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**Investigating the Relationship Between EFL learners' MBTI
Personality Types (Feeling vs. Thinking Types) and their
Response to Oral Corrective Feedback**
The Case of Third Year EFL Students at the University of Jijel

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master in
Didactics of Foreign Languages.

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Declaration

We hereby declare that the dissertation entitled " Investigating the Relationship Between EFL learners' MBTI Personality Types (Feeling vs. Thinking Types) and Their Response to Oral Corrective Feedback" is our own work, and all the sources we have used have been acknowledged by means of references. We also certify that we have not copied or plagiarized the work of other students or researchers, either partially or fully. In the event that any material is not properly documented, we shall be held responsible for the consequences.

Signatures

Date of Submission

Dedication

To the pillars of my world, my dearest Mom and Dad, whose unwavering love and precious guidance have served as the very compass that has led me through life's journey,

To my beloved siblings, who are not just my kin, but my confidants and partners in endless adventures: Qamer, the gentle soul; Shams, the source of warmth; Ramzi, the embodiment of resilience; Raid, the boundless dreamer; and Donya, the epitome of grace,

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To the one whose path I followed, meeting outstanding highly accomplished minds made each day, indeed, a delightful experience, but knowing you was my true blessing. I owe my chosen course of study to your profound influence. May these words bring a warm smile to your face, as the mere thought of you has never failed to bring joy to my heart,

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Aymen

Dedication

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Abstract

This study investigates the potential relationship between EFL learners' MBTI, Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, personality types (thinking vs. feeling) and their response to oral corrective feedback (OCF) in the classroom. It is assumed that there is a notable connection between personality types and how OCF is received or responded to, and that learners with thinking personalities are more likely to engage with and utilize OCF compared to those with feeling personality types. Employing a mixed-methods approach, the study involved 100 third-year EFL students from the University of Mohamed Seddik Ben Yahia, Jijel. Participants were categorized into two groups based on their MBTI personality type and completed a questionnaire to explore their experiences and preferences regarding OCF. The findings confirm a significant relationship between learners' MBTI personality types and their response to OCF, revealing distinct patterns in engagement and emotional responses. Thinkers demonstrated greater proactivity and were less emotionally affected by oral corrective feedback, while feelers encountered emotional barriers and perceived feedback as personal criticism, hindering their engagement with the feedback process. The study contributes to a better understanding of the role of personality in language learning and informs language teaching practices for more effective and personalized language learning experiences. The findings emphasize the importance of tailoring feedback strategies to meet individual learners' needs based on their personality traits.

Keywords: EFL learners, MBTI, personality types, thinking, feeling, OCF, response.

List of Abbreviations

APA: American Psychological Association

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

E vs. I: Extroversion versus Introversion

CF: Corrective Feedback

CPP: Consulting Psychologists Press

J vs. P: Judging versus Perceiving

MBTI: Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

OCF: Oral Corrective Feedback

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

S vs. N: Sensing versus iNtuition

T vs. F: Thinking versus Feeling

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General Introduction

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General Introduction

1. Background of the Study

Corrective feedback (CF) is one of the most important aspects of language acquisition that plays a significant role in language teaching, particularly in the development of oral communication. The provision of CF gives learners immediate guidance and correction during speaking activities with the goal of improving their accuracy and fluency in the target language (Lyster, Saito, & Sato, 2013). While numerous studies have delved into the realm of corrective feedback, a consensus has not been reached regarding which errors to correct and how to approach correction methods (Banaruee & Askari, 2016; Hyland & Hyland, 2006; Banaruee, 2016).

Research into CF has uncovered variations in learners' responses, indicating that individuals do not all react equally to feedback. Factors such as feedback type and individual learner characteristics contribute to this variability in feedback effectiveness. Among these characteristics, personality traits have been identified as significant influencers of how learners perceive and respond to feedback (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Nevertheless, research findings in this area have been inconsistent, and the impact of personality traits on the effectiveness of oral corrective feedback has largely been overlooked.

The relationship between personality type and corrective feedback has received limited attention in the literature. Various personality type models have been proposed, with the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) being one of the most widely recognized and studied personality tests (Myers, McCauley, Quenck, & Hammer, 2003). Derived from Carl Jung's theory of psychological type, the MBTI helps individuals understand their personality and its influence on their behavior, communication style, and decision-making (Myers & Briggs Foundation, 2023). Numerous studies have reported high

validity in different cultural settings for the MBTI, making it a valuable tool for assessing personality traits (Kirby and Barger, 1998). And it has also been employed in various fields, including language learning contexts (Myers, 1998). Given the importance of feedback and the impact of personality traits on how learners respond to feedback, investigating the relationship between learners' MBTI personality types and their response to OCF in language learning is a crucial area of research.

2. Statement of the Problem

While some research has explored the relationship between learners' personality traits and their response to corrective feedback in second language acquisition, there remains a gap in the literature concerning the specific impact of MBTI personality types on learners' response to oral corrective feedback. For example, studies by Dornyei (2005) and Barwood (2009) suggest that learners with particular personality traits, such as high extroversion levels, are more inclined to react positively to OCF, as they are more open to taking risks and engaging in communicative activities, potentially resulting in increased opportunities for receiving and responding to OCF. Conversely, learners with certain personality traits, such as high neuroticism, may respond less favorably to OCF, being more anxious and sensitive to criticism, which might make them less likely to engage in communicative activities and more resistant to feedback (Bao & Du, 2016). Furthermore, as EFL learners, we have noticed a lack of emphasis on addressing students' individual preferences for oral corrective feedback according to their personality traits. This oversight is particularly apparent within the Algerian university system, with a specific focus on Jijel University.

