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Matching Learner Personality Trait with Preferred Type of Learning

Activity

The Case of First Year EFL Master Students at Mila University Centre

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfilment for the Requirement of the Master Degree in
Didactics of Foreign Languages

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Dedication I

To my parents.

To the memory of my grandfather.

To my siblings, nephews, and their families.

To those who helped me along my path.

To my cousins and friends.

Meryem

Dedication II

To my loving parents who have always loved me unconditionally, the strongest pillar in my life, I owe you my life and all my success. The lines would be drained and the inks would become dried if I think of giving your unconditional love and care a description.

To my siblings, the sample of love and giving. To their children, the angels of my world.

To the very best of me, the apple of my eye, my sunshine, my gift from heaven who I am truly blessed to have in my life.

To my closest friends who were always here for me despite the distance. To whoever supported me along my path.

May Allah bless them all.

Khadidja

Acknowledgments:

Abstract

The current study attempts to investigate the relationship between learners' personality traits, mainly extraversion and introversion, and their preferred type of learning activities. Within the context of this study, two research questions are raised: (1) How would the participants cluster in terms of their personality type? (2) Is there a relation between the generated personality clusters and learners' preferred learning activities? Based on the research questions, a hypothesis is set: there is a significant association between learners' personality type and their preferred type of learning activities. To reach the aims of the study, answer the research questions, and test the hypothesis, a questionnaire is administered to a hundred Master 1 students of English from the Department of Foreign Languages at Mila University Centre. The collected data is analysed using hierarchical cluster analysis and Chi-square test, conducted through the SPSS software (version 26). The major findings reveal an identification of three distinct personality types among the participants. The findings also partly suggest a significant association between personality traits and some learning activities, although the relationship is not always directly related to learners' activity preferences. Ultimately, the research work imparts an assortment of limitation, implications, and recommendations for pedagogy and further research.

Key words: Personality traits, learning activities, cluster, association, preference.

List of Abbreviations

ARAS: Ascending Reticular Activating System

B.A: Bachelor of Arts

CLIL: Content and Language Integrated Learning

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

FL: foreign language

GTM: Grammar Translation Method

IDs: Individual differences

L2: second language

NL: Native language

PF: Personality factor

PS: Personality Scale

SD: Standard Deviation

SED: Squared Euclidean Distance

SL: Source language

TL: Target Language

US: United States

List of Tables

List of Figures

List of Contents

General Introduction

Chapter One: Personality Traits and Language Learning Activities

1.1.Personality Traits

1.2. Language Learning Activities

Chapter Two: Associating Learners' Personality Traits with Their Preferred

Learning Activities: The Field Work

General Conclusion

General Introduction

1. Statement of the Problem

In English as a Foreign Language (EFL) environments, various factors can exert an influence on the learning process, and one crucial factor among them is individual differences. Individual differences encompass a range of aspects such as aptitude, age, learning style, motivation, interest, intelligence, and personality. Personality, in particular, stands out as a significant determinant of language learning outcomes, playing a vital role in learners' success or failure. It pertains to the distinctive characteristics and traits exhibited by individuals, with these traits being enduring features that govern learners' behaviours and ultimately shape their preferences in the learning context. Notably, extraversion and introversion are recognised as key personality traits that have considerable bearing on Second/Foreign Language Learning.

In language teaching, various methods have been developed, each associated with a set of accompanying activities. Consequently, learning activities have gained great importance as they contribute to the achievement of the set learning objectives. Recognising that personality traits are integral to the learning process and given the significance of learning activities, attention has been drawn to the relationship between learners' personality types and their preferences for specific learning activities. In fact, the exploration of personality traits and their connection to learning activities has received limited attention. In light of this, the essence of this study lies in aligning learners' personality traits, particularly extraversion-introversion, with their preferred type of learning activities.

2. Aims of the Study

This study investigates the relation between learners' personality traits, mainly extroversion and introversion, and their preferred type of learning activities; the case study

addresses Master 1 students of English at Mila University Centre. The study is, therefore, an attempt to cluster the participants according to their personality type in the first place. Then, it attempts to associate the personality clusters to which learners belong with their preferred in-learning activities. This study is likely to make teachers aware of the importance of learners' personality types and their preferences in terms of activity types when selecting learning activities.

3. Significance of the Study

The interplay between language learning and personality traits has garnered considerable attention in numerous studies. However, relatively few investigations have placed emphasis on exploring the link between personality traits and learners' preferred type of learning activities. Consequently, the present research assumes significance as it aims to fill in this gap by contributing its findings to this area of inquiry. By delving into this topic, the study underscores the importance of recognizing and acknowledging the influence of personality types in language learning. It also speaks to the implications of recognising the importance of personality type in the language learning process.

4. The Research Questions

This study seeks to answer the following questions:

1- How would the participants cluster in terms of their personality type?

2- Is there a relation between the generated personality clusters and learners' preferred learning activities?

5. The Hypotheses

Based on the formulated research questions, we hypothesise that:

1. **H_1:** there is a significant association between learners' personality type and their preferred type of learning activities.

H₀: there is no association between learners' personality type and their preferred type of learning activities.

6. Means of the Research

This research intends to determine the match between learners' personality traits and their preferred type of learning activities. In order to collect the data that will help in the completion of this work, this study utilises a questionnaire to reach the set aims and answer the research questions. The questionnaire is addressed to Master one EFL students at the Department of Foreign Languages, Mila University Centre. The sample consists of 100 participants representing a target population of 206 students in total. The data is analysed using hierarchical cluster analysis and Chi-square test through SPSS statistics software.

7. Structure of the Dissertation

This dissertation consists of two chapters wherein the first chapter constitutes the theoretical part of the research, while the second is devoted to the practical part. The first chapter, entitled "Personality Traits and EFL learning Activities", has two sections, which offer a theoretical insight into both personality traits and EFL learning activities. The first section, "Personality Traits", starts of by offering an overview of human individual differences. Furthermore, it provides a definition of personality according to different scholars and standpoints. Following that, an account is made of the major personality theories, putting more emphasis on traits theory and its major models, principally Eysenck's model. The first section ends by highlighting the importance of extraversion/introversion in EFL classrooms. The second section, "Language Learning Activities", offers an insight into the concepts of approach, method and technique. Moreover, it discusses the main teaching approaches and methods and their principles and concomitant activities. It, then, provides the most recent EFL learning and teaching activities.

The section concludes by demonstrating the relationship between personality traits and learning activities.

The second chapter, entitled "Associating Learners' Personality Traits with Their Preferred Type of Learning Activities: The Field Work", is devised to provide a description of the practical part of the current research. The chapter sets out by providing a reminder of the aims of the study, research questions, and the hypotheses. Within this chapter, the research methodology is thoroughly explained. In the same vein, considerable attention is devoted to the description and analysis of the questionnaire, and discussion of the main findings as well as the major implications that they are likely to bring about. Towards the end, the chapter concludes with discussing the limitations of the study as well as contributing some recommendations for pedagogy and research.

Chapter One: Personality Traits and Language Learning Activities

Introduction

It is no secret that a plethora of individual differences grants the extraordinary heterogeneity and uniqueness among individuals. This diversity is equally evident within educational environments, where no two learners can be considered identical. It is an undeniable truth that each student, in any given learning context, possesses a distinctive array of abilities, capacities, skills, inclinations, thoughts, and preferences that set him/her apart from his/her peers. Essentially, it is these individual differences, specifically of a psychological nature, that significantly contribute to the development of learners' personalities and subsequently shape their distinctive characters. In this account, personality traits play a significant role in influencing various aspects of learners' attitudes, including their behaviours, motivations, and preferences.

Within the realm of education, understanding the relation of personality traits with teaching and learning activities is of great importance, which, in turn, shape their engagement and response to various instructional approaches and methods. Recognising the interplay between learners' personality traits and activity types is crucial for teachers seeking to create a supportive and engaging learning environment that accommodates diverse learners' needs.

This chapter is composed of two sections. The first section, entitled "Personality Traits," starts with a review of the concept and sources of individual differences among people. It also introduces to introduce the notion of personality by offering a set of definitions of the term. Subsequently, it provides a concise overview of various personality theories. The emphasis is placed on trait theory, including its models. Eysenck's model receives greater focus within this

section. Lastly, the section briefly discusses the role of extraversion and introversion in the EFL classroom to pave the way to the next section.

Moving forward, the second section, entitled "Language Learning Activities", discusses the major teaching approaches and methods, their principles, and concomitant learning activities. Then, it attempts to review the most recent learning activities. Finally, the section concludes by exploring the relationship between personality traits (extraversion/introversion) and learning activities.

1.1. Personality Traits

1.1.1. Individual Differences

Since ancient times, the uniqueness and individuality of humans have been observed and acknowledged. The ancient Greek philosopher Plato, hundreds of years ago, asserted that "no two persons are born exactly alike; but each differs from the other in natural endowments, one being suited for one occupation and the other for another" (as cited in Nazimuddin, 2014, p. 183). This central feature of humans continued to gain interest until it resulted in being a subdiscipline within the field of psychology, traditionally referred to as differential psychology, but more recently known as individual difference research. Individual differences encompass the unique variations in behaviour, cognition, personality, and other psychological traits that exist among people. As Dörnyei (2005) stated, "they concern anything that marks a person as a distinct and unique human being" (p.3).

It is undeniable that individuals differ in countless ways. Therefore, it is essential to note that differential psychology deals only with differences that are characterised as being relatively stable and exhibit continuity over time. In this sense, several differences among people are not significant to the field of differential psychology as they cannot aid in exploring how and why humans are distinct. Eysenck (1994) confirmed: "Although human beings differ from each other

in numerous ways, some of those ways are clearly of more significance to psychology than others"
(p.1). Individual differences (IDs) in psychology have been remarkably linked to personality and
intelligence, but usually the term is interpreted more broadly to include temperament, attitudes,
abilities, mood, motivation, interests, values, capacities, skills, and so forth.

The issue of "nature or nurture", the fascinating issue in psychology, has also been linked
to individual differences research. It is questionable whether the distinctness among people is
determined by heredity or environmental influence. The "nature versus nurture" debate has been
under discussion by numerous scholars. In this vein, Anastasi (1994) stated an interesting
conclusion where she pointed out that the inherited information set broad limits to one's
development and within these limits, the environment contributes to what individuals actually
become.

The existence of individual differences (IDs) in humans makes the field of human sciences
intriguing and significant. If all humans were similar, studies would be generalised and applied to
everyone, leading to a lack of specificity and individualisation. In addition to aiding in
understanding oneself and others, the importance of IDs has been widely recognised in education.
The classroom environment does not consist of uniform learners, but rather an environment with
many individual differences. In their learning process, students show a remarkable variability.
Some students are slow learners, while others are quick learners. Some require additional
assistance from teachers, while others learn independently (Moore et al., 2001). In this vein, Kubat
(2018) defined IDs as personal alterations in learner's behaviour that distinguish their learning of
a given language from that of other learners. Given the variability among students, it is necessary
to plan for a learning environment that emphasises individual differences. Attempting to create a
"one size fits all" learning environment is likely to lead to an exclusive atmosphere where many

learners are not engaged in the learning process. Kubat (2018) confirmed that "The lack of knowledge on such differences amongst students may cause students not to participate in the learning-teaching process and thus academic failure" (p.31). That is to say, highlighting the importance of IDs can help create an inclusive learning environment where all students are engaged and assisted in achieving academic success.

There are many individual differences which may influence learning, but there exists no single list that states those differences in the literature. Rather, distinct types have been added over time namely intelligence, motivation, learning styles, aptitude, and personality, to name but a few. Personality is the individual difference put under investigation in the current study.

1.1.2. Personality

Throughout history, the unique and distinct nature of each human being has inspired some of the greatest minds to theorise and observe. Personality is widely considered one of the major characteristics underlying such distinctiveness. In the early 20th century, psychologists became increasingly interested in understanding how personalities develop and why they differ from one another. In the 1930s, personality psychology emerged as a distinct field within the social sciences when the American psychologist Gordon Allport (1937) published his book "Personality: a psychological interpretation". However, the roots of personality theory can be traced back to ancient times, when the Greek physician Hippocrates recorded the first known personality model. Hippocrates posited that an individual persona consists of four major temperaments: sanguine, melancholic, choleric, and phlegmatic (as cited in Allport, 1937, p.64).

Defining "personality" concisely is a challenging task, despite its widespread use. However, theorists commonly agree on the term's etymology, which is derived from the Latin word "persona." This term refers to a theatrical mask that was first used in Greek drama and

adopted by Roman actors approximately a century before Christ (Feist & Feist, 2009). Thus, personality can be understood as the external and visible characteristics of an individual and how they are perceived by others.

The word personality has encountered a salient shift from its initial meaning, "assumed behaviour", to a fully opposite one, "inner nature" (Allport, 1937, p.29). In the present study, personality is defined as the various aspects of an individual's character that combine to make them distinct from others (Oxford dictionary, 2023). Similarly, Janus (2011) defined personality as those original characteristics and qualities which make an individual unique and different from the crowd unit (as cited in I. Jurczak & E. Jurczak, 2015). Additionally, Allport (1937) described personality as "the dynamic organisation within the individual of those psychophysical systems that determine their unique adjustments to their environment" (p. 48), following a thorough analysis of how to describe personality. This suggests that personality is the organised growth of mental and biological predispositions that direct specific behaviours and thoughts, ultimately determining an individual's uniqueness. Similarly, Warren (1934) asserted that personality is what represents and distinguishes an individual from others encompassing all cognitive, emotional, and physical characteristics.

