8-9 Pattern

Clinical Scale Elevations

Scale(s) 8 (Sc)

T-score ≥ 75

Elevations on the present Scale(s), taking race, gender, age, education, marital and employment status into consideration for the corresponding group's data, indicate any or all of these clinical features could be present in this person's behavior and history:

They get little satisfaction from the company of others. They prefer to live in a fantasy world of their own creation. Fantasy provides them with the satisfactions they cannot get from living in a world most people occupy. Their thinking can be original, but when expressed makes others just a little uncomfortable. They find it hard to get people to understand them. Their thinking rapidly becomes disorganized and fragmented when they find themselves under pressure to perform tasks, which they find, are beyond their ability to deal with effectively. They exist with a compromised capacity to meet social and economic demands. They live isolated, lonely lives. They find solace and comfort in alcohol and drugs of pleasure.

Schizophrenia

Wallace (2001) describes as the most prominent or obvious feature of schizophrenic disturbance is incoherent, illogical, or inappropriate abstract thinking. Incoherent thinking involves a disruption in the sequence of thoughts so that one thought does not flow continuously and coherently from another. They lose track of what they are saying. They may express a series of loosely related ideas that are difficult to follow.

Wallace, J. L., (2001). “A Clinicians Guide to Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory Interpretation”. Ex Libris.

Schizophrenics, report they feel misunderstood, punished for no reason they can remember, and plotted against by persons who do not have their best interests at heart. They pull back from any person or situation they see as challenging them personally. They have few or no friends. Their social skills are not well developed. They relate in a clumsy and rigid way to others. They have little flexibility responding to others wishes, needs, or expectations. They are easily frightened. Nichols and Greene, (1995) note the schizophrenics’ emotional disengagement reveals, “…pathological disengagement from life that discounts future interests, prospects, and engagement to the extent that they can no longer serve as incentives for continuing to live” (p. 29).

Nichols, D. S., & Greene, R. L., (1995). “MMPI-2 structural summary: Interpretive manual”. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.

Schizophrenics tell of their difficulties thinking straight. Schizophrenics are plagued with problems of attention, concentration, remembering, and arriving at a correct solution. They cannot formulate reasonable goals. They lack the intellectual energy required to plan, direct, correct processing errors, and rousing them to meet the occasions reflected in their goals.

Schizophrenics fear they will lose their minds. They cower at the prospect of suddenly finding they do not know who they are, the dying of their own self. They are at times restless, thin-skinned, and ultra sensitive to any think they construe as a reference to themselves. They can react violently to a perceived slight, threat, or insult.

Illogical thinking consists of reaching unreasonable conclusions based upon circumstantial evidence. Thinking at inappropriate levels of abstraction, is characteristic of person with schizophrenia. Schizophrenic people use words in an overly concrete or literal manner.

Perceptual distortions result in poor judgment. They cannot assess their experience realistically. They act in odd or queer ways. The lives of schizophrenic people are dotted with such instances of poor judgment, which stems from unrealistic assessment of a situation, and of themselves, or of the consequences of their actions. The disordered thinking and inaccurate perception of schizophrenic people often cause them to overlook or misjudge the feelings, motives, and actions of others.

They behave in ways that others find insensitive, self-centered, contentious, presumptuous, and suspicious or in some other way objectionable. Their poor social skills make it difficult for them to make or keep friends, even when they try. They frequently withdraw physically and become social isolates in their both work and recreation. They avoid situations that can bring them into close contact with others.

Many withdraw emotionally while placing themselves physically in close proximity to others. Public events sometimes help schizophrenics preserve the fiction that they are meaningfully involved with others. Even when mingling with other people, they maintain a psychological distance by keeping their thoughts and feelings to themselves and interacting only on a formal, impersonal level.

Schizophrenic persons are frequently unable to prevent anxiety-provoking and socially unacceptable ideas from occupying their minds. Uncontrollable aggressive and sexual fantasies and constant concern about terrible events they might cause or suffer from are particularly likely to make the schizophrenics existence a waking nightmare.

Schizophrenics are consequently subject to severe bouts of anxiety and self-disgust. They have difficulty distinguishing between their dreams and waking reality. Schizophrenics also suffer from poor integration of their feelings and thoughts. They may show blunted affect with little or no emotional response to any situations, or such inappropriate affect as giggling while relating a violently aggressive fantasy or crying while describing how good they feel.

Schizophrenics may be unable to prevent and control their aggressive and sexual ideas. When several of these impairments occur together and persist over any length of time, schizophrenia is present.

A prominent mood disorder coexisting alongside a schizophrenia is present in schizoaffective disorders. Subtypes include affective bipolar and depressive types.

Schizophrenia, which exists along with grossly disorganized behavior, incoherence, marked loosening of associations; flat emotionally and grossly inappropriate affect is associated with disorganized schizophrenia.

