attorney Attributes Bearing on Professionalization*, "American University Law Review" 1997, vol. 46(5), p. 1342.

² R. Korobkin, C. Guthrie, *Psychology, Economics and Settlement: A New Look at the Role of Lawyers*, "Texas Law Review" 1997, vol. 76, p. 158.

³ *Ibidem*.

faction from such choices".⁴ In other words, we try to answer the question whether in Poland, as in other countries, it is possible to indicate personality types that are particularly predisposing for undertaking legal studies and the role of a lawyer. We are also interested in whether there are differences in personality traits between men and women entering the legal profession. On the basis of comparative data, we attempt to answer the question whether personality types characterizing law students and lawyers vary depending on their nationality, and whether they distinguish this group from the general population and other professional groups. In order to answer these questions, the distribution of personality types of a group of law students at the University of Warsaw was compared with the distribution of personality types of students from other fields of study in Poland and with the distribution of personality types of law students and lawyers from the United States, as well as of the general American public. Lawyers and law students, especially in the US, have been the subject of several studies based on the MBTI (Myers-Briggs Test Indicator) test. To date, according to our knowledge, the MBTI test has not been administered to Polish lawyers or to the general Polish population, so the results of our study were analyzed against the results of surveys of American lawyers as well as a representative national sample from the United States.

The second fundamental question we pose in this study is how personality types may be connected with approaches to conflict. Drawing on the literature and existing research, we attempt to discuss the implications that a personality type, in conjunction with a preferred approach to conflict, may have for the professional role of lawyers in mediation (and more broadly ADR), both as mediators and as legal representatives of the parties. We assume that knowledge about the psychological types prevalent among lawyers, which influence the way they make decisions, gather information and energy, not only as individuals but also as a group, can give important insights not only in regard to their role in society but also in regard to the development of mediation and alternative dispute resolution methods. Thus, it is important in this context to consider how personality types specific to lawyers may interact with their competence to enter the role of a mediator or an attorney in mediation.⁵

In summary, the study aims to verify the compatibility hypothesis, which assumes that (1) Polish law students will exhibit certain personality types that distinguish them from the general population, and (2) the distribution of personality types among law students in Poland will be closer to the distribution of personality types among law students in the United States than among students of other fields in Poland. If the above hypotheses are confirmed, we will reflect whether (3) the personality types displayed by Polish law students can be related to their preferred

⁴ I. Briggs Myers, *Wprowadzenie do typu*, Oxford 2009, p. 36.

⁵ On the role of lawyers in conflict resolution, see E. Gmurzyńska, *Rola prawników w alternatywnych metodach rozwiązywania sporów*, Warszawa 2014.

conflict resolution approaches, and in particular to their inclination or suitability to perform certain roles in mediation. Finally, we will translate our conclusions into recommendations for the development of legal education.

In our study, we used the MBTI test, which is a widely used tool for examining personality traits, in connection with career preferences.⁶ The test is based on the theories of Carl Jung⁷ and distinguishes four cognitive functions, which are thinking, feeling, sensing and intuition. It was created by two American psychologists – Katherine Cook Briggs (1875–1968) and her daughter Isabel Briggs Myers (1897–1980). Based on Jung’s theory, they constructed the test whose purpose was to analyze different personalities and to help people to take advantage of benefits coming from learning their psychological types.⁸ It should be noted that there are also critical voices in the doctrine regarding the MBTI test.⁹ Critics point out that the MBTI theory is based on scientifically unproven assumptions about the existence of unconscious, preference-based “true types” and it uses artificial divisions into binary categories, whereas most personality traits manifest themselves in a continuous manner. There have also been ongoing discussions about the validity of the MBTI as a psychometric tool and the predictive value of the test. However, these long-standing controversies do not seem to undermine the usefulness of the test for comparative scientific research.¹⁰

The tool diagnoses personality preferences across four dichotomies based on the cognitive functions listed above.¹¹ MBTI identifies personality differences based on where individuals derive their energy to act (Dichotomy 1 Index: Extraversion

⁶ R.R. McCrae, P.T. Costa Jr., *Reinterpreting the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator from the Perspective of the Five-Factor Model of Personality*, “Journal of Personality” 1989, vol. 57(1), p. 18.

⁷ R. Lisle Baker, *Using Insights About Perception and Judgment from the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator Instrument as an Aid to Mediation*, “Harvard Negotiation Law Review” 2004, vol. 9, p. 119.

⁸ I. Briggs Myers, *op. cit.*, p. 5.

⁹ See T.G. Carskadon, *Test-Retest Reliabilities of Continuous Scores on the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator*, “Psychological Reports” 1977, vol. 41(3), pp. 1011–1012; D.J. Pittenger, *The Utility of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator*, “Review of Educational Research” 1993, vol. 63(4), pp. 467–488; R. Stein, A.B. Swan, *Evaluating the Validity of Myers-Briggs Type Indicator Theory: A Teaching Tool and Window into Intuitive Psychology*, “Social and Personality Psychology Compass” 2019, vol. 13(2).

¹⁰ While there is limited empirical research specifically examining the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) among law students, several recent studies have explored the relationship between personality traits and conflict resolution strategies, which can offer valuable insights for this topic. See B. Zhong, J. Yan, H. Sun, H. Chen, B. Tao, Y. Jiang, H. Chen, T. Lu, Z. Ding, *Relationship between Personality Portraits of University Students and Interpersonal Conflict Resolution Strategies: A Latent Profile Analysis*, “Scientific Reports” 2024, vol. 14; Y. Korneeva, L. Shahova, N. Kripchenko, *Mediators’ Professional Competence and Personal Qualities in Conducting Conciliation Processes with Varying Degrees of Success*, “SA Journal of Industrial Psychology” 2022, vol. 48; K. Malherbe, *Promoting Self-Awareness and Conflict Management Skills in a Multicultural Setting*, “African Journal of Health Professions Education” 2023, vol. 15(2).

¹¹ D. Peters, M.M. Peters, *Maybe That’s Why I Do That: Psychological Type Theory, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, and Learning Legal Interviewing*, “NYLS Law Review” 1990, vol. 35(1), p. 178.

[E] – Introversion [I]), their preferred way of gathering information (Dichotomy 2 Index: Sensing – Intuition [S-N]), their preferred way of making decisions (Dichotomy 3 Index: Thinking [T] – Feeling [F]), and their orientation to the outside world (Dichotomy 4 Index: Judging [J] – Perceiving [P]).

This bipolarization and the models of human behaviors applied in the MBTI test do not relate to evaluation of human behaviors in terms of rightness or wrongness, maturity, stress or psychological disturbances.¹² The idea of the test is also not to measure pathological situations but rather its major purpose is to be applied to those who do not have psychological challenges. None of the psychological types is good or bad, effective or ineffective. They just represent different attitudes to perform the same task. A person who represents a certain type and preferences may, in different situations, see the same data and situations very differently from a person representing another type. Type theory expressed in the MBTI test does not indicate what are preferable or unpreferable types.¹³ The sole purpose of the test is to help ascertain people's psychological type. The test has also practical applications. Individuals who take the test can also understand better their individual strengths and challenges and their approaches in different situations, increase self-awareness of personal tendencies which underline routine and habitual choices.¹⁴

OVERVIEW OF EXISTING RESEARCH

Lawyers as a professional group have been of interest to numerous researchers for many years due to the special nature of their approach to conflict resolution, their professed values and their personality. This research is far from conclusive and therefore requires in-depth analysis and additional studies. Since it is conducted mainly in the United States, the aspect of potential cultural differences should also be taken into account. American research shows that future lawyers – even before they start their studies – tend to take an analytical approach, are results-oriented and dominant, and less focused on interpersonal relationships in comparison to the rest of the population.¹⁵ Lawyers also place more importance on economic and material values, and less importance on intangible goods or emotional and psychological values in professional situations.¹⁶ Lawyers stand out from other professions by

¹² M.M. Peters, D. Peters, *Juris Types Learning Law Through Self-Understanding*, Gainesville 200, p. 12.

¹³ D. Peters, M.M. Peters, *op. cit.*, p. 179.

¹⁴ M.M. Peters, D. Peters, *op. cit.*, p. 3.