Another definition from Eysenck (1970) provides a more detailed view of the concept by stating that personality is:

> The sum-total of the actual or potential behaviour-patterns of the organism, as determined by heredity and environment; it originates and develops through the functional interaction of the four main sectors into which these behaviour-patterns are organized: the cognitive sector (intelligence), the conative sector (character), the affective sector (temperament) and the somatic sector (constitution). (p.25)

To elaborate, personality is determined by heredity, which refers to "nature" and it includes those factors that stem from biology, like physical structure, gender, temperament and energy level. Also, it is determined by environment, which refers to "nurture"; it involves the factors that exert pressure on personality formation, like the culture in which individuals are raised, their early conditioning, the norms among their family, friends and social groups. Moreover, intelligence, character, temperament and physical characteristics are the four major domains that determine one's actions and responses in different situations.

It is worthy to mention that Schultz and Schultz (2017) stated that personality includes:

> Many attributes of an individual, a totality or collection of various characteristics that goes beyond superficial physical qualities. The word encompasses a host of subjective social and emotional qualities as well, ones that we may not be able to see directly, that a person may try to hide from us, or that we may try to hide from others. (p. 10)

That is to say, personality consists of two types of characteristics: enduring and unique characteristics. The former refers to those stable and predictable characteristics that a person possesses; however, these characteristics can be changed in some specific situations. For instance, if there is a person who is most of the time calm, this same person can panic at other times. Thus, personality is not static, and it can convert according to the situation; however, it is resistant to sudden changes. As for the latter type, it refers to those special qualities that arbitrate the uniqueness and distinctiveness of an individual (Schultz & Schultz, 2017).

When supported by evidence and usage, there can be no such thing as a wrong or right definition for any term. This applies to the concept of personality, which lacks a specific universal definition. Each theorist approaches the structure and functioning of personality based on his/her

field of research and theory. Numerous personality theories offer different explanations on how to address issues related to personality functioning. For example, they provide various explanations on the role of conscious/unconscious factors, determinism/freedom in functioning, the role of early experiences, the role of genetic factors, uniqueness/universality, and other factors.

In summary, an individual's personality is unique, special, and stable just like fingerprints; however, one's behaviours and skills are in continual development through time.

1.1.3. Theories of Personality

Before tackling the different theories that have addressed personality, it is crucial to highlight the distinction that is made between two approaches to personality: idiographic and nomothetic approaches. The former tends to describe the personality of an individual as a unique structure. No two persons have exactly the same personality variables. The idiographic approach produces a unique understanding of an individual's personality, since it considers differences to be infinite and much greater than similarities (Maltby et al., 2017). In contrast, the latter is based on the existence of a finite set of variables that can be used to describe human personality. Figure 1.1 provides a well-established comparison between the two approaches.

Figure 1.1.

Comparison of Idiographic and Nomothetic Approaches to the Study of Personality

Feature	Idiographic	Nomothetic
Strategy	Emphasises the uniqueness of individuals	Focuses on similarities between groups of individuals. Individuals are unique only in the way their traits combine
Goal	To develop an in-depth understanding of the individual	To identify the basic structure of personality and the minimum number of traits required to describe personality universally
Research methodology	Qualitative methodologies to produce case studies mainly. Some generalisation across series of case studies is possible	Quantitative methods to: • explore the structures of personality • produce measures of personality • explore the relationships between variables across groups
Data collection	Interviews, diaries, narratives, treatment of session data	Self-report personality questionnaires
Advantages	Depth of understanding of the individual	Discovery of general principles that have a predictive function
Disadvantages	Can be difficult to make generalisations from the data	Can lead to a fairly superficial understanding of any one person. Training needed to analyse personality profiles accurately

Note: From *Personality, individual differences and intelligence* (4th ed., p.8), by J. Maltby, L. Day, & A. Macaskill, 2017, Pearson. Copyright 2017 by Pearson Education Limited.

In the light of the two approaches to the study of personality and due to the challenges the field advocates, various scholars and theorists have attempted to handle a better understanding of humans' personality, each from an individual reference point (Feist & Feist, 2009). The present section introduces the major prominent personality theories namely the psychoanalytic theory, the behavioural theory, the humanistic theory, the cognitive theory, the biological theory, and trait theory.

1.1.3.1. The Psychoanalytical Theory. The Psychoanalytic approach to personality is a psychological theory developed in the late 19th and early 20th centuries by the Austrian neurologist Sigmund Freud. The approach is grounded on the basis that most humans' behaviours are directed by motives of which they are unaware. Unconsciousness is an important concept for Freud since

he emphasised the unconscious forces of behaviours and considered them the shapers of personality (Fairbairn, 1994).

Freud believed that there exist three levels of personality: the conscious, the preconscious, and the unconscious. The conscious consists of all the sensations and experiences people are actively aware of at any moment. Freud considered the conscious a limited aspect of personality because only a small portion of our thoughts, sensations, and memories exists in conscious awareness (Schultz & Schultz, 2017). In contrast, he considered the unconscious, which is the focus of his theory, to be the most important. The unconscious contains the major driving forces behind human behaviours. For Freud, thoughts that are stored in the unconscious have an unacceptable nature which keeps them there; sexual urges are an example (Maltby et al., 2017). Between these two levels comes the preconscious, a storehouse of thoughts which people are not consciously aware of at the moment, but which can be easily recalled into consciousness.

Freud assumed that a person's personality is made of three structures: the id, the ego, and the superego. The initial structural component is the id. It operates on the pleasure principle where all instincts and the motivating forces that drive behaviour and determine its direction originate. This portion considers only what it wants and disregards all consequences (Sletvold, 2013). Maltby et al. (2017, p.27) stated that: "Freud thought that only the id was present in the baby at birth and that, because of this, infants try to gratify their needs very directly." Then, during development, instincts become socialised and the use of some techniques, such as requesting, to gratify the id impulses is seen. The second structure is the ego. It is considered as the executive and rational part of personality. Unlike the id, the ego operates according to the reality principle. The ego does not prevent id satisfaction. Instead, in the light of reality's demands, it seeks to postpone, delay, or redirect it. The superego refers to the third structural component of personality. It seeks perfection

and helps in making judgements about what is right or wrong and which behaviours are permissible. Without the superego, people would behave with immoral behaviours (Rennison, 2015).

The three parts of personality are in constant conflict. The outcome of this struggle can be seen as symptoms of mental upset or disturbance, and anxiety stands as the one which most people experience (Maltby et al., 2017). Freud is credited with developing an outstanding theory which remains influential after a long time of its development; however, he is criticised for having a narrow basis to explain behaviour where he totally ignored the social aspect of individuals' life.

1.1.3.2. The Behavioural Theory. Behaviourism was a radical shift away from Freudian philosophy. The 1920s witnessed a huge rise in the popularity of behaviouristic perspectives, which dominated psychology for more than 60 years. Behaviourism is a school of thought which is also called the natural-science approach to psychology; it was developed by John B. Watson who is considered as the founder of behaviourism. This approach was built upon careful experimental research on stimulus and response variables. According to behaviourists, personality is seen as a collection of conditioned responses (observable behaviour) to external stimuli (environmental events). It is also considered as everything that is observable and can be manipulated (Schultz & Schultz, 2017).

Ivan Pavlov, Edwin Thorndike, John B. Watson, and B.F. Skinner are the most famous figures who contributed to the behaviouristic view. They emphasised the role of environmental stimuli in determining the way people act while disregarding thoughts, feelings and other inner mental states which cannot be studied empirically, and so have no place in behaviourist theory (Glassman & Hadad, 2009). In this vein, unlike most other theorists in different approaches to personality, behavioural theorists rejected any internal forces and processes and focused solely on

the external stimuli that shape behaviour. Accordingly, skinner stated that "The inside of the organism is irrelevant either as the site of physiological processes or as the locus of mentalistic activities" (as cited in Schultz & Schultz, 2017, 318).

The behaviouristic approach is well known by two types of conditioning: the classical conditioning which was developed by Pavlov and Watson, and operant conditioning which was developed by Thorndike and Skinner. Classical conditioning, also known as respondent conditioning, was introduced by the Russian psychologist Ivan Pavlov and had a profound influence on behaviourism. According to Glassman and Hadad (2009, p.116), "classical conditioning is the study of learning which involves reflex responses, in which a neutral stimulus comes to elicit an existing reflex response". In other words, respondent conditioning is the process by which an organism learns to associate an unconditioned stimulus that causes an involuntary, or unconditioned, response, with a new neutral stimulus that in turn elicits the same response. The new stimulus then becomes a conditioned stimulus, and the newly learned behaviour becomes a conditioned response. Pavlov's work with dogs led him to discover that his dogs salivated (unconditioned response) whenever they were presented with food (unconditioned stimulus). He later introduced a bell as a neutral stimulus and paired it with food. By repeating this process several times, he observed that whenever the bell rang (conditioned stimulus), the dogs salivated even in the absence of food (conditioned response). Pavlov continued ringing the bell without presenting the food and noticed a gradual decrease in salivation until it ceased. Thus, reinforcement is essential in increasing the likelihood of repeating a response (Clark, 2004).

The disregarding of the spontaneousness of behaviours and tracing them directly to a specific stimulus was the main reason why classical conditioning was criticised (Schultz & Schultz, 2017). Inspired by the works of both Pavlov and Thorndike, the American psychologist

B.F Skinner developed new principle in behaviourism, which is called operant conditioning, also known as instrumental conditioning. According to Glassman and Hadad (2009, p.129) "Operant conditioning is the form of learning concerned with changes in emitted responses (voluntary behaviour) as a function of their consequences." In other words, it is the procedure in which a change in the consequences of a response (reward or punishment) affects the degree to which the response occurs (repeat or cease of certain behaviour). Unlike classical conditioning that uses two unrelated stimuli, operant conditioning helps in predicting how someone will behave by using rewards and punishment. For example, Skinner made an experiment on a rat; placed the rat inside a box and inside it was a lever that releases food when pressed. The conditioning happened in a three-term contingency known as the ABCs of behaviour. "A" stands for antecedent, where the rat pressed the lever unintentionally which caused the release of food. "B" stands for behaviour (response) where the rat repeated the same behaviour which is pressing the lever. "C" stands for consequence where food kept coming out whenever the lever was pressed (Glassman & Hadad, 2009).

For Skinner operant conditioning is a method of learning where the consequence of a response determines the probability of it being repeated. This means that a behaviour which is reinforced (rewarded) is likely to be repeated while that which is punished occurs less frequently Schultz & Schultz (2017).

In summary, Skinner agreed in a way with Freud's theory about "why people make decisions"; Freud believed that the unconscious mind is constantly seeking pleasure and avoiding pain in any way possible. Similarly, Skinner believed that organisms tend to repeat behaviours that are rewarded and avoid those that are punished. Therefore, the Skinner's taxonomy of reward/ punishment is associated with Freud's taxonomy of pleasure and pain. Accordingly, Schultz and

Schultz (2017) stated that "personality is a pattern of operant behaviours". To put in a different way, personality is a set of long-term observable behaviour patterns that are conditioned using reinforcement and everything that is unobservable such as, mental, and physiological processes are irrelevant.

Behaviourism was criticised because of ignoring the concept of free will and individual choice as well as internal forces. It considers individuals as passive respondents to stimuli.

1.1.3.3. The Humanistic Theory. The humanistic approach is a psychological perspective on personality which appeared as a reaction to psychoanalysis and behaviourism and rejected their arguments. Abraham Maslow is considered the father and the spiritual leader of the movement along with the contributions of other psychologists, namely Carl Rogers.

Humanistic psychology conceptualises human nature as being positive and explores behaviour at its best. A core characteristic of the humanistic approach is the emphasis on personal growth and development. Human beings are seen to be motivated by their need for positive growth with a personal responsibility; humans' free will in satisfying their needs is emphasised. The approach is also characterised by highlighting the present more than the past or the future. As Maltby et al. (2017, p.129) confirmed, "Within humanistic approaches, individuals are encouraged to savour the moment without worrying overly about the past or the future." Another defining characteristic of the theory is stressing and valuing the uniqueness and the experiences of each individual.

Considering the assumptions of the approach, Maslow (1954) stated that human beings have insitinctoid tendencies, as he labelled it, towards healthy growth and development. These tendencies are innate and positive. If they are fostered, the result will be healthy individuals with positive features; however, if they are lost, individuals will develop negative characters.

Maslow argued that needs vary significantly in terms of importance, so he proposed a set of five needs that activate and direct human behaviour which he organised into a hierarchy. They are the physiological, safety, belongingness and love, esteem, and self-actualisation needs. The needs lower in the hierarchy must be satisfied before higher-level needs to motivate human behaviour.

