Profiling Decision-Making Styles Through MBTI Personality Dimensions: A Sample From Uelzen

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Abstract
The purpose of this study is to employ a sophisticated, person-centered methodological approach to investigate the relationships between MBTI personality profiles and a comprehensive range of decision-making styles within a sample from Uelzen, Germany. By doing so, it aims to bridge the identified gaps in the literature, offering culturally situated insights and advancing theoretical understanding of how personality shapes decision-making processes. The study involved a sample of 178 employees from various companies in Uelzen. The Latent Class Analysis (LCA), Latent profile analysis (LPA) and Welch's ANOVAs have been used for identify distinct configurations of MBTI personality and decision-making styles, and examine group differences in decision-making styles. Findings suggest that the Sensing–Intuition and Thinking–Feeling dichotomies are the most robust predictors of decision-making styles, with effects of practical as well as statistical significance. The magnitude of these differences implies that decision-making interventions or training programs may benefit from tailoring approaches to personality-based cognitive preferences.

Introduction

Decision-making is a multifaceted process influenced by individual personality traits, which shape how people navigate choices in diverse contexts, from personal decisions to professional judgments. The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) offers a robust framework for understanding personality through four dichotomies: Extraversion/Introversion, Sensing/Intuition, Thinking/Feeling, and Judging/Perceiving (Myers & Myers, 1995). These dimensions are associated with distinct decision-making styles, such as rational, intuitive, spontaneous, or emotional approaches, reflecting preferences for logical analysis, intuitive insights, rapid judgments, or value-driven choices (Scott & Bruce, 1995). Research suggests that Thinking types tend to favor structured, fact-based decision-making, while Feeling types prioritize empathy and values, but these relationships are underexplored in specific regional populations (Hough & Ogilvie, 2005). Cultural and contextual factors may further modulate these preferences, necessitating localized studies.

This study examines the interplay between MBTI personality types and decision-making styles in a sample from Uelzen, Germany. By leveraging advanced methodologies like structural equation modeling, latent class analysis, and latent profile analysis, the research aims to uncover how personality influences decision-making tendencies, contributing to psychological theory and informing applications in areas such as leadership training and career counseling in regional settings.

1. Literature review

This study is grounded in the theoretical confluence of personality psychology and behavioral decision theory. The MBTI framework operationalizes Carl Jung's theory of psychological types, proposing that individuals have innate preferences that shape how they perceive the world and make decisions (Jung, 1971; Myers & McCaulley, 1985). The four dichotomies—Extraversion/Introversion (E-I), Sensing/Intuition (S-N), Thinking/Feeling (T-F), and Judging/Perceiving (J-P)—are hypothesized to

predict an individual's propensity for specific decision-making styles. For instance, those with a Sensing (S) preference may seek concrete, fact-based information, while those with an Intuition (N) preference lean toward abstract patterns and future possibilities. Similarly, Thinking (T) types are theorized to prioritize logic and objectivity, whereas Feeling (F) types emphasize values and interpersonal harmony in their decision-making processes (Gardner & Martinko, 1996).

To capture the multifaceted nature of how these preferences manifest, this study employs a comprehensive model of decision-making styles. These styles are defined as habitual, cognitive, and affective patterns that individuals employ when confronted with a choice. We focus on a spectrum of styles, measured using the Rational-Intuitive Decision-Making Style (RIDMS) scale (Launer & Çetin, 2025), which captures the following dimensions:

1.1. Rational Styles

Rational decision-making styles are characterized by deliberate, systematic, and analytical processing. This approach is rooted in classical decision theory, which posits that individuals are rational actors who seek to optimize outcomes by systematically evaluating all available information and alternatives (Hammond, Keeney, & Raiffa, 1999). Individuals who favor these styles prioritize logic, objectivity, and a methodical approach to gathering and evaluating information before reaching a conclusion.

Rational Fact: This style is defined by a strong reliance on objective, measurable data and verifiable evidence. This aligns with the rational choice paradigm, where optimal decisions are believed to stem from a logical analysis of factual evidence, minimizing the influence of bias or emotion (Scott & Bruce, 1995). Practitioners actively seek out facts and figures, trusting concrete information over gut feelings or subjective opinions to form the most reliable foundation for their choices.

Rational Plan: This approach involves creating a structured, sequential roadmap for making decisions. This reflects the principles of structured decision-making, where defining objectives, generating alternatives, and outlining steps are crucial for managing complexity and uncertainty (Hastie & Dawes, 2010). Individuals with this style prioritize organization and a deliberate pace, often outlining steps, timelines, and criteria in advance to ensure a thorough and controlled process.

