

The Translation and Standardization
of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)
into the Greek Language.

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partial fulfilment of the requirement of the degree of
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Abstract

The project describes the development and standardization of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator into the Greek language. Statistical properties of the Greek version were comparable to those of the original American version providing evidence of its adequacy as a psychometric tool. The comparison of the distribution of types of Greek university students (N= 946) with that of French Canadians, and Americans showed a preference for "thinking" and "perceiving". Further, gender associated preferences for thinking and feeling evident in the American and French Canadian norms were also present in the Greek data.

Résumé

La présente étude décrit l'adaptation et la standardisation du "MBTI" en langue grecque. Les propriétés statistiques de la version grecque sont comparables à celles de la version originale américaine, ce qui remplit les conditions de la nouvelle version comme util psychométrique. Les étudiant(e)s universitaires grecs en comparaison avec les franco-canadiens et américains, montrent préférences pour la "pensée" et la "perception". En plus, la préférence "pensée" chez les hommes et le "sentiment" chez les femmes apparaissent aussi bien dans la population grecque que dans la franco-canadienne et dans l'américaine.

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Dedication

This work is dedicated to my family Giota, Spyros, Linda, Maki, and Sue for teaching me the true meaning of courage and love.

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Introduction

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) is one of the most widely used personality questionnaires presently being utilized with non-psychiatric populations. The Indicator, based on Jung's theory of Psychological Types (1923), examines basic perceptive and decision-making personality preferences.

The MBTI is utilized by counsellors and personnel in the helping professions in a variety of settings including schools, counselling centres, and businesses as a means of better understanding underlying, unchanging preferences of personality. As a result of its popularity, the MBTI has been translated and administered in several other languages including Chinese (Williams, Williams & Li Xuemei, 1992), French (Casas, 1990), Korean (Sim, 1990), and Spanish (Inclan, 1986).

The present project includes two studies. The first study describes the development of a Greek translation of the MBTI. Psychometric properties of the Greek translation are presented and compared to the original American version of the MBTI as a means of providing psychometric and statistical evidence of its adequacy as a culturally valid and reliable instrument that can be used with Greek speaking individuals.

The second study describes standardization procedures

carried out on a Greek version of the MBTI. Normative personality type data on 946 Greek participants are compiled. Further, personality type distributions of the Greek sample are presented and compared to French Canadian, and American samples. Other research has illustrated distinct cultural variations in relation to MBTI personality preference patterns (Casas, 1990). Greek personality patterns are examined in order to identify various similarities and differences in relation to American and Canadian personality distributions.

In addition to being used in Greece, the Greek translation of the MBTI can be used in the diaspora, since there is a large Greek immigrant population in which the MBTI could serve as a useful tool in areas of increased self awareness, improved interpersonal relations, career guidance, and counselling. Further, cultural identification of distinct Greek personality distribution patterns could also prove beneficial in better understanding and working with individuals from a Greek cultural background.

Literature Review

Personality Measurement in Psychology

The two main reasons psychologists utilize personality measurement include the identification of personality constructs, and secondly in applied settings for selection and classification purposes. This section will briefly describe the historical roots of the study of personality measurement and its specific uses in psychology.

The study of personality measurement, and in general psychological measurement, is derived from the psychology of individual differences which can be described as the "quantitative description of differences in psychological attributes among individuals and groups and the study of the antecedents and consequences of such differences" (Dawis, 1992, p. 7). One of the main contributors involved in the development of this field was Galton. He conceptualized present notions of "standard score" and "correlation" as means of measuring and comparing psychological attributes (Dawis, 1992). Based on the psychology of individual differences the field of psychological measurement or psychometry was initiated by Binet and his classical work in testing intelligence (Dawis, 1992). Dawis (1992) explains the significant effect psychometry had on psychology:

The psychological test was the invention that revolutionized psychological science, comparable in its

impact to the telescope in physics and the microscope in biology. It opened up a new world for psychology to explore. The psychological test became the vehicle for what may be called the normal science (p. 10).

Particular measurements of personality were initially utilized to diagnose and classify abnormal behaviour in clinical settings. Two of the popular personality measurements utilized for such purposes are the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) and the Rorschach Inkblock Test. Proponents of this kind of diagnostic testing have advocated their use claiming that they serve as an appropriate way of ascertaining the nature of a particular dysfunction and assigning an appropriate treatment. Critics warn though of the dangers of labelling and stereotyping individuals, claiming this kind of classification as ineffectual.

However, the initial focus on identifying psychopathology led to investigations of what constituted normality. W. Allport (1961) was a figurehead in this area proposing that the most adequate way of assessing "normal" individuals is through the systematic observation of their behaviour (Kleinmuntz, 1967). Maslow (1962) also focused on identifying normality through the examination of outstanding individuals and their personality characteristics (Kleinmuntz, 1967).

Based on its heritage of psychological measurement and individual differences, personality measurement is presently being utilized in a variety of applied and research areas. The measurement of personality continues to play a major role in clinical diagnosis of psychopathology. Further, in counselling and psychotherapy, uses of the personality measure include pre- and post-testing to evaluate the effectiveness of treatment (Kleinmuntz, 1967). Assessments of personality characteristics are also carried in conjunction with interest, and aptitude measures in vocational counselling as a means of getting a more complete assessment of an individual (Kleinmuntz, 1967). The use of personality measures is particularly useful in choosing individuals for particular positions in academic and occupational settings (Kleinmuntz, 1967). Psychologists also carry out research with personality inventories as a means of verifying the adequacy of the instruments themselves or for selecting samples based on personality characteristics (Kleinmuntz, 1967). Finally, from a theoretical perspective, psychologists also utilize personality measurements to identify and further understand underlying theoretical constructs of personality that can be measured and associated with particular patterns of behaviours (Kleinmuntz, 1967).

In summary, psychometry has revolutionized the science

of psychology by providing a means of objectively measuring psychological variables. Personality measurement has been used in a variety of applied and research settings as means of helping mental health professionals.

The Usefulness of the MBTI

According to McCaulley (1989), the MBTI is "one of the most widely used psychological measure, and is being translated into languages on every continent (P. 13). Indeed, the main purpose of the present study is the development of a Greek translation of the MBTI. Macdaid (1987) reports that in 1985, the Centre for Applications of Psychological Type's MBTI bibliography included well over 1000 references. The popularity and widespread use of the indicator may partially be due to the fact the MBTI can be applied in most of the areas discussed in the previous section regarding the functions of personality measures. It is utilized in education, as a general means of maximizing learning potential of all types as well as in personal and vocational counselling as a method of positively reframing individual differences and reinforcing individual strengths. Overall, in its short history, the MBTI has become the most widely used personality measure with non-pathological populations and can be used effectively with many different kind of populations in a variety of educational, occupational and clinical settings.

Jung's Psychological Type Theory and MBTI Typology

The MBTI was developed by Isabel Briggs Myers and Katherine Briggs in 1943 as a practical application of Jung's (1923) theory of Psychological Types. According to Jung (1923), behaviour can be described and categorized based on how individuals'prefer to use perception and judgment. Jung's view of personality type revolved around distinctions people use in taking in information and processing that information (Jung, 1923). He defined basic psychological processes (attitudes and functions) merging together to form personality. Thus, individuals' personalities are formed through developing particular preferred styles of perception and judgement (Jung, 1923).

Attitudes

Attitudes can be defined and distinguished by the direction in which psychic energy is directed, inward for introverts and outward for extraverts. Jung (1923) distinguished between two general complementary attitudes, introversion and extraversion. In the latter, individuals primarily direct their mental functioning toward the external, objective world as a means of adaptation. For extraverts', the object is the primary means of guidance in terms of survival. Jung (1923) described this kind of individual as open and sociable constantly affirming the power of the object. By contrast introverts' primarily

focus on the subjective experience as a means of adaptation. Subjective ideas and concepts are utilized as a primary orientation for mental functioning. Jung (1923) described introverts' as shy and reserved withdrawing energy from the object as a means of adaptation.

Introversion and extraversion. Attitudes, based on Jungian typology, examine complementary orientations toward life. Introversion is described as libido flowing toward subjective psychic structures, and extraversion as libido channelled into representations of the objective world (Hall & Nordby, 1973, p. 97). "In the introverted attitude (I) energy is drawn from the environment, and consolidated within one's position. In the extraverted attitude (E), attention seems to flow out, or to be drawn out, to the objects and people of the environment" (Myers & McCauley, 1985, p. 13).

In conjunction with attitudes, there are also particular mental functions which are utilized for perception and decision making. Thus, according to Jung (1923), attitudes refer to habitual patterns of orientation (introversion and extraversion) in which these functions direct themselves toward.

Functions

Sensing and perceiving. Jung (1923) pointed out two distinct ways of perceiving information. One way is through

sensation (S), which refers to perception through the five senses. The other, intuition (N), permits perception beyond what is attainable to the senses focusing on future possibilities, meanings and relationships (Myers & McCaulley, 1985,). Jung conceptualized these functions as irrational in the sense that, "they are attuned to the flow of events and operate most broadly when not constrained by rational direction" (Myers & McCaulley, 1985, p. 12).

Thinking and feeling. Jung (1923) also conceptualized thinking (T) and feeling functions (F) as two different ways of making decisions about perceptions. He defined thinking and feeling as rational or judging functions. They are conceptualized as being directed toward bringing life events into harmony with the laws of reason" (Myers & McCaulley, 1985, p. 12). Specifically, these functions operate on a more evaluative level, making judgements of what has already been perceived. "Thinking consists of connecting ideas with each other in order to arrive at a general concept or a solution to a problem (Hall & Nordby, 1973, p. 99). Thinking is analytical and impersonal in nature. By contrast, the feeling function rejects or accepts ideas based on the evocation of pleasant or unpleasant feelings (Hall & Nordby, 1973, p. 99). Feeling is more personal, utilizing subjectivity to make decisions.