To begin with, physiological needs include hunger, thirst, sleep…etc. They are considered as survival needs, and once they are satisfied, attention is turned to the next level of needs as a source of motivation. Safety needs, the next level in the hierarchy, are all about people's security, stability, and safety in the environment. Whenever the two levels of needs are well satisfied, the need for belongingness and love becomes important to take care of. Humans are social beings; they always need to feel that they are needed and accepted by the people they are living and dealing with. Friends, family, and intimate relationships are sources where this type of need may be gratified. Esteem needs come next after satisfying the lower needs (McLeod, 2007). Maslow divided these needs into two types. Humans require esteem from themselves in the form of competence, achievement, etc., and from others in terms of respect, social success, etc. The highest level of need is for self-actualisation. This need emerges only if all the basic needs are met. It is about what humans want from life and the reaching of the fullest personality development (Greene & Burke, 2007). According to Schultz and Schultz (2017), "self-actualization depends on the maximum realization and fulfilment of our potentials, talents, and abilities" (p.253). This process is different for everyone since people display numerous differences in their abilities, interests, etc. Maslow (1964) stated that not all individuals achieve self-actualisation; self-actualisers are characterised by several features such as creativity and originality, high levels of self-acceptance,

deep interpersonal relationships, tolerance and acceptance of others, autonomy and self-sufficiency (Maltby et al., 2017; Schulz & Schulz, 2017).

The outlined human needs can be grouped into two types of motivations: deficiency motives and growth motives. The former refer to the lower needs in the hierarchy, where the need for food and safety are examples. These needs are necessary for survival, and their lack motivates humans to get them. The latter are higher needs which are not necessary for survival, but they affect the development of human potential. The more these needs are satisfied, the healthier and happier individuals become. Thus, the difference between the two is that deficiency needs are crucial to ensure survival, while growth needs represent a higher level of functioning (Maltby et al., 2017).

Abraham Maslow is credited with developing a universal model where he also highlighted the difference in culture that may influence the universal application of the model; however, he was criticised for the methodology he used as being a descriptive where scientific argumentation is not used.

1.1.3.4. The Cognitive Theory. The cognitive theory emerged in the 1960s as a revolutionary movement in reaction to behaviourism. While the behavioural approach emphasised exclusively on observable behaviour, the cognitive approach shifted the focus towards the !conscious processes that occur in the mind of individuals, including their perceptions of themselves, others, and situations that influence their behaviour and shape their understanding of the world (Miller, 2003). George Kelly, who is well known by his theory of personal construct, is considered as one of the major theorists in cognitivism.

Kelly's theory represents a unique perspective in the field of psychology, as it emphasises the way individuals perceive and interpret the world around them, similar to how scientists create

and modify theories based on empirical evidence (Raskin, 2002). Unlike other theories that focus on specific aspects of human behaviour, Kelly's theory of personal construct places a significant emphasis on cognition processes. These processes include how individuals perceive, evaluate, and make decisions about themselves and their surroundings (Shaw & Gaines, 1992). Kelly refers to this cognitive framework as the "construct system", which shapes individuals' behaviours and attitudes. In other words, people's unique perspective of the world around them constitutes their reality and shapes their behaviour. Maltby et al. (2017) noted that Kelly's theory represents a shift from traditional behaviourism, which emphasises only observable behaviour, to a more cognitive approach. Schultz and Schultz (2017) further highlighted the significance of Kelly's contributions to the cognitive theory, as he placed the individual at the centre of the process, highlighting the importance of subjective experiences in shaping behaviour.

As cited in Feist and Feist (2009), Kelly brought out a new assumption, namely constructive alternativism, where he stated that "all of our interpretations of the universe are subject to revision or replacement" (p.552). This indicates that these interpretations of the world can be accurate at a given time and inaccurate at another; therefore, they can be entirely modified or changed to suit a given situation. Thus, when unexpected things occur, people adjust a certain event as needed.

Kelly's theory of personal construct is organised into a basic postulate and eleven corollaries. Schultz and Schultz (2017,) stated that "our psychological processes are directed by the ways in which we anticipate events" (p.298). In that vein, the fundamental postulate is those constructions of the world that are used by individuals in predicting and perceiving the future which in turn guide their actions. In addition to the fundamental postulate, Kelly developed eleven

corollaries that allow people to create their personal constructs by describing the way these interpretative processes work.

The cognitive approach to personality emphasises the role of mental processes in shaping personality. Unlike other approaches that focus on observable behaviours or unconscious processes, cognitive psychology emphasises conscious thought and mental processes. Kelly's theory of personal construct, which is based on the idea that individuals function like scientists when interpreting the world around them, is a prominent example of this approach.

However, Kelly's theory has been criticised for oversimplifying individuals' thought processes and not including some essential concepts. Critics such as Feist and Feist (2009) argue that his theory does not fully explain the complexity of human cognition and decision-making, and also find his descriptions of certain corollaries to be unclear or incomplete. Despite these criticisms, the cognitive approach continues to be an influential perspective in the field of psychology, with many researchers, like David Bannister, exploring the role of mental processes in shaping personality and behaviour (Maltby, et al., 2017).

1.1.3.5. The Biological Theory. The biological approach to personality, or biology-based personality research, is a field of research interested in studying the influence of internal physiological and genetic factors in personality. To explore this influence, a few methods have been used, starting from the study of similarities and differences among case studies to reach the use of experimental and neuroscience methods.

Starting from the fact that genes are biologically transmitted from parents to their children, the influence of genes in personality can be explored. It is the study of how personality is passed on from parents to their children, labelled as genetic heritability (Maltby et al., 2017). Focusing on the similarities and differences among people was the way to confirm this heritability. Family

studies, twin studies, and adoption studies are methods used to reach the end of researching the influence of shared genes in personality.

To elaborate, family studies found ground on the fact that the children share 50% of their genes with their father, and the other 50% with their mother, and the same thing goes with their siblings. Family studies alone are not sufficient because families live in an environment which leads a specific personality feature to be due to environmental influence and not genetic heritability (McAdams et al., 2018).

Pushing further, there exist two types of twins; identical or monozygotic twins and fraternal, non-identical, or dizygotic twins. Twin studied have shown that identical twins are more concordant than non-identical twins. This conclusion has produced narrow-sense heritability estimates in the range of 40%, indicating that a considerable part of the variance in personality traits can be attributable to additive genetic factors (Sanchez-Roige et al., 2018). Millon and Lerner (2003) confirmed that the difference in the genetic makeup allows for a better understanding of genetic influence. That is to say, when the calculation of genetic correlation results higher for monozygotic twin than dizygotic twins, genetic influence is present.

Moving to adoption studies, they are also commonly used to provide evidence for the influence of genetics when a comparison is made between parents and adopted children, or between twins who are reared apart. Twins who share the same feature, even though they were raised in two different families, prove the role of genes in personality. Maltby et al. (2017, p.199) noted that: "When researchers have been able to obtain measures from both biological and adoptive parents, children have been found to be more similar to their biological parents than to their adoptive parents in personality."

Family studies, twin studies and adoption studies, which are based on similarities and differences, come to be insufficient; rather, a better understanding of the mechanism by which genes influence personality is needed (Cloninger, 2004).

In an attempt to link personality and biology more objectively and scientifically, many theories in the field of psychophysiology and neuropsychology have emerged. Psychophysiology is concerned with how psychological processes are influenced by the biological functioning of the body, while neuropsychology studies the influence of the brain on those psychological processes. Maltby et al. (2017) highlighted that: "One of the assumptions underlying these research areas is that all behaviour, including personality and individual differences, can be influenced by physiological and neurological factors" (p.211).

Hans Eysenck is one of the first researchers who tried to link biology to personality through shedding light on brain functioning. Based on a physiological and genetic study of personality, Eysenck greatly influenced the field of biology, and his arousal model is considered to be one of the most famous models in biological theory. The strength of the biological model of personality is that it has the advantage of making clear predictions. This indicates that the explanations may be scientifically tested and replicated. However, theorists criticised it due to weak and inconsistent evidence (Clark et al., 1994).

1.1.4. Personality Traits

The origin of trait theory lies in antiquity, tracing back to the ancient Greek philosophers Aristotle who referred to traits as dispositions, Theophrastus who used the term characteristics, and Hippocrates and Galen who called them temperaments (Matthews & Whiteman, 1998). However, in modern times, the American psychologist William Sheldon is considered the founding figure of trait psychology. He proposed a model called somatotypes, which is based on

body build. Sheldon classified people into three categories based on their physical constitution, and each body type is associated with a particular temperament (Maltby et al. 2017).

Unlike other theories of personality that emphasise understanding personality development, the trait theory focused on individual differences. Thus, various personality trait theories have been proposed by Allport, Cattel, McCrae and Costa, and Eysenck (Lampropoulos, et al., 2022).

Development is given a little attention in trait theory.

1.1.4.1. The Difference between Trait and Type. The concepts of type and trait are deeply ingrained in the language of human personality, and yet they are frequently conflated. Thus, a clear distinction between these concepts is necessary.

Personality type refers to a set of traits and characteristics that an individual possesses and shares with others. In other words, individuals can be classified into distinct types. Accordingly, Eysenck (1947, p.25) stated that "type theory tends to classify people into sharply divided groups". The ancient Greek physician and philosopher Hippocrates proposed the first theory of personality types, positing that people's temperaments are determined by their levels of body fluids (humours): sanguine (happy) with blood, phlegmatic (calm) with phlegm, melancholic (depressed) with black bile, and choleric (hot-tempered) with yellow bile (Allport, 1938). More recently, psychologists such as William Sheldon in the 1940s and Karl Jung in the 1920s have shown interest in personality types. Sheldon classified people into three categories based on their physical constitution, with each body type associated with a particular temperament. Within these types, there are, ectomorph people (Light-boned with a slight musculature) who possess the cerebrotonia temperament (need privacy, restrained, and inhibited), mesomorph people (Large, bony with well-defined muscles) who possess the somatotopic temperament (Physically assertive, competitive, and keen on physical

activity), and endomorph people (Rounded body tending towards fatness) who possess the viscerotropic temperament (Associated with a love of relaxation and comfort, like food and are sociable) (Patel & Kacker, 2013). Jung, on the other hand, grouped people into two major types: extraversion and introversion, and later expanded his model to include sensing/intuitive and feeling/thinking taxonomies (Sharp, 1987).

In contrast, personality trait, according to Burger (1997), is "a dimension of personality used to categorise people according to the degree to which they manifest a particular characteristic" (as stated in Maltby, et al., 2017, p.166). Therefore, a trait is the extent to which an individual possesses a certain disposition. Allport (1938) further explained that traits are distinguishing characteristics that guide behaviour and that are measured on a continuum. Maltby et al. (2017) noted that personality traits are stable across different situations and consistent throughout an individual's the life span, indicating that traits remain fixed and unchangeable across situations, and behaviour is maintained over time.

The core trait theorists of personality psychology include Gordon Allport, Raymond Cattel, McCrae and Costa, and Hans Eysenck. These are sketched below.

1.1.4.2. Allport's Theory of Personality Traits. Researchers have been motivated to find the broad dimensions of personality and each one has proposed a model so that to achieve the desired end. The trait approach to personality is a popular model since, compared to other perspectives, it tends to be an easy approach which has a common-sense appeal (Schultz & Schultz, 2017). The trait model emphasises the distinctive characteristics which differentiate one individual from others. Gordon Allport is one of the trait theorists who proposed an outstanding model of the nature of personality and the distinctiveness of individuals. Feist and Feist (2009) stated that "More than any other personality theorist, Gordon Allport emphasised the uniqueness of the individual"

(p.375). He was the first psychologist to publish a psychology text on personality traits entitled "Personality Traits: Their Classification and Measurement".

Allport, along with a colleague, was one of the first theorists to produce a list of words to describe personality characteristic. He identified 4500 words that can describe personality traits. Cloninger (2004) stated that Allport's personological trait theory offers a less formal, more holistic version of trait theory, using the language of everyday life to describe a person' traits. For Allport, traits are unique characteristics which come together to produce a unified personality that is capable of constant evolution and change. That is to say, Allport highlighted the consistency of personality which he considered to be crucial to adapt to new situations. He studied the human nature from a positive optimistic perspective suggesting that human beings are normally rational, creative, active, and self-reliant (Maltby et al., 2017).

Allport proposed two types of traits: common traits and personal or individual traits. Common traits are general characteristics shared by many people (Novicova, 2013). For example, people of a given culture may be described as cooperative since a large number of persons from that community tend to exhibit the same trait. Common traits are then used to compare between people. However, Allport believed that comparisons based on common traits are not useful; the use of personal traits is rather more evident. Personal traits are the unique characteristics of a given person that are peculiar to him/ her.

Allport placed personal dispositions on a continuum arguing that they do not all have the same significance (Feist & Feist, 2009). He classified them into cardinal, central, and secondary traits. A cardinal trait is a trait that influences almost every aspect or behaviour in a person's life. Examples of this type may be sadism and chauvinism. Schultz and Schultz (2017) argued that most people do not have a cardinal trait, but all do have a central one. Central traits are some five to ten

traits that best describe an individual' personality. Aggressiveness is an example. The least influential traits are the secondary traits. They are less conspicuous but greater in number than the two other types. They are not central to the personality; rather, they are more concerned with preferences like the type of food or clothing a person prefers.

Another contribution Allport is credited for is his emphasis on the importance of the concept of "self" more than any other theory of personality. He hypothesised that children are not born with a concept of self, but it gradually develops as a lifelong process of development (Maltby et al., 2017). Therefore, the concept of self, labelled by Allport as the proprium, becomes crucial to the development of identity and individuality.