Rational Analytic: This style involves deconstructing a complex problem into its smaller, constituent components for thorough examination. This is the cornerstone of analytical decision-making, which employs logical reasoning and critical analysis to understand causal relationships and assess the implications of each component (Hammond et al., 1999). It emphasizes breaking down a problem to understand the relationships between parts and how they contribute to the whole before synthesizing a solution.

1.2. Intuitive and Experiential Styles

Intuitive and experiential styles encompass a spectrum of non-deliberative, heuristic, and affective processes. Dual-process theories, such as the Cognitive-Experiential Self-Theory (CEST), provide a framework for understanding these styles as distinct from rational analysis, operating through faster, associative, and emotionally-driven cognitive systems (Epstein, 1994; Kahneman, 2011). These approaches are typically faster, relying on internal cues like feelings, ingrained patterns, and subconscious processing.

Classical Intuition: This is the ability to arrive at a judgment through a holistic, pattern-recognition process that draws on deep tacit knowledge and past experience. Dane and Pratt (2007) define this as a non-conscious process based on holistic associations, distinct from impulse or guesswork. It feels like a "gut feeling" because it integrates information subconsciously, often leading to insights that are difficult to verbally justify immediately.

Spontaneous: This style describes a preference for making quick, impulsive decisions driven by a desire for immediacy and action. This is characterized by a tendency to act on immediate impulses with little consideration for consequences, and is captured in instruments like the General Decision-Making Style inventory (Scott & Bruce, 1995). Individuals using this style tend to act on their first instinct in the moment, valuing speed and decisiveness over prolonged deliberation.

Emotional: Decisions here are guided primarily by affective states, personal feelings, and deeply held values. According to the CEST framework, the experiential system is emotionally driven, and feelings are a valid source of information for guiding behavior and decisions (Epstein, 1994). The choice feels

"right" based on emotional congruence and considerations for interpersonal harmony, rather than on a detached, logical analysis.
Fast Experience: This process involves making rapid choices by leveraging learned patterns and mental models built from prior experiences. Hogarth (2001) describes how the mind educates its intuition through feedback from past experiences, creating mental models that allow for efficient, situation-specific responses. It allows an individual to quickly categorize a new situation based on past analogous events and apply a previously successful response almost automatically.
Fast Rules of Thumb: This style relies on simple, practical mental shortcuts (heuristics) to make efficient decisions without extensive information processing. Gigerenzer and Gaissmaier (2011) extensively studied how these "fast-and-frugal" heuristics are adaptive strategies that yield good outcomes with minimal time and information. These rules simplify complex problems into more manageable judgments, trading off optimal accuracy for speed and cognitive ease.
Fast Nature: This refers to instinctive, biologically-primed responses to environmental cues that bypass deliberate thought. These primal reactions are often studied in evolutionary psychology and behavioral neuroscience, which examine how innate, hard-wired instincts influence behavior in ways that precede conscious reasoning (Tooby & Cosmides, 1992). These are often visceral reactions related to fundamental needs like self-preservation.
Anticipation: This is a forward-looking style based on foresight, projection, and the prediction of potential outcomes. Sadler-Smith (2008) discusses anticipatory intuition as a form of foresight that involves sensing a future possibility or trend based on subtle cues. It involves reading cues and trends in the present to proactively make a decision that positions oneself advantageously for an expected future event.
Slow Unconscious: This describes decisions that emerge subconsciously over an extended period through a process of incubation. The concept of incubation, where a solution appears after a period of distraction, is a well-documented stage in the creative problem-solving process, suggesting unconscious mental work continues behind the scenes (Dane & Pratt, 2007). The mind continues to work on a problem in the background without focused effort, often leading to a sudden "aha!" moment after stepping away.
The RIDMS scale (Launer & Çetin, 2025) provides a validated instrument to operationalize these specific dimensions, allowing for a fine-grained analysis of their relationship with MBTI types. This framework posits that an individual's MBTI profile will predict a distinct configuration of scores across these RIDMS dimensions. For example, it is expected that Intuitive (N) types will score higher on Classical Intuition and Anticipation, while Sensing (S) types will align more with Rational Fact. Similarly, Thinking (T) types may favor Rational Analytic styles, whereas Feeling (F) types may exhibit a stronger propensity for the Emotional style.