Personality Formation.

Thus, particular types of personality are formed through the various combinations of attitudes and functions mentioned above. Jung (1923) briefly described eight possible types (sensing extravert, intuitive extravert, thinking extravert, feeling extravert, sensing introvert, intuitive introvert, thinking introvert, feeling introvert).

One of the four functions is always dominant within one's personality type. For example in the case of a "thinking extravert," thinking is the dominant function. This dominant function is conscious, while the other three remain unconscious, or sporadically conscious due to lack of development. Ideally, conscious and unconscious functions interact in a complementary fashion. The dominant function is conscious and utilized more often, yet expression of the remaining functions are apparent and necessary for a balanced personality. Indeed Jung (1923) referred to a secondary auxiliary function influencing personality in conjunction with a dominant function, but did not incorporate this principle in the description of his eight types.

Psychopathology and maladjustment result when the dominant function takes on an exaggerated role depriving the unconscious of psychic energy. The unconscious compensates antagonistically through the expression of regressive characteristics of the less differentiated functions. For

example, if the conscious dominant function is thinking, and is accentuated to an extreme, unconscious, undifferentiated manifestations of the its opposite function, feeling, will function in an oppositional manner.

According to Jung (1923), preferred mental processes that make up one's psychological type are inherent from birth and are equally effective in terms of adaptation. They are equally apparent among all classes, gender, race, and religion. He also argued that the diverse type distributions among children in the same families are evidence that personality type is present from birth and is not the result of environmental conditioning (Jung, 1923).

For Jung, optimal human development required excelling in preferred functions, while also being able to adequately utilize other less preferred ones. "Environmental interference with type development could result in a "falsification" of type. Falsified individuals may become skilful in using an initially less-preferred function, but may also be less content, may feel less competent, or may be out of touch with their own best gifts" (Myers & McCaulley, 1985, p. 15).

In summary, the MBTI is based on the theoretical assumptions of Jung's (1923) Psychological Types. The basic proposition is that personality type is based on particular combinations of habitual modes of life attitudes and on

perceptive and decision making functions. Based on these various combinations of attitudes and functions Jung described eight personality types, and the particular psychological attributes ascribed to each.

MBTI Typology

In accordance with Jung's theory of psychological type, Isabel Briggs Myers and Katherine Briggs developed the MBTI as a means of identifying psychological type. The purpose of the Indicator was to describe individuals as they really are. They supplemented Jungian theory by operationalizing the principle of the auxiliary function and including it as an integral part of typological make-up. As mentioned earlier, Jung (1923) stated that in conjunction with the dominant function a secondary less differentiated auxiliary function also exists in consciousness and has an influence on personality. For example, if intuition is the dominant function then either thinking or feeling becomes the auxiliary function. According to Myers and Myers (1980) the auxiliary function provides a balance between perception and judgement. With this explicit inclusion of the auxiliary function in MBTI theory, 16, compared Jung's eight type distinctions become possible. In other words for every dominant function, two possible auxiliary functions are possible doubling the type possibilities.

In addition, MBTI theory (Myers & Myers, 1980) posits a

necessary balance between introversion and extraversion in personality make-up and the important role the auxiliary function provides in this process. Myers and Myers (1980) elaborate the latter idea as follows:

The basic principle that the auxiliary provides needed extraversion for the introverts and needed introversion for the extraverts is vitally important. The extraverts' auxiliary gives them access to their own inner life and to the world of ideas; the introverts' auxiliary gives them a means to adapt to the world of action and to deal with it effectively (p. 19).

Myers (Myers & Myers, 1980) also expanded on Jungian type theory by creating detailed broad surface characteristics of each of the 16 types.

Finally, Myers (Myers & Myers, 1980) also included a judgment (J)/perception (P) dichotomy which in conjunction with the introversion/extraversion dichotomy serves to identify an individual's dominant or most preferred function. As mentioned, Jung's theory gave special emphasis to the notions of perception and judgement. Briggs and Myers operationalized these ideas as the final component of personality type. This judging/perceiving scale examines whether one prefers utilizing rational (judging) or irrational (perceiving) functions in dealing with the outer world. A judging attitude would involve dealing with the

outer world in a very organized and orderly way, a perceiving attitude would involve dealing with the outer world in a less structured, spontaneous fashion.

It should be emphasized that all functions and attitudes are utilized by individuals in different situations. For example individuals are introverted in some situations and extraverted in others. The MBTI is designed to identify those attitudes and functions that are most preferred. Further, the descriptions of the sixteen types are broad surface traits of each type. No one individual fits these descriptions perfectly. All types have equal value in that they provide people with practical information about their preferred style of being. No one type is wrong or right and all types are present in the general population.

To summarize, Myers developed the MBTI as a practical means of identifying psychological types. She modified Jungian type theory by including the auxiliary function as an explicit aspect of type make-up. In doing this she incorporated more balance in personality between perceptive and judgement orientations, as well as introverted and extraverted attitudes. She further developed a bipolar judging and perceiving scale as a means of assessing in conjunction with introversion and extraversion attitudes, which types of functions are preferred for use in the outer

world. Based on the aforementioned elaborations of Jungian theory, Myers described 16 possible personality types. Specifically MBTI personality type is identified through the particular preferences an individual possesses on each of four dichotomous scales. These include introversion/extraversion, sensing/intuition, thinking/feeling, and judging/perceiving. A particular type, for example, ESTJ, is the combination of extraverted, sensing, thinking and judging preferences forming a unique personality style based on the culmination of these particular functions and attitudes.

Methodological Issues Regarding the MBTI

Although there has been a considerable amount of research carried out on the MBTI, controversy regarding its utility as a valid instrument has been apparent. Several key issues have been brought up by critics. First, although MBTI theory is similar and based on Jung's theory of Psychological Type, Isabel Myers indeed modified and excluded some of the tenets of Jung's theory. MBTI theory, for example, does not incorporate compensatory processes of the unconscious, or the role the unconscious takes in connection to dominant and auxiliary functions (Pittenger, 1993; Garden, 1991). Criticism has resulted due to this lack of strict adherence to Jungian theory. At the same time advocates of the Indicator claim alignment to the broader

themes of Jungian theory (Pittenger, 1993).

The biggest controversy surrounding the MBTI involves its structural model of bipolar discontinuous types (Pittenger, 1993; McCrae & Costa, 1989; Hicks, 1984 & Stricker & Ross, 1964) According to the authors of the indicator each of the four scales consist of two qualitatively dichotomous types. Thus, for example, introverts and extraverts are considered two separate populations utilizing an absolute zero point to separate individuals into one type or the other. Attempts at verifying the explicit typology of the MBTI have focused on illustrating bimodal scoring distributions of preference scores, discontinuities of distributions when the dichotomies are plotted against a criterion variable, test-retest reliabilities of type preferences, as well as consistency of frequency distributions between and within criterion groups with theoretical predictions (Wiggins, 1989).

Evidence in research for the first two criteria have been weak (Pittenger, 1993; McCrae & Costa, 1989; Hicks, 1984 & Stricker & Ross, 1964). However, the MBTI manual does report discontinuities in introversion and extraversion scores of gregariousness (Myers & McCaulley, 1985). Hicks (1984) also illustrated discontinuities in sensing and intuition scores when plotted against numbers of books read.

Intuitive types read significantly more books than sensing types.

Reliability measures of the indicator based on internal consistency, and test-retest figures have illustrated adequate results. The thinking/feeling scale has shown the lowest reliability measures (Carlson, 1985; Devito, 1985; Carlyn, 1977; Stricker & Ross, 1964 & Siegal, 1962). Finally, evidence of consistency between frequency distributions of criterion groups and predicted theoretical expectations are adequate and illustrated well in the manual (Myers & McCaulley, 1985; Myers & Myers 1980).

In summary, research does not corroborate the claims that the MBTI is explicitly typological. Yet, as Wiggin's (1989) states:

For those who prefer to interpret the MBTI as a set of four normally-distributed bipolar continuous scales, there is a wealth of external validity information presented in the extensive manual (actually a handbook) that provides a reasonably consistent picture of what the individual scales do and do not measure (p. 538).

MBTI Application with Greek Populations

As previously mentioned, the MBTI has been one of the most widely used personality measures with non-psychiatric populations (McCaulley, 1989). Taking into account that one of the major goals of this study is to develop and utilize a

Greek version of the MBTI with Greek populations, the next section will briefly discuss selective studies carried out in specialized areas which might be relevant in working with Greek populations.

In a counselling setting, Sherman (1981) demonstrated several clear correlations between MBTI type and problems in intimate relationships among couples. The fewest problems were reported by those couples with the same type followed next by couples with opposite types. Further, all males (extraverted or introverted) reported fewer relationship problems with introverted females. Fewer problems were also reported when sensing types were paired with other sensing types. By contrast intuitive types reported more problems when paired with other intuitive types. Interestingly, judging types reported the greatest degree of marriage satisfaction when paired with another judging type. By contrast, judging types also reported the greatest marital dissatisfaction when paired with a perceiving type. In working with couples the MBTI serves as an excellent means of allowing individuals to better understand their own, as well as their partners personality styles.