Schizophrenia exists along with a preoccupation with systemized delusions, auditory hallucinations, argumentativeness, and possibility for violence and over-weaning suspiciousness is associated with paranoid schizophrenia.

Schizophrenia manifested by many or all of its variations including prominent delusions, hallucinations, incoherence, and grossly disorganized behaviors is associated with undifferentiated schizophrenia.

The DSM-IV-TR, (2000) list the diagnostic criteria for schizophrenia as:

A. **Characteristic Symptoms.** Two or more of the following during a one-month period (or less if successfully treated): **Delusions, hallucinations,** and disorganized speech (loosening of associations), grossly disorganized behavior or catatonic (with extreme motor retardation or extreme motor agitation), negative symptoms (e.g., emotional blunting, loss of interest in things and activities, inability to experience happiness). **If** bizarre delusions or auditory hallucinations **and** a. voices keep a running commentary about the person's thoughts and behaviors **or** b. two or more voices converse with each other **then** only one criterion is needed.

B. **Social/Occupational Dysfunction. If** one or more major areas of the person's life are markedly below premorbid functioning (work, interpersonal relations or self-care) **or if** childhood or adolescence failure to achieve expected levels of interpersonal, academic, or occupational achievement **then meets** the **B** criteria.

C. **Duration.** Continuous signs persist for at lest six months with at lest one month that meets the '**A'** criteria (Active Phase) and may include prodromal (early warning signs) or residual symptoms.

D. Rule out all other mental diseases (e.g., schizoaffective/mood disorders) **All other medical conditions** (substance use/medications or general medical conditions) have been ruled out. **If a history of pervasive developmental disorders exists** then prominent, hallucinations or delusions for one month are needed to make the diagnosis of schizophrenia.

Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Text Revision. (4th Ed.), (2000). American Psychiatric Association.

Schizophrenia is a psychotic disorder, which encompasses delusions, hallucinations, and disorganized behavior and speech (DSM-IV-TR 2000, p. 297).

The symptoms of schizophrenia are classified further as positive, negative, cognitive, and disorganized. **Positive** symptoms are delusions, hallucinations, paranoia, and bizarre behavior. These symptoms have been historically the major focus of treatment. **Negative** symptoms are apathy, loss of pleasure, disordered thought, and the loss of interest in engaging in vital life activities. These negative symptoms are the most crippling. **Cognitive** symptoms refer to deficits in attention, concentration, memory, decision-making, and problem solving. Anderson et al., (1998) think cognitive symptoms are the principle disabilities associated with schizophrenia. **Disorganized** symptoms signify the degree of disorganization of affect or behavior.

Research Findings. Anderson, C., Chakos, M., Mailman, R., & Lieberman, J., (1998) Emerging roles for novel antipsychotic medications in the treatment of schizophrenia. Psychiatric Clinics of North America, 21 (1), 151-179.

Lishman, (1998) writes, “The acute organic reactions are called forth by a great number of different pathological processes affecting the brain…” (p. 9). A host of misfortunes follow-on brain insults, i.e., fragmentation of attention, thinking, and purposive reality based action, diminution of the powers of memory, and failures of judgment (p. 9-13).

Acute and chronic central nervous system conditions lead to psychotic reactions. Schizophrenia is one diagnostic possibility, which present with manifold symptoms. Head injuries at times lead to schizophrenic conditions. “All forms of schizophrenia have been reported after head injury…” (p. 190). “Paranoid forms are reported to be especially common…” (p. 190). Achté et al., (1969) followed 3552 head injured Finnish WW II soldiers for over 20 years. Ninety-two of these cases developed schizophrenic-like symptoms (2.6 percent).

Achté, K. A., Hillbom, E., & Aalberg, V., (1969). “Psychoses following war brain injuries”. Acta Psychiatrica Scandinavica 45, 1-18.

Achté found that mild brain injuries produced schizophrenia more frequently than did severe brain injuries. Whether or not other precipitating factors, such as familial histories of schizophrenia, added to the vulnerability to develop schizophrenia after head injuries is not clear. Lishman, (1998), p. 190, writes, “… the early onset of the psychosis (is) related to (the) severity of diffuse brain injury, and a possible special association with temporal lobe damage”. Achté reported 2.1 percent of the group of brain injured Finnish WW II soldiers he studied were diagnoses with paranoid conditions.

Tumors of the temporal lobe are associated with schizophrenia. This is a rare occurrence, but greater than the occurrence in the general population. Pituitary tumors are also associated with the development of schizophrenia (Davison and Bagley, 1969).

Davison, K., & Bagley, C. R., (1969). “Schizophrenia-like psychoses associated with organic disorders of the central nervous system: a review of the literature” In Current Problems in Neuropsychiatry.