¹⁵ C. Guthrie, *The Lawyer's Philosophical Map and the Disputant's Perceptual Map: Impediments to Facilitative Mediation and Lawyering*, "Harvard Negotiation Law Review" 2001, vol. 6, pp. 146–147.

¹⁶ R. Korobkin, C. Guthrie, *op. cit.*, p. 158.

having a strong focus on success and maintaining an emotional detachment, a logical approach to problem solving, emphasizing rights and obligations more than emotions and interpersonal relationships.¹⁷ In addition, legal professionals are characterized by a specific way of thinking and decision-making, which L. Riskin called a “standard philosophical map”, which is a result of their personality and education.¹⁸ The map that lawyers follow in their work is delineated by considerations arising from the nature of court proceedings and legal education, resulting in judging and perceiving people and the situations in which they find themselves through the lens of legal categories, analyzing situations in the context of rights and obligations provided for in the law, focusing more on events and facts than on people and their emotions.¹⁹ According to the researchers, what is characteristic for the representatives of legal professions is a preference for competitive behavior, which involves pursuing the truth by presenting opposing arguments, treating the other side as an opponent and fighting to win as much as possible for the client, since court proceedings are based on the assumption that if one party wins then the other party loses.²⁰

It is also pointed out that the study of law forces one to fight, teaches one to have a confrontational approach.²¹ It is pointed out that the obligation of lawyers to the so-called “zealous representation” of the client, which has long been a common ethical standard for attorneys-at-law, can result in highly competitive behavior because it is understood as a “fight” to win as much as possible for the client in a material sense.²²

Research using the MBTI test, primarily in the United States, indicates that lawyers differ in their choices, preferences, and perceptions of the outside world from other professional groups as well as from the general public.²³ When studying US lawyers, L. Richard noted that although all 16 MBTI personality types are present in this group, lawyers overwhelmingly represent four types: ISTJ (Intro-

¹⁷ S. Daicoff, *Lawyer...*, p. 1342; eadem, *Making Law Therapeutic for Lawyers: Therapeutic Jurisprudence, Preventive Law and the Psychology of Lawyers*, “Psychology, Public Policy and Law” 1999, vol. 5(4), p. 815; L. Richard, *Herding Cats: The Lawyer Personality Revealed*, 2002, <https://www.managingpartnerforum.org/tasks/sites/mpf/assets/image/MPF%20-%20Herding%20Cats%20-%20Richard%20-%20203-5-121.pdf> (access: 23.8.2025).

¹⁸ L. Riskin, *Mediation and Lawyers*, “Ohio State Law Journal” 1982, vol. 43, pp. 43–44.

¹⁹ *Ibidem*.

²⁰ S. Daicoff, *Lawyer...*, p. 26; eadem, *Making Law...*, p. 816; eadem, *Expanding the Lawyer's Toolkit of Skills and Competences: Synthesizing Leadership, Professionalism, Emotional Intelligence, Conflict Resolution and Comprehensive Law*, “Santa Clara Law Review” 2012, vol. 52(3), p. 831.

²¹ E. Łojko, *Opinie studentów prawa o wydziale i jego kadrze*, [in:] *Studenci prawa o studiach i perspektywach zawodowych*, ed. E. Łojko, Warszawa 2011, p. 370.

²² D. Peters, *Forever Jung: Psychological Type Theory, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and Learning Negotiation*, “Drake Law Review” 1993, vol. 42(1), p. 15.

²³ L. Richard, *The Lawyers Types: How Your Personality Affects Your Practice*, “ABA Journal” 1993, https://www.lawyerbrain.com/wp-content/uploads/2023/04/the_lawyer_types_mbti.pdf (access: 23.8.2025), p. 1.

version – Sensing – Thinking – Judging), ESTJ (Extraversion – Sensing – Thinking – Judging), INTJ (Introversion – Intuition – Thinking – Judging), and ENTP (Extraversion – Intuition – Thinking – Perceiving). Among these four personality types, ISJT and ESTJ are the most commonly represented.²⁴ MBTI tests also indicate that the personality types that are preferred among law students persist in lawyers over the course of their law practice, and therefore are invariable preferences.²⁵

As regards personality differences between lawyers and the general public in the American context, the most noticeable differences are found in the Thinking (T) – Feeling (F) facet, which relates to decision-making preferences. People who are Thinking-oriented, which constitute the vast majority of the surveyed lawyers, prefer making decisions based on the analysis and assessment of facts; they focus on logical and objective results; they tend to distance themselves and to objectively analyze arguments for and against. They first identify a problem and then try to find a principle that can be applied in similar cases. People with the Feeling preference, on the other hand, make decisions based on subjective elements, pay attention to what is important to themselves and others, take into account the human rather than the technical or organizational aspect, empathize with the situation, draw energy from supporting others, and aim to create harmonious relationships.²⁶

Those who prefer Thinking are described as assertive and less cooperative, and more competitive compared to those who prefer Feeling.²⁷ Among US lawyers and law students, about 77% prefer Thinking, while in the general US population, only 47% demonstrate this preference.²⁸ According to the authors, such findings seem easy to explain, since the basic skills required in the legal profession are analytical thinking and interpretation regarding legal principles and provisions. Even more pronounced differences can be seen between the group of female lawyers and the group of women in general, in the general US population. The Thinking facet is characteristic for 66% of female lawyers, but only 33% of the general female population. The differences for men are somewhat smaller. The Thinking facet characterizes 81% of male lawyers and 64% of the general male population.²⁹

Another important facet in which the researchers observed significant differences between those entering the legal profession and the general public is Judging (J) – Perceiving (P). Individuals who are characterized by Judging prefer an organized

²⁴ *Ibidem*, p. 2.

²⁵ *Idem*, *Psychological Type and Job Satisfaction among Practicing Lawyers in the United States*, “Capital University Law Review” 2001, vol. 29, p. 980.

²⁶ S. Hirsch, J. Kummerow, *Introduction to Type in Organizations*, Palo Alto 1989.

²⁷ R.L. Baker, *Using Insights about Perception and Judgement from the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator Instrument as an Aid to Mediation*, “Harvard Negotiation Law Review” 2014, vol. 9, p. 119; D. Peters, *op. cit.*, p. 15.

²⁸ L. Richard, *The Lawyers Types...*, p. 2; D. Peters, *op. cit.*, p. 16.

²⁹ L. Richard, *The Lawyers Types...*, p. 4.

and structured lifestyle, have strict plans, operate on a schedule, and derive their energy from that. In contrast, people for whom Observing is relevant are characterized by a more spontaneous and flexible approach to life, seek new experiences, and are oriented toward understanding phenomena rather than controlling them. These individuals feel constrained by plans and schedules and derive energy from adapting to the demands of the moment. Among lawyers, 63% have a preference for Judging, compared to 55% in the general population.³⁰

METHOD OF THE RESEARCH

In our research of Polish law students, we used the MBTI test for several reasons. First of all, it is a respected and insightful instrument to measure four of the fundamental factors important for personality classification.³¹ The MBTI test is widely applied and recognized as an instrument which helps to define and understand preferences among individuals, as well as certain groups of people.³² What is important for our comparative analysis is that it has been applied and is known among legal professions and law students in different settings, especially among the US law students, and previous research will provide comparative information for our studies. The test has been applied in different contexts connected to legal education and conflict resolution, e.g. the ability to learn legal skills,³³ learning negotiation skills,³⁴ influence of certain personality types on conflict resolution,³⁵ listening skills and communication styles.³⁶

The MBTI test consists of two parts. The first part is a self-evaluation questionnaire consisting of 88 questions.³⁷ They are “forced choice questions”, meaning that each participant has to choose one of the two answers provided in each question. The questions are a mixture of pairs of words (e.g. who/what, thinking/feelings, facts/ideas) or short, usually one line statements (e.g. “Do you prefer to be perceived as: A practical person or B creative person”). The questions are grouped into “cloisters” which concern each of the four dichotomies and in the “cloisters” they regard similar topics. The choices the respondent has to make are not obvious literal opposites, but in effect they reflect opposite preferences on a certain dichotomy. If

³⁰ *Ibidem*.

³¹ L. Richard, *Psychological Type...*, p. 984.