In another study, Killman and Thomas (1975) attempted to correlate interpersonal modes of handling conflict with MBTI type. The feeling function correlated significantly with an accommodating style of conflict management, while

extraversion was significantly related to integrative, assertive, and cooperative modes of dealing with conflict.

The two previous studies illustrate the MBTI's utility in counselling, identifying important sources of couples' difficulties, as well as preferences in terms of conflict management style.

The MBTI is also frequently utilized in career counselling as a non-threatening way of self-concept exploration in hopes of identifying particular occupational interests and expectations. In theory, occupations should attract particular types and type distributions of related occupations should be similar. For example, as a group psychologists, should have a distinct overrepresentation of a particular type (typically NF) and that the type distribution of psychologists should be similar to sociologists.

The main goal of using the MBTI in career counselling is to match ones preferred styles of being with an occupation which provides tasks and a context to utilize and develop these preferred functions. Pinkney (1983) suggested the MBTI be utilized as an alternative to the Strong Campbell Interest Inventory in career counselling. Interestingly, he reports the utilization of the MBTI in the counselling process would increase active self exploration resulting in better informed career decisions. Further, in a

study examining career development and personality, Apostol (1988) illustrated that students who had career interests in producing ideas were intuitive and intuitive-thinking oriented, while students who had career interests in helping other people were more feeling and sensing-feeling oriented. These results confirm MBTI theory, and illustrate the potential of using the MBTI in terms of career guidance.

Education is another area in which the MBTI has been applied. Moody (1988) examined how personality effects language learning. The purpose of the study was to examine particular learning preferences of language students, and how they compared to other students in other fields (science, engineering, and business).

The results illustrated that language learners, engineering, and science students tend to prefer learning approaches that rely more on intuitive functions, introversion, and judging attitudes. Business students on the other hand preferred learning approaches involving a sensing preference with extraverted, perceiving attitudes.

In another study examining language learning strategies and personality type, Ehrman and Oxford (1989) illustrated that intuitive types used more language learning strategies than sensing types. Further, in a later study examining language learning styles and strategies, these same authors (1990) found that greater learning occurred with a greater

utilization of a variety of learning strategies. It was found that intuitive types utilized more varied learning strategies.

All these studies point to the notion that a different psychological type is indicative of different types of preferred learning strategies making the MBTI a useful measure in identifying appropriate means of maximizing learning. In terms of second language acquisition, intuitive types appear to be at an advantage. A better understanding of second language acquisition would prove valuable to Greek society which values working knowledge of several languages.

In summary, research, whether in the area of counselling, business or education, show ample reason why the MBTI would serve as an appropriate psychometric tool to be utilized within Greek culture. Its function in identifying, and positively reinforcing distinct personality styles has proven to be an effective means of helping individuals to better understand and value themselves.

Thus far, the present paper has attempted a description of the theoretical and practical components of the MBTI emphasizing its usefulness in a variety of areas for Greek culture. The next section will describe the necessity of developing a culturally valid version of the MBTI that can be used effectively with Greek populations.

Cultural Comparisons Utilizing the MBTI

Recent emphasis on cultural sensitivity in counselling culturally diverse populations has brought on the emergence of multiculturalism as the fourth force in psychology (Pedersen, 1991). From this perspective, culture is the culmination of numerous factors including demographic variables, status variables, affiliations and ethnographic variables. In this sense, culturally internalized norms are shaped by the various interactions of where we live, what language we speak, age, sex, occupation, parental rearing, to name only a few. This broader definition of culture has replaced narrower notions emphasizing ethnographic variables such as nationality, religion and language as the sole components of culture.

Further, the emphasis on cultural sensitivity in working with clients has resulted in treatment nuances such as cultural matching of therapist and client, action oriented interventions, as well as pre-requisite knowledge of clients cultural background (Dobbins & Skillings, 1991).

In addition to emphasizing the complexity of cultural factors and how they shape identity, the broader definition of multiculturalism has also emphasized the inclusion of universal components evident across cultures. The field of psychology has traditionally focused on identifying the underlying universal make-up of human nature.

Anthropologists, by contrast have studied the idiographic differences of cultures. On the whole, multicultural theory, incorporates a combination of cultural relativism, and universalistic perspectives (Pedersen, 1991) This is illustrated in the following passage by Pedersen (1991), "The multicultural perspective seeks to provide a conceptual framework that recognizes the complex diversity of a plural society while, at the same time, suggesting bridges of shared concern that bind culturally different persons to one another" (P. 7).

In association with this duality of multiculturalism, Ho (1995) also distinguishes between exploring culture through quantitative group differences as well qualitative individual perspectives. That is culture can be examined from a general macro-perspective involving how different cultural groups differ, or through an individual's personal experience with enculturation. For Ho (1995) the individualized approach of understanding culture, a construct he names "internalized culture" refers to, "cultural influences operating within the individual that shape (not determine) personality formation and various aspects of psychological functioning" (P. 5). The latter notion according to Ho (1995) is more relevant in counselling as compared to being aware of inter-group differences.

Having taken into consideration the latter points, the present paper will present an approach to cross-cultural awareness incorporating the potential of examining culture from a qualitative and quantitative perspective.

The practice of administering various psychological tests to ethnic and minority populations utilizing inappropriate norms as a means of comparison has not been an uncommon occurrence. Results of cross cultural testing have often illustrated pathological findings in non-traditional populations (Zuckerman, 1990; Gould, 1981 & Edgerton, 1950)). Despite these spurious findings, few attempts have been made to use culturally appropriate norms in examining non traditional populations. An exception to this has been Eysenck's (1983) efforts in developing standardized translations of his personality test, and comparing personality norms of 25 countries. Indeed Eysenck (1983) concluded that standardized translations of his personality test resulted in more culturally accurate norms. He also found that the test's constructs were evident across all cultures examined.

Similar efforts have recently been made to standardize and validate the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator for use in various cultures. Spanish (Inclan, 1986) French (Casas, 1990), Korean (Sim, 1992), and Chinese (Williams, Williams & Li Xuemei, 1992) translations have been developed.

Particular scoring key norms have also been developed for Canadian populations as well. This has not only provided an accurate assessment of Myers-Briggs personality type within various cultures, but also the means of validly comparing personality distribution patterns across culture.

Casas (1990) developed a French translation of the MBTI and compared personality distributions of French Canadian university students with U.S. and French European university students. In relation to U.S. norms, Canadian Francophone students demonstrated a preference in introversion, thinking, and judging. In addition, European-Francophones significantly preferred thinking and perceiving compared to French Canadian students. In a follow-up study (Stalikas, Casas, & Carson, 1996), personality preferences of Quebec and Ontario Anglophone and Francophone students were compared to examine the effect of minority/majority status and linguistic grouping on personality type. Interestingly, findings indicated opposite type preferences. Canadian Francophones preferred introversion, sensing, thinking and judging, while Canadian Anglophones preferred intuition, feeling, and perceiving. It was found that minority/majority status had no effect on personality type explaining the opposite preferences based on linguistic grouping.

Williams, Williams & Li Xuemei (1992) examined MBTI

type distributions of Chinese undergraduates in relation to U.S. and Canadian Francophone norms. It was found that Chinese students expressed significantly more preferences for thinking and judging functions compared to the other cultural samples. The authors explain these preferences as being due to a test-oriented, highly structured Chinese educational system which values thinking and judging personality preferences.

All of the cultural MBTI comparisons referred to above support the Jungian personality theory that all types are present in all cultures. Further there appears to be a female overrepresentation of feeling and a male overrepresentation of thinking in males in all cultures thus far discussed. This is also consistent with Jungian personality theory. At the same time there also appear to be possible cultural differences between Chinese and American and Canadian students, as well as anglophone and francophone Canadian students.

However, Ho (1995) cogently warns of several severe methodological and ideological pitfalls in making group cultural comparisons. These include the often mentioned problem of cultural variation within the groups being compared, as well as the possibility of similar cultural values shared by groups in different cultures. Another issue which also merits special attention is the creation of

inaccurate static cultural stereotypes as a result of ethnic group comparison studies. Indeed, the notion of culture is far from a static notion, and research that examines cultures factors need to take into account the development and constant change of cultures (Ho, 1995). Further, research has tended to utilize American norms as reference points. However, according to Ho (1995) American patterns may in fact be more unconventional. Lastly, the individual who has been shaped by multi-cultural experiences also provides a serious problem to cultural group comparisons.

Based on the above points, it becomes quite evident that caution should be taken in making group cultural comparisons based on very broad categorizations (language, nationality, and religion) of what culture signifies. Although the present project will indeed make such comparisons, this exercise is not the primary purpose of the project. More importantly, the development of a valid Greek translation will provide the opportunity for its use in Greek culture. In accordance with Ho's (1995) notion of internalized culture, the MBTI could also serve as a useful tool in individual exploration of cultural factors involved in personality development.

In general, the practice of testing or personality measurement is carried out as a means of making particular important decisions about individuals or groups (Borg &

Gall, 1989). As mentioned in the first section of this paper, personality measurement is utilized in a variety of clinical and academic settings. For these reasons, the development of a standardized personality measure is an extremely important process.

The MBTI continues to be a widely used non-psychiatric personality measure that has been shown to be effective in a wide range of contexts. Its basic premise in attempting to identify positive adaptive styles of personality, make it an excellent choice for use with other cultures.