To address this gap in the literature and respond to the observed need, further research is needed. Therefore, this study aims to investigate whether a relationship exists between thinking/feeling traits and the reception of oral corrective feedback

(OCF) among EFL learners at Jijel University. The goal is to contribute to a better understanding of the role of MBTI personality types in shaping learners' responses to OCF in language learning contexts.

3. Research Questions

This research seeks to answer the following questions:

1. Is there a relationship between EFL learners' MBTI personality traits (thinking/feeling) and their response to OCF in classrooms?
2. How do learners with different MBTI personality types respond to and experience OCF in the classroom?

4. Research Assumptions

The researchers of this study assume that:

1. There will be a significant relationship between learners' MBTI personality types and their perceptions of oral corrective feedback.
2. Learners with thinking MBTI personality types will be more likely to seek out and use oral corrective feedback than learners with feeling personality types.

5. Research Methodology

The proposed research study employed a quantitative method approach to investigate the relationship between EFL learners' MBTI personality types and their response to oral corrective feedback (OCF). The study took place at the University of Mohamed Seddik Ben Yahia, Jijel, and the participants were 3rd year EFL students selected through convenience sampling. The sample size consisted of 100 participants.

To examine the research questions and hypotheses, the proposed research study employed a two-phase survey. First, the Myers-Briggs personality test was used to classify learners into two groups based on their preferred decision-making style (thinking/feeling) using the 16 Personalities test website

(<https://www.16personalities.com/free-personality-test>). Then, a questionnaire was administered and distributed to both groups to investigate how students with different personalities respond to and experience oral corrective feedback.

6. Aims of the Study

This study intends to achieve a better understanding of the relationship between learners' MBTI personality types and their response to OCF in language learning and its practical implications for EFL educators. By identifying which personality types are more likely to benefit from specific types of feedback, educators can tailor their feedback strategies to meet the individual needs of learners. This study can also contribute to the development of personalized language learning approaches that take into account learners' personality traits. Moreover, the findings of this study can contribute to the theoretical understanding of the role of personality in language learning and provide insights into the interaction between personality and feedback processing.

7. Organization of the Dissertation

This research paper is divided into two chapters: the literature review and the fieldwork. The first chapter consists of two sections. The first section deals with oral corrective feedback, including its definition, types, and significance in language learning, while the second section provides an overview of MBTI personality types. The second chapter, the practical part, describes the research design that was adopted for the study. It describes the data collection process, which involved comprising a personality test, and administering a questionnaire to participants. The collected data is then analyzed and discussed to provide insights and conclusions related to the research questions.

Chapter One: Literature Review

Section One: Oral Corrective Feedback

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Chapter one: Literature Review

1. Oral Corrective Feedback

Introduction

EFL learners are no strangers to making errors on their language journey. In fact, errors are considered an important step towards achieving proficiency in any language. Recognizing the significance of feedback, they rely on their teachers to provide valuable insights into their performance and help them navigate the intricacies of language acquisition. Thus, this section delves into the topic of corrective feedback in language learning. Specifically, it focuses on oral corrective feedback (OCF), which involves verbally correcting students' spoken language errors. By exploring the potential impacts of OCF and discussing strategies for delivering effective feedback, we aim to shed light on the importance of this aspect of language instruction. Through this exploration, we hope to equip the teachers with valuable insights into selecting appropriate correction strategies and optimizing feedback delivery to enhance language acquisition.

1.1. Corrective Feedback: Concepts and Definitions

Shifting our focus from the bigger picture of education, we now zoom in on corrective feedback. Here, we uncover its many meanings and how it matters in teaching languages. As we dig into this, we see how helpful interactions make learning better.

1.1.1. The Concept of Feedback

The word feedback means comment on others' activities. Feedback is very important for education and training program. Actually, learners receive feedback after completing their work such as assignment, class task, presentation, essay etc. In

other words, we can say, feedback is an interaction between teachers and learners. Feedback provides information of someone's performance or understanding as an agent like teacher, peer, book, parent etc., it is called 'consequence' of performance (Hattie & Timperley 2007, p.81)

The issue of feedback in language learning and teaching has been defined by many scholars. The notion of feedback, as defined by Narciss (2008), is one of the most important elements in the field of teaching and learning. It refers to the information provided by the teacher to their students regarding their performance in a learning activity or task. Narciss describes feedback as "the post-response information which informs the learners about their actual states of learning and/or performance in order to help them detect if their states correspond to the learning aims in a given context" (p. 292). The same view is shared by Hattie and Timperley (2007, p. 81), who state that feedback is "information provided by an agent (e.g., teacher, peer, book parent, self, experience) regarding one's performance or understandings." Bialystok, Dulay, Burt, and Karshen (1982, p. 34) also define the term as follows: "Feedback generally refers to the listener's or reader's response given to the learners' speech or writing." A further definition was given by Ilgen, Fisher, and Taylor (1979, pp. 349-371), who describe feedback as "a special case of the general communication process in which some sender conveys a message to a recipient."

Thus, feedback is an aspect of interaction in the classroom that plays a crucial role in influencing the learning process. It makes a better relationship between teachers and students. Therefore, feedback is a visible and comprehensible thinking of a teacher on student's activities. It is very important for the learners to get feedback from their teachers, as well as, a teacher has a responsibility to provide meaningful

and effective feedback in the classroom. Feedback helps a learner to encourage in their study. In other words, according to Hattie and Yates (2007), feedback helps learners to reduce the gap between what is evident currently and what could or should be the case, they called it “empathy gap”. In recent decades, feedback has been the concern of researchers in general and teachers in particular, as responding to students' performance is an effective way to help them set goals, motivate them to improve, and enhance their learning outcomes.