³² At present, every year over 3.5 million people take the test together with professional feedback, and it has been translated into 39 languages. See I. Briggs Myers, *op. cit.*, p. 5.

³³ See generally M.M. Peters, D. Peters, *op. cit.*

³⁴ D. Peters, M.M. Peters, *op. cit.*, p. 179.

³⁵ R.L. Baker, *op. cit.*, p. 118.

³⁶ R.S. Thomson, *What Type of Lawyer Are You? ISTJ? ESTJ? INTJ? ENTP?*, Chicago 1999, p. 121.

³⁷ This is the European version of the test, while the US version consists of 93 questions.

the respondent has difficulty to choose the answer, he or she may skip the question. The participants need to answer questions relatively fast, without too much of intellectual input. The test is voluntary, the individual results are confidential, and there are no bad or good answers, since the sole purpose of the test is to find the psychological type best fitting for a particular person. After the completion of the test, the test is scored and the participants receive results, with their psychological type consisting of a combination of four letters which represent four dichotomies. This score is called Reported Type, meaning that psychological type which is the simple result coming from the questionnaire, and it considers only an indication of the probable overall Type. After participants have received the Reported Type, they take part in the second stage of the test whose purpose is to find their Best Fit Psychological Type for each individual person. In this part, participants work individually together with a certified coach to better understand the dichotomies and think more deeply about them. The Best Fit Type part includes feedback and questions from the participants. In this part, respondents may formulate their own Type by changing some of the answers in the questionnaire about which they have doubts in the Reported Type, after receiving feedback from the certified MBTI professional. They form their own hypothesis as to their overall Type and compare this with the Reported Type. Discrepancies between Reported Type and Best Fit Types are sometimes quite significant and on average they are close to 20% of questions.

In our research, law students participated in both parts of the MBTI test process. They were invited to take part in small-group sessions where they completed the written questionnaire, which was then scored, and the Reported Type was indicated. In the second part of the meeting, a certified coach held a feedback session including also explanations and answers to questions as well as individual consultations concerning psychological preferences which allowed to indicate Best Fit type for each participant. As an incentive, each participant received a detailed description of their psychological type, along with information concerning strengths and practical applications.

An invitation to participate in the study was sent to all students of the Faculty of Law and Administration of the Warsaw University. Finally, 123 people took part in the study, of which the results of two people were rejected due to missing data. All persons gave their voluntary informed consent to participate in the study and to use the results for collective academic analysis. Finally, the results of 121 subjects were analyzed. The subjects were 64% female and 36% male. This means that there was a slight overrepresentation of women in the group of respondents relative to the population of the students of the Faculty of Law and Administration (52% female and 48% male).³⁸ The average age of the respondents was 22 years,

³⁸ The general population of students studying law at the University of Warsaw accounted, at the time of research, to 3,402 people, with 1,748 female students and 1,654 male students (data collected at the University of Warsaw on 22 February 2021).

with the youngest respondent being 18 years old, four respondents being over 26 years old, and the oldest respondent being 43 years old. The subjects included people from all years of study: 19% from first year, 25% from second year, 20% from third year, 17% from fourth year and 16% from fifth year.

DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

1. The most common personality types among Polish law students

In the course of further analysis, referring to the MBTI test results, the authors analyzed the “best fit” result, as the most representative result of an individual student, obtained after consultation with a certified MBTI expert. The detailed distribution of “best fit” results is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Distribution of “best fit” results in the surveyed group of law students

| Type | Best fit (%) |
|-----------------|--------------|
| ISTJ | 18.4 |
| ESTJ | 10.4 |
| INTJ | 12.0 |
| ENTJ | 4.8 |
| ESTP | 4.8 |
| ENTP | 10.4 |
| INTP | 9.6 |
| ISTP | 4.8 |
| INFJ | 2.4 |
| ENFP | 4.8 |
| INFP | 3.2 |
| ESFJ | 3.2 |
| ENFJ | 1.6 |
| ISFJ/ISFP | 0 |
| ESFP | 1.6 |
| ENFP/ENFJ | 0 |
| ESTJ/ISTJ | 0 |
| INTJ/ISTJ | 0.8 |
| ENTP/ENFP | 0 |
| ESTJ/ESFJ | 0 |
| ISFJ | 3.2 |
| ISFP | 4.0 |
| Total (rounded) | 100 |

Source: own elaboration.

For the law students surveyed, five of the 16 categories proved to be significant, describing more than 60% of the respondents: ISTJ (18.4%), INTJ (12%), ESTJ (10.4%), ENTJ (10.4%) and INTP (9.6%). None of the other categories described more than 4.8% of respondents. Interestingly, all these five categories are based on

the T facet (Thinking) at the expense of the F facet (Feeling), which is confirmed by the overall results for the whole sample: the T facet is characteristic for 74% of the subjects and the F facet for 24% of the subjects. The J (Judging) facet appears in four of the five dominant categories and P (Perceiving) only in one. Similarly, among all respondents in our sample, the J facet is more frequent than the P facet (57% to 43%). Interestingly, the distribution of P and J in the whole sample is similar to that of E (Extrovert) and I (Introvert) (42% to 58%), but when it comes to this second dichotomy, both facets appear among the most frequent types (although facet I in 40% of cases and dimension E in 20%). Only the distributions of S and N remain fairly balanced: both in the overall sample and within the five dominant personality types, these facets contribute half each. Detailed distributions of facets E/I, S/N, T/F and P/J are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Distribution of facet pairs in the tested sample

| Facet pairs | Best fit (%) | |
|-------------|--------------|-----|
| E/I | E | 42 |
| | I | 58 |
| | E/I | 0 |
| S/N | S | 50 |
| | N | 49 |
| | S/N | 0,8 |
| T/F | T | 76 |
| | F | 24 |
| | T/F | 0 |
| J/P | J | 57 |
| | P | 43 |
| | J/P | 0 |

Source: own elaboration.

The effect of gender on the score was examined using contingency tables with the analysis of column proportions using a Z-test. The study found no statistically significant differences in the distributions of E/I and T/F facets in the male and female groups. Some differences (although not statistically significant) were found in the distribution of the S/N facet. Women were slightly more likely than men to be characterized by the S facet (56% women, 40% men) than by the N facet (42% women, 60% men). Statistically significant differences were observed in the case of the J/P facet distribution. It was found that the P score was significantly more frequent and the J score less frequent in the male group compared to the female group (respectively: P was present in 56% of men and 36% of women, and J was present in 44% of men and 64% of women).

The distribution of personality types among the surveyed men and women is so fragmented that it is difficult to analyze it or draw statistically significant conclusions based on it. However, it is worth noting certain regularities which, although

not statistically significant, suggest further reflections. In particular, this concerns the unequal distribution of the INTP and ENTP personality types between genders (with these two types characteristic for a total of approximately 20% of respondents) and ISTJ (approximately 18.4% of the respondents). Both INTP and ENTP were significantly more frequent among men than among women in our sample (INTP: M – 18%, F – 5%, ENTP: M – 18%, F – 6%). On the other hand, the ISTJ type was definitely more frequent among women than among men (24% and 9% respectively). The detailed distribution of the gender variable is shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Distribution of personality types by gender (%)*

| Type | Gender | | Total |
|-----------------|-------------|-------------|-------|
| | women | men | |
| ENFJ | 2.5 | – | 1.6 |
| ENFP | 5.0 | 4.4 | 4.8 |
| ENTJ | 6.3 | 2.2 | 4.8 |
| ENTP | 6.3 | 17.8 | 10.4 |
| ESFJ | 3.8 | 2.2 | 3.2 |
| ESFP | – | 4.4 | 1.6 |
| ESTJ | 10.0 | 11.1 | 10.4 |
| ESTP | 6.3 | 2.2 | 4.8 |
| INFJ | 2.5 | 2.2 | 2.4 |
| INFP | 3.8 | 2.2 | 3.2 |
| INTJ | 11.3 | 13.3 | 12.0 |
| INTP | 5.0 | 17.8 | 9.6 |
| ISFJ | 2.5 | 4.4 | 3.2 |
| ISFP | 5.0 | 2.2 | 4.0 |
| ISTJ | 23.8 | 8.9 | 18.4 |
| ISTJ/INTJ | 1.3 | – | 0.8 |
| ISTP | 5.0 | 4.4 | 4.8 |
| Total (rounded) | 100 | 100 | 100 |

* Bold indicates results differing by more than 10%.