The present project attempted to carry out the development and standardization of the MBTI into the Greek language. According to Borg and Gall (1989) the defining characteristics of standardized measures include objectivity, standard conditions of administration, normative data, reliability and validity. The present project developed a Greek translation of the MBTI in adherence to the characteristics of a standardized measure just referred to. Two studies were to be carried out to do so as specifically described in the introduction. To reiterate, the first study involved various translation procedures used to develop a valid and reliable Greek version of the MBTI. Psychometric properties of the Greek version were then compared to the original American version of the MBTI as a means of verifying the adequacy of the

Greek MBTI version. The collection of normative personality distribution data utilizing the Greek translation of the MBTI occurred in the second study. Cultural group personality comparisons with French Canadian, and American norms were then made with the collected Greek norm data.

Study 1

Methodology

Participants

Two separate sample were used in the study.

Greek law university students. The first included 42 (18=male female=24) Greek university students registered in the faculty of law at the University of Thessalonika. The mean age was 25.6 years. The participants completed the Greek version of the Indicator (see below under Instrument) twice over an 8 week interval as part of the initial verification of Indicator's reliability and clarity of instructions.

McGill bilingual university students. The second sample consisted of 32 (Male=12 Female=20) McGill University students proficient in both English and Greek. Subjects were registered in the Faculty of Education, with a mean age of 24.6. This sample completed both the English and Greek versions of the MBTI as a means of verifying text equivalence between the Greek and American versions of the MBTI.

Instrument

The first 95 items of form G of the MBTI were utilized in the translation process. This is consistent with the manuals instructions when using the MBTI for research purposes. These items have been shown to accurately

identify psychological type (Myers & McCaulley, 1985).

The MBTI consists of forced choice questions that take into account behavioral preferences, as well as preferred self descriptions. The Indicator is based on four bipolar scales including introversion/extraversion; sensing/intuition; thinking/feeling; and judging/perceiving. Personality type is derived from the strongest preference of one of the opposite constructs of the four scales. (e.g. ENFP). These scales can be scored utilizing continuous scores, or preference scores. For the purpose of the present research continuous scores were utilized to compare statistical properties of the Greek translation to the original American version.

Procedure

The development of a Greek version of the MBTI. With the permission of Consulting Psychologists' Press, the translation of Form G of the MBTI into the Greek language was undertaken. Translation criteria utilized for the Greek translation adhered to Casas's (1992) five basic steps of constructing a valid translation of MBTI. In summary, the steps utilized to develop the Greek translation of the MBTI included initial modification of an older Greek version of the MBTI, as well as back translations from Greek to English to verify the appropriateness of the initial translation. The next step involved verifying the clarity of instructions

and reliability of the Greek version of the MBTI by having a sample of Greek university students complete the Greek version twice over an eight week period. Finally, verification of the content validity of the Greek version was carried out by assessing the consistency of continuous scores of bilingual students completing both American and Greek versions of the MBTI. Personality type results were then reported to the subjects in order to confirm the accuracy of the reported personality type.

Results and Discussion

The first step involved developing a text equivalent to the Form G English version of the MBTI. An older Greek translation of the MBTI, which was used for research purposes, and provided by Consulting Psychologists' Press was modified by two psychologists proficient in both Greek and English. The main intent of the latter process was to find words and sentences which had cultural meaning in Greek, while at the same time adhering to the psychological processes which the questions were intended to measure.

After this initial translation, the second step was to re-translate (back translation) from Greek to English to further ensure text equivalence. Back translations were performed by three bilingual (Greek and English) psychologists with expert knowledge in Jungian and MBTI theory. Neither the order of questions nor the structure of

the indicator were changed. Following this back translation, minor modifications were conducted and the translation was finalized.

The third step involved ensuring the clarity of instructions as well as the reliability of the Greek version, forty two Greek university students completed the indicator twice over an eight-week interval. Table 1 indicates test-retest Pearson Correlation Coefficients using continuous scores. These coefficients reached satisfactory levels, consistent with the data presented in the MBTI manual (Myers & McCaulley, 1985).

As a fourth step, the Greek, and American versions of the MBTI were given to a sample of 32 students proficient in both Greek and English. Half the participants completed the Greek MBTI version, and half the American MBTI version first. After an eight week interval participants were retested, this time with the other language MBTI version. The purpose of this procedure was to ensure text equivalence. Text equivalence of the MBTI versions were based on the consistency of continuous scores across language. Table 2 illustrates test-retest correlation coefficients. Results indicate consistent continuous scores across language, providing evidence of the content validity of the Greek Indicator.

Interscale correlations of bilingual students

completing the MBTI in Greek and English are illustrated in Table 3. Interscale correlations of the Greek Indicator are satisfactory and similar to those reported by participants who used the American MBTI version (Myers & McCaulley, 1985; Casas, 1990).

The fifth step involved the examination of reported type as indicated by the Greek Indicator and was designed to ensure that reported types were accurate. This was assessed by asking the bilingual participants if their reported types were indeed indicative of their personality preferences. Table 4 reports that the majority of the participants (78%) agreed with Greek Indicator's assessment on all four scales.

Overall, results illustrated that the provisional Greek translation had satisfactory reliability and validity and merited further use. Reliability and validity measures of the Greek Indicator were comparable to those of the American MBTI version, and as a result the Greek version was utilized in the standardization process.

Study 2

Methodology

Participants

The normative Greek sample. Nine hundred and forty-six Greek students from the University of Athens, and the University of Thessaloniki completed the Greek version of the MBTI. The sample consisted of 620 students (65%) in

Humanities or Arts programs and 313 students (35%) in Science programs. The breakdown of students and program of study are presented in Table 5. The mean age of the total sample was 23.4 years, 24% male and 76% female. Thirty seven percent of females and 28% of males were registered in Science programs.

The French Canadian sample. One thousand and twenty-four Ontario French Canadian students from the University of Ottawa completed the French version of MBTI as one normative sample utilized during the process of standardizing the Indicator in the French language (Casas, 1990). Casas summarizes the development of the French version including support for its comparability to the American version, as well as demonstration of adequate reliability and validity (Casas, 1990). The sample consisted of 250 francophone students (24%) in Science programs, 261 Social Science or Humanities programs (25%), 303 in the Faculty of Arts (30%), and 210 in professional Science and Humanities programs (21%). Thirty-five percent of the total sample was male. The modal age of the sample was 19 years. As it can be seen the two samples are comparable to one another in terms of number, gender and program selection.

Traditional American college age sample. The data for the Greek normative sample was also compared to "American Traditional Age College Students" (N=27,156) (Macdaid,

McCaulley, & Kainz, 1986).

Instrument

Normative Greek personality type data was collected utilizing the Greek version of the MBTI developed in study 1.

Procedure

The standardization of the Greek version of the MBTI.

Having developed a valid and reliable Greek version of the MBTI in the first study, the main purpose of the present study was the standardization of the Greek MBTI version through the collection of normative Greek data as well as the comparison of this data with archival French Canadian and American personality distributions.

The main variables considered were age, gender and program of study, which previous research has shown to affect type selection (Casas, 1992). During the collection of normative Greek data, administration conditions were standardized. The test was taken in a group classroom setting with identical instructions (translated version of the American indicator) given to all subjects. The sample was drawn to match French Canadian samples used by Casas (1990) and American traditional college-age groups (Macdaid, McCaulley & Kainz, 1986) in order to appropriately compare personality preferences of the different cultural groups, as well as to validate career and gender differences predicted

by Jungian and MBTI type theory (Myers & Myers, 1980).

Type table distributions were utilized to present the sample data. This is the standard representation of data in MBTI research allowing for a visual impression of frequency distributions of the various groups examined. Further, the type tables offer precise breakdown of the percentages and numbers of the types and type groupings (Macdaid, 1987)

The computer software program Selection Ratio Type Table (SRTT) developed by the Center for Application of Psychological Type (CAPT) was utilized to assess significant differences in type frequencies of the various samples in the present study. The program incorporates the chi-square statistic to assess whether observed frequencies are equivalent to expected frequencies. A selection ratio is calculated by dividing the observed frequency by the expected frequency. A selection ratio of 1.00 signifies equal expected and observed frequencies. A ratio above or below this indicates overrepresentation or underrepresentation compared to a reference group (Granade, Hatfield, Smith, & Beasley, 1987). The SRTT produces output from 44 separate analyses on a one-page type table format (Macdaid 1987). It compares every single type combination between two particular groups being examined for significant frequency differences.

An item analysis was also incorporated on the Greek

data after it had been scored using the American scoring key. The purpose of the item analysis was to develop appropriate item weights illustrating how items of the Greek indicator discriminate in Greek culture. A computer software program written by Casas (1990) was utilized to run the item analysis. It was based on the prediction ratio formula used by Briggs in the standardization of the American version of the Indicator (Briggs & McCaulley, 1985). According to the manual, "the prediction ratio shows the probability that any response is given in accord with the total scale score (i.e., the probability that a response designed for J's is given by J's and not given by P's)" (P.146). The prediction ratio also takes into account the social desirability of item responses. If more than 50% with the opposite preference respond then the item is not included. To further enhance precision, preference score differences of greater than two, are only included in the item analysis. Finally prediction ratio's for males and females are scored separately with a .62 cutoff signifying an item weight of 1 and a .72 cutoff an item weight of 2.

Finally correlational measures were utilized to verify the statistical properties of the Greek Indicator based on scoring of the normative sample. Continuous scores were utilized in all statistical analyses. Pearson Moment Correlation Coefficients were calculated to assess

interscale correlations.