1.1.2. The concept of Corrective Feedback

In accordance with Chaudron (1988) and Chaudron (1977), corrective feedback emerges as a multifaceted instructional approach encompassing various strategies employed by educators to address the errors and mistakes of their students. Chaudron (1988) defines it as "any teacher behavior following an error that minimally attempts to inform the learner of the fact of the error" (p. 150), while Chaudron (1977) expands on this, encompassing actions that "clearly transform, disapprovingly refer to, or demand improvement of the learner utterance" (p. 31). These observations highlight that corrective feedback does not solely concern error detection. It also plays a crucial role in enhancing performance and progress.

Additionally, Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006) provide a comprehensive definition of corrective feedback as follows:

Corrective feedback takes the form of responses to learner utterances that contain error. The responses can consist of (a) an indication that an error has been committed, (b) provision of the correct target language form, or (c) meta-linguistic information about the nature of the error, or any combination of these (Ellis, Loewen & Erlam, 2006, p. 340).

The excerpt by Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006) illuminates the diverse ways corrective feedback operates. It encompasses three main approaches: flagging the error, providing the correct version, and offering insights into the error's nature. This versatility empowers educators to tailor their feedback, fostering a deeper grasp of language rules and enhancing learning outcomes.

According to Lightbown and Spada (1999), the term corrective feedback is defined as an indication to the learners that their use of the target language is incorrect. It can be explicit (for example, in response to a learner error 'He go' - No, you should say 'goes'), or implicit ('yes, he goes to school every day'), and may or may not include metalinguistic information (for example: Do not forget to make the verb agree with the subject.) Additionally, Russel and Spada (2006, p. 143) describe corrective feedback as any form of feedback given to a learner, originating from various sources, that includes evidence of errors in the learner's language usage.

Based on the earlier definitions, feedback serves as a precise instructional tool employed by teachers to assist their students in correcting their errors. This can be achieved by identifying the specific error, employing correction codes to indicate its location, and providing guidance on how to correct it. There are two types of Corrective Feedback: Written Corrective Feedback and Oral Corrective Feedback. Written feedback is generally given after a task in a written form. It provides students with a record of what they are doing well for example, well done! good work, etc. or what needs to be improved and also suggest to make some revisions for a future task for example, revising the present simple, the passive voice, etc. Oral feedback can be defined as verbal remarks of teachers about the adequacy of the correctness of students' statements. It usually occurs during a task. It can be provided easily in face-to-face interaction at the teachable moment.

1.2.Oral Corrective Feedback

To achieve the purpose of this study, the research solely focuses on Oral Corrective Feedback (OCF).

1.2.1. Definition of Oral Corrective Feedback

Oral corrective feedback is a type of feedback that is given by the teacher verbally to a student during a spoken interaction or conversation (Oliver & Adams, 2021). According to Ellis (2006), OCF refers to the way teachers respond to students' incorrect statements. The response can involve pointing out the error, providing the correct form in the target language, or offering information about the nature of the mistake. Hyland and Hyland (2006) state that it is an approach that is highly regarded by researchers specializing in the field of first language acquisition as a form of dialogue where participants engage in continuous negotiation of meaning and interpretation. It is also recognized as a method that offers advantages for both teaching and learning. Furthermore, Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) observe that a typical interaction within a classroom setting involves the teacher initiating a conversation, followed by the student's response, and then the teacher providing feedback on the student's response. OCF is therefore a part of the interaction in the classroom that is used to correct students' spoken language mistakes and errors with the aim of enhancing their performance and improving their second language proficiency.

1.2.2. Types of Oral Corrective Feedback

Oral corrective feedback can be delivered in different ways, each playing a distinct role in enhancing students' proficiency in the target language. Based on their widely referenced classroom observation study, Lyster and Ranta (1997) identified and classified six different types of OCF: explicit correction, metalinguistic clues, repetition, elicitation, recasts, and clarification requests.

OCF	Definition
Explicit Correction	<p>The teacher explicitly corrects the student's incorrect utterance by clearly indicating the correct form.</p> <p>Student: In Monday.</p> <p>Teacher: On Monday, we say "On Monday", not "In Monday".</p>
Metalinguistic Clues	<p>The teacher engages in questioning or offers comments and information related to the structure of the student's utterance, without directly providing the correct form.</p> <p>Student: I go to park yesterday.</p> <p>Teacher: Can you tell me which verb tense should be used to talk about an action that happened in the past?</p>
Repetition	<p>The teacher repeats the student's error and adjusts intonation to draw student's attention to it.</p> <p>Student: I goed to the park yesterday.</p> <p>Teacher: You goed to the park yesterday?</p>
Elicitation	<p>The teacher directly elicits the correct form from the student by asking questions (e.g., "How do we say that in French?"), by pausing to allow the student to complete the teacher's utterance (e.g., "It's a...") or by asking students to reformulate the utterance (e.g., "Say that again.").</p>
Recasts	<p>The teacher implicitly reformulates the student's error or provides the correction without explicitly indicating that the student's utterance was incorrect.</p> <p>Student: She like animals.</p> <p>Teacher: Oh, she likes animals, yes.</p>
Clarification Requests	<p>By using phrases like "Excuse me?" or "I do not understand," the teacher indicates that the message has not been understood or that the student's utterance contained some kind of mistake and that a repetition or a reformulation is required.</p>

Table 01. Types of OCF Adapted from (Lyster & Ranta, 1997)

According to whether the correct form was directly provided or not, they further categorized these types of OCF into two broad groups: reformulations (i.e., recasts and explicit correction), and negotiation of forms (i.e., elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification requests, and repetition), also referred to as prompts (Lyster, 2004).