Source: own elaboration.

The research confirmed the initial hypothesis that Polish law students are characterized by specific personality types. It is worth noting at this point that, in general, the distribution of personality types in society is not uniform. However, American, as well as e.g. the UK, French and Canadian studies show that this distribution, although uneven within the population, is relatively constant and follows a general pattern of predominance of ISJ and ESJ types which cover a total 44–52% of the population in each of the samples.³⁹ Against this background, the distribution in the

³⁹ For example, see I. Briggs Myers, M.H. McCaulley, N.L. Quenk, A.L. Hammer, *MBTI Manual: A Guide to the Development and Use of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator*, Mountain View 2003, p. 379 (Table 14.1 National normative samples of adults), p. 381 (Table 14.3. Multicultural type distribution samples of university students).

surveyed group of law students at the University of Warsaw is of a special nature, different from the typical distribution in the compared national sample: 60% of the surveyed students are characterized by five personality types. As expected, the NT and ST types are: ISTJ – 18%, INTJ – 12%, ESTJ – 10%, ENTP – 10%, INTP – 10%. The remaining types characterize 5% or less of the surveyed law students.

2. The universality of lawyers' personalities – a comparison with American data

It is particularly interesting to compare the obtained results with data from studies conducted in the United States with the participation of lawyers and law students. Conducting such comparisons is possible and justified due to the fact that “samples of occupational groups consistently show similar type distribution patterns in a wide variety of cultures”.⁴⁰ A detailed distribution of the data is shown in Table 4.

Table 4. A comparison of the distribution of personality types of Polish law students, US law students and lawyers, and US residents (% of given type in the studied samples)

| Type | Law students at the University of Warsaw | Representative US sample* | US lawyers** | US law students*** |
|-----------------|--|---------------------------|--------------|--------------------|
| ISTJ | 18 | 12 | 18 | 17.5 |
| INTJ | 12 | 2 | 13 | 13.5 |
| ESTJ | 10 | 9 | 10 | 14 |
| ENTP | 10 | 3 | 10 | 8 |
| INTP | 10 | 3 | 9 | 8 |
| ISTP | 5 | 5 | 4 | 3 |
| ENTJ | 5 | 2 | 9 | 10 |
| ENFP | 5 | 8 | 5 | 4 |
| ESTP | 5 | 4 | 3 | 4.5 |
| ISFP | 4 | 9 | 1 | 1 |
| INFP | 3 | 4 | 4 | 2 |
| ISFJ | 3 | 14 | 4 | 2 |
| ESFJ | 3 | 12 | 3 | 4.5 |
| INFJ | 2 | 2 | 3 | 2 |
| ESFP | 2 | 8 | 1 | 2 |
| ENFJ | 2 | 3 | 3 | 5 |
| Other | 1 | – | – | – |
| Total (rounded) | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |

* I. Briggs Myers, M.H. McCaulley, N.L. Quenk, A.L. Hammer, *MBTI Manual: A Guide to the Development and Use of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator*, Mountain View 2003, p. 379 (Table 14.1), 381, $N = 3,009$; ** L. Richard, *Psychological Type and Job Satisfaction among Practicing Lawyers in the United States*, “Capital University Law Review” 2001, vol. 29, p. 1001, $N = 1,202$; *** V.R. Randall, *The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator; First Year Law Students and Performance*, “Cumberland Law Review” 1995, vol. 26(63), Table F1, $N = 154$.

Source: own elaboration.

⁴⁰ *Ibidem*, p. 380.

It should be emphasized that the results obtained in the study of Polish law students are consistent with the results of American law students and American lawyers. Among American law students and American lawyers, the personalities ISTJ, INTJ, ESTJ, ENTP and INTP constitute five of the six most frequent types. In addition, the frequency of occurrence of each type is almost identical (with deviations of not more than 1% with respect to American lawyers and slightly higher deviations with respect to American law students) as in the Polish sample. The only important difference is that among both US students and US lawyers, the ENTJ type is significant (10% representatives among US law students and 9% representatives among US lawyers), which is the case for 5% of the respondents in the surveyed population of law students at the University of Warsaw.

American literature points out that the ENTJ personality type predisposes one to, i.a., the legal profession, being at the same time the personality type often found among senior managers.⁴¹ However, the results obtained in our study indicate that in the group of law students at the University of Warsaw, the ENTJ type characterizes only 5% of the respondents, which means that it is not particularly frequent. A hypothetical explanation for this underrepresentation may be the political and historical conditions, which mean that in Poland people with a personality with a preference for ENTJ, which is characterized by leadership skills, may better fulfill their potential in other fields of study than law – such as economics or management.⁴²

Our results are consistent with the initial assumptions that specific occupations often attract people with particular personality types, and interests and career choices are influenced primarily by the combination of the facets of Perceiving (which falls under the Sensing–Intuition dichotomy, defining the preferred way of gathering information) and Judging (which falls under the Thinking–Feeling dichotomy, defining the preferred way of making decisions). Many authors emphasize that the T facet is particularly significant for the choice of a legal profession. Significantly, among law students at the University of Warsaw, this preference characterizes 76% of the respondents (the average for the entire American population is 40%, while among American lawyers it is 78%). Moreover, the obtained results are in line with the assumptions presented in the relevant literature, according to which the legal profession is particularly often chosen by people with the ST and NT types. Among the surveyed law students at the University of Warsaw, the ST preference characterized 38.4% of the respondents (compared to 36% among US lawyers,

⁴¹ *Ibidem*, p. 23.

⁴² To verify this hypothesis, it would be necessary to examine the education and personality types that characterize senior managers in Poland and compare these results with those from America. It can be assumed that Polish senior managers will have a similar distribution of personality types as their American counterparts, but a different distribution of education, with a relatively lower percentage of lawyers.

38.5% among US students, and 30% of US citizens overall), the NT preference was characteristic for 36.8% (compared to 34% among US lawyers, 39.5 among US students, and 10.4% of US citizens overall). Detailed data is presented in Table 5.

Table 5. Comparison of distributions for the perceiving (S-N) and judgment (T-F) facets among Polish law students and US law students, US lawyers and US residents (%)

| Facets | Law students at the University of Warsaw | US law students | US lawyers | Representative sample of US residents |
|-----------|--|-----------------|------------|---------------------------------------|
| NF | 12 | 13 | 15 | 16,5 |
| NT | 36.8 | 39.5 | 34 | 10.4 |
| SF | 12 | 9.5 | 9 | 43.4 |
| ST | 38.4 | 38.5 | 36 | 30 |
| ST/NT | 0.8 | – | – | – |

Source: own elaboration.

Individuals with the ST type focus on facts in their cognitive activities, especially in learning, use primarily objective analysis and experience, and tend to be practical and analytical. In contrast, NT type individuals focus on possibilities, use theoretical ideas and systems, tend to be logical and analytical.⁴³ They are theoretically oriented, they want to understand the principles on which the world is based, they trust logic and reason, and their thought processes are based on differences, categories, definitions and structures.⁴⁴

3. The uniqueness of lawyers' personalities – a comparison with other professions

The analysis of the obtained results seems to confirm the hypothesis on the universalism of legal culture, whose manifestation is the characteristic distribution of personality types among lawyers, independent of their nationality and the stage of their professional development. The conducted analyses show that the distribution of personality types among law students at the University of Warsaw is definitely similar to the distribution of personality types among US law students and US lawyers, and clearly different from the distribution among Polish students of other fields of study. The differences between Polish law students and Polish students of other fields can be observed by comparing the results obtained in our study with the results of the research conducted by J. Tobacyk and A. Cieslicka on groups of students of marketing and management and English studies from the Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań.⁴⁵

⁴³ I. Briggs Myers, *op. cit.*, p. 33.

⁴⁴ V.R. Randall, *The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, First Year Law Students and Performance*, "Cumberland Law Review" 1995, vol. 26(63), Table F1.

⁴⁵ J. Tobacyk, A. Cieslicka, *Compatibility Between Psychological Type and Academic Major in Polish University Students*, "Journal of Psychological Type" 2000, vol. 54.