Herrington, R. N. (Ed.), (1958). British Journal of Psychiatry: Special Publication No.4. Headly Brothers: Ashford, Kent.

Mendez et al., (1993) reports the excessive occurrence of schizophrenia with epilepsy. Interictal schizophrenia disorders occurred in 9.25 percent of 1611 epileptic patients. Complex partial seizures are associated with epilepsy and simultaneously occurring schizophrenia.

Mendez, M. F., Grau, R., Doss, R. C., & Taylor, J. L., ((1993). “Schizophrenia in epilepsy: seizure and psychoses variables”. Neurology 43, 1073-1077.

Slater, et al., (1963) systematically collected 69 patients with unequivocal evidence of epilepsy that subsequently developed schizophrenia. The majority of these patients, 80 percent, experienced an insidious onset of symptoms with delusions as the first manifestation. Paranoid symptoms were present in the majority or the cases. Delusions were present in nearly all cases. Auditory hallucinations occurred in nearly half of the cases. Visual hallucinations were present in 16 percent of the cases. Thought disorders occurred in half of the patients.

Slater interpreted the changes observed in the epileptic schizophrenia patients as organic personality changes manifested by lack of spontaneity, dullness, (mental) retardation, concrete thinking, and memory deficits. The epileptic foci were in the temporal lobe in two-thirds of the cases.

Slater, E., Beard, A. W., & Glithero, E., (1963). “The schizophrenic-like disorders of epilepsy”. British Journal of Psychiatry 109, 95-150.

Schizophrenic-like disorders are also associated with cannabis intoxication, general paresis, Huntington’s disease, hyperthyroidism, hypothyroidism, narcolepsy, systemic lupus erythematosus, Wilson’s disease, Korsakoff’s Syndrome, multiple sclerosis, stroke, uremia, among other physical conditions (Lishman, 1998).

Lishman, W. A., (1998). “Organic Psychiatry: The Psychological Consequences of Cerebral Disorder”. London: Blackwell Science Ltd.

The causes of schizophrenia are unclear. Schizophrenia has multiple interrelated etiologies, i.e., biological, genetic, and developmental abnormalities of the brain (Varcarolis, 2002, p. 525).

Varcarolis, E. M., (2002). “Foundations of psychiatric mental health nursing: a clinical approach”. (4th Ed.). Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Company.

A long list of chemical neurotransmitters has been identified, which are thought to be involved in the production of schizophrenic disorders. Dopamine, norepinephrine, serotonin, glutamate, GABA, and neuropeptides are among the many biochemical substances associated with the development of schizophrenia.

Genetic investigations with identical twins reveal a 45 percent chance of one twin developing a schizophrenic disorder if the other twin is so affected. If one twin has an autistic spectrum disorder, the other twin stands a 60 percent chance of developing impairments of communication and deficits in social interaction, i.e., Asperger’s Syndrome. Some twins do not develop these disorders, however. Genetic causation is only a partial answer to the conundrum of the causation of the schizophrenic disorders (Hyman, 2003, p. 99).

Hyman, S. E., (2003). “Diagnosing disorders”. Special issue: Better Brains. Scientific American, 289 (3), 96-103.

Jones and Cannon (1998) noted if one parent were schizophrenic, 12 percent of the children would become schizophrenic. If both parents are schizophrenic, 46 percent of the children will be also.

Jones, P., & Cannon, M., (1998). “The New Epidemiology of Schizophrenia”. Psychiatric Clinics of North America 12 (1): 1-25.

Neuroimaging studies of individuals diagnosed with schizophrenia provide evidence of enlargement of the lateral ventricles, atrophy of the frontal lobes and the cortex in general as well as atrophy of the cerebellum, enlargement of the third ventricle and asymmetry of one or both ventricles (Kaplan and Shadock, 1995).

Kaplan, H. I., & Shadock, B. J., (1995). “Synopsis of psychiatry”. (6th Ed.) Baltimore: Williams & Wilkins.

Thompson et al., (2001) found significant anatomical changes in brains of schizophrenic adolescents between the ages of 13 and 18 where a marked loss of gray matter in the cerebral cortex was demonstrated. This loss increased as the cellular losses progressed, spreading to other areas of the brain. These anatomical abnormalities were synchronous with the severity of the development of the psychotic symptoms and impairments produced by these diseases.

Thompson, P. M., Vidal, C., Giedd, J. N., Gochman, P., Blumenthal, J., Nicolson, R., Toga, A., & Rapoport, J. L., (2001). Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences USA 98 (20), 11650-11655.