Results and Discussion

Item analysis. Preliminary scoring of the Greek version was carried out utilizing the American scoring weights, since it was not known which items would best discriminate between types in the Greek culture. Subsequently, an item analysis program was carried out on the Greek data to identify culturally unique item weights. This not only served to create a more accurate scoring key, but also to identify cultural variations in which items discriminate. Table 6 compares item discriminant weights of Greek, American, and French versions of the MBTI.

For the most part, the Greek version discriminated as well as the American, and French Canadian versions. However, introversion, extraversion and feeling scales show lower discriminant power on the Greek version suggesting greater item popularity. For example, it appears that more extraverted types responded to introverted options lowering the discriminant power of the introversion scale. The same was true for the extraversion and feeling preferences.

Overall, however, the item analysis results provide evidence for the discriminant validity of the Greek version of the MBTI. Type formulation was recalculated using the culturally appropriate item weights derived by item analysis. Type results derived from the Greek scoring

weights were then compared to type results derived using the American scoring weights. Significant differences were found between the two distributions with higher preferences in sensing and perceiving in the data scored using the Greek scoring weights. Therefore, the results provided by Greek scoring system illustrated a different, more accurate, type distribution and was used in comparison to French Canadian and American type distributions.

Interscale correlations of the Greek version of the MBTI. Interscale correlations of the normative data scored using the Greek scoring key are presented in table seven. The coefficients are consistent with previous finding with the exception of a .50 to .53 correlation range between the sensing/intuition, and judging/perceiving scales. Previous published data (Myers & McCaulley, 1985) have also reported higher correlations between these two scales. Further, the direction of correlation between the extraversion/introversion scale and the sensing/intuition, judging/perceiving scales are not consistent with American data.

Selection Ratio Type Table Comparisons. Having developed a Greek scoring key, and re-scored the normative data, comparisons with French Canadian and American norms were made using the Selection Ratio Type Table (SRTT) (Granade, Hatfield, Smith & Beasley, 1987) .

The Greek Sample. All 16 types were found (see Table 8). ISTJ (14.4%), ESTJ (14.1%), ESTP (13%) and ST (49.6%) were the most popular types. NJ (7%) and FJ (9%) were the least popular. There were significant gender differences in the thinking/feeling scale with Greek males preferring T ($I = 1.10$, $p < .01$) and Greek females preferring F ($I = 1.07$, $p < .01$). Science student comparisons with the total sample yielded a significant predominance of S ($I = 1.15$, $p < .001$). Non-science students were overrepresented in N ($I = 1.14$, $p < .001$) and NT ($I = 1.16$, $p < .001$). Law students predominated in NT ($I = 1.34$, $p < .001$), while midwifery students were overrepresented in S ($I = 1.20$, $p < .001$), and SJ ($I = 1.33$, $p < .001$).

The presence of all the types in the Greek sample is consistent with the other cultural groups examined. This further validates Jungian, and MBTI theory, and the universality of psychological types. Gender differences in thinking and feeling were also evident. Greek male and female personality distribution comparisons yielded a thinking preference for males and a feeling preference for females. This gender difference is consistent with the French Canadian and American norms. The predominance of S in science students is contradictory to theoretical expectations, but may be due the applied nature of the science programs sampled in this study (e.g. midwifery, and

nursing). Humanities and Arts program distributions illustrated theoretically consistent findings with an overrepresentation in N. Finally, law student and midwifery student distributions also illustrated theoretically expected preferences with a predominance of NT (law) and S and SJ (midwifery) respectively. Overall, the personality distribution of the Greek sample yield similar gender, and school major personality preferences to those found in research with American, and French-Canadian students. These findings further replicate and validate Jungian and MBTI theory.

Greek vs. French Canadian Norms. Compared to French Canadian male students, Greek male students preferred E over I ($I = 1.58, p < .001$). Fifty-four percent of Greek males compared to 34% of French-Canadian males preferred E. Significant differences between Greek and French-Canadian males were also found in EP ($I = 2.02, p < .001$); thirty percent of Greek males preferred EP, compared to 15% of French-Canadian males.

When compared to females in the French Canadian sample, Greek females significantly preferred E ($I = 1.38, p < .001$), T ($I = 1.26, p < .001$), and P ($I = 1.70, p < .001$). Of the female Greek students, 55% preferred E, 67% preferred T, and 58% preferred P. For female francophones, 40% favoured E, 54% adopted a T preference, and 34% favoured P.

Total Greek and French-Canadian sample comparisons (see Table 9) illustrated a predominance of E (55%), ($I = 1.46$, $p < .001$), T (70%), ($I = 1.12$, $p < .001$), and P (58%), ($I = 1.55$, $p < .001$) in the Greek sample. Finally, ISFJ, INFJ, INTJ and ESFJ were significantly underrepresented within Greek student samples in comparison to French-Canadian norms.

Greek vs. U.S. norms. Greek male students significantly preferred T ($I = 1.22$, $p < .001$), ST ($I = 1.44$, $p < .001$), and TP ($I = 1.38$, $p < .001$) compared to American male traditional college-age students. Seventy-seven percent of Greek male students chose T, compared to 63% of American male students. Further, 55% favoured ST, compared to 39% of American male students. Finally, 37% of male Greek students preferred TP, compared to 27% of male American students.

Greek female students predominated significantly in T ($I = 2.13$, $p < .001$), P ($I = 1.38$, $p < .001$) and ST ($I = 2.29$, $p < .001$) when compared to American female students. Sixty-seven percent of Greek female students preferred T, in relation to 32% of American female students. Fifty-eight percent of Greek female students also preferred P, in relation to 42% of American female students. ST percentage comparisons yielded 21% for American female students, and 48% for Greek female students.

Overall, the total Greek sample differed significantly in S (66%), ($I = 1.11$, $p < .001$), T (70%) ($I = 1.51$, $p < .001$) and P (58%) ($I = 1.29$, $p < .001$) compared to U.S. students (see Table 10). ISFJ, INFJ, ESFJ, and ENFJ were not as representative in Greek students in relation to U.S. norms.

A summary of Greek personality preferences in comparison with French Canadian and U.S. norms are presented in Table 11. Decided Greek preferences in thinking and perceiving are evident in both comparisons. In particular Greek females are overrepresented in thinking compared to the other cultural groups examined. It would appear that this is a cultural difference, with female students from French Canada and the U.S. demonstrating a lower prevalence for thinking and therefore higher preferences for feeling compared to female Greek students. The overall Greek preference for perceiving also appears to suggest a cultural difference in that American and French Canadian samples demonstrated a decided prevalence for judging. Lastly, American and Greek university students illustrated a higher preference for extraversion while the majority of French Canadian students preferred introversion.

Overall cultural similarities and differences between Greek, American and French-Canadian MBTI personality patterns have been illustrated. Particular cultural

personality distinctions that have been illustrated should, however, be interpreted with caution in that cultural grouping based solely on ethnicity yields as much within-group variability as between-group variability. That is generalizing these findings to Greek culture as a whole carries the risk of creating inaccurate stereotypes, even though all type preferences are valuable and there is no negative connotation ascribed to any preference.

Overall Discussion

Conclusions

The main contribution of this project has been the overall validation of a Greek translation of the MBTI. The first study illustrated that the Greek Indicator demonstrated adequate face and content validity, as well as satisfactory test-retest reliability.

The second study reconfirmed initial validation findings with the Greek indicator's demonstration of good discriminant validity as illustrated by the item analysis. An examination of normative data also confirmed expected relationships between program of study and theoretical expectations of type results. The latter provides partial replication of MBTI and Jungian theory.

Thus from these various perspectives just mentioned it would appear that the Greek Indicator is indeed an appropriate tool that can be utilized effectively in its

various multi-faceted capacities with Greek populations.

Research that can be carried out to further validate the Greek MBTI version could include attempting to illustrate evidence of the indicators construct validity. Although the present project partially demonstrated the latter in illustrating consistencies between type data and theoretical expectations, other research illustrating a fit between various behaviours and typological expectations would prove beneficial. In his development of the French MBTI version, Casas (1990) carried out a series such studies verifying the match between counsellor, and supervisor evaluations with MBTI type.

Aside from the development of the Greek indicator, various inter-group cultural comparison were also carried out. Although caution in performing and interpreting this kind of research has amply been stressed, various possible cultural differences in personality distributions were presented in the second study. The first and most basic question that could be asked in interpreting differences in cultural personality distributions is whether the differences are in fact due to the translation itself, the sample utilized or the effect of culture. The two studies illustrated that the Greek translation was valid and representative of what the MBTI is intended to measure. In terms of the normative sample utilized for this study, it

was drawn specifically to match the other samples it was being compared to. Thus it would appear personality differences could plausibly be a result of cultural factors.

In particular, the two main differences in personality trends discovered in relation to the Greek normative data was a decided preference for perceiving, as well as a preference for thinking particularly in the females sampled. These two issues will be examined separately. Although simple causal explanations of the latter results would not be recommendable, various speculative suggestions are presented.

The preference for perceiving evident among Greek university students could partially result from a cultural tendency to prefer focusing on the immediate, and adapting to the various changes of the present moment. Holden (1972) describes the Mediterranean Greek as being in a constant state of fluctuation:

Spirit and flesh, ideal and reality, triumph and despair-you name them and the Greeks suffer or enjoy them as the constant poles of their being, swinging repeatedly from one to another and back again, often contriving to embrace both poles simultaneously, but above all never reconciled, never contented, never still (p. 27).

Preferences for thinking that Greek University

students illustrated could in part be attributed to the educational system in which high academic qualifications are necessary for acceptance at university. This natural inclination to organize facts and come to logical conclusions in accordance with a tendency to value intellectual achievement could provide an advantageous and parsimonious means of successfully meeting the stringent academic requirements for acceptance.