To sum up, Allport is considered as the pioneer and the first psychologist who attempted to study personality traits and who had a number of outstanding contributions to personality theorising. However, he received a number of critiques. The list of descriptive words of personality characteristics that he proposed tends to be too long to be much practical in assessing personality. He was also criticised on building his theory on philosophy and common-sense rather than scientific investigations.

1.1.4.3. Cattel's Theory of Personality Traits. Raymond Cattel, a prominent personality psychologist, contributed greatly to the study of personality traits by using empirical methods such as factor analysis, in which his supervisor and the inventor of factor analysis, Spearman, trained him well. Cattel's goal was to predict individual behaviour in response to a particular stimulus, and he believed that traits are permanent reaction tendencies that serve as the building blocks of personality. Cattel classified traits in several ways, including distinguishing between common (possessed by everyone) and unique (possessed by very few people) traits, ability (capacity in

achieving goals), temperament (emotionality), dynamic (motives and drives) traits, and surface (temporary characteristics) and source (permanent characteristics) traits (Schultz & Schultz, 2017).

Cattel's emphasis on source traits led him to identify 16 source traits as the basic factors of personality, which he used to create the Sixteen Personality Factors Questionnaire (16 PF). The 16 PF Questionnaire is composed of positive and negative aspects of each source trait at both ends of the continuum. This approach allowed Cattel to assess the individual's standing on each source trait and provide a comprehensive personality profile (Maltby et al., 2017).

Cattel's research also explored the contributions of genetics and the environment to personality traits. He believed that both nature and nurture play a role in shaping personality, and he emphasized the importance of studying personality in normal individuals. Overall, Cattel's work contributed significantly to the field of personality psychology and provided a more empirical approach to studying personality traits. However, the complexity of Cattel's models and the advanced mathematics required to comprehend them led to the criticism of his theory.

1.1.4.4. The Big Five Theory of Personality Traits. To answer the question of how many traits does a single person possess, factor analysis was continually used, and eventually Cattell's vision about personality traits has been captured in a more recent model: The Five-Factor Theory often called the Big-Five. Factor analytic techniques continued to reveal five dominant traits which were developed from the words people use in everyday language to describe personality. The theory gained acceptance on the part of many researchers. Cloninger (2004) asserted that "many researchers are convinced that these five factors constitute the major dimensions of personality, and thus a sensible descriptive foundation upon which further personality research can be based" (p.241). The use of factor analysis was also a source of evidence for the big five structure. Even though many researchers have studied these five factors, Costa, and McCrae are arguably the two

leading proponents of the theory. They asserted that there are five basic traits that make up the basic structure of personality: extraversion, agreeableness, neuroticism, conscientiousness, and openness.

The work of Costa and McCrae focused initially on the two main dimensions of extraversion and neuroticism. Then, they found a third dimension, which they called openness to experience. Their work remained focused on these three dimensions, and later the last two dimensions of conscientiousness and openness were added.

The first factor, extraversion, is an important dimension of personality. It is a measure of individuals' sociability. High scorers are labelled extroverts who tend to be sociable, fun-loving, and talkative, while low scorers are labelled introverts. They are described as being reserved, quiet, and passive. Agreeableness, the second factor, is much more related to the characteristics that are relevant to social interaction. It distinguishes soft-hearted, trusting, and good-natured persons from cold, unpleasant, and rude ones. Neuroticism measures emotional stability. Those who score high on neuroticism are anxious, emotional, and temperamental. Low-scoring people are calm, unemotional, and even-tempered. The factor of conscientiousness describes the level of self-discipline, orderliness, and control. Generally, people who score high in conscientiousness are well-organised, punctual, and ambitious. However, people who score low are less-organised, late, and aimless. The fifth factor, openness, refers to persons' willingness to consider new experiences. People high in openness tend to be creative, original, and curious, while those with low scores are uncreative, conservative, and lacking curiosity. Each of the main dimensions consists of more specific attributes, called facets. A facet is a more precise and focused subordinate trait that contributes to the large factor.

The big five traits have been found across a variety of cultures and they have demonstrated stability over time too. For example, children high in extraversion as children are likely to remain so as adults. McCrae & Costa (1990) held that: "In the course of thirty years, most adults will have undergone radical changes in their life situations. They may have married, divorced, remarried. They have probably moved their residence several times [….] And yet, most will not have changed appreciably in their standing on any of the five dimensions" (p.87).

The big five theory has gained popularity as a more comprehensive and less overwhelming trait model. However, some psychologists such as Sheldon et al. (1997) maintain that traits provide information only about the surface level of personality without explaining human behaviour.

1.1.5. *Eysenck's Personality Traits*

Eysenck is one of the most influential psychologists who richly contributed to the field of personality psychology. Like Cattel, Eysenck adopted the empirical approach, mainly factor analysis, to study personality; he developed a quantitative method that allows observed variations to be assessed with statistical procedures. As a core behaviourist, Eysenck emphasised the role of learned habits; however, his theory is based primarily on psychometrics and biological components.

Eysenck developed a four-level hierarchical typology by observing the behaviour of individuals (Feist & Feist, 2009). The first level is specific responses, those behaviours observed in specific situations. The second level is habitual responses, a set of repeated specific acts (frequently repeating the same behaviour in similar situations). Moreover, these habitual responses, in turn, contribute to the formation of traits, constituting the third level of behaviour organization. Traits consist of a collection of interconnected habitual behaviours. The

intercorrelations among these traits give rise to distinct types, representing the final level of behaviour organization according to Eysenck's theory serving as its focal point.

Eysenck proposed his personality theory based on his observations of people's behaviour in clinical psychology. This experience led him to the publication of his first book "Dimensions of Personality (1947)", which introduced his original dimensional analysis of the two bipolar traits of personality, extraversion/introversion and neuroticism/stability. Later on, he added a third dimensional factor, psychoticism/ superego. It was absent in the first model due to the lack of explanation in his data by the initial personality types.

Eysenck is one of the first psychologists who related biology to personality. For Eysenck, the nervous system has two neural mechanisms, excitatory (alertness), and inhibitory, (inactivity and lethargy) mechanism. As cited in Maltby et al. (2017), Eysenck suggested that the two mechanisms, which he referred to as arousal, are balanced by the ascending reticular activating system (ARAS). Arousal is controlled by two circuits: the reticulo-cortical circuit (controlling cortical arousal to incoming stimuli) and the reticulo-limbic circuit (controlling arousal to emotional stimuli). Eysenck related arousal to extraversion and neuroticism, while he linked psychoticism to the individual's response to stimuli in his/her environment.

1.1.5.1. Extraversion vs Introversion. The dimension of extraversion/introversion was the main focus of Eysenck's theory. It is a bipolar trait which was referred to as factor E by Eysenck, where extraversion occupies one end of the continuum and introversion occupies the other pole (Feist & Feist, 2009). Factor E is believed to have a strong hereditary component. Eysenck related the E trait with the reticulo-cortical circuit, and that the individuals' ARASs respond differently when aroused according to their level of extraversion. If a person is an extravert, the ARAS provides a small amount of arousal, while in the case of introverts, the ARAS

supplies a huger amount of arousal (Maltby, et al., 2017). The level of arousal provided by the ARAS determines the person's reactions to sensory stimulation. Therefore, extroverts have lower levels of arousal and higher sensory thresholds (amount of stimulus energy necessary to elicit a sensory response) than introverts (Schultz & Schultz, 2017). Thus, introverts tend to avoid situations that cause a lot of excitement unlike extroverts who seek excitement in everything, to maintain an optimal level of stimulation.

Extroverts are characterised by traits opposed to those introverts. According to Eysenck (1965 as cited in Skehan, 1989, p.100), extroverts can be described as follows:

> The typical extrovert is a sociable, likes parties, has many friends, needs to have people to talk and does not like reading and studying by himself. He craves excitement, takes chances, often sticks his neck out, acts on the spur of the moment, and is generally an impulsive individual.

In contrast, introverts are defined as follows:

> The typical introvert is a quiet, retiring sort of person, introspective, fond of books rather than people; he is reserved and distant except to intimate friends. He tends to plan ahead and distrusts the impulse of the moment. He does not like excitement, takes matters of everyday life with proper seriousness, and likes a well-ordered mode of life (p.100).

In light of the above quotes, extroverted people are oriented towards the external world while introverted individuals are oriented towards the inner world.

Eysenck (1967) highlighted the point that individuals are not completely extraverts or introverts, considering the scale's continuity. Therefore, most people score high at an intermediate

level, which means that the scale shows the person's level of extraversion not whether they are typically extraverted or introverted.

1.1.5.2. Neuroticism vs Stability. Another bipolar trait proposed by Eysenck is neuroticism/stability. Like factor E, neuroticism is referred to as factor N, and it has a strong hereditary component as well. Eysenck related neuroticism with reticulo-limbic circuit which controls arousal by the ARAS. Individuals who are neurotic are more aroused than those who have emotional stability, and the difference among them would be more obvious in stressful situations (Maltby, et al., 2017). Therefore, those who score high on neuroticism overreact after an emotional arousal and find it hard to return to their normal state; in contrast, those who score low on neuroticism have the capacity to resist stressful situations.

People with a high level of neuroticism are said to be more likely to have neurotic disorders. They suffer from a neurotic reaction as a result of mild stressors. Neurotics are characterised as emotionally unstable, anxious, depressed, moody, tense, and irrational. They may have unreasonable fears and be prone to guilt feelings. On the other hand, people with emotional stability are able to keep themselves under control even in most hard circumstances (Schultz & Schultz, 2017).

1.1.5.3. Psychoticism vs Superego. Eysenck's original theory consisted of only two factors E and N. Later, after studying psychoticism, he added the factor P to join the previous traits. Psychoticism is a bipolar factor where superego lies on the opposite pole of the continuum. Eysenck (1990, as cited in Feist & Feist, 2009) suggested that people high in psychoticism are vulnerable to stress and psychotic disorders. Psychotic people are characterized as insensitive, hostile, cruel, inhumane, and apathetic. They find pleasure in hurting others and making them

upset. Despite having all these undesirable characteristics, psychopaths tend to be creative and intelligent.

1.1.6. Extraversion and Introversion in Foreign Language Learning

Despite its influence and importance in Foreign Language Learning (FLL), personality has gained little research interest when compared to other individual differences (Biedroń, 2011). Dörnyei (2005) held that "the role and impact of personality factors are of less importance than those of some other individual differences variables such as aptitude and motivation" (p.10). This fact has resulted in a gap that researchers attempt to fill in. The impact of personality on FLL is undeniable. Both teachers and learners highlight its role. Ellis (1991) stated that for many language teachers, the personality of students constitutes a major factor contributing to success or failure in language learning. Learners, on their part, also consider personality factors to be important. Extroversion and introversion come to receive valuable interest about their relationship with FLL. Brown (2007) asserted that "Extroversion and its counterpart, introversion, are […] potentially important factors in the acquisition of a second language" (p.166).

Ellis (1991) suggested that there are two major hypotheses regarding the relationship between extroversion/introversion and second language (L2) learning. The first is that extroverted learners will do better in acquiring basic interpersonal communication skills. This is because sociability is an essential feature of extroversion, which will allow extroverts to participate more and succeed in communication in the L2. The second hypothesis is that introverted learners will do better in developing cognitive academic language ability due to their preferences of reading and writing.

A number of studies have been conducted to shed light on the relationship between extroversion and introversion and foreign language learning. Ehrman and Oxford's (1990) study

of 79 foreign language learners is of the notable studies that come to provide the relationship between extroversion/introversion and the preferred way of learning. They found that extroverts and introverts exhibit differences in the use of learning strategies. Extroverts use social strategies like cooperation, while introverts reject them and try to overcome challenges without outside help. Introverts have been found to perform slightly better on written tests compared with extroverts who excel in oral tests (Robinson et al., 1994). Introverts tend also to score slightly higher in L2 vocabulary test performances (Carrell et al., 1996). That is to say, many studies have proved that there is a correlation between extroversion/introversion and FLL.

In the current study, we are attempting to investigate the relationship between these personality traits and one of the fundamental components in the learning/teaching process: learning activities.

1.2. Language Learning Activities:

Learning activities are essential components of the educational process, designed to engage students in active participation and foster effective learning. These activities are derived from various teaching approaches and methods, each with its unique focus and instructional strategies. They serve as practical tools to enhance understanding, retention, and application of knowledge.

1.2.1. Language Teaching Approach, Method, and Technique

Before accounting for learning activities, it is important to shed light on three basic concepts, namely approach, method, and technique. The American applied linguist Edward Anthony (as cited in Brown, 2002) was the first to identify this scheme in an attempt to clarify the difference between the theory of language teaching and the derived procedures for teaching.

1.2.1.1. Approach. Anthony (1963) defined an "approach" as: "a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning. An approach is axiomatic. It describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught" (as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p.21). That is to say, an approach is the level at which assumptions and beliefs about language, language teaching and language learning are specified.

1.2.1.2. Method. Again, Richards and Rodger (2014) cite Anthony defining a "method" as: "Method is an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon, the selected approach [….] A method is procedural. Within one approach, there can be many methods." After specifying the theory, it is the method which puts this theory into practice; it is the realisation of the selected approach.