1.3. Justification and purpose

Despite a wealth of research on personality and decision-making, significant gaps necessitate this current investigation. First, the empirical findings on the relationship between MBTI types and decision-making styles are often inconsistent and fragmented (Hough & Ogilvie, 2005). Many studies have relied on small, homogenous, or professionally specific samples (e.g., managers, students), limiting the generalizability of their findings to the general population in unique regional settings (Gardner & Martinko, 1996; Thunholm, 2004).
Second, there is a critical lack of research examining these dynamics within specific cultural or regional contexts, particularly in non-English-speaking countries. Cultural norms and social structures can profoundly modulate how personality traits are expressed and which decision-making styles are deemed appropriate (Güss et al., 2015). A sample from Uelzen, Germany, represents a distinct socio-cultural environment that has not been studied in this context, offering a valuable point of comparison to previous, often Anglo-centric, research.
Third, methodological limitations persist. Many prior studies have used variable-centered approaches (e.g., regression) that assume population homogeneity. There is a pressing need for person-centered analytical techniques, such as Latent Profile Analysis (LPA), which can identify subpopulations of individuals who share similar configurations of personality traits and decision-making styles, thereby uncovering nuanced patterns that might be obscured in variable-centered methods (Spurk et al., 2020).

Finally, the literature lacks integration of comprehensive, modern decision-making models that include newer conceptualizations of intuition (e.g., heuristic-based, anticipatory) with the MBTI framework. This study addresses this by employing the multi-faceted RIDMS scale alongside advanced statistical modeling to provide a more holistic and contemporary understanding of how personality manifests in decision-making behaviors.

Therefore, the purpose of this study is to employ a sophisticated, person-centered methodological approach to investigate the relationships between MBTI personality profiles and a comprehensive range of decision-making styles within a sample from Uelzen, Germany. By doing so, it aims to bridge the identified gaps in the literature, offering culturally situated insights and advancing theoretical understanding of how personality shapes decision-making processes.

2. Method

2.1. Sample

The study involved a sample of 178 employees from various companies in Uelzen, Germany. Data were collected via an online survey distributed to employees across different companies in Uelzen. All participants provided informed consent, and the data collection process ensured anonymity and confidentiality. The sample comprised 94 males (52.2%), 84 females (46.7%), and 2 participants identifying as other (1.1%). The mean gender score was 1.49 (SD = 0.523), with a median of 1.00, indicating a slight male majority. Participants reported an average tenure of 5.96 years (SD = 9.37) with their current employer, with a median tenure of 3.00 years. Tenure ranged from 0 to 57 years, reflecting a diverse range of employment durations. The frequency distribution shows that 25.0% of participants (n = 45) had less than one year of tenure, while 17.2% (n = 31) had one year, and the remaining participants were distributed across various tenure lengths. The mean total work experience was 5.74 years (SD = 8.39), with a median of 2.00 years. Work experience ranged from 0 to 58 years. The frequency distribution indicates that 23.3% (n = 42) had no prior work experience, 20.0% (n = 36) had one year, and the remaining participants reported varying levels of experience.

2.2. Instrument

Decision Making Styles: The initial version of RIDMS scale (Launer & Çetin, 2025) has been used for measuring decision making styles of individuals. Different from RIDMS, the initial version includes dimensions with three Rational Styles (Fact, Plan, Analytic) and eight Intuitive and Experiential Styles (Classical Intuition, Spontaneous, Emotional, Fast experience, Fast Rule of Thumps, Fast Nature, Anticipation, Slow Unconscious). The instrument consists of total of 66 items organized into 11 subdimensions, rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree.

MBTI personality: The very short version of MBTI personality scale has been used for measuring personality of participants (Authors' own design). The MBTI instrument identifies four separate dichotomies: Extraversion versus Introversion, Sensing versus Intuition, Thinking versus Feeling, and Judging versus Perceiving. Participants' preferences for one of each pair of opposites over the other have been collected by optional selection questions.

3. Results

3.1. Descriptive Statistics

As shown in Table 1, complete data were available for all decision-making style variables except for Fast Nature Base, which had one missing value (N=177). Mean scores for the decision-making styles ranged from a low of 2.49 (Fast Rules of Thumb Base, SD = 1.11) to a high of 4.22 (Rational Fact Base, SD = 1.12). The median was most frequently 4.00, indicating a central tendency around the higher end of the 6-point scale; however, medians for Rational Analytic, Spontaneous, and Slow Unconscious were 3.00. Standard deviations ranged from 0.96 (Anticipation) to 1.12 (Rational Fact Base and Fast Experience Base), indicating moderate variability in responses.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for Decision-Making Styles