Another way to segment these OCF types was given by Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006), who classified them into explicit and implicit types according to whether the learner was drawn to their error overtly. In this segmentation, implicit OCF constitutes clarification requests, repetition, recasts, and elicitation, while explicit OCF includes metalinguistic clues and explicit correction.

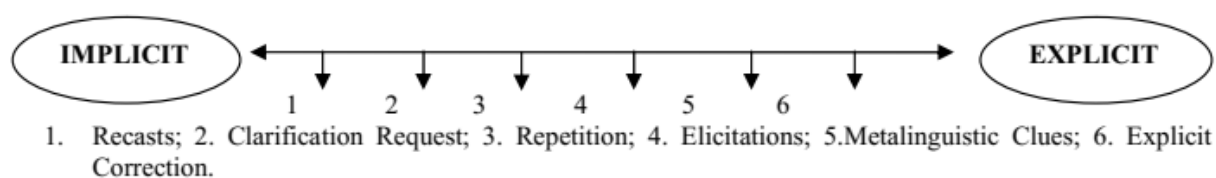


Figure 01. Continuum of the types of corrective feedback in order of explicitness.

Adapted from (Sheen & Ellis, 2011)

Sheen and Ellis (2011) proposed a categorization of OCF (Oral Corrective Feedback) types based on their level of implicitness. Figure 03 above displays the prevalent types of corrective feedback, arranged in order of explicitness. Recasts are considered the most implicit type, while explicit correction is positioned at the opposite end. Prompts, including clarification requests, repetition, elicitation, and metalinguistic clues, fall in the middle position.

Other researchers have added more categories to Lyster and Ranta's list of OCF types. Yao (2000) and Sheen (2011) categorize these strategies into seven types: recasts; explicit correction; explicit correction with meta-linguistic explanation; repetition; elicitation; metalinguistic cue; and clarification requests. Yao (2000) adds

body language as an additional type. Sheen (2011) adds focused and unfocused categories to provide OCF in the classroom setting.

Despite the existence of different classifications, Lyster and Ranta's taxonomy has emerged as a prominent classification for coding oral corrective feedback, and it is the specific taxonomy that our research emphasizes.

1.2.3. The Impact of Oral Corrective Feedback on EFL Students' Second Language Acquisition

In English as Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms, students consider their teacher's Oral Corrective Feedback (OCF) as a valuable resource for both correction and motivation. OCF provides students with a valuable perspective on their performance, allowing them to gauge others' perceptions. This feedback serves as a positive catalyst, inspiring students to put in greater effort and enhance their language skills. However, it is worth noting that OCF can also have adverse effects on EFL students' performance, making it one of the most demanding aspects for teachers in this field (Pham & Tho, 2018).

1.2.3.1 Positive Impact

Oral corrective feedback (OCF), defined as verbal feedback provided by teachers to indicate speaking errors, aims to enhance students' speaking skills. The significance of OCF in the language classroom has been widely recognized (Chen & Liu, 2021; Elsaghayer, 2014; Lee, 2016; Mufidah, 2018). Corrective feedback plays a crucial role in language mastery, with teachers considering it a primary strategy for promoting accuracy, fluency, and appropriateness in speaking (Sakiroglu, 2020). Through corrective feedback, students gain insight into their linguistic strengths and weaknesses, allowing them to take ownership of their learning and actively engage in self-correction (Schaffer, 2020). Students also acknowledge the necessity of corrective

feedback to gradually eliminate their mistakes and enhance their pronunciation and spelling (Alsolami, 2021). Despite debates and concerns about the potential negative impact of corrective feedback (Truscott, 1996), it remains highly desired because the majority of speaking class activities focus on accuracy rather than communicative language use (Pawlak, 2014). Consequently, oral corrective feedback is an integral component of language instruction, offering tangible learning benefits for students.

1.2.3.2 Negative Impact

Despite the previous perception of corrective feedback as an effective method for enhancing student improvement, certain researchers have uncovered alternative findings. Some argue against the need for corrective feedback, asserting that it could be harmful to second language acquisition by causing embarrassment, anger, inhibition, and feelings of inferiority among learners (Truscott, 1999; Krashen, 1982). According to Truscott (1999), negative effects on learners' motivation have been associated with corrective feedback, discouraging and demotivating them. Ellis (2009) emphasizes the importance of considering the potential affective damage caused by corrective feedback, highlighting that learners' individual characteristics and emotions can significantly influence its effectiveness. Ellis (2013) also argues that while corrective feedback is necessary, it has the potential to interfere with students' learning. Similarly, Harmer (2007) noted that inappropriate correction techniques and excessive focus on correction can increase learners' stress levels and impede language acquisition. Consequently, teachers should select suitable techniques to avoid the adverse effects of correction. Interrupting students with grammar, vocabulary, or pronunciation corrections during communicative activities should be avoided (Harmer, 2007).