1.2.1.3. Technique. According to Anthony "A technique is implementational –that which actually takes place in a classroom. It is a particular trick, stratagem, or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective. Techniques must be consistent with a method, and therefore

in harmony with an approach as well" (as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p.21). Anthony considered techniques to be all the procedures taking place in the classroom.

In summary, Anthony's model is organised in a hierarchical order where a technique carries out a method which is consistent with an approach.

Richards and Rodgers (2014) believed that Anthony proposed a useful, simple, and comprehensible model to make the distinction between the theory and the practices derived from it. However, they asserted that the model did not give sufficient attention to the nature of method itself:

> Nothing is said about the roles of teachers and learners assumed in a method, for example, nor about the role of instructional materials or the form these materials are expected to take. Nor does it account for how an approach may be realized in a method, or for how method and technique are related (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p.22).

This assumption led Richards and Rodgers to revise and extend the original model and to propose a reformulation of the concept "method".

Anthony's approach, method, and technique were renamed, respectively, approach, design, and procedure, where method was an umbrella term for the specification and interrelation of theory and practice. An approach is a set of assumptions, beliefs, and theories about the nature of language, language teaching, and language learning. Using the term design as the level at which approach and method are treated, Richards and Rodgers covered what they considered Anthony's model to miss. A design is the consideration of objectives, content selection and organisation, learning tasks and teaching activities, the role of learners, the role of teachers, and the role of

instructional materials. These considerations are the way an approach leads to a method. Procedure, on the other hand, is the realisation of approach and design in the classroom.

This reformulation by Richards and Rodgers contributes to a better understanding of the term method; however, it received some criticism. Brown (2001) believed that "method" is more likely to be called methodology in order not to make a confusion with the existing teaching methods like audiolingualism or suggestopedia. He also suggested the term syllabus or curriculum to be used instead of "design". That is to say, Richards and Rodgers faced some terminological problems because they attempted to give new meanings to old terms.

To give more insight about the term technique, Brown (2001) referred to the term as "any of a wide variety of exercises, activities, or tasks used in the language classroom for realizing lesson objectives" A distinction between these terms (exercise, activity, and task) is now in order.

1.2.1.3.1. Exercise. According to Richards and Schmidt (2010), the term exercise in teaching refers to "an activity that is designed to practice a learning item" (p. 208) Exercise is a controlled and guided practice of certain aspects of language, which includes language drills, cloze activity, and reading comprehension passages (Richards, 2023). A drill is a commonly used exercise which is used for practising sounds and sentences depending on guided repetition (Richards & Schmidt, 2010).

1.2.1.3.2. Activity. According to Brown (2001), the term activity is a form of technique which refers to purposefully integrated students' behaviours that are restricted by time and guided by the teacher towards a certain goal, and learners ought to be actively involved. In that vein, Richards (2023), on his part, stated that activity refers to the reasonable classroom processes that involve learners' behaviour according to the objectives of the lesson.

1.2.1.3.3. Task. Carrol (1993, as cited in Ven Den Branden, 2006) held that a task is "any activity in which a person engages, given an appropriate setting, in order to achieve a specifiable class of objectives." Similarly, Bygate et al. (2001) stated that a task is a meaning-based technique in which learners are involved to achieve a certain goal. More precisely, Skehan (1998, as cited in Brown, 2001) proposed a definition of the concept of task and maintained that a task is an activity where:

- Meaning is essential.

- There must be a communication problem to solve.

- There must be a correspondence to real world situations.

- Finishing the task is necessary.

- Assessing the task is with regard to an outcome.

1.2.2. Language Learning Activities in the Different Teaching Approaches and Methods

Language teaching approaches and methods encompass a range of strategies employed to facilitate language learning and proficiency. Every approach is based on distinct principles and comes with associated activities tailored to address the unique needs and objectives of learners.

1.2.2.1. The Grammar-Translation Method. The Grammar Translation Method (GTM) is considered the oldest language teaching method. It was hugely accepted and widely applied around the world up to sometime. In the GT era, languages were taught through memorising vocabulary and grammar rules, translating passages, and solving written works. At one time, GTM was referred to as the Classical Method, as it was originally used to teach classical languages and literature namely, Greek and Latin (Brown 2001).

1.2.2.1.1. Principles of the Method. Richards and Rodgers (2014) listed the fundamental principles of the Grammar-Translation Method as follows:

1-   Foreign languages are taught using the mother tongue, and the goal of learning a foreign language is to appreciate its literature, grammar rules, translating texts, and memorising its vocabulary.

2-   Focal emphasis is given to writing and reading exercises at the expanse of listening and speaking.

3-   Vocabulary choice is determined by reading texts, and it is learned using bilingual lists and dictionaries.

4-   The centre of attention of the GTM lies on translating sentences from source language (SL) to target language (TL), which means that the sentence is the basic unit in teaching a foreign language (FL).

5-   Accuracy is of great importance.

6-   Grammar rules are deductively taught and presented, then they are practised through translation.

7-   The FL is taught using the native language (NL).

1.2.2.1.2. Concomitant Activities. Larson-Freeman and Anderson (2011) stated different types for learning activities of the GTM. Here are some of the main activities.

- Translation of literary passages: in this type of activity, learners are asked to translate a literary or well-designed passage, which is composed of vocabulary and grammar rules that have been dealt with in the lesson, from the target language to the native language. The translation can then be written or spoken.

- Reading comprehension questions: after reading the passage, the teacher asks her/his students a set of questions. The first set of questions is related to the passage they have read, and students are required to extract the information from the text. However, the

second part of the questions is about the students' understanding of the passage. Finally, the last set of questions is about relating what they have read to their own experiences.

- Composition: in this type of exercise, the teacher gives a specific topic, related to one part of the reading passage, to the students to write about in the target language. The teacher can also ask the students to make a summary of the passage instead of writing an essay.

1.2.2.2. The Audiolingual Method. The involvement of the United States (US) into World War II had a significant effect on language teaching. The American army needed to become orally proficient in the languages of both its allies and enemies and the US government had to be supplied with personnel who were fluent in other languages. Therefore, it was necessary to set up special language training programmes which were known as army programmes. Linguists and applied linguists during this period were also becoming increasingly involved in the teaching of English as a second or foreign language. Charles Fries, director of the first English language institute developed by the University of Michigan in 1939, was trained in structural linguistics, and he applied the principles of structural linguistics to language teaching. Later in its development, principles from behavioural psychology were incorporated. Thus, the earlier experience of the army programmes and the Structural Approach developed by Fries and his colleagues, adding insights taken from behaviourist psychology, all led to the emergence of Audiolingual method.

1.2.2.2.1. Principles of the Method. There are several principles behind the Audiolingual method. First, much audiolingual teaching remains at the sentence level. Students learn through imitation and repetition of different vocabulary items and patterns of the target language. The way to acquire the sentence patterns of the target language is through conditioning helping learners to respond correctly to stimuli through shaping and reinforcement. The purpose is habit-formation through constant repetition of correct utterances, encouraged and supported by positive

reinforcement. In this process, there is little use of language in any kind of real-life context. Moreover, accuracy is a priority, thus mistakes are not tolerated and are to be avoided as much as possible. The teacher is the authority in the classroom. Thus, most of the interaction is teacher-students (Harmer, 2007). Although the method began to fall out of favour in the late 1960s, practices and materials based on Audiolingual principles continue to be used by some teachers today.

1.2.2.2.2. Concomitant Learning Activities. Richards and Rodgers (2014) asserted that dialogues and drills play a crucial role in the Audiolingual method. Dialogues are used for repetition and memorisation; the teacher exposes students to a conversation which they repeat and mimic until they memorise it. Correct pronunciation, stress, rhythm, and intonation are emphasized. Certain sentence patterns and grammar points are included within the dialogue, and they are later practised in drills.

Different kinds of drills are used in the Audiolingual method such as: repetition drill, chain drill, transformation drill, single-slot substitution drill, and multiple-slot substitution drill. In repetition drill, students are asked to repeat the teacher's model accurately. Chain drill, as the name may indicate, is a chain of conversation where the teacher begins the chain by questioning or greeting one student who responds and then does the same with the next student and the chain continues. Transformation drill focuses on transforming a certain sentence pattern from affirmative to negative, or active to passive, or a statement to a question, and so on. In single-slot substitution drill, the teacher says a line from a dialogue, than he adds a word or a phrase, called a cue. The students have to substitute the cue into the line in its proper place and then repeat the complete line. Multiple-slot substitution drill is similar to single-slot substitution drill. The difference is that the teacher gives cue phrases, one at a time, which fit into different slots in the dialogue line. The

students must recognise what part of speech each cue is and make any necessary changes, such as subject–verb agreement (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011).

1.2.2.3. The Communicative Approach. In the twentieth century, the field of language teaching witnessed a huge shift due to the emergence of Communicative Language Teaching as an approach (CLT). It is worth mentioning that CLT paved the way for real life aspects of communication in FL classes. The view of language learning has changed from being based on structures to functions and communication. CLT has been influenced by the American sociolinguist Dell Hymes, who introduced the concept of communicative competence, which is the ability to communicate and use language in a meaningful way within specific contexts (Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

The main goal of CLT is to develop communicative competence, which is composed of four basic elements. The first one is grammatical competence, which refers to the ability to use the grammatical knowledge accurately, not just mastering the rules. The second one is sociolinguistic competence, which requires the appropriate understanding and use of socio-cultural messages. There is also discourse competence, which refers to the capacity to link sentences and produce new ones in a meaningful way. The last dimension is strategic competence, which refers to the methods used in order to keep communication open, either verbally or non-verbally (through gestures), and enhance the effectiveness of the communication (Richards & Rodgers, 1986).

1.2.2.3.1. Principles of the Approach. Brown (2001) stated six interrelated principles and characteristics:

1- The classroom objectives should interlink the organisational characteristics of language with the pragmatic ones.

2- Language tasks should be authentic and meaningful.

3- Fluency and accuracy are of great importance, while fluency is more emphasised in this approach.

4- Classroom activities should engage learners in using the language in real life situations.

5- Learners are given the chance to find out their own learning styles and strategies and use them in the learning process.

6- The teacher's role is that of a guide and a facilitator.

1.2.2.3.2. Concomitant activities. The emergence of the communicative approach led to the adaptation of new learning activities. Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011) accounted for a set of such learning activities, which include:

- Picture strip story: in this activity, the teacher divides students into groups. One of the students receives a strip story. He/she shows one picture to the rest of the group members and asks them to predict the next scene. In this example, the students do not know what the picture consists of, which refers to the information gap. Then, they have the choice of predicting the upcoming scene. Finally, they receive feedback on their prediction by comparing their foretelling to the picture of the real story.

- Language games: in this type of activity, the teacher should use well-designed language games that can provide valuable opportunities for communicative practice and that possess three key elements: information gap, choice, and feedback.

Taking the card game as an example to show how these elements are manifested, the information gap exists as the speaker does not know about what her/his classmate would do in the upcoming weekend, for instance. Then, the speaker has the freedom to form her/his prediction. Finally, the speaker receives feedback from the group members. If the

prediction is clear, the speaker receives a meaningful response; if the prediction is unclear, the group members do not respond.

- Role play: it is a very important technique in CLT since it gives the students the chance to practise the language in different contexts. There are two types of role play: structured and less structured. The former is when the teacher gives instruction on the students' roles and the scenario's context, whereas the latter is when the teacher determines their roles and the theme without determining the context of the scenario, which will be determined by the students themselves.

1.2.2.4. The Content Based Teaching. Richards and Rodgers (2014) considered content-based instruction to be a second/foreign language teaching approach where teaching is organised around the content that students will acquire. Content-based instruction is characterised as an approach with many faces; students learn language and content at the same time, each supporting the development of the other. The content can be themes or topics of general interest to students, as it can be an academic subject matter such as teaching a geography lesson through the medium of English. The term content-based instruction has been commonly used to describe programmes particularly in North America. In the European context, the name for the same instructional approach is content and language integrated learning (CLIL) (Cenoz, 2015).

1.2.2.4.1. Principles of the Approach. There are several principles behind content-based instruction. It asserts that language is acquired through communication. That is to say, Instead of learning a language solely for the purpose of using it, it is more effective to use the language as a means of learning. Richards and Rodgers (2014) agreed with this stating that: "People learn a second language more successfully when they use the language as a means of understanding content, rather than as an end in itself" (p.118). Thus, students are given opportunities to practise

communication. In the teaching- learning process, the simultaneous development of both language and content is encouraged since the goal is to master both. To achieve this mastery, teachers need to set clear learning objectives and design activities for both content and language.

In the classroom, teachers guide students' learning. They help learners understand the language needed for the study of the content through using visuals or examples or any other way. There is room for scaffolding which refers to the process of interaction between two or more persons where one is more knowledgeable than the other. The teacher assists learners and helps them to complete the task they are engaged in. According to Richards and Rodgers (2014), scaffolded learning is more important in content-based instruction than in any other classroom-based learning because students need to process and express complex content and ideas in a foreign language. Students are actively engaged in both content and language; they often work collaboratively using the language to understand the content. When they commit errors, the teacher corrects the error by giving the correct form or allowing the students for self-correction. Content-based instruction is all about learning both a specific content and related language skills in which students get 'two for one': both content knowledge and high language proficiency (Freeman & Anderson, 2011).