Variable	N	Mean	Median	SD	Min.	Max.
Rational Fact Base	178	4.22	4.00	1.12	1	6
Rational Plan Base	178	3.91	4.00	1.07	1	6
Rational Analytic	178	3.38	3.00	1.05	1	6
Classical Intuition	178	3.99	4.00	1.11	1	6
Spontaneous	178	3.39	3.00	1.11	1	6
Slow Unconscious	178	2.98	3.00	1.04	1	5
Emotional	178	3.54	4.00	1.05	1	6
Fast Experience Base	178	3.54	4.00	1.12	1	6
Fast Rules of Thumb Base	178	2.49	2.00	1.11	1	5
Fast Nature Base	177	3.75	4.00	1.01	1	6
Anticipation	178	3.52	4.00	0.96	1	6

The distribution of MBTI dichotomies is presented in Table 2. The sample was nearly evenly split for the Extraversion/Introversion (48.3% vs. 51.7%) and Sensing/Intuition (51.7% vs. 48.3%) preferences. A stronger preference was observed for Feeling over Thinking (55.6% vs. 44.4%) and for Perceiving over Judging (69.1% vs. 30.9%).

Table 2: Frequencies of MBTI Dichotomies

Dichotomy	Category	N	Percentage	Cumulative %
EI	Extraversion (1)	86	48.3%	48.3%
	Introversion (2)	92	51.7%	100.0%
NS	Sensing (1)	92	51.7%	51.7%
	Intuition (2)	86	48.3%	100.0%
TF	Thinking (1)	79	44.4%	44.4%
	Feeling (2)	99	55.6%	100.0%
PJ	Perceiving (1)	123	69.1%	69.1%
	Judging (2)	55	30.9%	100.0%

3.2. Model Fit

A Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted to evaluate the measurement model for the eleven decision-making styles. The model fit was assessed using multiple indices, as presented in Table 3. The results indicated a good fit to the data based on key metrics: the normed chi-square was excellent ($\chi^2/df = 1.451$), and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) was .050 (90% CI [.044, .057]), which is considered a good fit, a conclusion supported by a non-significant PCLOSE value of .445. The incremental fit indices, including the Comparative Fit Index (CFI = .883) and the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI = .872), were slightly below the ideal threshold of .90 but are generally acceptable for a model of this complexity. Overall, the combination of the strong RMSEA and χ^2/df values suggests that the model provides a plausible and adequate representation of the underlying factor structure.

Table 3: Model Fit Indices for Decision-making Styles

Model	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
11 Decision-making Styles Model	1143.354	788	.000	1.451	.872	.883	.050	.044	.057	.445

3.3. Correlations

The correlations among the decision-making style scales are presented in Table 4. Analysis revealed several significant patterns. The rational styles were positively intercorrelated, with Rational Plan

showing the strongest relationships with Rational Fact (r = .360, p < .001) and Rational Analytic (r = .374, p < .001). The Spontaneous style demonstrated a strong positive correlation with Fast Nature (r = .453, p < .001), as well as significant positive correlations with Classical Intuition (r = .323, p < .001), Fast Experience (r = .355, p < .001), Emotional (r = .258, p < .001), and Anticipation (r = .291, p < .001). Conversely, it was negatively correlated with the Slow Unconscious style (r = -.272, p < .001), as initially described. The Anticipation style was significantly positively correlated with Rational Analytic (r = .235, p < .001), Classical Intuition (r = .298, p < .001), Spontaneous (r = .291, p < .001), Emotional (r = .352, p < .001), Fast Experience (r = .180, p < .05), and Fast Nature (r = .311, p < .001). This indicates that Anticipation is a complex style associated with both analytical and intuitive processes. Contrary to the initial description, the correlation between Anticipation and Spontaneous was confirmed (r = .291, p < .001). However, the reported negative correlation between Spontaneous and rational styles was only significant for Rational Fact (r = -.257, p < .001), not for Rational Plan or Rational Analytic.

Table 4: Correlations among Decision-Making Styles

Variable	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
1. Rational Fact	—									
2. Rational Plan	0.360 ***	—								
3. Rational Analytic	0.274 ***	0.343 ***	—							
4. Classical Intuition	-0.130	-0.038	0.065	—						
5. Spontaneous	-0.257 ***	-0.047	0.025	0.323 ***	—					
6. Slow Unconscious	0.319 ***	0.277 ***	0.298 ***	0.073	-0.272 ***	—				
7. Emotional	-0.185 *	-0.088	-0.026	0.332 ***	0.258 ***	0.027	—			
8. Fast Experience	0.069	-0.020	0.196 **	0.089	0.355 ***	-0.004	0.100	—		
9. Fast Rules of Thumb	-0.030	0.170 *	0.215 **	0.057	0.240 **	0.180 *	0.063	0.249 ***	—	
10. Fast Nature	-0.229 **	-0.121	0.101	0.238 **	0.453 ***	-0.207 **	0.253 ***	0.343 ***	0.114	—
11. Anticipation	-0.046	-0.151 *	0.235 **	0.298 ***	0.291 ***	-0.045	0.352 ***	0.180 *	0.124	0.311 ***