The data in Table 6 show a clear difference in the distribution of personality types in these three groups. In each of the three fields of studies there is a completely different hierarchy of the most common personality types, and the percentage of prevalence of each type is also completely different. Among lawyers, the most common (9% of the sample or more) personality types are ISTJ, INTJ, ESTJ, ENTP and ISTP. The most common personality types among marketing and management students are ESTJ, ISTJ, ENTP, ISTP (i.e. the types also dominating – in a different order – among law students), ENTJ and ESTP (characterizing a total of 79% of this group) while among students of English studies: INFP, ENFP, INTP, ISTJ (these characterize a total of 46% of this group).

Table 6. A comparison of the distribution of personality types of Polish students of law and other fields, American law students and American lawyers (%)

| Personality Type | Law students at the University of Warsaw | US lawyers* | US law students** | Marketing and management students at the Adam Mickiewicz University*** | Students of English studies at the Adam Mickiewicz University**** |
|------------------|--|-------------|-------------------|--|---|
| ISTJ | 18 | 18 | 17.5 | 17 | 9 |
| INTJ | 12 | 13 | 13.5 | 5 | 7 |
| ESTJ | 10 | 10 | 14 | 22 | 5 |
| ENTP | 10 | 10 | 8 | 13 | 5 |
| INTP | 10 | 9 | 8 | 3 | 9 |
| ISTP | 5 | 4 | 3 | 9 | 4 |
| ENTJ | 5 | 9 | 10 | 9 | 7 |
| ENFP | 5 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 12 |
| ESTP | 5 | 3 | 4.5 | 9 | 5 |
| ISFP | 4 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 3 |
| INFP | 3 | 4 | 2 | 3 | 16 |
| ISFJ | 3 | 4 | 2 | 2 | 4 |
| ESFJ | 3 | 3 | 4.5 | 1 | 3 |
| INFJ | 2 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 7 |
| ESFP | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| ENFJ | 2 | 3 | 5 | 1 | 4 |
| Other | 1 | – | – | – | – |
| Total (rounded) | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |

* L. Richard, *Psychological Type and Job Satisfaction among Practicing Lawyers in the United States*, "Capital University Law Review" 2001, vol. 29, p. 1001, N = 1,202; ** V.R. Randall, *The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, First Year Law Students and Performance*, "Cumberland Law Review" 1995, vol. 26(63), Table F1, N = 154; *** J. Tobacyk, A. Cieslicka, *Compatibility Between Psychological Type and Academic Major in Polish University Students*, "Journal of Psychological Type" 2000, vol. 54, N = 107; **** J. Tobacyk, A. Cieslicka, *Compatibility Between Psychological Type and Academic Major in Polish University Students*, "Journal of Psychological Type" 2000, vol. 54, N = 75.

Source: own elaboration.

A comparison of the results of Polish law students, US law students and US lawyers with the results of Polish management and marketing students, American MBA students and American managers also provides important insights. While American working MBA students are quite similar (although not identical) to

American managers in terms of personality types,⁴⁶ Polish marketing and management students are somewhat more different from both groups (i.e. American MBA students and managers) than is the case with Polish law students, US law students, and US lawyers. In the case of Polish students of marketing and management, only the four most common personality types for this group (ISTJ, ESTJ, ENTP, ENTJ) agree with the most common personality types characteristic of respondents from the US, i.e. working MBA students and managers (although even here we see clear differences in the number of some categories). The next most frequent categories are different for Polish management students, American MBA students and managers. Detailed data is presented in Table 7.

Table 7. A comparison of the distribution of personality types of Polish marketing and management students, American MBA students and American managers (%)

| Type | Marketing and management students at the Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań* | Working US MBA students** | US managers*** |
|-----------------|--|---------------------------|----------------|
| ISTJ | 17 | 17 | 17 |
| INTJ | 5 | 7 | 10 |
| ESTJ | 22 | 17 | 16 |
| ENTP | 13 | 10 | 8 |
| INTP | 3 | 6 | 7 |
| ISTP | 9 | 4 | 3 |
| ENTJ | 9 | 9 | 13 |
| ENFP | 3 | 6 | 5 |
| ESTP | 9 | 6 | 3 |
| ISFP | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| INFP | 3 | 2 | 3 |
| ISFJ | 2 | 3 | 3 |
| ESFJ | 1 | 5 | 4 |
| INFJ | 1 | 2 | 2 |
| ESFP | 1 | 2 | 1 |
| ENFJ | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Total (rounded) | 100 | 100 | 100 |

* J. Tobacyk, A. Cieslicka, *Compatibility Between Psychological Type and Academic Major in Polish University Students*, "Journal of Psychological Type" 2000, vol. 54, N = 107; ** N = 1925 national representative sample; S.J. Power, L.L. Lundsten, *Studies That Compare Type Theory and left-Brain/Right-Brain Theory*, "Journal of Psychological Type" 1997, vol. 43, p. 25, cited after I. Briggs Myers, M.H. McCaulley, N.L. Quenk, A.L. Hammer, *MBTI Manual: A Guide to the Development and Use of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator*, Mountain View 2003, p. 299; *** I. Briggs Myers, M.H. McCaulley, N.L. Quenk, A.L. Hammer, *MBTI Manual: A Guide to the Development and Use of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator*, Mountain View 2003, p. 383, N = 37,549.

Source: own elaboration.

⁴⁶ This result may be due to the fact that the students surveyed were working individuals (perhaps specifically in the management profession), which means that they may have been closer to the manager group than to the student group.

The most important conclusions that can be drawn from these comparisons are that the scores of Polish law students are more similar to the scores of US law students than to the scores of other Polish students, demonstrating the existence of a high degree of consistency within the legal profession. This consistency is significantly higher than for (Polish) management students, (American) MBA students and (American) managers. Thus, the research suggests that the legal culture dimension is, in this situation, a stronger predictor of similarity between the character types of different individuals than national culture or other – non-lawyer – professional groups. In other words, the cited data indicate that lawyers from different countries are similar to one another in terms of personality traits, which is not so clear in the case of other professions.⁴⁷

4. Differences between men and women

It is also worth looking at the relationships related to the gender of the respondents. Differences between men and women among Polish law students are visible in the area of facets: S-N and J-P, function pairs: NT, ST and SJ, and types: ENTP, INTP and ISTJ. The female group was more likely to have an S result than an N result (57% and 43% respectively) and a J result than a P result (64% and 36% respectively). In the male group, the proportions were reversed: N was more frequent than S (60% and 40%, respectively), and P was more frequent than J (56% and 44%, respectively). Statistical significance of the difference was noted only for P and J. Over half of the men were characterized by the NT type approach (51%), while among women it was 39%. Among women, the ST and SJ types of approach predominated, being significantly less frequent in men (ST: 45% and 27%, SJ: 41% and 27% respectively). As a result, the ISTJ type was the most common among women (24%), and INTP (18%), as well as ENTP (18%) among men. Detailed data is presented in Tables 8 and 9.

Table 8. MBTI personality type among male and female law students at the University of Warsaw compared to American men and women (%)

| Type | Law students at the University of Warsaw* | | US representative sample** | |
|------|---|-------------|----------------------------|------|
| | female | male | female | male |
| ENFJ | 2.5 | – | 1.6 | 3.3 |
| ENFP | 5.0 | 4.4 | 6.4 | 9.7 |
| ENTJ | 6.3 | 2.2 | 2.7 | 0.9 |
| ENTP | 6.3 | 17.8 | 4.0 | 2.4 |
| ESFJ | 3.8 | 2.2 | 7.5 | 16.9 |
| ESFP | 0 | 4.4 | 6.9 | 9.9 |

⁴⁷ See generally a discussion about MBTI among Polish managers, management students and English language students by comparison to similar groups in the US: J. Tobacyk, E. Cyron, Z. Tobacyk, *Cross-National Evidence for Compatibility of Psychological Type in Polish and American Samples*, "Journal of Career Assessment" 2000, vol. 8(2).

| Type | Law students at the University of Warsaw* | | US representative sample** | |
|-----------------|---|-------------|----------------------------|------|
| | female | male | female | male |
| ESTJ | 10.0 | 11.1 | 11.2 | 6.3 |
| ESTP | 6.3 | 2.2 | 5.6 | 3 |
| INFJ | 2.5 | 2.2 | 1.3 | 1.6 |
| INFP | 3.8 | 2.2 | 4.1 | 4.6 |
| INTJ | 11.3 | 13.3 | 3.3 | 0.8 |
| INTP | 5.0 | 17.8 | 4.8 | 1.8 |
| ISFJ | 2.5 | 4.4 | 8.1 | 19.4 |
| ISFP | 5.0 | 2.2 | 7.6 | 9.9 |
| ISTJ | 23.8 | 8.9 | 16.4 | 6.9 |
| ISTJ/INTJ | 1.3 | – | – | – |
| ISTP | 5.0 | 4.4 | 8.5 | 2.3 |
| Total (rounded) | 100 | 100 | 100 | 100 |

* Authors' own research data; ** I. Briggs Myers, M.H. McCaulley, N.L. Quenk, A.L. Hammer, *MBTI Manual: A Guide to the Development and Use of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator*, Mountain View 2003, p. 383.