Scale 8 on the MMPI and MMPI-2 contains 78 items. These Scale 8 items overlap with 11 other scales: **F (15), K (1), 1 (2), 2 (10), 3 (8), 4 (6), 5 (4), 6 (13), 7 (17), 9 (11), and Scale 0 (6).** It is not readily apparent with elevations on Scale 8 just which symptoms would be observed in any one patient who may or may not be diagnosed with schizophrenia. All of the K scale items answered in the deviant direction is added to the Scale 8 raw score. Any 20 Scale 8 items endorsed in the deviant direction are needed to produce a Tscore of 65 when the client has an average score on the K scale (Greene, 2000).

Greene, R. L., (2000). The MMPI-2/MMPI: An Interpretive Manual (2nd Ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

The K scale was developed to improve the hit rate of Scale 8 (Dahlstrom and Dahlstrom, 1980). This results in the increase in the Scale 8 relative to the standardization group. This piggy backing on the norms group's data permitted the criterion group's data to be mounted above the normative group's score elevations in order to make Scale 8 elevations more prominent. Cross validation, studies were able to correctly identify no more than 60 percent of the total number of schizophrenics studied. Hathaway, (1980) reported that a considerable number of cases in 91 cross validation studies scored below a Tscore of 61 on Scale 8. Friedman et al., (2001) concluded, "A diagnostic conclusion of schizophrenia cannot be made solely on the basis of a Scale 8 elevation" (p. 132). Butcher and Williams, (1992) are of the opinion that Scale 8 clinical elevations can be due to severe depression, severe personality disorders, a 'rebel without a cause' attitude, sensory deficits, or a "cry-for-help". Anderson and Kunce, (1984) found high scoring Scale 8 college students, who suffered from social isolation, loneliness, and the inability to engage with others, were not schizophrenic.

Psychiatric settings yielding similar MMPI scores lead to different interpretations than those gotten in non-psychiatric settings. Greene, (2000) investigated MMPI data collected on psychiatric inpatients and out patients. The most frequent code pattern for men was 8-6, for women the 4-8, 8-4, and 8-6 code patterns were prominent. Psychiatric diagnoses were wide ranging. There is no assurance that Scale 8 elevations are associated exclusively with schizophrenic disorders.

Hathaway, S. R., (1980). "Scale 5 (Masculinity-Femininity), 6 (Paranoia), and 8 (Schizophrenia)". In W. G. Dahlstrom & L. Dahlstrom (Eds.), (1980). Basic reading in the MMPI: A new selection on personality measurement (pp. 65-75). Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.

Greene, R. L., (1991). The MMPI-MMPI-2: An interpretive manual. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Friedman, A. F., Lewak, R., Nichols, D. S., & Webb, J., (2001). Psychological Assessment with the MMPI-2 L. (1992). "Essentials of MMPI-2 and MMPI-A Interpretation. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.

Anderson, W. P. & Kunce, J. T., (1984). Diagnostic implications of markedly elevated MMPI Sc (Scale 8) scores for non-hospitalized clients". Journal of Clinical Psychology 40, 925-930.

Clinical Scale Elevations

Scale(s) 9 (Ma)

T-score ≥ 69

Elevations on the present Scale(s), taking race, gender, age, education, marital and employment status into consideration for the corresponding group's data indicate any or all of these clinical features could be present in this person's behavior and history:

They are excitable, high-energy people. They enter social situations with ease. They probably do not need as much sleep as most people. They work with enthusiasm. Their movements are rapid, coordinated, and they can sustain physical effort for long periods. They speak more rapidly than most others do. They like to be in control of their activities. They are organized, efficient, and manage their affairs effortlessly. They like the excitement of new experiences. They will try anything. They thrive in the company of other people. These contacts stimulate them. The more intense the interactions, the more they enjoy the coming together. Partying, dancing, drinking, loud music and concerted muscular activities provide them with the heightening of sensations they crave and cherish.

Mood Disorder

Hypomania
And
Mania

DSM-IV-TR (2000) lists the following criteria for Bi-polar Disorder, Hypomania, and Mania: A distinct period of abnormality and persistently elevated, expansive, or irritable mood for at least: 4 days of hypomania; or one week for mania.

At **least three (or more)** of the following symptoms have persisted (four if the mood is only irritable) and have been present to a significant degree during the period of mood disturbance: inflated self-esteem or grandiosity; decreased need for sleep (e.g., the person feels rested after only three hours of sleep; more talkative than usual or pressure to keep talking; flight of ideas or subjective experience that thoughts are racing; distractibility (i.e., the person's attention is too easily drawn to unimportant or irrelevant external stimuli; increase in goal directed activity (either socially, at work or school, or sexually) or psychomotor activity; excessive involvement in pleasurable activities that have a high potential for painful consequences (e.g., the person engages in unrestricted buying sprees, sexual indiscretions, or foolish business investments).