Overcorrection and excessive use of corrective feedback can undermine learners' self-confidence and motivation (Ayedh & Khaled, 2011). Teachers should be

mindful of managing corrective feedback in a positive and kind manner, avoiding embarrassment and frustration for learners (Martínez, 2008). Additionally, anxiety and language learner anxiety can be induced by corrective feedback, affecting students' self-esteem and motivation (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005). It is essential for teachers to be sensitive to learners' feelings and emotions, adapting corrective feedback to individual needs and considering the social and situational context (Ellis, 2009).

The effectiveness of corrective feedback and the optimal feedback strategy in classroom settings remain debatable. Research has not yet provided conclusive evidence on which type of feedback is best for all learners in all contexts (Ellis, 2010). Variations in learners' responses to corrective feedback and the importance of individualized feedback highlight the complexity of this area (Ellis, 2009).

1.3. Handling Corrective Feedback

Relating to the effective management of corrective feedback, Hendrickson (1978 cited in Ellis, 2013) presents five key questions that are relevant. These questions help guide the process of handling corrective feedback, and we will outline them below:

1. Should learners' errors be corrected?
2. When should learners' errors corrected?
3. Which errors should be corrected?
4. How should learners' errors be corrected?
5. Who should do the correcting?

1.3.1 Should Learners' Errors Be Corrected?

Considering that errors are an inherent part of the learning journey, and that every learner, whether acquiring a second language or even their first language, inevitably makes a multitude of mistakes, it becomes crucial to offer correction for the learners' errors. According to Kennedy (1973, cited in Hendrickson, 1978), the act of

correcting learners' errors is valuable as it allows them to explore and understand the functions and limitations of the syntactical and lexical structures in the target language.

While Ur (1998) acknowledges the crucial role of correction in enhancing learners' performance, she warns against the potential harm of overcorrection, as it often fails to eliminate errors. Thus, in the context of foreign language instruction, it is not necessary for teachers to correct every single error made by learners, but rather to focus on specific types of errors to boost learners' confidence in using the target language.

1.3.2 When Should Learners' Errors Be Corrected?

According to Ellis (2013), the question at hand is connected to the distinction between fluency and accuracy. In the context of oral corrective feedback, where the goal is to enhance fluency, it is preferable for teacher correction to take place at the conclusion of the activity. Conversely, if the objective is to achieve greater accuracy, immediate corrective feedback is recommended instead.

Furthermore, Amara (2015) stated that the timing of error correction should be based on the specific type of errors being made. In simpler terms, the nature of the errors plays a significant role in determining whether they should be corrected in the moment or at a later stage. He noted that immediate correction is more suitable for grammatical errors, as delaying the correction would hinder learners' ability to retain the corrected information.

Another important aspect of corrective feedback, as highlighted by Scrivener (2011), is that during fluency-focused activities, teacher intervention is considered detrimental and should be delayed until the end. However, in accuracy-focused tasks, immediate corrective feedback is highly recommended. To facilitate this, the teacher can compile a list of students' errors to be addressed once their performance is completed (Ellis, 2013).

1.3.3 Which Errors Should Be Corrected?

It is important to consider that when it comes to correcting students, they generally expect to receive feedback. However, it is generally considered unfavorable to provide excessive correction. In order to decide which mistakes should be addressed and which ones should be ignored, Corder (1967, as cited in Ellis, 2013) draws a distinction between "mistakes" and "errors." According to this differentiation, teachers are expected to correct errors, which are systematic and result from a lack of knowledge. On the other hand, mistakes which happen under some psychological factors as stress should be overlooked. This approach serves as a guideline for teachers to determine the appropriate instances for providing correction (Ellis, 2013).

1.3.4 How should errors be corrected?

Teachers should be mindful of employing effective methods to correct errors made by learners, while avoiding any actions that may lead to their frustration and discouragement (Chaudron, 1978). "Errors can be corrected using some suggested strategies like questioning the learner (Harmer 1983 as cited in Ellis, 2013), direct indication (Scrivener 2005), requesting clarification (Hedge 2000), and requesting repetition (Harmer 1983). Hedge (2000) deduces that varying the strategies is recommended with the preference of those who ask learners to engage in the self-correction of their own errors." (Ellis, 2013, p.05)

1.3.5 Who Should Do the Correcting?

According to Ellis (2013), there are three potential approaches to error correction. The teacher, peers, or the learners themselves can undertake the task of correcting errors (Ellis, 2013, p. 05-6). The teacher is the capable and the authorized one to correct the errors. However, peer correction is very beneficial and plays an important role in instruction. According to Witbeck (1976), peer correction results in a "greater concern for achieving accuracy in written expression in individual students and

creates a better classroom atmosphere for teaching the correctional aspects of composition" (p 325). In a study conducted by Morris and Taron (2003), students were asked to work in pairs and correct each other; however, there were conflicts between high achievers and low achievers, which did not contribute to the effectiveness of corrective feedback. Another study conducted by Mackey revealed that correction is observed in less than half of the cases when students correct each other's mistakes, while when a native speaker corrects an English language learner, 77 % of the corrections were noticed. It is believed that self-correction is better than teacher correction (Yoshida, 2008); yet, self-correction depends on the error type and learners' proficiency. Hendrickson (1978) thought that self-correction can be helpful in language learning.

1.4. Effective Feedback Strategies for Teachers

Given that learners typically perceive their teachers as a reliable source of guidance and expect them to provide accurate information, teachers employ various techniques to address their students' errors. Brookhart (2008) identifies several dimensions in which feedback strategies can differ, including timing, amount, mode, and audience.

Regarding timing, Brookhart (2008, p. 10) suggests that feedback should be provided while students are still actively thinking about the topic, assignment, or performance in question. This ensures that they can avoid making the same error in the future.