Source: own elaboration.

Table 9. MBTI facets among male and female law students at the University of Warsaw compared to American male and female lawyers and American men and women (%)

| Facet | Law students at the University of Warsaw | | US lawyers* | | US representative sample** | |
|-------|--|-------------|-------------|-----------|----------------------------|------|
| | women | men | women | men | women | men |
| E | 40.0 | 44.4 | 49 | 41 | 52.5 | 45.9 |
| I | 60.0 | 55.6 | 51 | 59 | 47.5 | 54.1 |
| S | 56.3 | 40.0 | 43 | 45 | 74.9 | 71.7 |
| N | 42.5 | 60.0 | 57 | 55 | 25.1 | 28.3 |
| T | 75.0 | 77.8 | 66 | 81 | 24.5 | 56.5 |
| F | 25.0 | 22.2 | 34 | 19 | 75.5 | 43.5 |
| J | 63.7 | 44.4 | 67 | 61 | 56.2 | 52 |
| P | 36.3 | 55.6 | 33 | 39 | 43.8 | 48 |

* L. Richard, *Herding Cats: The Lawyer Personality Revealed*, 2002, <https://www.managingpartnerforum.org/tasks/sites/mpf/assets/image/MPF%20-%20Herding%20Cats%20-%20Richard%20-%202013-5-121.pdf> (access: 23.8.2025);

** I. Briggs Myers, M.H. McCaulley, N.L. Quenk, A.L. Hammer, *MBTI Manual: A Guide to the Development and Use of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator*, Mountain View 2003, p. 298.

Source: own elaboration.

Interestingly, such large differences between males and females are not observed in the group of US lawyers (due to the lack of available data with the division by gender, it was not possible to compare the results with those of US law students or Polish students of other fields of study than law). The distribution of S-N traits in the group of Polish male law students is similar to the distribution of S-N traits in the group of US lawyers, regardless of their gender. Similarly, in the case of the J-P distribution, the distribution of this trait among female law students is similar to slightly different distributions of the trait among US male and female lawyers (it is situated exactly in the middle), i.e. facet J among Polish female law students is

more frequent than facet P (similarly to US male and female lawyers). However, the J-P proportion among men is exactly the opposite of that among US male lawyers, that is to say, among Polish male law students, facet P occurs more often than facet J, while among US male lawyers, the J facet occurs more often than the P facet. The only facet which varies by gender among US lawyers is T-F – although all lawyers have a higher T than in the national sample, men have an additional higher T than women (81% and 66% respectively). The disproportion between T and F is the only significant difference from the perspective of gender in the general US population.⁴⁸ Meanwhile, among Polish law students, T is equally high in males and females (78% and 75% respectively).

Thus, one may ask what is behind the detected regularity according to which among Polish female law students there is an overrepresentation of trait S over trait N (in relation to males and in comparison to male and female US lawyers), and among male law students there is an overrepresentation of trait P over trait J (in relation to females and in comparison to male and female US lawyers), and what is the reason that among male and female law students there is no variation in the level of T, although it occurs among US lawyers.

The first hypothesis is that perhaps the observed regularity is due to the distinct nature of personality models characteristic of all Polish men and women. Unfortunately, due to the lack of nationwide research, this thesis is currently difficult to verify. The second hypothesis assumes that the selection for law studies is related to the perception of law as a special profession, as well as to the way in which the image of law faculties is built at the enrollment stage. If we assume that, according to the social image of the profession, a lawyer is expected to be rational, dispassionate, thinking, emotionally distanced, oriented to facts and information, and ready to compete, then this profession will be chosen by people characterized by these traits. Hence, the very high T and S ratio in the group of surveyed female law students. The high preference for T over F (although without particular regard to gender) among the surveyed students of marketing and management and English studies was also noted in their study by J. Tobacyk and A. Cieslicka, who pointed to the nature of the selection and enrollment process at Polish universities as one of the possible explanations.⁴⁹ According to these authors, certain specific personality predispositions associated with preference T, such as achievement orientation, autonomy, dominance, self-confidence, lower levels of anxiety, and the orientation at the theoretical context translate into better performance of T individuals than F individuals under stressful examination conditions.

⁴⁸ I. Briggs Myers, M.H. McCaulley, N.L. Quenk, A.L. Hammer, *op. cit.*, pp. 157–158.

⁴⁹ J. Tobacyk, A. Cieslicka, *Compatibility Between Psychological Type and Academic Major in Polish University Students*, “Journal of Psychological Type” 2000, vol. 54, p. 25.

Additionally, since in professional activities women have a smaller chance for promotion compared with men, so they must be better than men to achieve similar success.⁵⁰ It can be assumed that women who considered themselves ready to begin law studies will have a higher S-ratio than their male counterparts. This would imply that only the most confident women – more practical and experience-based than their male counterparts, willing to work on concrete situations, and fact and information-oriented (S) – choose to take on the challenge of studying law. This explanation is consistent with the tendency, noted in the literature, for women to be more self-critical than men in the professional field.⁵¹ There is a well-known pattern that women, in order to apply for a job, promotion or position, have to be sure that they fulfill all the criteria, whereas for men it is sufficient to fulfill only some or the most important conditions.⁵² The pattern described above may also explain the high level of the T preference among female law students. What requires a different explanation is the statistically significant difference between male and female Polish law students concerning the P-J dimension. Women have a significantly higher preference for J, which is associated with consistent action within clear structures, adherence to rules and standards, and good time management, while men are much more likely to be characterized by the P trait, which is associated with greater tolerance for uncertainty, flexibility, and openness to new opportunities.⁵³ While the high preference for J seems understandable in the context of general needs associated with studies of a highly concrete and practical nature, the high P score among males seems more puzzling. It may be explained, for example, by the observed slower maturation of males in Europe towards independence observed by sociologists and, consequently, their lower need to organize reality, take responsibility, act within imposed structures, etc. A culturally conditioned variable may also be the need to control reality that is higher in women than in men (and expressed in higher J in women than in men).

⁵⁰ B. Kalinowska-Nawrotek, *Dyskryminacja kobiet na polskim rynku pracy*, Poznań 2005, p. 37, 66.

⁵¹ *Ibidem*, p. 40. See also S. Sandberg, *Lean In: Women, Work and the Will to Lead*, New York 2016; K. Kay, C. Shipman, *The Confidence Code: The Science and Art of Self-Assurance – What Women Should Know*, New York 2015.

⁵² T.S. Mohr, *Why Women Don't Apply for Jobs Unless They're 100% Qualified*, 25.8.2014, <https://hbr.org/2014/08/why-women-dont-apply-for-jobs-unless-theyre-100-qualified> (access: 23.8.2025); S. Sandberg, *op. cit.*

⁵³ J. Tobaczyk, A. Cieślicka, *op. cit.*, p. 24.

CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, we look at the results of the MBTI test among Polish law students. To our knowledge, it is the first such specific study up to date, bringing new empirical data to a field developed mainly in the US context. We compare the findings with international research concerning other groups, e.g. US law students and US lawyers, to find out whether law students in general are characterized by specific personality traits (compatibility hypothesis). In other words, are some personality types more predisposed to take up law professions. We found out that – similarly to other countries – some dominant personality types can be found among Polish law students. This confirms our initial hypothesis that Polish law students exhibit specific personality traits. Moreover, those types are characteristic among lawyers and law students also in other countries, specifically the US. This also confirms our second hypothesis that the distribution of personality types among Polish law students will be more consistent to the distribution of personality types among other law students (as well as experienced lawyers) in other countries (in this case, the US) rather than other Polish students from different professional fields.