The decided thinking tendency for female Greek university students is also interesting in that it is in significant contrast to American trends, and is consistent with Asian personality distribution results. These kinds of patterns are indicative of Ho's (1995) argument that American research results are at times atypical and by no means a norm by which other results should be gauged by.

In short, it was likely that cultural differences were evident in Greek personality distributions. For a more specific understanding of these cultural preferences other research could focus more qualitatively in examining for example how Greek individuals answer individual thinking-feeling scale questions in order to be more aware of particular cultural nuances of Greek decision making processes.

The most fundamental limitation that can be attributed to the present project and similar research is the issue of

generalizability. As has been evident normative personality distributions of university students have been presented. It is unclear and unlikely that the sample utilized was truly representative of Greek population as a whole. For this reason, replicating this kind of research with different and similar Greek populations would be necessary to confirm findings presented here.

In closing the present study has developed a valid Greek version of the MBTI. The MBTI is a personality measure that focuses on the strengths and uniqueness of individual personality. Although other personality measures have also been developed and validated for use in other cultures, the MBTI's focus is not on diagnosing pathology but on identifying stable positive personality types. As such, the MBTI is especially useful to counselling psychologists and other mental health professionals whose function it is to work with developmentally normal individuals.

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Table 1

Test-retest correlation coefficients with continuous scores utilizing the Greek version of the MBTI.

n	Sex	Interval	E-I	S-N	T-F	J-P
42	M,F	8 (weeks)	.85	.91	.78	.83

Table 2

Test-retest correlation coefficients with continuous scores of bilingual students completing the MBTI in English and Greek.

n	Sex	Intervals	EI	SN	TF	JP
32*	M, F	8 weeks	.89	.82	.85	.79

* Bilingual university student sample (indicator completed in both languages). Half the participants completed the Greek version of the indicator first, while the other half completed the American version first.

Table 3
Interscale correlations with continuous scores of the bilingual sample.

n	Sex	EI-SN	EI-TF	EI-JP	SN-TF	SN-JP	TF-JP
32 ^a	M,F	-.35	-.36	-.17	.19	.35	.21
32 ^b	M,F	-.11	-.22	-.26	.03	.23	.16

^a Bilingual university students completing indicator in English.

^b Bilingual university students completing the indicator in Greek.

Table 4
Subject agreement of reported MBTI Type as indicated by the Greek MBTI version.

Number of changes	n	%
0 scales changing	25	78
1 scale changing	05	16
2 scales changing	02	6
3 scales changing	0	0
4 scales changing	0	0
Total	32	100

Table 5

Program of study of the Greek normative sample.

Program	n
Midwifery	161
Sociology	70
Architecture	42
Education	179
General Science	55
Law	195
Languages	135
Nursing	109
Total	946

Table 6
MBTI discriminant weights of American, French-Canadian and Greek scoring keys.

Group	n	E	I	S	N	T(M)	F(M)	T(F)	F(F)	J	P
U.S. (Form G key)		26	28	34	25	32	19	33	21	28	30
Fr. Can. 1903		24	24	35	25	29	21	32	19	28	37
Greek	946	21	22	36	24	31	18	28	16	27	31

Table 7

Interscale correlations with continuous scores of the MBTI Greek version with Greek university students.

n	Sex	EI-SN	EI-TF	EI-JP	SN-TF	SN-JP	TF-JP
722 ^c	F	-.10	-.01	-.16	.18	.53	.19
224 ^d	M	.02	-.05	.02	.30	.50	.33
946 ^e	M,F	-.07	-.02	-.10	.21	.52	.23

^c Female Greek university students.

^d Male Greek university students.

^e Female and male Greek university students.

Table 8.

The type distribution of Greek university students (N=946).

The Sixteen Complete Types				Dichotomous Preferences		
ISTJ n=136 14.4%	ISFJ n=41 4.3%	INFJ n=10 1.1%	INTJ n=24 2.5%	E n= 521 I n= 425	55.1% 44.9%	
+++++	++++	+	+++	S n= 628 N n= 318	66.4% 33.6%	
ISTP n=77 8.1%	ISFP n=28 3.0%	INFP n=48 5.1%	INTP n=61 6.4%	T n= 662 F n= 284	70.0% 30.0%	
+++++	+++	+++++	+++++	J n= 402 P n= 544	42.5% 57.5%	
ESTP n=123 13.0%	ESFP n=64 6.8%	ENFP n=60 6.3%	ENTP n=83 8.8%	Pairs and Temperaments		
+++++	+++++	+++++	+++++	IJ n= 211 IP n= 214	22.3% 22.6%	
+++++	++	+	++++	EP n= 330 EJ n= 191	34.9% 20.2%	
ESTJ n=133 14.1%	ESFJ n=26 2.7%	ENFJ n=7 .07%	ENTJ n=25 2.6%	ST n= 469 SF n= 159	49.6% 16.8%	
+++++	+++	+	+++	NF n= 125 NT n= 193	13.2% 20.4%	
+++++				SJ n= 336 SP n= 292	35.5% 30.9%	
+++++				NP n= 252 NJ n= 66	26.6% 7.0%	
++++				TJ n= 318 TP n= 344	33.6% 36.4%	
				FP n= 200 FJ n= 84	21.1% 8.9%	
				IN n= 143 EN n= 175	15.1% 18.5%	
				IS n= 282 ES n= 346	29.8% 36.6%	
				ET n= 364 EF n= 157	38.5% 16.6%	
				IF n= 127 IT n= 298	13.4% 31.5%	

Table 9

The type distribution of Greek university students and SRTT comparison with French Canadian university students.

N=946				I= 1% of N			* p < .001
I=Selection Ratio Index							# p < .01
							" p < .05
The Sixteen Complete Types				Dichotomous Preferences			
ISTJ	ISFJ	INFJ	INTJ	E	n= 521	55.1%	I=1.46*
n=136	n=41	n=10	n=24	I	n= 425	44.9%	I=0.72*
14.4%	4.3%	1.1%	2.5%				
I=.77	I=.49*	I=.27*	I=.29*	S	n= 628	66.4%	I=1.11#
+++++	++++	+	+++	N	n= 318	33.6%	I=0.84#
+++++							
+++++				T	n= 662	70.0%	I=1.12*
				F	n= 284	30.0%	I=0.80*
ISTP	ISFP	INFP	INTP	J	n= 402	42.5%	I=0.68*
n=77	n=28	n=48	n=61	P	n= 544	57.5%	I=1.55*
8.1%	3.0%	5.1%	6.4%				
I=1.34	I=.76	I=.82	I=1.08				
+++++	+++	+++++	+++++	Pairs and Temperaments			
+++			+	IJ	n= 211	22.3%	I=0.56*
				IP	n= 214	22.6%	I=1.02
ESTP	ESFP	ENFP	ENTP	EP	n= 330	34.9%	I=2.32*
n=123	n=64	n=60	n=83	EJ	n= 191	20.2%	I=0.89
13.0%	6.8%	6.3%	8.8%				
I=2.83*	I=4.08*	I=1.35	I=2.14*	ST	n= 469	49.6%	I=1.25*
+++++	+++++	+++++	+++++	SF	n= 159	16.8%	I=0.83*
+++++	++	+	++++	NF	n= 125	13.2%	I=0.77"
+++				NT	n= 193	20.4%	I=0.89
ESTJ	ESFJ	ENFJ	ENTJ	SJ	n= 336	35.5%	I=0.81*
n=133	n=26	n=7	n=25	SP	n= 292	30.9%	I=1.90*
14.1%	2.7%	.07%	2.6%	NP	n= 252	26.6%	I=1.27#
I=1.35"	I=.47*	I=.32#	I=.64	NJ	n= 66	7.0%	I=0.36*
+++++	+++	+	+++				
+++++				TJ	n= 318	33.6%	I=0.80*
+++++				TP	n= 344	36.4%	I=1.76*
				FP	n= 200	21.1%	I=1.29#
				FJ	n= 84	8.9%	I=0.42*
				IN	n= 143	15.1%	I=0.61*
				EN	n= 175	18.5%	I=1.21
				IS	n= 282	29.8%	I=0.80*
				ES	n= 346	36.6%	I=1.62*

The Greek Translation of the M5T1

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ET	n= 364	38.5%
EF	n= 157	16.6%
IF	n= 127	13.4%
IT	n= 298	31.5%

Table 10

The type distribution of Greek university students and SRTT comparison with American traditional age college students.