In terms of amount, Brookhart (2008, p. 12) emphasizes the importance of providing a sufficient amount of information that corrects students' errors while building upon their existing knowledge. It is crucial for teachers to offer clear explanations about the next steps in the learning process.

Regarding mode, Brookhart (2008, p. 15) argues that feedback can be delivered in various forms. This implies that teachers should choose the most appropriate way to deliver their corrective feedback based on the nature of the task. Oral corrective feedback is one such mode of providing feedback.

When it comes to audience, Brookhart (2008, p. 17) highlights the significance of understanding the intended recipients of the feedback. Teachers should consider whether the feedback is directed towards an individual's work or a group effort. Addressing the specific student who completed the work allows for better comprehension of where the error occurred and fosters effective communication between the teacher and the student.

By considering these dimensions, teachers can employ effective feedback strategies that enhance learning outcomes and support students' growth and development.

Conclusion

In summary, this section has highlighted the concept of Oral Corrective Feedback (OCF) in EFL classrooms and its various types. It discussed the potential positive and negative impacts of OCF on language acquisition, along with the strategies and factors that contribute to effective feedback delivery. Through this analysis, it has become evident that targeted oral corrections have a significant impact on enhancing learners' language proficiency. However, to ensure the effectiveness of OCF, it is crucial for teachers to consider students' attitudes towards correction and have a clear understanding of when, which, and how errors should be corrected. By considering these factors, EFL teachers can optimize the impact of oral corrective feedback on students' language proficiency.

Section Two: An Overview of the MBTI Personality Types

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Section Two: An Overview of MBTI Personality Types

Introduction

People encounter a wide variety of individuals in their lives, each with unique characteristics. Some of those individuals are sociable, strong and wise, others are anxious, fragile and sensitive or aggressive, and the list goes on. The use of such adjectives serves to describe the qualities, behaviors, thoughts, and emotions of individuals. In this context, we are not referring to their physical appearance, but rather describing their personal characters. Thus, when we speak of someone's personality, we are essentially referring to what sets them apart from others, and perhaps makes them even unique. This raises the question of what exactly we mean by the use of the term "personality" and how it can be defined and measured.

There are numerous theories of personality that offer a structure of assumptions, concepts, and ideas that aim to explain the construct of personality and support the development of assessment tools for its study. Since a comprehensive discussion of different personality theories is beyond the scope of this dissertation, this section will only focus on providing an overview of the frameworks underpinning one of the most commonly used tools in the existing literature: the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) and its relation to Carl Jung's theory.

2.1. Personality

According to the American Psychological Association (APA, 2023), personality refers to the individual variations in patterns of thinking, feeling, and behavior. McCrae and John (1992) define personality as enduring styles in emotions, interpersonal interactions, experiences, attitudes, and motivations. Dörnyei (2006) identifies personality as one of the essential domains of individual differences, alongside aptitude, motivation, learning styles, and learning strategies. Personality also plays a significant

role within these domains. The relationship between learning styles and personality remains contentious, often used interchangeably, with personality-based learning styles representing dimensions of personality associated with cognitive styles (Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003). Additionally, evidence suggests that successful language learners select strategies aligned with their personalities (Fazeli, 2011).

Personality plays a significant role in shaping human behavior and is an essential aspect of student psychology. Emotions, which are closely linked to personality, have a crucial impact on the learning process. Certain personality traits can either facilitate or hinder second language acquisition (SLA), and it has been suggested that the influence of personality on linguistic development is a reciprocal process, with each factor influencing the other (Fazeli, 2012).

Moreover, the impact of personality on learning appears to strengthen over an individual's lifespan, with personality traits gaining greater predictive power with age. In contrast, general intelligence becomes less predictive of learning outcomes in adults, leading to the proposal that personality takes on a more influential role as intellectual abilities wane (Sharp, 2008). This implies that personality may be better suited to predicting individuals' actions, whereas general intelligence predicts their capabilities (Sharp, 2008). Consequently, it is crucial to examine the role of personality in second language acquisition to address language learning difficulties (Dewaele, 2005; Dörnyei, 2006; Robinson et al., 1994). However, despite its significance, research on the impact of personality on language learning remains limited. Existing studies have shown inconsistencies in methodology and outcomes, hindering progress in understanding the relationship between students' dispositions (equivalent to personality traits) and language learning (Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003).

2.1.1 Jung's Theory of Personality

According to The Myers Briggs Foundation (2023), Jung's Theory of Psychological Type was published in 1921 after nearly two decades of practical research in psychiatry. This publication provided a comprehensive summary of Jung's conversations with colleagues and the effective strategies they had utilized in their patient work (Wankat & Oreovicz, 1993). Jung proposed that each individual possessed a fundamental orientation or attitude towards the world. This orientation could be categorized as either Extroversion (E), where energy is directed outwardly towards people or events, or Introversion (I), where energy is directed inwardly towards ideas. Additionally, individuals processed information through either Sensing (S), which relied on the senses, or Intuition (N), which relied on patterns and possibilities. When making decisions, individuals either employed Thinking (T), emphasizing logic and analysis, or Feeling (F), emphasizing values and subjectivity (Wankat & Oreovicz, 1993).

According to Jung, people exhibit intrinsic differences despite sharing a multitude of instincts. He stressed that no single instinct held greater importance than another (Jung, 1923). Rather, our preference for how we functioned and our characteristic inclination towards a specific function allowed for our categorization into psychological types. Consequently, Jung formulated the concept of function types or psychological types.