1.2.2.4.2. Concomitant Learning Activities. Learners' motivation and interest are highlighted in content-based instruction, so activities that involve co-operative and project-based learning are highly used by teachers. This type of activities provides learners with opportunities to use language to perform different tasks in oral or written discourse (Crandall, 2012, as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011) discussed a number of activities used in content-based instruction namely: dictogloss, language experience approach, and process writing. A

dictogloss activity is a teaching technique that invites students to listen to a talk or a reading and to write down important words and phrases to help remember the content. Students usually listen a second and even a third time to add more key words. Then, they use their notes and work with a partner or in a small group to reconstruct the text. This activity allows students to practise their note-taking abilities and different language organisations within a content area. The work done in the dictogloss activity is reversed in the language experience approach; this activity involves students to dictate a significant content to them to the teacher who writes it down and assists them to read the dictated text. The activity ensures the understanding of meaning since it is linked to students' experiences, and it also highlights collaborative work. As for process writing activity, it differs from traditional writing activities that the latter are based on students production of a topic that may have been brainstormed before, but without involving the teacher in the writing process, however; in a process writing activity students initially brainstorm ideas about a topic and begin writing, then they have receive feedback from the teacher and other students which allows them to make revisions and carry on writing. Throughout this activity, students are expected to be able to improve both the form and the expression of meaning. It shifts the emphasis in teaching writing from evaluation to revision.

1.2.2.5. The Task-Based Approach. The task-based approach refers to the use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching. Long and Crookes (1992) mentioned that task-based approach is rooted in SLA research, which highlights the influence of formal instruction on the utilization of various learning strategies. Notably, formal instruction significantly enhances the pace of learning. According to Van den Branden (2006) task-based is: "an approach to language education in which students are given functional tasks that invite them to focus primarily on meaning exchange and to use language for real-world, non-linguistic

purposes"(p.1). In other words, tasks are not directed toward enhancing instructional purposes like language structures or functions. They prepare learners to behave conveniently and appropriately in real-word situations.

1.2.2.5.1. Principles of the Approach. Task-based approach has several characteristics and principles. Language is primarily a means of making meaning, communicating, and achieving real-world goals. Thus, tasks are to be meaningful, relevant, and selected depending on students' needs. Any of the four skills can be worked on depending on the nature of the task. Tasks in task-based approach also require the integration of skills; students may need to use two or more skills at the same time to complete a task or solve a problem. Learners learn the language while they are engaged in a task by interacting communicatively and purposefully; their role is to communicate with their peers to complete the task which has a clear outcome. It is noticed that task-based assigns a heavy role to learners. The role of the teacher is to facilitate the students' learning process, monitor their performance and intervene if necessary. The teacher may recast, model, or give explanation in order to correct students' errors.

1.2.2.5.2. Concomitant activities. Classroom activities in task-based approach seek to provide opportunities to learn language through the process of engaging in task work. Different types of activities are used in task-based namely: jigsaw activities, problem solving activities, and opinion exchange activities.

- Jigsaw: in this activity, learners are given different parts of the information and are required to in combine these different pieces to form a whole. Richards and Rodgers (2014) exemplified this activity through a story which is divided into different parts; each individual or group has a part and they have to work together to form the story. Throughout this task, students will promote negotiation and comprehension of meaning.

- Problem solving: unlike jigsaw tasks, problem solving activities provide students with the same information necessary for task completion. The task is generally targeted towards a single resolution.

- Opinion exchange: this type of activities involves leaners in conversation, discussion and exchange of ideas, where they express their preferences, attitudes, or feelings in order to complete the task. Learners do not need to reach agreement; they need only to exchange opinions and ideas for task completion.

1.2.3. Most Recent Leaning Activities

In traditional teaching approaches and methods, focus is on mastering language which is considered as a system of structurally related elements. Learners passively receive information from the teacher who is considered as an authoritative source. These principles necessitate the use of teaching activities that can lead to the mastery of language such as drills and dialogues. However, foreign language teaching has seen many changes. Language is now viewed as a vehicle for the expression of meaning and communication where learners' needs and differences are taken into consideration. In order for the attainment of the new goals of foreign language teaching, new activities are used by the teacher. Social interaction activities are an example. They include a number of activities such as conversations, discussions, and debates. Collaborative work and cooperative projects are also examples of the widely used recent activities (Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

To begin with, conversations are of the best ways to promote thinking and abilities to form, express, and exchange ideas. They offer opportunities for both subject matter and instructional language to grow. A conversation activity may involve a number of skills including selecting appropriate vocabulary to the topic, providing relevant comments and appropriate feedback, in

addition to turn-taking and opening and closing the conversation. Thus, this type of activity gives learners both language practice and information about language use (Ulichny, 1996). Another social interaction activity is discussion, an activity where students communicate with one another or with the tutor about an issue, a concept, or a subject. Students may be asked to reach agreement or to find a solution to the discussed subject matter as they may not. Interaction during this activity encourages students to exchange ideas and experiences which run alongside with what is learned from the teacher (Bumberg, 2008). Classroom discussions are also valuable for developing critical thinking and for allowing students to contribute actively to their own learning. Lastly, a debate is an activity which involves debating controversial topics in the target language, with each side arguing for a different perspective. This technique motivates learners to take an active role in their learning process with the primary objective of presenting facts in a logical and systematic manner. These types of social interaction are recently used due to their instructional role of achieving new goals of foreign language teaching such as social communication and critical thinking. It is also noticed that most recent activities are collaborative where learners work co-operatively in pairs or groups. This is due to the range of opportunities and strengths this type of activities provides. Collaborative activities provide learners with opportunities for social interaction and active participation in language acquisition along with creating an inclusive atmosphere.

1.2.4. Learners' Personality and Learning Activities

It is generally accepted that the way people prefer to learn is affected by their personality type among other factors. Therefore, it is important to take everyone's needs and interests into consideration to give equal opportunity to gain as much as possible from the learning process, but the issue remains finding the best way to achieve it. One of the solutions offered by Lage et al. (2000) could be using a variety of teaching methods to appeal to different students, and basing the

choice of activities on students' personality types might be one way of addressing student differences.

A number of researchers (Dörnyei (2005); Chamorro-Premuzic et al (2007); Nurettin et al. (2013)) tried to make the relationship between learners' personality type and learning activities. Dörnyei (2005) stated that: "It is quite likely that people of different personality types pursue differential behavioural patterns, which will have an impact on their participation in a range of learning tasks, from classroom activities to real-life practices of intercultural communication" (p. 30). The researcher showed that learners of different personality types will come to encounter differences while doing classroom activities and even in real life communication.

While it is hard for a teacher to take every student's learning preferences into consideration, it is necessary to be aware of them. Chamorro-Premuzic et al. (2007) argued that it may not always be feasible for lecturers and teachers to employ the teaching methods preferred by students, it is undeniably intriguing to gain insight into their preferences. Furthermore, they conducted a study on a group of medical students. The findings of their research demonstrated that learners with distinct personality types exhibited a preference for different types of learning activities. Emotionally stable, open, and agreeable students tended to prefer lab classes, small group tutorials, and clinical training, while conscientious students tended to prefer clinical training and discussion groups. Pushing on the same line, Nurettin et al. (2013) argued that individuals with high levels of extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness and low level of neuroticism like hands-on experiences and prefer to learn by doing. They are opposed to people with high levels of neuroticism and low levels of extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness who enjoy careful and reflective observations. These people feel confident analysing data and succeed when being tested on the knowledge learned from lectures.

Moody (1988) drew attention to the fact that teaching methods appear to be tailored towards one type of learners. He suggested using a wider variety of learning activities in the language classroom to cater for the peculiarities of as many students as possible.

Conclusion

This chapter provides a comprehensive literature review of the research investigating the relationship between personality traits and learning activities. The undeniable impact of individual differences, both in general life and specifically in the realm of learning, is widely acknowledged. Notably, learners' personalities contribute to significant variations among them, with particular emphasis on the personality traits of extraversion and introversion, which play a crucial role in the teaching and learning process. Disparities in these traits are likely to correspondingly result in variations in student preferences. Given the pivotal role of learning activities in the overall learning process, it is advisable to consider students' preferences when designing and implementing these activities. This approach promotes the establishment of an inclusive learning environment where learners' preferences are taken into account. Achieving this desirable outcome necessitates aligning the extraversion/introversion types of personality with the preferred types of activities, ensuring their integration whenever learning activities are employed.

Chapter Two: Associating Learners' Personality Traits with Their Preferred Learning Activities: The Field Work

Introduction

The present chapter is devoted to the practical part of the present research. This chapter begins with a recapitulation of various elements of the study, such as the research aims, the research questions, the participants involved in the investigation, as well as the instruments employed for data collection. Furthermore, the chapter includes the description, analysis and discussion of the students' questionnaire. Further, within the scope of this chapter, an account is made of the major limitations of the study in addition to the provision of some suggestions for further research based on the analysis and the interpretation of the obtained findings.

2.1. Aims of the Study

This study investigates the relation between learners' personality traits, mainly extroversion and introversion, and their preferred type of learning activities; the case study addresses Master 1 students of English at Mila University Centre. The study is, therefore, an attempt to cluster the participants according to their personality type in the first place. Then, it attempts to associate the personality clusters to which learners belong with their preferred in- learning activities. This study is likely to make teachers aware of the importance of learners' personality types and their preferences in terms of activity types when selecting learning activities.

2.2. Research Questions

This study seeks to answer the following questions:

1- How would the participants cluster in terms of their personality type?

2- Is there a relation between the generated personality clusters and learners' preferred learning activities?

2.3. Hypotheses

Based on the formulated research questions, we hypothesise that:

- **H_1:** there is a significant association between learners' personality type and their preferred type of learning activities.

- **H_0:** there is no association between learners' personality type and their preferred type of learning activities.

2.4. The participants

The current research is conducted at Mila University Centre, Institute of Letters and Languages, Department of Foreign Languages during the academic year 2022/2023. One set of participants took part in the study. The group includes 100 master-one students of English, selected from a population of 206 students. Master one students are opted for due to their knowledge and familiarity with EFL teaching and learning activities and psychopedagogical concepts such as personality traits, which makes them more suitable than B.A. students.

2.5. Data Collection Tools

In pursuit of the aforementioned aims, one questionnaire was used as a data collection tool, administered to Master-one students so as to gather the necessary data for this investigation.

2.6. The Students' Questionnaire

2.6.1. Description of the Students' Questionnaire

The students' questionnaire aims to explore EFL students' personality traits at Mila University Centre, along with their preferred type of learning activities. The respondents were informed about the significance of their answers in the progress of the research, and that their responses would serve the study purposes. Students were also informed that filling in the

questionnaire remains anonymous and voluntary in order for them to express themselves freely and provide truthful answers.

The questionnaire is divided into three main sections: (1) background information, (2) personality scale, and (3) learning activities. It includes close-ended questions, double choice questions, and ranking-scale questions.

The first section attempts to shed light on students' background information in terms of their range and their gender.

The second section is concerned with determining students' personality traits (extraversion/ introversion). It is made up of 18 statements, are an adapted version of Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire, which is a valid and reliable scale. These statements use a 5-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neither agree nor disagree, 4= Agree, 5 = Strongly agree).

The third section consists of eight double choice questions, aiming to investigate learners' preferred type of learning activities. As for the first question, students are asked whether they prefer participating orally in class or listening and following. The second question is on the preference of oral and writing activities. Next, the third and fourth questions seek to determine students' preferences in terms of individual work/ self-study and group work/ group discussion. In the fifth question, the respondents are asked about whether they prefer activities to be free or controlled by the teacher. The sixth question aims to determine whether learners like homework or team projects. Finally, the seventh and eighth questions are yes/no questions, which aim to determine whether student like or dislike acting out scenarios and debating controversial topics.

2.6.2. Administration of the Students' Questionnaire

In order to gather the necessary data, the students' questionnaire was administered face to face. Participants provided answers on hard copies during a time period of nearly two weeks.

2.6.3. Analysis of the Students Questionnaire

The data analysis was conducted using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Furthermore, a hierarchical cluster analysis was conducted with the purpose of categorizing the participants into distinct clusters based on shared characteristics. Additionally, In order to determine the presence of any statistically significant relationship between the variables under investigation, a chi-squared test was employed.

2.6.3.1. Background Information.

Q1. Age

Table 2.1. *Students' Age Range*

		Frequency	**Percent %**
Age range	20-25	91	91%
	+25	9	9%
	Total	100	100%

To gather personal data about the participants' background, we asked them about their range. It should be informative to note that demographic information constitutes in no way a variable in the present study, but it was thought that it would quench the curiosity of the interested reader. This study is conducted on Master 1 students. Almost the whole population (91%) are between the age of 21 and 25 years old and only nine percent of the informants are more than 25.

Q2. Gender

Table 2.2. *Students' Gender*

		Frequency	Percent %
Gender	Male	11	11%
	Female	89	89%
	Total	100	100%

As demonstrated in table 2.2, most of the respondents are (89%) females, and the rest of them (11%) are males' students.