Hypomania; The episode is associated with an unequivocal change in functioning that is not characteristic of the person when not symptomatic. Others observe the disturbance in mood and the change in functioning. There is an absence of marked impairment in social or occupational functioning. Hospitalization is not indicated. Symptoms are not due to direct physiological effects of substance (e.g., drug abuse, medication, or other medical conditions).

Mania: Mania severe enough to cause marked impairment in occupational activities, or relationships, or necessitated hospitalization to prevent harm to self and others, or there are psychotic features. Symptoms are not due to direct physiological effects of substance (drug abuse, medication) or general medical condition (e.g., hyperthyroidism).

The lifetime base rate for mood disorders associated with elevated mood worldwide is approximately one percent (DSM-IV-TR, 2000).

Substance abuse is common (Strakowski and Del Bello, 2000).

Strakowski, S. M., & Del Bello, M. P., (2000). “The occurrence of bipolar and substance use disorders”. Clinical Psychology Review 20 (2): 191-206.

Bipolar manic persons who are also diagnosed with co-occurring personality disorders, have much poorer treatment outcomes 12 months after hospitalization (Dunayevich et al., (2000).

Dunayevich, E. et al., (2000). “Twelve-month outcome in bipolar patients with and without personality disorders”. Journal of Clinical Psychiatry 61 (2): 134-139.

Bipolar disorder is several disorders rolled into one diagnosis. **Bipolar I Disorder** includes psychosis, paranoia, rapid mood cycling, recurrent schizophrenia-like symptoms, recurrent depression, mania, bizarre behavior, substance abuse, and/or self-medication. **Bipolar II Disorder** includes personality disturbance or disorder of temperament (borderline-like), seasonal depression, alcohol and/or substance abuse, rapid mood cycling, premenstrual dysphoria; premenstrual mood disturbance, impulse difficulties, interpersonal sensitivity, intermittent viciousness, backbiting, slander, manipulativeness, acts of bad-faith, recurrent depression, mood instability (Zerbe, 1999).

Zerbe, K. J., (1999). “Women’s mental health in primary care” (p. 57). Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders.

Unipolar Depressive Disorders. The age of onset is usually between the ages of 40 to 44 years of age. Women are affected twice as often, as are men. Unstable ties to parents and families are frequently encountered. The divorce rate is no higher than for the population in general. Symptoms encountered during the depression include

prominent guilt feelings, unresolved autonomy issues, increased motor activity, insomnia, and health concerns.

Bipolar Disorder: The age of onset is between 19 to 30 years of age. It is equally prevalent in women and men. A higher rate of divorce and marital conflict occurs. The need for independence, control of others and being the center of attention is central to this disorder. A significant increase in the drive for success and prestige occurs. Symptoms associated with the depressed phase of this illness are psychomotor retardation, increased sleep-intervals, few health concerns, and little anxiety or concern for self or others. A high frequency of relapse is associated with bipolar disorder as compared with (Unipolar) major depressive disorder (Varcarolis, 2002).

Varcarolis, E. M., (2002). “Foundation of Psychiatric Mental Health Nursing”, (pp. 445-446). Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Company.

Ethanol ingestion aggravates affective disorders. This combined with brain damage can lead to aggressive and violent behavior (Sweet, et al., 1969).
The level of sensitivity to the effects alcohol has upon a person is associated with a diagnosis of “pathological intoxication” or ‘*manie* à potú in combination with head injury. A person evidences the pathological effects of alcohol with much smaller levels of alcohol in their blood. They behave violently while under the influence of alcohol, recalling nothing of the events surrounding their intoxication. There is ongoing controversy concerning this diagnosis.

Sweet, W. H., Ervin, F., & Mark, V. H. (1969). “The relationship of violent behavior to focal cerebral disease”. In Aggressive Behaviour: Proceedings of international symposium on the Biology of Aggressive Behaviour. Garattini, S. & Sigg, E. B. (Eds.) Exerpta Medica: Amsterdam (81, 82, 189).

Manic stupor can lead to elation and ecstasy. The patients’ report their mind fills to overflowing with ideas. They are unable to react to anything around them (Abrams and Taylor, 1976).

Abrams, R., & Taylor, M. A., (1976). “Catatonia: a prospective clinical study”, Archives of General Psychiatry 33, 579-581.

Schukla reports on 20 patients who developed mania following head injury. There were no family histories of bipolar disorder. Epilepsy developed in one half of the cases. Irritable mood was more frequent than euphoria. Assaultive behavior often occurred. Fourteen of the patients had episodes of mania without depression Schukla et al., (1987).

Schukla, S., Cook, B. L., Mukherjee, S., Goodwin, C., & Miller, M. G., (1987). “Mania following head trauma”. American Journal of Psychiatry 144, 93-96.