* p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001

3.4. Latent Class Analysis (LCA)

A Latent Class Analysis (LCA) was conducted on the four MBTI dichotomies to identify natural subgroups within the sample. The fit indices for competing models are presented in Table 5. The two-class solution was selected as the optimal model. This decision was supported by a significant reduction in all information criteria compared to the one-class model, including the AIC (930 vs. 972), BIC (959 vs. 985), and CAIC (968 vs. 989). Crucially, the entropy value of 0.862 indicated excellent class separation and classification certainty. This was further confirmed by statistically significant results for the Lo-Mendell-Rubin (LMR) Likelihood Ratio Test (p = .010) and the Bootstrapped Likelihood Ratio

Test (BLRT, p < .001), indicating that the two-class model provided a statistically superior fit to the data.

Table 5: Latent Class Analysis (LCA) for MBTI

Class	Log-likelihood	AIC	BIC	ABIC	CAIC	Entropy	LMR LRT (p-value)	BLRT (p-value)
1	-482	972	985	972	989	1.000	—	—
2	-455	930	959	931	968	0.862	0.010	< 0.001

AIC = Akaike Information Criterion; BIC = Bayesian Information Criterion; SABIC = Sample-size Adjusted BIC, LMR LRT: Lo-Mendell-Rubin (LMR) Likelihood Ratio Test, BLRT: Bootstrapped Likelihood Ratio Test

The conditional item probabilities for the two-class solution are presented in Table 6. The classes were labeled based on their dominant personality preferences:
Class 1 (The Executive; n = 102, 57.3%): This class was characterized by a very high probability of Judging (J) (92%) and Thinking (T) (85%) preferences. They also had a high probability of Sensing (S) (78%) and a slightly higher probability of Introversion (I) (55%). This profile suggests a group that prefers decisiveness, logical analysis, structure, and a focus on concrete facts—traits emblematic of a decisive "Executive" style.
Class 2 (The Mediator; n = 76, 42.7%): This class was defined by a very high probability of Feeling (F) (91%) and Intuition (N) (88%) preferences. They also showed a strong probability of Perceiving (P) (86%) and a slight tendency toward Extraversion (E) (58%). This profile suggests a group that prefers flexibility, empathy, big-picture thinking, and open-ended exploration—core characteristics of a diplomatic and insightful "Mediator."

Table 6: Conditional Probabilities for the Two-Class Solution

MBTI Dichotomy	Category	Class 1 (The Executive)	Class 2 (The Mediator)
E-I	Extraversion	0.45	0.58
	Introversion	0.55	0.42
S-N	Sensing	0.78	0.12
	Intuition	0.22	0.88
T-F	Thinking	0.85	0.09
	Feeling	0.15	0.91
J-P	Judging	0.92	0.14
	Perceiving	0.08	0.86

3.5. Latent Profile Analysis (LPA)

Latent profile analysis (LPA) was conducted to identify distinct configurations of decision-making styles. Model fit indices (Table 7) indicated that the two-class solution provided the best representation of the data (AIC = 5558, BIC = 5666, SABIC = 5558), outperforming the single-class solution. The two-class model also yielded acceptable classification quality (Entropy = 0.764), and the bootstrap likelihood ratio test (BLRT) confirmed that the two-class solution fit significantly better than the one-class solution (p = .0099).

Table 7 Fit Indices for Latent Profile Analysis Models

Number of Classes	LogLik	AIC	BIC	SABIC	Entropy	BLRT p-value
1 Class	-2824.00	5693.00	5762.00	5693.00	1.000	–

2 Classes	-2745.00	5558.00	5666.00	5558.00	0.764	.0099

AIC = Akaike Information Criterion; BIC = Bayesian Information Criterion; SABIC = Sample-size Adjusted BIC; BLRT = Bootstrap Likelihood Ratio Test. Lower AIC/BIC values indicate better fit.

The estimated means for decision-making styles across the two latent classes are presented in Table 7 and visually depicted in Figure 1. Class 1 (Deliberative–Analytic; ~40%) was characterized by particularly high reliance on rational styles (Rational Fact Base = 4.81, Rational Plan Base = 4.42, Rational Analytic = 3.63), coupled with only moderate endorsement of Classical Intuition (3.72) and lower scores on spontaneous and heuristic-based styles (Spontaneous = 2.73, Fast Rules-of-Thumb = 2.35, Fast Nature Based = 2.97). This profile reflects a structured, fact-driven approach emphasizing deliberation and planning.