We compare the results of research conducted among Polish and American students, which shows that despite differences in legal culture, legal education, teaching methodology and the legal system, both Polish and American law students have similar dominant personality types. Among Polish and American law students, type T is predominant, and the most frequent personalities are ISTJ, INTJ, ESTJ, ENTP and INTP, with the predominant combination ST and NT. In addition, comparing the personality types of Polish law students to Polish students of other fields of study (e.g. marketing) indicates much greater similarities between American and Polish law students than between Polish law students and Polish students of other fields of study. The analysis of the obtained results confirms the compatibility hypothesis with respect to the legal profession in the Polish context. The analysis of the research leads us to the conclusion that Western professional legal culture may be a very strong element for predicting personality types, stronger than national culture. In the context of dispute resolution, such similarities in the approach to decision-making indicate the existence of a “universalism of the legal profession” and a certain specificity of approach to dispute resolution regardless of specific legal context, method of legal education, or individual differences.

Given that the surveyed law students are characterized by five dominant personality types (ISTJ, INTJ, ESTJ, ENTP, INTP) we discuss the practical relevance of these findings when it comes to conflict resolution practice, especially mediation. Due to the characteristics of these personalities, we also concluded that in the legal profession, which includes dispute resolution, lawyers focus on: facts, use objective analysis, tend to be practical, logical and analytical, are theoretically oriented to interpretation of law and regulations, and trust logic and reason. In addition, law

school is chosen by individuals with certain personality types. and preferences they have for processing information or making decisions are often reinforced through legal education. In view of the growing use of ADR methods – particularly mediation, which emphasizes cooperation, empathy, understanding the broader interests of the parties, and attention to interpersonal relationships – the question arises: to what extent do “legal personalities” pose a challenge to, or complement, the competencies required for effective dispute resolution? Another conclusion of our research is that types of personalities represented by researched law students does not include special communication skills. Good communicators would include two types: (1) INFPs type, which focus on relationships and making life enjoyable, aim at assisting others in conflict resolution, make decisions based on subjective intuition, are flexible and easily adapt to others, and (2) ENFPs type characterized by warm, caring, empathetic, people-oriented, and particularly gifted communicators.⁵⁴ Among the students surveyed, INFPs were only 3.2% of the sample and ENFPs represented 4.8%. On the other hand, some researchers point out that the E (Extraversion) and N (Intuition) facets, which are quite frequent among the law students participating in our study, are also predictors of “cooperation”. This implies that a high ratio of this type should translate into greater mediation potential. If a male or female lawyer has high E and N, then he or she should, it seems, do better in mediation, whether as a mediator or as an attorney. In the surveyed group of law students, 21.6% have EN traits, which means that the surveyed law students have a fairly high potential for mediation activity.

The problem with the study is that our research and analysis do not answer the question, which trait is the stronger predictor of cooperation and what will happen if the E/N affiliated cooperative disposition meets the T affiliated with risk aversion, or the F affiliated with adaptability. It can be assumed that potential is the key, but which approach to conflict emerges will be the result of the situational context, including the intensity of particular personality traits or, e.g., the influence of education on personality. Because these questions remain unanswered, there is a need for further research, particularly on the impact of education on lawyers' personality types.

Another interesting finding of our studies concerns the surveyed group of female law students. Generally, among Polish female law students, the personality trait of S (Sensing) was more frequent among women, whereas N (Intuition) was more frequent among male Polish law students. Moreover, among Polish female law students, T was almost as high as among Polish male law students – 78% among male students and 75% among female students. The very high T and S ratio in the surveyed group of female law students may be related to the perception of law as a special profession, as well as to the way the image of law faculties is built at the

⁵⁴ *Ibidem*, p. 28.

enrollment stage. If we assume that, according to the social image of the profession, a lawyer is expected to think rationally, to be emotionally distanced, to be oriented to facts and information, and to be ready to compete, then this profession will be chosen by people who are characterized by these traits. Because of the mechanism that a woman must be better than a man in professional activities to achieve similar success, only the most self-confident women choose to take on the challenge of studying law. They are more practical than their male counterparts, based on experience, willing to work in concrete situations, and oriented to facts and information (S). The dimension of the T-F scale for female law students is worth relating to conflict resolution strategies as viewed by R.H. Killman and K.W. Thomas.⁵⁵ The T preference is associated with higher scores on the competing scale and higher scores on the F scale are correlated with higher scores on the accommodating/compromising scale (according to the MBTI Step II Manual supplement). It is noteworthy that a high score on the T scale among female law students, associated with higher scores on the competitiveness scale, is in agreement with the results of the authors' previous research.⁵⁶ According to this research, female law students were definitely more competitive than male law students or male and female biology students from the comparison group. The high level of T among female law students, interpreted as a manifestation of a strong competitive attitude, may be a response to the fact that law is perceived in Poland as a highly competitive field.

The results of our research lead to the reflection that there is a need to change legal education in Poland in such a direction as to develop soft skills, empathy, cooperative attitude and flexibility in future lawyers due to the increasing popularity of ADR methods, including mediation in legal disputes. More studies among law students would help to introduce the proposal for changes into curriculum aimed to develop soft skill concerning problem solving. A certain challenge to introducing a conciliatory approach to dispute resolution at law schools may be the low personality susceptibility of students. However, it is worth noting that the approach to dispute resolution consists not only of personality traits, but also of variable elements, including skills that can be learned in the course of education, such as the ability to work in groups, the ability to cooperate, and to resolve conflicts.⁵⁷ Introducing classes and teaching methodology which include collaboration, team work and group work could develop cooperation skills. It can also be expected that more extensive

⁵⁵ R.H. Killman, K.W. Thomas, *Developing a Forced-Choice Measure of Conflict-Handling Behavior: The "Mode" Instrument*, "Educational and Psychological Measurement" 1977, vol. 37(2), pp. 309–325.

⁵⁶ A. Cybulko, E. Gmurzyńska, A. Winiarska, *Preferowane podejścia do rozwiązywania konfliktów wśród polskich i amerykańskich studentów prawa w kontekście systemu kształcenia*, "Studia Iuridica" 2018, vol. 78, pp. 79–101.

⁵⁷ J.D. Mayer, P. Salovey, D.R. Caruso, *Emotional Intelligence: New Ability or Eclectic Traits?*, "American Psychologist" 2008, vol. 63(6), pp. 503–517; S. Daicoff, *Expanding...*, p. 840.

use of ADR methods, will also affect lawyers toward the cooperation and the personality types with high communication skills, such as NFPs – focused on “making life gentler and kinder” for others, people-oriented, warm, caring and empathetic.⁵⁸

The analysis of our research also indicates a need for further research both at law schools in Poland, and in a comparative context involving law students and lawyers in other countries and in different legal systems, in order to examine the patterns of attitudes towards dispute resolution. One of our observations, which needs further research, is the “universalism” of the legal profession, personality types among male and female lawyers, and the impact of education on personality types among lawyers. Another important study to be conducted is research among non-lawyer mediators to compare their dominant personality traits and determine how they affect their working techniques, as well as their effectiveness and satisfaction in conducting mediation.