2.1.2. Personality Measurements

The study of personality is a complex psychological concept that has captured the attention of numerous scholars and psychologists throughout history. It plays a vital Source in various shared contexts. Recognizing the existence of diverse individuals with unique reactions and behaviors emphasizes the need for sensitivity and

understanding. Consequently, comprehending personality differences becomes valuable in recognizing and appreciating the inherent worth, strengths, and unique qualities that each individual possesses (Fleeson 2001).

Personality tests have undergone significant transformations in their purpose and usage over time (Grant, 2013). Initially developed for diagnosing psychological disorders, these tests now find applications in various domains and are commonly employed for self-discovery, team building, and career counseling.

In the field of personality and psychology, the terms "test," "measurement," and "assessment" are often used interchangeably. According to the Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2003), a test is defined as "a way of discovering, by questions or practical activities, what someone knows, or what someone or something can do or is like" (p. 1318). In the context of personality assessment, both general individuals and specialized psychologists employ various tools to gather information or collect data. Some examples of these tools include:

2.1.2.1 Observer Rating: According to Carver and Scheier (2000), the rating of individuals is typically based on observation, where the researcher assesses their personalities by observing their actions and behaviors and making judgments without any direct interaction. Alternatively, information may be gathered from individuals who are familiar with the person being observed. In some cases, the assessed individuals themselves may be interviewed and provide self-reports, expressing their opinions without being aware of the observer's specific objectives (p. 37).

2.1.2.2 Self-reports Inventory: According to Carver and Scheier (2000), self-report inventories, frequently employed in personality assessment, are psychological tests that present a series of questions or statements. These items may or may not accurately depict qualities or characteristics of the population under assessment. While some

questions are straightforward, others are implicit, requiring individuals to recall past actions or make predictions about future behaviors. Typically, these inventories are structured in various formats, including true-false questions demanding precise answers, as well as questions accompanied by multiple alternatives or scales with options such as "agree," "disagree," and "strongly agree" (Carver & Scheier, 2000). Self-reports seem to be widely used in psychology, in accordance, McDonald (2008) asserts that in personality psychology, the most favored approach involves asking individuals to respond to questions or statements about their own attributes and behaviors (p.2).

Thus, observer-rating and self-report inventory are commonly utilized tools for gathering information about people's behaviors, feelings, thoughts, and actions, which in turn provide insights into their personalities. These tools undergo evaluations in terms of reliability, validity, and acceptability to ensure that the data and results obtained through their application are trustworthy and meaningful. In the realm of personality assessment, specifically, there are two extensively utilized models: "The Big Five" and "Myers-Briggs Type Indicator" (MBTI), among others. In this context, we will provide a concise overview of the MBTI model, as it is extensively discussed and applied in the personality measurement process upon which our research is focused.

2.1.3 The Myer-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)

In an extension of Carl Jung's work on Psychological Type, Isabel Myers and Katherine Briggs developed the idea of Personality Types and introduced the MBTI which is a self-report questionnaire designed to measure non-psychopathological personality types (McCrae & John, 1992). This assessment builds upon Jung's exploration of individuals' fundamental orientations (E vs. I) and information processing styles (S vs. N) and decision-making approaches (T vs. F), while also

incorporating a fourth aspect: individuals' orientations and organization in the external world, known as judging (J) and perceiving (P) preferences.

The MBTI self-assessment categorizes individuals into 16 distinct Personality Types based on these four sets of preferences: Extroversion (E) or introversion (I), sensing (S) or intuition (N), thinking (T) or feeling (F), and judging (J) or perceiving (P) (Myers, 1998; Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, 2023)

Myers-Briggs	Extraversion	E	Introversion	I	Jung
	Sensing	S	iNtuition	N	
	Thinking	T	Feeling	F	
	Judging	J	Perceiving	P	

Figure 02. Myers-Briggs' MBTI Personality Preferences versus Jung's Psychological Types (Shen et al., 2007).

The MBTI is widely recognized as one of the most scientifically validated assessments of Personality Type. It has a global market value of approximately 3.5 million dollars per year and is accessible in more than 21 languages. The MBTI has been extensively employed and examined in various professional contexts (Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, 2023; The Myers Briggs Foundation, 2023; Shen et al., 2007). More than one hundred million individuals have completed the MBTI self-assessment, with the majority agreeing with all four of their identified 'results.' A significant proportion of individuals agree with at least three of their 'results' and find the self-assessment helpful in gaining clarity regarding their preferences (Wilde, 2003 as cited in Shen et al., 2007).

In the field of teaching and learning, researchers have frequently utilized the MBTI self-assessment to investigate student characteristics, functioning, and academic achievement (Felder & Brent, 2005; Kim, Lee, & Ryu, 2013; Kiss, Kotsis, & Kun, 2014; Shen et al., 2007). The MBTI self-assessment is considered a comprehensive tool for assessing learning style, as it identifies individuals' preferences and information processing approaches, rather than solely focusing on specific learning behaviors (Jensen, Wood, & Wood, 2003).

Although the MBTI self-assessment is not intended as a predictive tool, studying patterns in type distribution and preferences has been linked to increased student success and persistence in completing their studies (Sanborn, 2013). In the post-secondary context, the MBTI has proven beneficial in assisting staff and faculty in supporting students' academic and institutional choices, group work, and overall academic success within a program (Felder & Brent, 2005; Shen et al., 2007; Yeung, Read, & Schmid, 2012). Schaubhut and Thompson (2011) conducted a study involving 107,000 post-secondary students from 59 different majors, and their findings indicated that personality traits, particularly Personality Types as determined by the MBTI, could aid students in planning their post-secondary education, including vocational choices and the university environment.