By contrast, Class 2 (Intuitive–Holistic; ~60%) showed a broader and more elevated profile that combined rational structuring (Rational Fact Base = 4.28, Rational Plan Base = 4.20, Rational Analytic = 3.86) with consistently high levels of intuitive and emotional styles (Classical Intuition = 4.43, Spontaneous = 4.23, Emotional = 4.18, Fast Experience Based = 4.00, Fast Nature Based = 4.39, Anticipation = 4.12). This suggests a more holistic orientation that integrates rational and intuitive resources.

Table 8 Estimated Means and Standard Errors for Decision-Making Styles Across Latent Profiles

Decision-Making Style	Deliberative–Analytic (Class 1; ~40%)	Intuitive–Holistic (Class 2; ~60%)
Rational Fact Base	4.81 (0.27)***	4.28 (0.09)***
Rational Plan Base	4.42 (0.23)***	4.20 (0.10)***
Rational Analytic	3.63 (0.25)***	3.86 (0.11)***
Classical Intuition	3.72 (0.16)***	4.43 (0.16)***
Spontaneous	2.73 (0.31)***	4.23 (0.12)***
Slow Unconscious	3.68 (0.30)***	3.28 (0.11)***
Emotional	3.48 (0.22)***	4.18 (0.13)***
Fast Experience Based	3.22 (0.21)***	4.00 (0.12)***
Fast Rules-of-Thumb Based	2.35 (0.19)***	2.88 (0.12)***

Values represent estimated means with standard errors in parentheses. ***p < .001.

As shown in Figure 1, the two profiles differed most clearly on spontaneous, intuitive, and heuristic dimensions, with Class 2 scoring substantially higher. Together, these results indicate the presence of two distinct decision-making orientations: one favoring analytic deliberation and the other reflecting a balanced but intuition-dominant style.

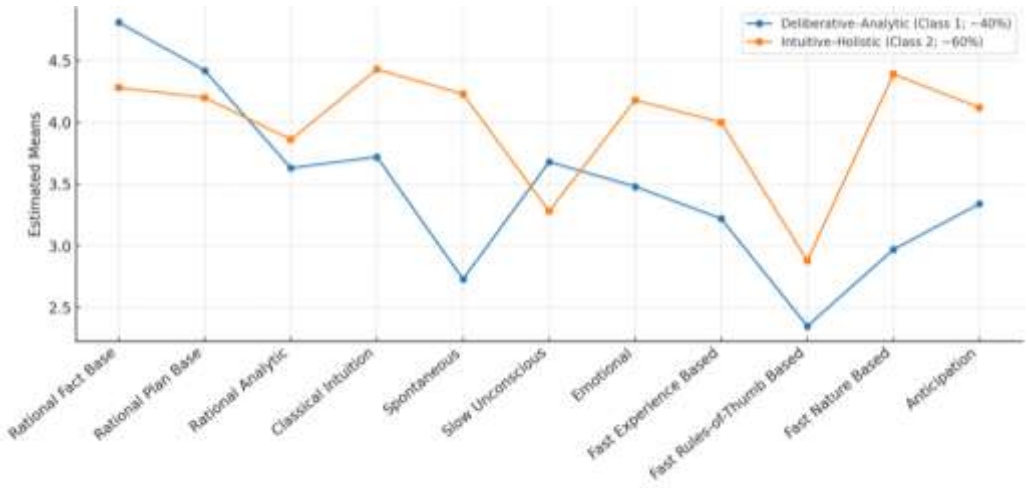

Figure 1 The two latent profiles across decision-making styles.
Source: Authors' own work

3.6. MBTI Dichotomies and Decision-Making Styles

Given the results of the LCA, the MBTI dichotomies were analyzed separately using Welch's ANOVAs to examine group differences in decision-making styles (Table 8). Significant differences emerged across three of the four dichotomies.