Starkstein et al., (1988) studied 12 patients who developed mania from brain lesions (tumors, strokes, and brain injuries). None has histories of affective disorders. Right hemisphere lesions were more common that those of the left hemisphere. Lesions of the orbitofrontal cortex were strongly associated with mania. Two patients had repeated manic episodes and another developed mania along with a marked change of personality two years after a head injury.

Starkstein, S. E., Boston, J .D. 7 Robinson, R. G., (1988). “Mechanisms of mania after brain injury. Twelve case reports and review of the literature”. Journal of Nervous and Mental Disease 176, 87-100.

Logsdail and Toone, (1988) report twice as many right hemisphere loci, which is similar to those reported by Starkstein, et al., (1988).

Logsdail, S. J., & Toone, B. K., (1988). “Post-ictal psychoses. A clinical and phenomenological description”. British Journal of Psychiatry 152, (246-252).

Scale 9 has 46 items. Item overlap is **L (12), F (1), K (5), 3 (6), 4 (7), 5 (3), 6 (3), 7 (6), and 8 (11).** Thirty-five items are keyed in the true direction. Scale 8 has one fourth of its items in common with Scale 9. The reading comprehension level for Scale 9 is the highest (ninth grade reading level) of all of the MMPI scales Paolo et al (1991). The average reading level is the eighth grade in the US. Scale 9 test scores may need to be verified if the subject gives evidence of reading comprehension difficulties. Test-retest correlations for the standardization sample (Butcher, et al 1989) are 0.68 for females and 0.83 for males.

Paolo, A.M., Ryan, J. J., & Smith, A. J., (1991). “Reading difficulty of MMPI-2 subscales”. Journal of Clinical Psychology July 47 (4), 529-532

Butcher, J .N., Dahlstrom, W. G., Graham, J .R., Tellegen, A., & Kaemmer, B., (1989). “Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory-2 (MMPI-2): Manual for administration and scoring”, Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.

Scale 9 (Ma) presumably measures mood elevations. Scale 9 (hypomania) reflects heightened motor activity levels. Associated features are grandiosity, Green-Spanian irrational exuberance, and decreased need for sleep, suspiciousness, and a hot temper.

The original clinical group of inpatients who served as criterion subjects in the construction of Scale 9 (Ma) numbered 24 (Dahlstrom and Dahlstrom 1980). They pointed out the small number of cases used in the construction of Scale 9. “It is the best (data) that we could derive from the patients seen over a 5-year period” (p. 57).

Individuals who are in the throes of a genuine manic episode will render valid MMPI results. Distractibility, ideational flooding, and increased motor activity levels are the cause.

Dahlstrom, W. G., & Dahlstrom, L. E., (Eds.) (1980). “Basic readings on the MMPI: A new selection on personality measurement). Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.

Langer (2003) defines Scale 9 (Ma) as a focus on achievement. Self-worth rests upon career success, material acquisition, and fame. Ready response to stimuli is a core feature. Tension is high between aspiration and accomplishment.

Langer, F., (2003) frank.langer@ALIENS.Com Wednesday 3 September (2003). Re: MMPI-2/Rorschach Confusion. Rorschach@MAELSTROM.ST.JOHNS.EDU.

Increased motor behavior follows the anticipation of failure. “If they see a looming catastrophe, they pull out all stops to do everything possible to avert it” (Langer, 2003). The relative vacuum of insight into their thinking and feeling is addressed by their focusing upon externalities This focus rushes in to fill the void left in the wake of the flight away from the threat of the recognition of their own weaknesses, anxieties, incompetence, and fear for the future. Grim determination and “…sticking to one’s guns in the face of an unbending environment…” addresses the roadblocks facing them. Achievement supplants the quality and extent of connectedness with others.

Langer, F., (2003). frank.langer@ALIENS.COM Sunday 7 September (2003). Re: MMPI-2/Rorschach follow-up. Rorschach@MAELSTROM.ST.JOHNS.EDU.

Scale 9 (Ma) may also reflect a fear of frustrations to come, which displaces the enjoyment of the present moment (Caldwell, 1984).

Caldwell, A. B., (1984). “Clinical decision making with the MMPI”. Advanced Psychological Institute. Chicago, IL: Northwestern University.

Duckworth and Anderson, (1995) say that Scale 9 (Ma) “…is a measure of psychic energy,” upon which the person “…feels compelled to act…” (p. 267).

They think the number of thoughts a person experiences also increases during hypomanic episodes. Scale 9 (Ma) is the most common scale elevation with college students.

Duckworth, J. C., & Anderson, W .P. (1995). MMPI and MMPI-2: Interpretation Manual for Counselors and Clinicians. Fourth Ed. Bristol, PA: Accelerated Development.

Scale 9 (Ma) descriptors of healthy persons include the terms friendly, expansive, active, enthusiastic, talkative, and involved. Kunce and Anderson (1976); Hovey and Lewis, (1967).