N=972 I= 1% of N
I= Selection Ratio Index

* p < .001
p < .01
" p < .05

The Sixteen Complete Types				Dichotomous Preferences			
ISTJ	ISFJ	INFJ	INTJ	E	n= 521	55.1%	I=0.99
n=136	n=41	n=10	n=24	I	n= 425	44.9%	I=1.02
14.4%	4.3%	1.1%	2.5%	S	n= 628	66.4%	I=1.11*
I=1.52*	I=.50*	I=.32*	I=.69	N	n= 318	33.6%	I=0.84*
+++++	++++	+	+++	T	n= 662	70.0%	I=1.51*
+++++				F	n= 284	30.0%	I=0.56*
++++				J	n= 402	42.5%	I=0.77*
				P	n= 544	57.5%	I=1.29*
ISTP	ISFP	INFP	INTP	Pairs and Temperaments			
n=77	n=28	n=48	n=61	IJ	n= 211	22.3%	I=0.89
8.1%	3.0%	5.1%	6.4%	IP	n= 214	22.6%	I=1.18#
I=1.82*	I=.59#	I=.92	I=1.53*	EP	n= 330	34.9%	I=1.38*
+++++	+++	+++++	+++++	EJ	n= 191	20.2%	I=0.66*
+++			+	ST	n= 469	49.6%	I=1.70*
				SF	n= 159	16.8%	I=0.55*
ESTP	ESFP	ENFP	ENTP	NF	n= 125	13.2%	I=0.58*
n=123	n=64	n=60	n=83	NT	n= 193	20.4%	I=1.18"
13.0%	6.8%	6.3%	8.8%	SJ	n= 336	35.5%	I=0.90"
I=2.81*	I=1.04	I=.69#	I=1.75*	SP	n= 292	30.9%	I=1.50*
+++++	+++++	+++++	+++++	NP	n= 252	26.6%	I=1.11
+++++	++	+	++++	NJ	n= 66	7.0%	I=0.43*
+++				TJ	n= 318	33.6%	I=1.19*
				TP	n= 344	36.4%	I=1.98*
ESTJ	ESFJ	ENFJ	ENTJ	FP	n= 200	21.1%	I=0.81*
n=133	n=26	n=7	n=25	FJ	n= 84	8.9%	I=0.32*
14.1%	2.7%	.07%	2.6%	IN	n= 143	15.1%	I=0.91
I=1.33*	I=.26*	I=.15*	I=.60#	EN	n= 175	18.5%	I=0.79*
+++++	+++	+	+++	IS	n= 282	29.8%	I=1.08
+++++				ES	n= 346	36.6%	I=1.13#
++++							

The Greek Translation of the MSTI

67

ET	n= 364	38.5%
EF	n= 157	16.6%
IF	n= 127	13.4%
IT	n= 298	31.5%

Table 11

A summary of Greek personality preferences in relation to French Canadian and American norms.

Greek Personality Preferences	Greek/French Can.	Greek/U.S.
Males	E, EP	T, ST, TP
Females	E, T, P	T, P, ST
Overall	E, T, P	S, T, P

E = Extraversion, S = Sensing, T = Thinking, P = Perceiving

Appendix A
CONSENT FORM

I agree to take part in a research study involving the translation and validation of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator into the Greek Language. I understand that the rationales of the present study include being able to utilize a culturally valid Greek translation of the Myers-Briggs Type indicator effectively with individuals of Greek cultural background as well gaining a better understanding of particular cultural personality preferences which may prove beneficial in counselling Greek populations.

I understand that all answers made on the questionnaire will remain confidential, and that my name will not appear on the questionnaire. I understand that there are no foreseeable risks in answering the questionnaire, and all results will be utilized for research purposes only. I understand that results will be available to me after the study is completed.

I understand that I will not be subject to any sort of deception by experimenters. I understand I may withdraw from this study any time I choose to do so. Further, I understand that participation in this project will have no bearing on any academic evaluation.

Lazarus Fitopoulos, counsellor in training
Tel: 671-0162

I agree to participate in the following research

Participant's name: _____

Participant's signature: _____ Date: _____

Researcher's name: _____

Researcher's signature: _____ Date: _____

Appendix B
MBTI Type Validation Questionnaire

Instructions. Answer the following questions after having familiarized yourself with your MBTI personality type.

1. Do you generally agree with the Greek indicator's assessment of you on the Extraversion/Introversion scale?
2. Do you generally agree with Greek indicator's assessment of you on Sensing/Intuition scale?
3. Do you generally agree with the Greek indicator's assessment of you on the Thinking/Feeling scale?
4. Do you generally agree with the Greek indicator's assessment of you on the Judging/Perceiving scale?

The Greek Translation of the MBTI

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Appendix C

The Greek Translation of the MBTI (see next page)

ΚΕΡΟΣ 10. Ποια ενέργεια πληρώσει περικοπές στο να ταίρι
πώς αφοδεύει ή ενεργεί συνήθως;

1. Όταν πιάτε κάρου για όλη την ημέρα, ποτίζετε να
Α. σχεδόν ποτέ ή ποτέ, ή
Β. αργά να πιάτε;

2. Αν ήσασταν δάσκαλος(α) θα ποτίζονατε να διδάσκετε
Α. βελικά παθήματα, ή
Β. θεωρητικά παθήματα;

3. Είστε συνήθως

- Α. κοινωνικός τύπος, ή
Β. πλάγιο ή συγχορ και συνεπαγμένος;

4. Ποτίζετε

- Α. να κανονίζετε ραντεβού, πάρτυ κτλ. εκ των προτέρων, ή
Β. να είστε ελεύθερος να κνέτε οτιδήποτε βόσκετε διασκε-
δάστικος όταν έλθει η στιγμή;

5. Τα πιάτε καλύτερα συνήθως με

- Α. αβρόπες με πανταλά, ή
Β. παλαιότες

6. Αφήνετε πιο συχνά

- Α. την καρδιά σας να κυβερνεί το κεφάλι σας, ή
Β. το κεφάλι σας να κυβερνεί την καρδιά σας;

7. Όταν βόσκετε με μια ομάδα ανθρώπων, ποτίζετε συνήθως να
Α. συζητείτε στη συζήτηση της ομάδας, ή
Β. πιάτε με τον κώδε ένα ξεχωριστά;

8. Τα καταφεύγετε καλύτερα
Α. με το "απόδοπτο" και ενεργείτε "βλέποντας και κάνοντας",
ή
Β. ακολουθώντας ένα προσεκτικά μελετημένο σχέδιο;
9. Προτιμάτε να θεωρείτε τον εαυτό σας
Α. ένα πρακτικό άτομο, ή
Β. ένα άτομο με φαντασία;
10. Σ' ένα μεγάλο κύκλο ανθρώπων, συνήθως
Α. συστήνετε τους άλλους, ή
Β. σας συστήνουν;
11. Θαυμάζετε περισσότερο τους ανθρώπους
Α. οι οποίοι είναι αρκετά συμβατικοί ώστε ποτέ να μην είναι
προκλητικοί, ή
Β. εκείνους που είναι πρωτότυποι και σίγουροι για τον εαυτό
τους ώστε να μην ενδιαφέρονται για το αν ξεχωρίζουν ή
όχι;
12. Το να ακολουθείτε ένα πρόγραμμα
Α. σας ελκύει, ή
Β. σας περιορίζει;
13. Δημιουργείτε συνήθως
Α. στενές φιλίες με λίγους ανθρώπους, ή
Β. γνωριμίες με πολλούς και διαφορετικούς ανθρώπους;
14. Η ιδέα τού να γράψετε έναν κατάλογο με το τι πρέπει να κάνετε
το Σαββατοκύριακο
Α. σας ελκύει,
Β. σας αφήνει αδιάφορο(η), ή
Γ. απολύτως σας καταπιέζει

15. Ποιον έπαινο θεωρείτε αποδεδειγμένο, το να σας αποκαλέσουν
Α. ένα άστοχο ή γνήσια αισθηματα, ή
Β. ένα σταθερό λογικό άτομο;

16. Μεταξύ των φίλων σας, είναι
Α. από τους τελευταίους που παθαίνουν τα νέα, ή
Β. εννημερωμένος(η) για όλα;

(Μόνο στην επόμενη ενότητα, αν δυο απαντήσεις είναι αληθείς,
σημειώστε και τις δυο)

17. Στην καθημερινή σας δουλειά
Α. μάλλον απολαμβάνετε μια περίγλυφη περιγραφή που σας υπο-
χρεώνει να δουλέψετε υπέρ του κοινού συμφέροντος,
Β. απεχθάνεστε να δουλέψετε κατά την κρίση σας, ή
Γ. οργάνωνετε τη δουλειά σας συνήθως, ώστε να μη χρεώ-
σθε να δουλέψετε κατά την κρίση σας;

18. Προτιμάτε να έχετε για φίλο(η)
Α. κέραιο που έχει τα πάντα καινούργιας μόδας, ή
Β. κέραιο που είναι προσηλωμένος;

19. Μιλάτε με ευκολία σχεδόν με οποιονδήποτε και για ό-
τιδήποτε χρεώσεται, ή
Β. βρίσκετε να πείτε πολλά μόνο σε ορισμένους ανθρώπους, και
μόνο υπό ορισμένες συνθήκες;

20. Όταν έχετε να κάνετε κάποια είσπραξη ή δουλειά, σας αρ-
νεί
Α. την οργανώσετε προσεκτικά πριν αρχίσετε, ή
Β. ανακαλύψετε τι χρειάζεται και προχωρείτε;

21. Συνήθως έχετε περισεύρη σημασία
Α. στα συναισθήματα από ό,τι στη λογική, ή
Β. στη λογική παρά στα συναισθήματα;

22. Όταν διαβάζετε κάτι για ψυχαγωγία
Α. σας αρέσουν παράξενοι ή πρωτότυποι τρόποι εκφράσεως, ή
Β. σας αρέσει να λένε οι συγγραφείς ακριβώς αυτό που εν-
νοούν;
23. Μπορούν οι άνθρωποι που πρωτογνωρίζετε να καταλάβουν τα
ευδιαφέροντά σας
Α. αμέσως, ή
Β. μόνο αφού σας γνωρίσουν καλά;
24. Όταν είναι καθορισμένο εκ των προτέρων ότι θα κάνετε κάτι
σε μια ορισμένη στιγμή, το βρίσκετε
Α. ευχάριστο το ότι μπορείτε να κάνετε σχέδια ανάλογα, ή
Β. λίγο δυσάρεστο γιατί αυτό σας δεσμεύει;
25. Όταν κάνετε κάτι που κάνουν πολλοί άλλοι άνθρωποι, σας
ελκύει περισσότερο
Α. να το κάνετε με τον κοινά αποδεκτό τρόπο, ή
Β. να ανακαλύπτετε ένα δικό σας τρόπο;
26. Συνήθως
Α. δείχνετε τα αισθήματά σας ελεύθερα, ή
Β. τα κρατάτε για τον εαυτό σας;

ΜΕΡΟΣ 2ο. Ποια λέξη σας ελκύει περισσότερο σε κάθε ζευγάρι;
Σκεφθείτε τη σημασία των λέξεων και όχι το πώς
φαίνονται ή πώς ακούγονται.