For the Extraversion–Introversion (EI) dichotomy, significant effects were found for Rational Fact Base ($F(1, 175) = 7.93$, $p = .005$, $\eta^2 = .043$), Spontaneous ($F(1, 176) = 7.63$, $p = .006$, $\eta^2 = .041$), Emotional ($F(1, 175) = 6.41$, $p = .012$, $\eta^2 = .035$), and Fast Nature Based ($F(1, 174) = 5.54$, $p = .020$, $\eta^2 = .031$). These results suggest that extraverts and introverts differ in rational, spontaneous, emotional, and intuitive tendencies, with all effects falling in the small-to-medium range. For the Sensing–Intuition (NS) dichotomy, stronger effects were observed. Significant differences emerged for Rational Fact Base ($F(1, 176) = 10.10$, $p = .002$, $\eta^2 = .054$) and Rational Plan Base ($F(1, 172) = 11.52$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .063$), both reflecting medium effects. Even larger differences were found for Classical Intuition ($F(1, 171) = 20.66$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .108$) and Emotional ($F(1, 173) = 17.88$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .094$), both approaching the large effect range. These findings suggest that sensing individuals lean more toward rational decision styles, while intuitive individuals strongly emphasize intuitive and emotional approaches. For the Thinking–Feeling (TF) dichotomy, significant effects were also detected for Rational Fact Base ($F(1, 176) = 7.22$, $p = .008$, $\eta^2 = .039$, small-to-medium), Classical Intuition ($F(1, 146) = 8.23$, $p = .005$, $\eta^2 = .053$, medium), and Emotional ($F(1, 159) = 21.15$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .118$, large). These results indicate that thinking types favor rational approaches, whereas feeling types exhibit particularly strong emotional and intuitive tendencies. Finally, for the Perceiving–Judging (PJ) dichotomy, no significant differences were observed across any decision-making style (all $ps > .50$, $\eta^2 < .01$).

Table 9: One-Way ANOVA (Welch's) Results for MBTI Dichotomies

Variable	Dichotomy	F	df1	df2	p	η^2 (approx.)
Rational Fact Base	EI	7.926	1	175	0.005	.043
Spontaneous	EI	7.632	1	176	0.006	.041
Emotional	EI	6.410	1	175	0.012	.035
Fast Nature Base	EI	5.539	1	174	0.020	.031
Rational Fact Base	NS	10.102	1	176	0.002	.054
Rational Plan Base	NS	11.515	1	172	< .001	.063
Classical Intuition	NS	20.663	1	171	< .001	.108
Emotional	NS	17.881	1	173	< .001	.094
Rational Fact Base	TF	7.224	1	176	0.008	.039
Classical Intuition	TF	8.229	1	146	0.005	.053
Emotional	TF	21.148	1	159	< .001	.118
Rational Fact Base	PJ	0.060	1	97.7	0.808	.001
Rational Plan Base	PJ	0.269	1	97.1	0.605	.003
Classical Intuition	PJ	0.031	1	103.6	0.860	.000

4. Discussion

This study aimed to investigate the relationships between MBTI personality profiles and a comprehensive range of decision-making styles using person-centered methodological approaches within a sample of employees from Uelzen, Germany. By employing Latent Class Analysis (LCA) on MBTI dichotomies and Latent Profile Analysis (LPA) on decision-making styles measured via the initial version of RIDMS scale (Launer & Çetin, 2025), the research sought to address gaps in the literature regarding inconsistent findings on MBTI-decision-making links (Hough & Ogilvie, 2005), the lack of culturally situated studies (Güss et al., 2015), and the underutilization of person-centered techniques (Spurk et al., 2020). The results revealed two distinct MBTI-based classes ("The Executive" and "The Mediator") and two decision-making profiles ("Deliberative-Analytic" and "Intuitive-Holistic"), with significant differences across most MBTI dichotomies (Extraversion-Introversion, Sensing-Intuition, Thinking-Feeling) in decision-making styles, aligning with theoretical expectations from personality

psychology and behavioral decision theory (Jung, 1971; Myers & McCaulley, 1985; Gardner & Martinko, 1996).

The findings largely support the hypothesized associations between MBTI dimensions and decision-making styles outlined in the theoretical foundation. For instance, Sensing (S) types showed a stronger alignment with rational styles such as Rational Fact and Rational Plan, consistent with their preference for concrete, fact-based information (Gardner & Martinko, 1996; Scott & Bruce, 1995). In contrast, Intuitive (N) types exhibited higher scores on Classical Intuition and Emotional styles, reflecting a lean toward abstract patterns and affective processes (Dane & Pratt, 2007; Epstein, 1994). Similarly, Thinking (T) types favored Rational Fact, while Feeling (F) types emphasized Emotional and Classical Intuition, corroborating the prioritization of logic versus values in decision-making (Hough & Ogilvie, 2005; Hammond et al., 1999). The lack of significant differences for the Judging-Perceiving (J-P) dichotomy, however, diverges from some expectations that Judging types might prefer more structured styles like Rational Plan (Myers & Myers, 1995), suggesting that in this regional sample, flexibility versus structure may not distinctly influence decision-making as strongly as other dichotomies. These patterns extend prior research by integrating modern intuitive conceptualizations (e.g., Anticipation, Fast Rules of Thumb) with MBTI (Gigerenzer & Gaissmaier, 2011; Sadler-Smith, 2008), and the positive correlations among intuitive styles (e.g., Spontaneous with Fast Nature, $r = .453$) highlight the interconnected nature of non-deliberative processes as per dual-process theories (Kahneman, 2011; Epstein, 1994).