2.6.3.2. Personality Scale.

Table 2.3. *Descriptive Statistics of Students' Personality Scale (PS)*

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
PS1	100	3,2200	1,33772
PS2	100	3,0800	1,16063
PS3	100	3,0000	1,13707
PS4	100	2,6800	1,21339
PS5	100	2,8200	1,35870
PS6	100	2,9600	1,33273
PS7	100	3,3500	1,36608
PS8	100	3,3700	1,44008
PS9	100	3,7800	1,16844
PS10	100	4,1100	1,24637
PS11	100	3,3600	1,33727

PS12	100	3,3000	1,35959
PS13	100	3,5600	1,32054
PS14	100	3,0600	1,34705
PS15	100	3,5700	1,11242
PS16	100	3,1100	1,22181
PS17	100	3,4400	1,08544
PS18	100	3,5200	1,30639
PS (Total mean)	100	3,2939	,44101

Table 2.3 gives descriptive statistics for the students' responses to the personality scale. The table reveals an overall mean score of 3.29 (SD = 0.44). This shows that most respondents are neither extroverts nor introverts because the mean score inclines towards neutrality, and the scale ranges from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Therefore, 3.29 is very close to 3, which denotes a mid-way position. PS10 had the highest mean value 4.11 (SD = 1.25), indicating that most of the students prefer to have few but special friends since 4.11 is close to 4, which indicates agreement with the statement. On the other hand, PS4 had the lowest mean score 2.68 (SD = 1.21), denoting that most of the respondents do not do/say things quickly without thinking (2.68 is close to 2, which indicates disagreement according to Likert scale). With an average score of 3.78 (SD = 1.17), most respondents admitted being energetic. Moreover, PS15 with a mean score of 3.57 (SD = 1.11), PS13 with 3.56 (SD = 1.32), and PS18 with 3.52 (SD = 1.31), indicate that the majority of the students are self-confident, hate crowded places, and do not like drawing attention. Furthermore, participants scored average values between 3.50 and 3.00, which indicate their neutrality towards PS17 (enjoying cooperation), PS8 (having thoughts that they do not like to

share), PS11(enjoying parties), PS12 (going out a lot), PS7 (being quiet with people), PS1 (talking a lot), PS16 (initiating to make new friends), PS2 (depending on friends in making them feel better), PS14 (feeling sad when being away from people for a long period of time), and PS3 (preferring to stay behind the scenes in social occasions). Finally, the table reveals that PS6 with an average score of 2.96 (SD = 1.33), and PS5 with 2.82 (1.36), demonstrating that a larger number of students prefer meeting people than reading and do not feel shy when talking to strangers.

2.6.3.2.1. The Description of the Clusters.

In order to gather personal data about the participants' personality type and group them according to their similarities and differences, a hierarchical cluster analysis was performed using SPSS version 26. This technique of interdependence agglomerates each case with a similar one and combines them into different clusters until there is just one cluster. Its primary purpose is to group students with high degree of internal homogeneity (group members are similar to one another) and high external heterogeneity (group members are different from non-members).

First, each student was classified based on the relationships provided by his/her responses to the questions in the personality scale section. The ward's method is a hierarchical agglomerative clustering algorithm that aims to minimize the within-cluster variance. This method was used to compare the relationship of these variables, and the squared Euclidean distance was used to measure the distance and proximity between the participants. Then, the clusters were formed through a hierarchical procedure. For this, students that were similar or close to each other in terms of Euclidean distance were grouped together in one cluster.

Table 2.4. *Composition of Clusters by Personality Types*

	1 Extroverts	2 Ambiverts	3 Introverts	Total
Percentage %	40	49	11	100
PS1	4.2250	2.5102	2.7273	3.2200
PS2	3.3500	2.9388	2.7273	3.0800
PS3	2.7250	3.2245	3.0000	3.0000
PS4	3.0250	2.4082	2.6364	2.6800
PS5	2.2750	3.4898	1.8182	2.8200
PS6	2.7250	3.3673	2.0000	2.9600
PS7	4.2750	2.8571	2.1818	3.3500
PS8	3.5000	3.5510	2.0909	3.3700
PS9	4.5750	3.4490	2.3636	3.7800
PS10	4.3500	4.3878	2.0000	4.1100
PS11	4.1500	2.8980	2.5455	3.3600
PS12	2.8500	4.0000	1.8182	3.3000
PS13	3.4500	3.9184	2.3636	3.5600
PS14	3.4250	2.5510	4.0000	3.0600
PS15	4.0500	3.3469	2.8182	3.5700
PS16	3.7250	2.6735	2.8182	3.1100
PS17	3.7250	3.3061	3.0000	3.4400
PS18	3.1750	3.7143	3.9091	3.5200
PS	3.5319	3.2551	2.6010	3.2939

According to the results presented in Table 2.4, we can notice that there was three clusters solution. The first cluster (extroverts) consisted of 40 learners (40%); the second cluster (ambiverts) contained 49 students (49%), who represent approximately half of the whole sample; however, the third cluster (introverts) consisted of only eleven students (11%) out of 100.

Cluster 1, extroverts, obtained a higher mean level of talkativeness (PS1), need for external support (PS2), improvised speech (PS4), going-out (PS7), vitality (PS9), friendlessness (PS10), love of parties (PS11), self-confidence (PS15), gregariousness (PS16), and collaboration (PS17), which indicates the highest level of sociability with a mean value of (3.53) compared to the other clusters. Also, it yielded the lowest mean values in staying behind the scene's preference (PS3) and disliking attention (PS18). On the other hand, cluster 3, introverts, obtained the lowest mean scores in almost all the characteristics, which indicates a low level of sociability with an average score of (2.60). The overall mean value of all the 18 characteristics in cluster 2, ambiverts, was 3.26, which denotes an average level of sociability compared to the above mentioned clusters. Thus, as it is demonstrated in the table, the majority of students are in the category of average "ambiverts", which means that their personality combines both extraversion and introversion, or that they occupy a mid-way position.

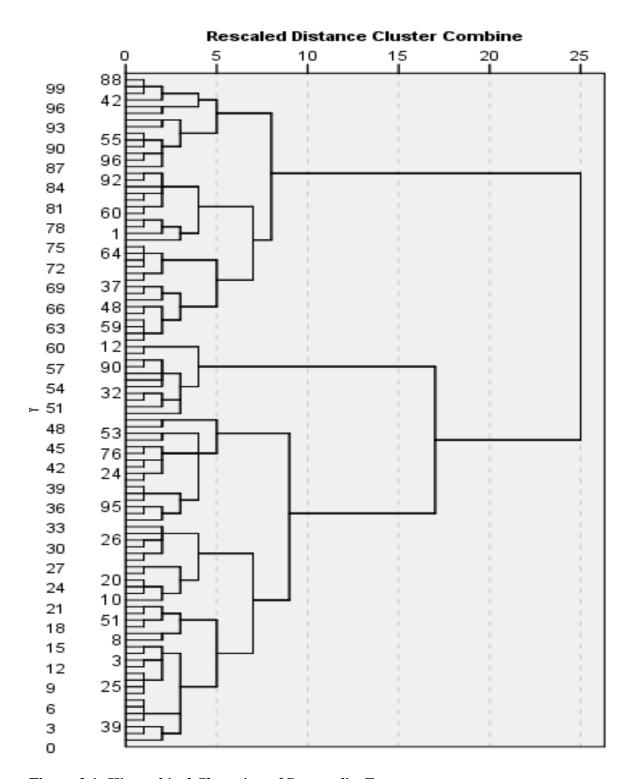### 2.6.3.2.2. The Formation of the Clusters.

Figure 2.1. *Hierarchical Clustering of Personality Types*

The dendrogram in Figure 2.1 represents the 100 cases (students) possible combinations of the 18 variables considered in the hierarchical cluster analysis. In the first stage, when the squared Euclidean distance (SED) = 0, each case (student) is considered as a separate cluster. Following the dendrogram from left to right, we notice that the horizontal lines (each horizontal line represents one case) are combined together by small vertical lines to form other clusters. This indicates that the cases that are combined to form a cluster are the closest in terms of the features considered. Moving left to SED = 5, we notice that cases are grouped into seven clusters according to the similarities they share with each other. In the next stages, when the SED = 10 and 15, students were joined to three larger groups. At the end of the horizontal line, the cases become one big cluster representing the whole sample. Therefore, the clusters are chosen at a SED value of 10 in which students are grouped and formed into three main clusters.

2.6.3.3. Learning Activities.

Table 2.5. *Learners' Preferred Types of Learning Activities*

Activity Types	Frequency	Percent %
Participate orally in class	46	46 %
Listen and follow	54	54 %
writing activities	47	47 %
Oral activities	53	53 %
Individual work	49	49 %
Group work	51	51 %
Self-study	53	53 %
Group discussion	47	47 %

Controlled	48	48 %
Free	52	52 %
Homework	54	54 %
Team project	46	46 %
Role play (Yes)	59	59 %
Role play (No)	41	41 %
Debate (Yes)	77	77 %
Debate (No)	23	23 %

This section seeks to identify students' preferences of learning activities. As presented in Table 2.5, 46 students (46%) indicated that they prefer to participate orally in the classroom; however, 54 out of 100 students prefer to listen to the teacher and follow. It also demonstrates that 47 participants (47%) like to perform written activities whereas 53% of the whole sample like performing oral activities. Furthermore, students who prefer working individually represent 49% compared to those who prefer group work with a percentage value of 51% of all participants. Additionally, 53 students enjoy self-study than group discussion which is represented by the rest of the students (47%). Moreover, 52% of respondents prefer free practice where the teachers are only observers while 48 of them prefer teachers to be in control of the activities. Concerning homework and team projects, those who prefer the former type of activity (54%) represent more students than those who like the latter type (46%). The table also indicates that 59 students enjoy acting out scenarios whereas 41% of them do not like such role play. Finally, the majority of students (77%) like to discuss controversial topics, but only 23 students do not like debating.

2.6.3.3.1. The Relation between Personality Traits and Learning Activities.

In order to explore whether there is a significant relationship between learners' personality type and their preferred type of learning activities, a Chi-square test was run using SPSS. The Chi-square test for independence, also called Pearson's Chi-square test and Chi-square test of association, is a statistical procedure used to determine whether there is a statistical association and relationship between two categorical (nominal) or ordinal variables. The variables must consist of two or more independent groups or categories. We would like to know whether learners' personality type (extroverts, ambiverts, and introverts) is associated with learning activities. A Chi-square test for independence is appropriate to examine and determine the association of the two variables. This way, the following hypothesis was tested:

- **H₁:** there is a significant association between learners' personality type and their preferred type of learning activities.

- **H₀:** there is no association between learners' personality type and their preferred type of learning activities.

Table 2.6. *Chi-square Test of Personality Traits and Activity Type One*

Activity 1	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	10,933[a]	2	,004
Likelihood Ratio	11,324	2	,003
Linear-by-Linear Association	10,634	1	,001
N of Valid Cases	100		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.06.

The results displayed in Table 2.6 indicate that the corresponding p value of the test statistic in this study is 0.004 which is smaller than the standard significance level α = 0.05 (p = 0.004 < α = 0.05). Hence, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative one proving that there is a statistically significant association between learners' personality type and the type of activity namely, participating orally in class vs listening and following.

Table 2.7. *Chi-square Test of Personality Traits and Activity Type Two*

Activity 2	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7,812[a]	2	,020
Likelihood Ratio	7,976	2	,019
Linear-by-Linear Association	5,433	1	,020
N of Valid Cases	100		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.17.

The results presented in Table 2.7 denote that the corresponding p value of the test statistic is 0.02 which is smaller than the standard significance level α = 0.05 (p = 0.02 < α = 0.05). Hence, we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative, asserting that there is a statistically significant association between learners' personality type and their preferred activity type (oral activities, writing activities).

Table 2.8. *Chi-square Test of Personality Traits and Activity Type Three*

Activity 3	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3,634[a]	2	,162
Likelihood Ratio	3,722	2	,155
Linear-by-Linear Association	,058	1	,810
N of Valid Cases	100		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.39.

Table 2.8 indicates that the corresponding p value of the test statistic is 0.16 which is greater than the standard significance level α = 0.05. This means that there is no statistically significant association between learners' personality type and the type of activity namely, individual work and group work.

Table 2.9. *Chi-square Test of Personality Traits and Activity Type Four*

Activity 4	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1,564[a]	2	,458
Likelihood Ratio	1,572	2	,456
Linear-by-Linear Association	,248	1	,619
N of Valid Cases	100		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.17.

Table 2.9 denotes that p = 0.46 which is greater than the standard significance level α = 0.05. Hence, we reject the alternative hypothesis, meaning that there is no statistically significant

association between learners' personality type and their preferred type of activity self-study and group discussion, respectively.

Table 2.10. *Chi-square Test of Personality Traits and Activity Type Five*

Activity 5	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4,422[a]	2	,110
Likelihood Ratio	4,779	2	,092
Linear-by-Linear Association	2,403	1	,121
N of Valid Cases	100		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.28.

The results displayed in Table 2.10 show that the corresponding p value of the test statistic in this study is 0.11 which is greater than the standard significance level $\alpha = 0.05$. Therefore, we reject the alternative hypothesis in favour of the null, asserting that there is no statistically significant association between learners' personality traits and the learning activities namely, controlled vs free practice.

Table 2.11. *Chi-square Test of Personality Traits and Activity Type Six*

Activity 6	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1,111[a]	2	,574
Likelihood Ratio	1,113	2	,573
Linear-by-Linear Association	,041	1	,840
N of Valid Cases	100		

a. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 5.06.