Kunce, J., & Anderson, W., (1976). “Normalizing the MMPI”. Journal of Clinical Psychology 32, 776-780.

Hovey, H., & Lewis, E., (1967). “Semi-automated interpretation of the MMPI”. Journal of Clinical Psychology 23, 123-124.

Scale 9(Ma) may also measure sensation seeking, self-confidence, a sense of being indestructible and disdain for others’ weaknesses (Lachar, 1974).

Lachar, D., (1974). The MMPI: Clinical Assessment and Automated Interpretation. Los Angeles, CA: Western Psychological Services.

Archer (1992) lists the following Scale 9(Ma) features applying to adolescents: Increased personal tempo with increased activity occurs. Action is preferred over thought and contemplation. Impulsivity, restlessness, and distractibility are present. Unrealistic aspirations and goal setting is a problem, which guarantees failure for them. They are extroverted, gregarious, talkative, and filled with energy. They are narcissistic, self-involved, self-infatuated, insensitive to others feelings and ideas as well as prone to rule breaking.

Archer, R. P., (1992). MMPI-A: Assessing Adolescent Psychopathology. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.

Research findings: Siblerud et al., (1998) examined the effect of dental amalgam mercury removal with nine patients on manic depression and related symptoms. The Scale 2 (Dep) and Scale 9(Ma) score showed significant improvement for the amalgam removal group. The amalgam removal group reported a 42% decrease in the number of somatic health problems after amalgam removal.

Silerud, R. L., Motl, J., & Kinholz, E., (1998). “Psychometric evidence that dental amalgam mercury may be an etiological factor in manic depression”. Journal of Orthomolecular Medicine, 13 (1), 31-40.

Comrey (1958 studied the factor content of Scale 9 (Ma). He concluded that this scale has the most content diversity of all of the MMPI scales. Scale 9 (Ma) does not possess the needed factor homogeneity needed to establish statistical and logical relationships.

Comrey, A. L., (1958). “A factor analysis of items on the MMPI Hypomania scale”. Educational & Psychological Measurement 18, 313-323.

Kalichman (1988) collected demographic information and Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory profiles with 16 adult women convicted of murdering their (domestic) partners and 20 adult men convicted of murdering strangers during the course of the crime. The men convicted of murdering strangers had higher elevations on the Hypomania scale than men who murdered (domestic) partners. Women who murdered (domestic) partners had higher elevations on Scale 6 (Pa) and Scale 0 (Sie).

Kalichman, S. C., (1988). “MMPI profiles of women and men convicted of domestic homicide”. Journal of Clinical Psychology 44 (6), (847-853).

Duckworth and Levitt (1985) evaluated 30 swingers from a private metropolitan swinging club who engaged in high risk sexual behaviors with the MMPI. One half had significant clinical scale elevations, most of on Scale 9 (Ma). Two thirds of the group was judged emotionally disturbed, however, they had sufficient ego resources to enable them to cope with their problems.

Duckworth, J., & Levitt, E. E., (1985). “Personality analysis of a swinger’s club”. Lifestyles 8 (1), (35-45).

Baetsen et al., (1985) examined personality characteristics and demographic factors of 23 pregnant women who intended to have an abortion and 23 women who planned to carry to term with the MMPI. Only the Hypomania scale differentiated between the groups, with the abortion group scoring significantly higher on Scale 9 (Ma).

Baetsen, K. L., Rankin, R. E., Fuller, G. B., & Stack, J. M., (1985). “A comparative MMPI study of abortion-seeking women and those who intend to carry their pregnancies to term”. Family Practice Research Journal 4(4), (199-207).

Jurko et al., (1974) administered the MMPI to eight patients who received a pre-thalamotomy. The only significant long-term change was a decrease in the elevation of Scale 9 (Ma).

Jurko, M. F., Andy, O. J., & Giurintano, L .P. (1974). “Changes in the MMPI as a function of thalamotomy”, Journal of Clinical Psychology 30 (4), (569-570).

PROFILE CHARACTERISTICS

Base rates for adolescent males with the 8-9 Pattern on the MMPI-A are 1.50 percent and on the MMPI 1.20 percent. Base rates for adolescent females with the 8-9 Pattern are 1.00 percent and 2.50 percent respectively (Archer, 1997).

Archer, R. P., (1997). MMPI-A: Assessing Adolescent Psychopathology (2nd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Adolescents with the 8-9 Pattern talk, think, and respond rapidly. Their personal tempo is swift. They are high-strung sensation seekers. They are exhibitionistic, dramatic, affected, and ostentatious. They do not look ahead or consider their impact their behavior has upon others. They do not exercise common sense. Therapists say they are clever, sharp-witted, and opportunistic. They think they deserve the best there is. Therapist see the major behavioral problems facing the 8-9 Pattern adolescent is their intemperate release of their urges, passions, desires, and anger. They dislike people in charge of things. They are not hesitant to bad-talk anyone who displeases them (Marks et al., 1974).