- | | | | | |
|-----|----|--------------------|-----------------|----|
| 27. | A. | προγραμματισμένο | απρογραμματίστο | B. |
| 28. | A. | συγκαταβατικός (η) | ακλόνητος (η) | B. |
| 29. | A. | γεγονότα | ιδέες | B. |
| 30. | A. | σκέψη | συναίσθημα | B. |
| 31. | A. | εγκάρδιος (α) | ήσυχος (η) | B. |
| 32. | A. | πειστικό | συγκινησιακό | B. |
| 33. | A. | δήλωση | έννοια | B. |
| 34. | A. | αναλύω | συμπάσχω | B. |
| 35. | A. | συστηματικός (η) | αυθόρμητος (η) | B. |
| 36. | A. | δικαιοσύνη | ευσπλαχνία | B. |
| 37. | A. | συνεσταλμένος (η) | ομιλητικός (η) | B. |
| 38. | A. | συμπόνοια | πρόβλεψη | B. |
| 39. | A. | συστηματικό | τυχαίο | B. |
| 40. | A. | ήρεμος (η) | ζωηρός (η) | B. |
| 41. | A. | οφελήματα | χαρίσματα θεού | B. |
| 42. | A. | θεωρία | βεβαιότητα | B. |

43.	A.	απορασισμένος	αποσιωπένος (η)	B.
44.	A.	κυριολεκτικός (η)	μεταφορικός (η)	B.
45.	A.	σταθερός	εγκάρδιος	B.
46.	A.	δημιουργικός (η)	πρακτικός (η)	B.
47.	A.	ειρηνολογικός	κριτής	B.
48.	A.	κατασκευάζω	δημιουργώ	B.
49.	A.	μαλακός (η)	σκληρός	B.
50.	A.	λογικός (η)	συναρπαστικός (η)	B.
51.	A.	συγχωρώ	ανέχομαι	B.
52.	A.	παραγωγή	σχεδιασμός	B.
53.	A.	παρόρμηση	απόφαση	B.
54.	A.	ποιος	τι	B.
55.	A.	μιλώ	γράφω	B.
56.	A.	με κατανόηση	επικριτικός	B.
57.	A.	ακριβής	νωχελικός	B.
58.	A.	συγκεκριμένος (η)	αφηρημένος (η)	B.
59.	A.	μεταβαλλόμενος (η)	μόνιμος (η)	B.
60.	A.	δύπιστος (η)	εύπιστος (η)	B.

61.	A.	κτίζω	εφευρίσκω	B.
62.	A.	τακτικός (η)	ξένοιαστος (η)	B.
63.	A.	θεμέλιο	κορυφή	B.
64.	A.	γρήγορος (η)	προσεκτικός (η)	B.
65.	A.	θεωρία	εμπειρία	B.
66.	A.	κοινωνικός (η)	μη κοινωνικός (η)	B.
67.	A.	σήμα	σύμβολο	B.
68.	A.	πάρτυ	θέατρο	B.
69.	A.	δέχομαι	αλλάζω	B.
70.	A.	συμφωνώ	συζητώ	B.
71.	A.	γνώριμο	άγνωστο	B.

μέρος 3ο. Ποια απάντηση είναι πιο ακριβής για το πώς αισθάνεσθε ή ενεργείτε συνήθως;

72. Θα λέγατε ότι
Α. είσαστε πιο ενθουσιώδης για κάποια πράγματα από τον μέσο άνθρωπο, ή
Β. είσαστε λιγότερο ενθουσιώδης για κάποια πράγματα από ότι οι άλλοι άνθρωποι;
73. Πιστεύετε ότι είναι μεγαλύτερο ελάττωμα να είναι κανείς
Α. ψυχρός(η), ή
Β. παράλογος(η)
74. Προτιμάτε να
Α. τα κάνετε όλα την τελευταία στιγμή, ή
Β. αυτό το βρίσκετε εκνευριστικό;
75. Στα πάρτυ
Α. μερικές φορές βαριέστε, ή
Β. πάντα διασκεδάζετε;
76. Βρίσκετε ότι η καθημερινή ρουτίνα είναι
Α. ένας άνετος τρόπος να κάνετε ό,τι πρέπει, ή
Β. επίμονη, ακόμα και αν είναι απαραίτητο;
77. Όταν κάτι το καινούργιο αρχίζει να γίνεται μόδα είσθε συνήθως
Α. ένας/μία από τους/τις πρώτους/ες που θα το δοκιμάσει, ή
Β. δεν ενδιαφέρεσθε και πολύ;
78. Όταν θυμηθείτε κάτι ασήμαντο που πρέπει να κάνετε ή να αγοράσετε,
Α. συχνά το ξεχνάτε μέχρι πολύ αργότερα,
Β. το σημειώνετε συνήθως σε χαρτί για να το θυμηθείτε, ή
Γ. το κάνετε πάντοτε χωρίς υπενθυμίσεις;

79. Συνήθως είναι
Α. εύκολο να σας καταλάβουν οι άλλοι, ή
Β. δύσκολο;
80. Στον τρόπο ζωής σας προτιμάτε να είστε
Α. πρωτότυπος(η), ή
Β. συμβατικός(η)
81. Όταν βρίσκεσθε σε δύσκολη θέση, συνήθως
Α. αλλάζετε το θέμα,
Β. το γυρίζετε στο αστείο, ή
Γ. μερικές μέρες αργότερα, σκέφθεστε τι θα έπρεπε να είχατε πει;
82. Ποιο είναι δυσκολότερο για σας, να προσαρμοσθείτε
Α. στη ρουτίνα, ή
Β. στη συνεχή αλλαγή;
83. Τι είναι πιο μεγάλος έπαινος, το να πείτε ότι κάποιος έχει
Α. διορατικότητα, ή
Β. κοινή λογική;
84. Όταν αρχίζετε μια σπουδαία εργασία που πρέπει να παραδώσετε σε μια εβδομάδα
Α. αφιερώνετε χρόνο να κάνετε ένα κατάλογο με τα διαφορετικά πράγματα που πρέπει να γίνουν και με τη σειρά που θα γίνουν, ή
Β. "πέφτετε με τα μούτρα";
85. Νομίζετε ότι είναι σπουδαιότερο να είστε ικανός(η) να
Α. δείτε τις δυνατότητες σε μια κατάσταση, ή
Β. να προσαρμοσθείτε στην πραγματικότητα όπως είναι;
86. Νομίζετε ότι οι άνθρωποι στο στενό σας περιβάλλον ξέρουν πώς αισθάνεσθε
Α. για τα περισσότερα πράγματα
Β. μόνο όταν έχετε κάποιο ιδιαίτερο λόγο να τους εξηγήσετε;

87. Προτιμάτε να εργάζεσθε για κάποιον που είναι
Α. πάντα καλός, ή
Β. πάντα δίκαιος;
88. Για να κάνετε μια δουλειά, βασίζεσθε
Α. στο να ξεκινάτε νωρίς ώστε να τελειώσετε έγκαιρα, ή
Β. στην αυξημένη ταχύτητα που αναπτύσσετε την τελευταία ώρα;
89. Νομίζετε ότι είναι μεγαλύτερο ελάττωμα
Α. να παραδείξετε ζεστασιά, ή
Β. να μη δείξετε αρκετή;
90. Όταν είσθε σ' ένα πάρτυ, σας αρέσει να
Α. βοηθάτε να "ξεκινήσουν τα πράγματα", ή
Β. αφήστε τους άλλους να διασκεδάσουν με τον τρόπο τους;
91. Προτιμάτε να
Α. υποστηρίξετε τους καθιερωμένους τρόπους για να κάνει κανείς το καλό, ή
Β. να αναλύετε τι φταίει και να καταπιάνεσθε με τα άλυτα προβλήματα;
92. Ενδιαφέρεσθε περισσότερο
Α. για τα αισθήματα των ανθρώπων, ή
Β. για τα δικαιώματά τους;
93. Αν ένα Σάββατο πρωί σας ρωτούσαν τι σκοπεύετε να κάνετε εκείνη την ημέρα
Α. θα μπορούσατε να περιγράψετε τα σχέδιά σας λεπτομερώς, ή
Β. θα αναφέρατε περισσότερα απ' όσα θα μπορούσατε να κάνετε;
94. Αποφασίζοντας για κάτι σπουδαίο
Α. πιστεύετε ότι μπορείτε να εμπιστευθείτε τις διαθέσεις σας για το τι είναι καλύτερο να κάνετε, ή
Β. νομίζετε ότι πρέπει να κάνετε αυτό που είναι λογικό, ανεξάρτητα από το πώς αισθάνεσθε;

95. Θεωρείτε το μέρος της ημέρας σας που κυριαρχείται από
ρουτίνα

Α. κάτι που σας ηρεμεί, ή

Β. βαρετό;