Table 2.11 indicates that the p = 0.57 which is greater α = 0.05. Therefore, we reject the alternative hypothesis and accept the null, confirming that there is no statistically significant association between learners' personality type and the activity type namely, homework and team project.

Table 2.12. *Chi-square Test of Personality Traits and Activity Type Seven*

Activity 7	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4,639[a]	2	,098
Likelihood Ratio	4,665	2	,097
Linear-by-Linear Association	4,562	1	,033
N of Valid Cases	100		

a. 1 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4.51.

Again, given that p = 0.09 which is greater than the standard significance level α = 0.05 (p = 0.09 > α = 0.05). We reject the alternative hypothesis and accept the null meaning, that there is no statistically significant association between learners' personality traits and their preferences in performing role plays.

Table 2.13. *Chi-square Test of Personality Traits and Activity Type Eight*

Activity 8	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3,823[a]	2	,148
Likelihood Ratio	3,411	2	,182
Linear-by-Linear Association	2,862	1	,091
N of Valid Cases	100		

a. 1 cells (16.7%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2.53.

The results displayed in Table 2.6 indicate that the corresponding p value of the test statistic in this study is 0.14 which is greater than the standard significance level α = 0.05. Thus, we reject the alternative hypothesis and accept the null, confirming that there is no statistically significant association between learners' personality type and debating controversial topics.

2.6.3.4. Discussion of the Main Findings of the Students' Questionnaire.

The cluster analysis of the personality scale in the students' questionnaire reveals the presence of three distinct personality types among master 1 students: individuals with higher social skills, individuals with lower social skills, and those with a balanced level of sociability, known as ambiverts. Put another way, in answer to the first research question, there are three levels of sociability: extroversion, introversion, and ambiversion. In particular, by assessing students' responses to eighteen rating-scale statements, it is observed that a significant number of students fall into the ambivert category, indicating a balanced level of sociability. Interestingly, most students exhibit neutral responses across the majority of statements, suggesting a tendency towards ambiversion.

Regarding the second research question, namely the relationship between personality traits and learning activities, the findings demonstrate a significant association with certain activities, but not with others. Specifically, there is a significant relationship between personality traits and oral participation/listening and following, as well as oral/written activities. These findings suggest that students' sociability levels may influence their engagement and performance in these particular activities. On the other hand, no significant relationship is found between personality traits and activities such as group work/individual work, self-study/group discussion, controlled/free, homework/team project, role play, and debate. These activities seem to be less related to students' sociability levels. From this we confirm the hypothesis that was set. Consequently, these findings partially support the hypothesis that was initially posited.

2.7. Limitations, Implications and Recommendations

2.7.2. *Limitations of the Study*

It goes without saying that no research is unburdened with obstacles. The process of scientific investigation often includes numerous difficulties which researchers usually attempt to overcome. Upon carrying out the present study, a number of obstacles were encountered on various levels. Theoretically speaking, the lack of sources with regard to the section of extraversion/introversion and learning activities slowed down the process of collecting relevant and reliable information about the topic. Time shortage was also allotted to the conduct and completion of this study. The use and learning of cluster analysis, the chi-square test, and the software (SPSS) required much time to run those techniques appropriately in order to reach reliable findings. Speaking about the collected data, many students who took the extraversion/introversion test gave incomplete answers and even contradicting responses on many occasions. This raises the

possibility that some participants chose some answers randomly for they probably did not take the matter seriously.

2.7.2. Implications of the Study

Taking into account the findings of the present research, some implications are in order. The identification of three distinct personality types (extraversion, introversion, and ambiversion) among EFL learners highlights the diversity of personality traits in the language classroom, let alone the fact that personality is not necessarily and either-or question. This recognition underscores the importance of acknowledging and accommodating individual differences in language teaching and learning. Furthermore, the significant relationship between extraversion/introversion and specific learning activities indicates that certain activities are more suited to particular personality types. Additionally, the awareness of personality types and their influence on learning activities can encourage students to develop self-awareness and self-regulation skills. Students can gain insights into their own preferred learning styles and understand the activities that align with their personality traits. However, the findings also suggest that students' personality traits are not necessarily always related to their learning activity preferences.

2.7.3. Recommendations for Pedagogy and Research

Based on the present findings, this section provides a collection of suggestions and recommendations for students, teachers, as well as further research. The recommendations are drawn as follows.

2.7.3.1. Recommendations for Students. Students are required to work on their self-discovery in which they recognise what type of personality they have and exploit it to their own benefit. This self-awareness can empower students to better understand their own learning styles and preferences, leading to more effective engagement with learning activities. Moreover, they

should communicate effectively with their teacher, and communicate to their teacher their preferences for certain types of learning activities. Besides, they need to discuss any challenges they may face with activities that are less aligned with their personality traits.

    2.7.3.2. Recommendations for Teachers. It is so essential for EFL teachers to get acquainted with learners' diversity so as to be able to accommodate to their educational needs and make teaching successful. Teachers need to adopt an individualised approach to instruction, taking into account each learner's personality type and preferences. Instead of treating the entire class in a uniform manner, teachers should tailor their teaching methods, activities, and materials to accommodate the unique needs of each student. In order for an appropriate determination of learners' personality type, teachers may receive some training which will equip them with strategies to recognise and address the challenges and opportunities presented by different personality types in the classroom. By developing a deeper understanding of how personality traits influence learning, teachers can effectively support their students' language development. It is necessary to open communication channels between teachers and students, encouraging students to share their preferences, concerns, and feedback regarding learning activities. Teachers should actively seek feedback and listen to students' perspectives on their learning experiences. This two-way communication helps teachers better understand individual needs and make informed instructional decisions. Moreover, teachers should consider these personality types when designing instructional approaches to create a supportive and inclusive learning environment. They can also utilise this insight to personalise their teaching methods and adapt learning activities to align with students' preferred learning activities.

2.7.3.3. Recommendations for Further Research. The current study is an indispensable step which might pave the way for other research works to be carried out with the purpose to study the issue of personality types and learning activities more profoundly. Future studies can be conducted with young learners where pupils often engage in a wide range of learning activities. Also, understanding how their personality types influence their preferences can inform instructional practices and curriculum development in regard to their specific needs.

While the current study examined extraversion, introversion, and ambiversion, future research can investigate the relationship between other personality dimensions and learners' preferences for specific activities. For example, a study could explore the dimension of neuroticism and its influence on preferred learning activities. This would provide a more comprehensive understanding of how various personality dimensions interact with learning preferences.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this chapter focused on the practical part of the present study, exploring the relationship between learners' personality traits and their preferred type of learning activities. Through the analysis of the students' questionnaire, three distinct personality types are identified within the learner sample. Additionally, the findings reveal a significant association between personality type and certain learning activities, while no significant association is observed with others.

General Conclusion

The primary focus of this study has been to investigate the relationship between learners' personality traits, specifically extraversion and introversion, and their preferences for different types of learning activities. In pursuit of this research objective, a questionnaire was administered to a sample of one hundred Master 1 English students at the Department of Foreign Languages, Mila University Centre.

The findings of this study revealed significant associations between learners' personality type and specific learning activities, namely oral participation/listening and following, as well as oral/written activities. However, no significant relationship was found between personality traits and activities such as role play and debate.

It is important to note that this work has certain limitations and is confined to a specific scope. Therefore, it invites critiques and replication. The study draws to draw attention to this specific area of investigation and encourages future researchers to explore this topic in more extensive ways, delving deeper into the relationship between learners' personality traits and their preferences for various learning activities.

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Appendices

Appendix A

The Students' Questionnaire

Dear student,

We kindly invite you to support our work by filling in this questionnaire which is an essential part of the research study we are conducting on the relationship between learners' personality traits and their preferred type of learning activities. We would like to inform you that your answers will be processed anonymously with the utmost confidentiality.

Section One: Background information

1- Age:

☐ 20-25

☐ +25

2- Gender:

☐ Male.

☐ Female.

Section Two: Personality Scale

This section is designed to find out your personality trait (extroversion/ introversion). The questions are adapted from Eysenck's Personality Questionnaire. Please read each statement and indicate to what extent you agree or disagree. (Honesty is required).

1 = Strongly Disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Neither agree nor disagree

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly agree

---

1. I am a talkative person.	1 2 3 4 5
2. I need friends to cheer me up.	1 2 3 4 5
3. I prefer to stay in the background on social occasions.	1 2 3 4 5
4. I do and say things quickly without stopping to think.	1 2 3 4 5
5. I feel shy when I talk to a stranger.	1 2 3 4 5
6. I prefer reading more than meeting people.	1 2 3 4 5
7. I like going out a lot.	1 2 3 4 5
8. I have thoughts and ideas that I would not like other people to know about.	1 2 3 4 5
9. I am an energetic person.	1 2 3 4 5
10. I prefer to have few but special friends.	1 2 3 4 5
11. I like to, go and enjoy myself a lot at, parties.	1 2 3 4 5
12. I am quiet when I am with other people.	1 2 3 4 5
13. I hate being in crowded places.	1 2 3 4 5
14. I feel sad when I do not meet people for a long period of time.	1 2 3 4 5
15. I am a fairly self-confident person.	1 2 3 4 5
16. I usually take the initiative in making new friends.	1 2 3 4 5
17. I enjoy co-operating with others.	1 2 3 4 5
18. I do not like drawing attention to myself.	1 2 3 4 5

Section Three: Learning Activities.

This section is dedicated to investigate learners' preferred type of learning activities.

1- What do you prefer the most?

☐ Participate orally in class.

☐ Listen and follow.

2- Do you prefer to take part in?

☐ Writing activities.

☐ Oral activities.

3- What do you prefer the most?

☐ Individual work.

☐ Group work.

4-Which of the following activities would you like to try the most?

☐ Self-study.

☐ Group discussion.

5- Do you prefer activities to be?

☐ Controlled by the teacher.

☐ Free (teacher only as an observer).

6- Do you prefer?

☐ Homework.

☐ Team project.

7- Do you like to act out a scenario (Role play)?

☐ Yes.

☐ No.

8- Do you like debating controversial topics and arguing different perspectives?

☐ Yes.

☐ No.

Thank you very much for your cooperation!

ملخص

تهدف هده الدراسة للتحقيق في العلاقة بين سمات الشخصية للطلبة المتمدرسين(الانفتاح والانغلاق)، ونوع الأنشطة التعلمية المفضلة لديهم. في سياق هذه الدراسة، تم طرح سؤالين: (1) كيف يتم تقسيم الطلبة قيد الدراسة اعتمادا على انماط الشخصية؟ (2) هل توجد علاقة بين نمط شخصية الطلبة، والأنشطة التعلمية المفضلة لديهم؟ بناءً على الأسئلة البحثية، تم تحديد فرضية، و التي تنص على انه توجد علاقة بين نمط الشخصية و الانشطة المفضلة لدى المتعلمين. من اجل تحقيق الاهداف المحددة، والاجابة على الاسئلة المطروحة، والتاكد من صحة الفرضية، تم توزيع استبيان على مائة طالب بقسم اللغات الاجنبية، سنة اولى ماجيستير، لغة انجليزية، بالمركز الجامعي-ميلة. تم تحليل البيانات عن طريق استعمال الاصدار 26 للبرنامج الاحصائي اس بي اس اس. كما تم استخدام التحليل العنقودي الهرمي و اختبار مربع كاي لدراسة البيانات. اظهرت النتائج وجود ثلاثة انماط رئيسية لشخصيات الطلبة. كشفت ايضا على انه توجد علاقة بين نمط الشخصية و بعض الانشطة التعليمية المفضلة لدى الطلبة، وغياب هده العلاقة مع انشطة تعلمية اخرى. في الختام، قدمت هده الدراسة مجموعة من التوصيات فيما يخص طرق التعليم والبحث العلمي.

الكلمات المفتاحية: انماط الشخصية، أنشطة التعلم، عنقود، علاقة، تفضيل

Résumé

L'étude en cours vise à examiner la relation entre les traits de personnalité des étudiants, principalement l'extraversion et l'introversion, et leur type préféré d'activités. Dans le cadre de cette étude, deux questions sont soulevées: (1) Comment les participants se regrouperaient-ils en termes de type de personnalité ? (2) Existe-t-il une relation entre les regroupements de personnalité obtenus et les activités préférées des étudiants? Sur la base des questions de recherche, une hypothèse est établie : (H_1) il existe une association significative entre le type de personnalité des étudiants et leur type préféré d'activités. (H_0) il n'y a pas d'association entre le type de personnalité des étudiants et leur type préféré d'activités. Pour atteindre les objectifs de l'étude, répondre aux questions de recherche et tester l'hypothèse, un questionnaire est administré à cent étudiants en première année de Master d'anglais du Département des Langues Étrangères de l'Université Centre Mila. Les données collectées sont analysées à l'aide d'une analyse de regroupement hiérarchique et d'un test du Chi-carré, réalisés à l'aide du logiciel SPSS (version 26). Les principales conclusions révèlent l'identification de trois types de personnalité distincts parmi les participants. Les résultats suggèrent également une association significative entre les traits de personnalité et certaines activités d'apprentissage, bien que la relation ne soit pas toujours directement liée aux préférences d'activité des étudiants. En fin de compte, ce travail de recherche offre une variété de limitations, implications, et de recommandations pour la pédagogie et les recherches futures.

Mots-clés: Traits de personnalité, activités, regroupement, association, préférence.