Thinking styles and personality types revisited

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Abstract

This study was designed to test the efficacy of the Short-Version Self-Directed Search (SVSDS) as well as to further investigate the relationships between thinking styles and personality types. Seven hundred and eighty-nine students (average 20 years) from two research-oriented universities from mainland China responded to the Thinking Styles Inventory and the SVSDS. Two major findings are: (1) the SVSDS is composed of six scales with good internal consistency, each assessing one of Holland’s six personality types; factor analysis yielded a two-factor solution, with one factor being characterized by people who like to work with things and data, and the other being dominated by people who like to work with people and ideas; and (2) thinking styles and personality types are related in predictable ways. Implications of these findings for test users, including teachers and counselors, are discussed. © 2001 Elsevier Science Ltd. All rights reserved.

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1. Introduction

In literature, there exists a continuous effort of discussing, through both conceptual arguments and empirical research, the relationships between styles and personality. Conceptually, Eysenck (1978) noted that personality and learning styles are closely linked. Hashway (1998) contended that many style theories are personality based. Messick (1996) proposed that style should be the construct that can be used to build a bridge between cognition and personality in education. In a similar vein, Sternberg (1994) noted that style is at the interface between intelligence and personality.

Empirically, many scholars have investigated the relationships between personality and the style construct, including cognitive style, learning style, and thinking style. For example, Shadbolt

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(1978) found that students who were high on Neuroticism performed better with structured teaching methods than they did with unstructured teaching methods. Drummond and Stoddard (1992) identified an overlap between a learning style instrument and the Myers–Briggs Type Indicator. Judging type of people tended to perceive themselves to be concrete sequential thinkers, whereas perceiving type of people tended to be concrete random thinkers. Riding and Wigley (1997) examined the relationship between personality attributes and cognitive styles. They found that physiologically based personality sources had no significant relationships to cognitive styles, but are moderated by styles in their effects on behaviors. Also for instance, Furnham, Jackson and Miller (1999) found significant relationships between the Eysenck Personality Inventory (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1964) and Honey and Mumford’s (1982) Learning Styles Questionnaire. Extroverts tended to be activists and introverts tended to be reflectors.

Illuminated by both conceptual arguments about and empirical research on the relationships between personality and styles, Zhang (2000a) investigated the relationships between thinking styles and personality types. Thinking styles were measured by the Thinking Styles Inventory (Sternberg & Wagner, 1992). Personality types were measured by a short version of Holland’s (1994) Self-Directed Search that was specially constructed for the aforementioned study.

The Thinking Styles Inventory is based on Sternberg’s (1988, 1997) theory of mental self-government which proposes that just as there are different ways of governing a society, there are different ways that people use their abilities. The preferred ways of using one’s abilities are defined as thinking styles. This theory describes 13 thinking styles that fall along five dimensions: functions, forms, levels, scopes, and leanings.

1.1. Functions

There are three functions in human beings’ mental self-government: legislative, executive, and judicial. An individual with a legislative style enjoys being engaged in tasks that require creativity. An individual with an executive style is more concerned with carrying out tasks with clear instructions. An individual with a judicial style focuses his/her attention on evaluating the products of others’ activities.

1.2. Forms

A human being’s mental self-government takes four forms: monarchical, hierarchic, oligarchic, and anarchic. An individual with a monarchical style enjoys being engaged in tasks that allow him/her to focus fully on one thing at a time, whereas an individual with a hierarchic style prefers to distribute his/her attention to several prioritized tasks. An individual with an oligarchic style prefers to work on several tasks within the same period of time without setting any priority. Finally, an individual with an anarchic style enjoys dealing with tasks that would grant him/her flexibility as for what, where, when, and how he/she works.

1.3. Levels

Human beings’ mental government operates at two levels: global and local. An individual with a global style would direct his/her attention to the overall picture of an issue and focus on
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