REFERENCES

Literature

- Baker R.L., *Using Insights about Perception and Judgment from the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator Instrument as an Aid to Mediation*, “Harvard Negotiation Law Review” 2014, vol. 9.
- Briggs Myers I., *Wprowadzenie do typu*, Oxford 2009.
- Briggs Myers I., McCaulley M.H., Quenk N.L., Hammer A.L., *MBTI Manual: A Guide to the Development and Use of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator*, Mountain View 2003.
- Carskadon T.G., *Test-Retest Reliabilities of Continuous Scores on the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator*, “Psychological Reports” 1977, vol. 41(3), DOI: <https://doi.org/10.2466/pr0.1977.41.3.1011>.
- Cybulko A., Gmurzyńska E., Winiarska A., *Preferowane podejścia do rozwiązywania konfliktów wśród polskich i amerykańskich studentów prawa w kontekście systemu kształcenia*, “Studia Iuridica” 2018, vol. 78, DOI: <https://doi.org/10.5604/01.3001.0013.2139>.
- Daicoff S., *Expanding the Lawyer's Toolkit of Skills and Competences: Synthesizing Leadership, Professionalism, Emotional Intelligence, Conflict Resolution and Comprehensive Law*, “Santa Clara Law Review” 2012, vol. 52(3).
- Daicoff S., *Lawyer, Know Thyself: A Review of Empirical Research on Attorney Attributes Bearing on Professionalization*, “American University Law Review” 1997, vol. 46(5).
- Daicoff S., *Making Law Therapeutic for Lawyers: Therapeutic Jurisprudence, Preventive Law and the Psychology of Lawyers*, “Psychology, Public Policy and Law” 1999, vol. 5(4), DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8971.5.4.811>.
- Gmurzyńska E., *Rola prawników w alternatywnych metodach rozwiązywania sporów*, Warszawa 2014.
- Guthrie C., *The Lawyer's Philosophical Map and the Disputant's Perceptual Map: Impediments to Facilitative Mediation and Lawyering*, “Harvard Negotiation Law Review” 2001, vol. 6.
- Hirsch S., Kummerow J., *Introduction to Type in Organizations*, Palo Alto 1989.
- Kalinowska-Nawrotek B., *Dyskryminacja kobiet na polskim rynku pracy*, Poznań 2005.

⁵⁸ J. Tobaczyk, A. Cieślicka, *op. cit.*, p. 28.

- Kay K., Shipman C., *The Confidence Code: The Science and Art of Self-Assurance – What Women Should Know*, New York 2015.
- Kilmann R.H., Thomas K.W., *Developing a Forced-Choice Measure of Conflict-Handling Behavior: The “Mode” Instrument*, “Educational and Psychological Measurement” 1977, vol. 37(2), DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1177/001316447703700204>.
- Korneeva Y., Shahova L., Kripchenko N., *Mediators’ Professional Competence and Personal Qualities in Conducting Conciliation Processes with Varying Degrees of Success*, “SA Journal of Industrial Psychology” 2022, vol. 48, DOI: <https://doi.org/10.4102/sajip.v48i0.1870>.
- Korobkin R., Guthrie C., *Psychology, Economics and Settlement: A New Look at the Role of Lawyers*, “Texas Law Review” 1997, vol. 76.
- Lisle Baker R., *Using Insights About Perception and Judgment from the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator Instrument as an Aid to Mediation*, “Harvard Negotiation Law Review” 2004, vol. 9.
- Łojko E., *Opinie studentów prawa o wydziale i jego kadrze*, [in:] *Studenci prawa o studiach i perspektywach zawodowych*, ed. E. Łojko, Warszawa 2011.
- Malherbe K., *Promoting Self-Awareness and Conflict Management Skills in a Multicultural Setting*, “African Journal of Health Professions Education” 2023, vol. 15(2), DOI: <https://doi.org/10.7196/AJHPE.2023.v15i2.1641>.
- Mayer J.D., Salovey P., Caruso D.R., *Emotional Intelligence: New Ability or Eclectic Traits?*, “American Psychologist” 2008, vol. 63(6), DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.63.6.503>.
- McCrae R.R., Costa Jr. P.T., *Reinterpreting the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator from the Perspective of the Five-Factor Model of Personality*, “Journal of Personality” 1989, vol. 57(1), DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6494.1989.tb00759.x>.
- Peters D., *Forever Jung: Psychological Type Theory, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator and Learning Negotiation*, “Drake Law Review” 1993, vol. 42(1).
- Peters D., Peters M.M., *Maybe That’s Why I Do That: Psychological Type Theory, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, and Learning Legal Interviewing*, “NYLS Law Review” 1990, vol. 35(1).
- Peters M.M., Peters D., *Juris Types Learning Law Through Self-Understanding*, Gainesville 2007.
- Pittenger D.J., *The Utility of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator*, “Review of Educational Research” 1993, vol. 63(4), DOI: <https://doi.org/10.2307/1170497>.
- Power S.J., Lundsten L.L., *Studies That Compare Type Theory and left-Brain/Right-Brain Theory*, “Journal of Psychological Type” 1997, vol. 43.
- Randall V.R., *The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator; First Year Law Students and Performance*, “Cumberland Law Review” 1995, vol. 26(63).
- Richard L., *Psychological Type and Job Satisfaction among Practicing Lawyers in the United States*, “Capital University Law Review” 2001, vol. 29.
- Riskin L., *Mediation and Lawyers*, “Ohio State Law Journal” 1982, vol. 43.
- Sandberg S., *Lean In: Women, Work and the Will to Lead*, New York 2016.
- Stein R., Swan A.B., *Evaluating the Validity of Myers-Briggs Type Indicator Theory: A Teaching Tool and Window into Intuitive Psychology*, “Social and Personality Psychology Compass” 2019, vol. 13(2), DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1111/spc3.12434>.
- Thomson R.S., *What Type of Lawyer Are You? ISTJ? ESTJ? INTJ? ENTP?*, Chicago 1999.
- Tobacyk J., Cieslicka A., *Compatibility Between Psychological Type and Academic Major in Polish University Students*, “Journal of Psychological Type” 2000, vol. 54.
- Tobacyk J., Cyrson E., Tobacyk Z., *Cross-National Evidence for Compatibility of Psychological Type in Polish and American Samples*, “Journal of Career Assessment” 2000, vol. 8(2), DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1177/106907270000800207>.
- Zhong B., Yan J., Sun H., Chen H., Tao B., Jiang Y., Chen H., Lu T., Ding Z., *Relationship between Personality Portraits of University Students and Interpersonal Conflict Resolution Strategies: A Latent Profile Analysis*, “Scientific Reports” 2024, vol. 14, DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-024-83491-4>.

Online sources

- Mohr T.S., *Why Women Don't Apply for Jobs Unless They're 100% Qualified*, 25.8.2014, <https://hbr.org/2014/08/why-women-dont-apply-for-jobs-unless-theyre-100-qualified> (access: 23.8.2025).
- Richard L., *Herding Cats: The Lawyer Personality Revealed*, 2002, <https://www.managingpartnerforum.org/tasks/sites/mpf/assets/image/MPF%20-%20Herding%20Cats%20-%20Richard%20-%20203-5-121.pdf> (access: 23.8.2025).
- Richard L., *The Lawyers Types: How Your Personality Affects Your Practice*, "ABA Journal" 1993, https://www.lawyerbrain.com/wp-content/uploads/2023/04/the_lawyer_types_mbti.pdf (access: 23.8.2025).

ABSTRAKT

W artykule dokonano analizy typów osobowości studentów prawa, na które wskazują wyniki testu MBTI. Dyskusja koncentruje się na potencjalnych implikacjach tych osobowości na praktykę prawa, a konkretnie na wybór strategii rozwiązywania konfliktów, w tym zastosowanie mediacji. Opierając się na badaniach amerykańskich, autorki odwołują się do hipotezy zgodności, zgodnie z którą określony typ osobowości jest skorelowany z preferencjami zawodowymi, a także próbują zweryfikować te ustalenia w kontekście polskim. Na podstawie danych empirycznych zebranych w wyniku przeprowadzonych badań z udziałem studentów prawa Uniwersytetu Warszawskiego oraz wyników innych badań podjęto próbę ustalenia, czy określone typy osobowości są szczególnie predestynowane do podejmowania studiów prawniczych oraz czy jest to zróżnicowane w różnych krajach, uwzględniając również wymiar płci. Rozważania koncentrują się na tym, w jaki sposób typ osobowości prawników może wpływać na ich podejście do konfliktów i strategii rozwiązywania konfliktów oraz jak typy osobowości mogą wpływać na mediację, w której prawnicy pełnią rolę mediatorów lub reprezentują strony. Artykuł łączy teorię, badania i praktykę w zakresie rozwiązywania sporów i rozwiązywania konfliktów.

Słowa kluczowe: prawnicy; rozwiązywanie konfliktów; typ osobowości; MBTI; mediacja