Marks, P. A., Seeman, W., & Haller, D. L., (1974). “The Actuarial Use of the MMPI with Adolescents and Adults”. New York: Oxford University Press.

Raskin and Novak (1998) studied the narcissistic personality using the MMPI with two adult non-clinical samples with of 57 and 173 subjects. The Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI) and the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) were administered. Correlations between the NPI and MMPI Scale 9 (Ma) were positive. The NPI has seven factors. Two of these factors, Narcissistic Entitlement and Exploitativeness, were associated with greater maladjustment. The 9-8 and 8-9 Patterns reflect narcissistic personality dynamics in non-clinical samples.

Raskins, R., & Novacek, J. (1998). “An MMPI description of the narcissistic personality”. Journal of Personality Assessment 53, 66-80.

Adults with the 8-9 Pattern present with severe forms of psychopathology. They are unpredictable, excitable, often confused, pacing about, talkative, fearful, and angry. They cannot stay on a topic or any one idea for long. They are readily distracted. Their thinking is disordered (Greene, 2000).

Greene, R. L., (2000). The MMPI-2/MMPI: An Interpretive Manual (2nd Ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Male college students with the 8-9 Pattern are described as unhappy, confused, and worried. Female college students presented as sad, restless, and confused. They lacked social skills. They had conflicts with their mothers, brothers, and sister (Drake and Oetting, 1959).

Drake, L. E., & Oetting, E. R., (1959). “An MMPI code book for counselors”. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.

Marks has written that it is likely that patients with this profile had a childhood characterized by being despised and rejected by a person upon whom life and security depended. Perhaps in some instances the child expressed some peculiar habit or eccentricities or was handicapped in some way, which led others to express anger, hatred and resentment towards the child. A child would self-protect by "shutting down" cognitively and emotionally which would lead in turn to impairments in cognitive and emotional functioning.

Therapy with these patients should concentrate on helping them feel comfortable at the moment. Moving into uncovering therapy too quickly is highly disorganizing to these patients, and change should be avoided. Achieving insight often leads these patients to feeling even more alien and defective. They are very sensitive to hostility and will require a consistent, warm, interactive and positive therapeutic relationship.

These patients have a chronic pattern of protecting themselves against

the frustration and unhappiness associated with failure. It is very likely that parents who had high expectations of success for which the child was given only partial or periodic rewards raised them. Thus, the parents were seen as constantly pushing the child to achieve while at the same time trying to control the resulting surges of energy and impulsivity. The child's needs for reward were then met by the parent's withholding of regular rewards, which increased the drive-state and, in effect, increased the manic tendencies.

The purpose of therapy should be to help the patient stop and enjoy the "here and now." These patients often are future oriented and fearful of the present where they would have to deal with the pain and disappointment of slowing down. They are afraid that if they stop driving themselves they might achieve less in the future. They will need help to distinguish between their own needs and what they want in order to please others. Gestalt techniques are effective in "forcing" them to express their feelings now, rather than trying to deal with events of the past or anticipated events in the future (Marks, P.A., 1987).

Marks, P. A. (1987). The Marks MMPI Adolescent Report and Manual. Wakefield, RI: Applied Innovations.

The base rates derived from a clinical sample of 15,316 from 52 JCAHO accredited psychiatric and substance abuse outpatient, partial hospitalization, and inpatient facilities are:

	Base Rate
Aggregate	1.28
White Adult Males	1.21
White Adolescent Males	0.89
White Adult Females	1.21
White Adolescent Females	0.68
African American Males	1.77
African American Adolescent Males	1.76
African American Adult Females	1.73

DSM-IV DIAGNOSTIC CONSIDERATIONS

The following spectrum of diagnostic considerations has been derived from a clinical sample of 15,316 patients from 52 JCAHO accredited psychiatric and substance abuse outpatient, partial hospitalization, and inpatient facilities. The numbers in parentheses indicate ascending base rates of specific DSM-IV disorders diagnosed within this normative clinical population.

Axis I

30. Schizophrenia, Paranoid Type
70. Schizoaffective Disorder
305. Alcohol Abuse
40. Sedative, Hypnotic, Or Anxiolytic Abuse
90. Other (Or Unknown) Substance Abuse
1. Delusional Disorder
40. Bipolar I Disorder, Most Recent Episode Manic, Unspecified
4. Dysthymic Disorder
30. Impulse-Control Disorder NOS
8. Conduct Disorder

Axis II

301. Paranoid Personality Disorder
22. Schizotypal Personality Disorder
7. Antisocial Personality Disorder
301.81 Narcissistic Personality Disorder