4.1. Theoretical Contributions

Theoretically, this study advances the understanding of personality-decision-making interplay by adopting a person-centered lens, revealing heterogeneous subgroups that variable-centered approaches might overlook (Spurk et al., 2020). The identification of the "Executive" class (high J, T, S, I probabilities) aligns with a structured, logical orientation akin to rational decision theory (Hammond et al., 1999; Hastie & Dawes, 2010), while the "Mediator" class (high F, N, P, E) embodies a flexible, empathetic profile resonant with experiential systems (Epstein, 1994; Hogarth, 2001). Similarly, the LPA profiles contribute to dual-process models by demonstrating that decision-making is not strictly dichotomous; the "Intuitive-Holistic" profile, comprising ~60% of the sample and high on both rational and intuitive dimensions, suggests an integrative approach where individuals blend analytical and heuristic strategies (Kahneman, 2011; Dane & Pratt, 2007). This challenges fragmented views in prior literature (Hough & Ogilvie, 2005; Thunholm, 2004) and enriches Jungian typology (Jung, 1971) by linking MBTI classes to RIDMS configurations in a culturally specific context (Güss et al., 2015). Furthermore, the good CFA fit for the 11 RIDMS dimensions validates the scale's structure (Launer & Çetin, 2025), providing a robust framework for future multi-faceted decision-making research.

4.2. Practical Implications

Practically, these insights have implications for organizational settings in Uelzen and similar regional contexts. For leadership training and career counseling, identifying MBTI classes like "Executive" could guide placements in roles requiring structured decision-making, such as project management, where rational styles predominate (Gardner & Martinko, 1996; Scott & Bruce, 1995). Conversely, "Mediator" types might excel in collaborative environments emphasizing emotional and anticipatory intuition (Sadler-Smith, 2008; Epstein, 1994), informing team composition to balance deliberative and holistic profiles. In German workplaces, where cultural norms value precision and consensus (Güss et al., 2015), tailoring interventions based on these profiles could enhance decision efficacy, reduce biases from mismatched styles (Kahneman, 2011), and improve employee satisfaction. Additionally, the RIDMS scale (Launer & Çetin, 2025) offers a practical tool for assessments, enabling HR professionals to foster adaptive decision-making through targeted workshops on integrating rational and intuitive approaches (Hogarth, 2001; Gigerenzer & Gaissmaier, 2011).

4.3. Limitations

Despite these contributions, several limitations warrant consideration. First, the sample of 180 employees from Uelzen may limit generalizability beyond this regional, German context, as cultural factors could influence expressions of personality and decision-making (Güss et al., 2015; Thunholm,

2004). The slight male majority and diverse tenure/experience levels add variability but may not fully represent broader populations. Second, reliance on self-reported measures, including a short-version MBTI (authors' design) and the initial RIDMS scale (Launer & Çetin, 2025), introduces potential biases like social desirability, though the CFA's adequate fit mitigates some concerns about measurement validity (Myers & McCaulley, 1985). Third, the two-class solutions for LCA and LPA, while statistically optimal (e.g., Entropy = 0.862 for LCA), might oversimplify complex configurations; future studies could explore more classes with larger samples (Spurk et al., 2020). Finally, the cross-sectional design precludes causal inferences about how MBTI influences decision-making over time (Hough & Ogilvie, 2005), and the absence of PJ differences suggests unexplored moderators like situational factors (Gardner & Martinko, 1996).

Conclusions

In conclusion, this study bridges key gaps by demonstrating nuanced links between MBTI profiles and decision-making styles in a Uelzen sample, supporting theoretical predictions (Jung, 1971; Scott & Bruce, 1995) while highlighting integrative patterns via person-centered analyses (Spurk et al., 2020). The findings underscore the value of comprehensive models like RIDMS (Launer & Çetin, 2025) in capturing decision-making diversity, offering theoretical advancements in personality psychology and practical tools for regional applications. Future research should employ longitudinal designs, diverse samples, and additional moderators to further refine these insights, ultimately enhancing our understanding of how personality shapes decisions in varied contexts (Kahneman, 2011; Güss et al., 2015).

Welch's ANOVAs were conducted for each MBTI dichotomy separately. Effect sizes (η^2) are approximate and represent the proportion of variance explained by the dichotomy. Conventional benchmarks: small (.01), medium (.06), large (.14).

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