2.1.4 Understanding Psychological Type Using the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

Although not explicitly classified as a Trait Theory in psychology literature, the Myers-Briggs indicator offers the ability to evaluate a student's learning preferences and processes, going beyond mere observation of their learning behaviors (Jensen, Wood & Wood, 2003). Built on the notion that human behavior is not arbitrary, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator operates on the belief that individuals possess inherent

mental functions and processes that guide them, resulting in discernible patterns within a population (Jung, 2013).

Consequently, Sanborn (2013) suggests that the MBTI can serve as a valuable tool for gaining a deeper understanding of post-secondary learners' personality traits, enabling students and administrators to categorize students' functions related to learning and academic success. The most commonly utilized MBTI self-assessment in post-secondary institutions is the 93-item Form M, which presents individuals with dichotomous questions to ascertain their preferences regarding personal energy, information acquisition, decision-making, and organizational tendencies. After completing the self-assessment, individuals engage in a consultation session with a trained professional to discuss the results and review their instrument outcomes (Myers, McCaulley, Quenk, & Hammer, 2009).

2.2.4.1 Interpreting Preference

Individuals' responses to the MBTI assessment lead to the determination of a preference for each dichotomous pair (E vs. I), (S vs. N), (T vs. F), and (J vs. P). The term "preference" is employed to denote an individual's innate tendency towards each personality trait within these pairs (Myers, 1998). The Consulting Psychologists Press (CPP) training manual often illustrates this type preference by instructing participants to write their signature with their non-dominant hand, which typically results in discomfort and unease. While it is not their preferred method of writing, it is still possible for individuals to do so. This illustrates that individuals possess preferences for their daily functions, yet they can adapt when necessary (Consulting Psychologists Press, 2015). The subsequent sections clarify each dichotomous preference pair and explore recent literature regarding these preferences in relation to individuals' learning styles.

2.2.4.1.1 Extroversion and Introversion: An individual's energy source is determined by their preference towards either Extroversion (E) or Introversion (I). Extroverts derive their energy from social interactions, external stimuli, and engaging with people, objects, or events. On the other hand, introverts obtain their energy from independent and solitary creative endeavors (Sanborn, 2013). Extroverts (E) typically direct their attention outward and process information in a pattern of action, followed by reflection, and then further action. In contrast, introverts (I) focus inward and follow a pattern of reflection, action, and subsequent reflection when processing information (Chang & Chang, 2000).

According to Chang and Chang (2000), when comparing Extroverts and Introverts in terms of their learning and studying preferences, Extroverts tend to be active experiential learners, whereas Introverts tend to be reflective observational learners. Dunning (2008) suggests that Extroverts can benefit from practicing active listening and effective reading strategies to enhance their engagement during lectures and studying. Additionally, group studying and learning activities involving movement, action, and conversation can be particularly effective for Extroverts.

Furthermore, Sanborn (2013) states that study strategies incorporating connections between theories, facts, and personal experiences have been proven to be effective for extroverted learners. For Introverts, it is crucial for them to allocate time in quiet and uninterrupted environments to process the information they are learning. Planning is especially important for Introverts as it allows them to gather information in advance, giving them the necessary time to comprehend the material before they need to respond (Sanborn, 2013). In group settings, Dunning (2008) emphasizes the importance of encouraging introverted students to use “nonverbal cues to demonstrate

participation” and engagement when they are not verbally contributing to group discussions (p. 17).

2.2.4.1.2 Sensing and iNtuition: (This spelling of iNtuition is the Myers-Briggs copyrighted trademark.) The way individuals process information is determined by their preference towards Sensing (S) or iNtuition (N) (Chang & Chang, 2000). Individuals who possess a preference for Sensing gather information through their physical senses, while those with an preference towards iNtuition rely on their perception or intuition to acquire knowledge (Sanborn, 2013). Sensors (S) typically exhibit a sequential and detail-oriented approach, emphasizing facts and procedures. On the other hand, Intuitors (N) tend to be conceptual thinkers, focusing on the bigger picture, meanings, and possibilities (Chang & Chang, 2000).

When examining the learning and studying preferences of Sensors and Intuitors, it is evident that Sensors thrive in a sequential learning approach, whereas Intuitors excel in creating patterns. Sensors demonstrate strength in memorization and rely on concrete examples to anchor abstract concepts. Dunning (2008) proposes several strategies for Sensors, such as summarizing subject matter, finding practical applications for overarching ideas or themes, and establishing “specific, short-term learning goals” (p. 18). Conversely, Intuitors thrive in theoretical subjects and use their imagination to develop abstract ideas. As learners inclined towards abstract and conceptual thinking, they exhibit a high level of comfort in academic settings and enjoy self-directed learning (Chang & Chang, 2000). Dunning (2008) suggests that Intuitors should focus on supporting their ideas with factual evidence, remain aware of potential distractions from related information that may steer them "off topic," and enhance their retention of detail-oriented information through academic aids like flashcards or summarized outlines.

2.2.4.1.3 Thinking and Feeling: The way individuals engage in decision-making is determined by their preference towards Thinking (T) or Feeling (F). Individuals with a preference for Thinking employ objective judgment to evaluate information and situations using standards and logic. On the other hand, individuals with a preference for Feeling employ subjective judgment to assess information and situations based on personal values and emotional connections, as outlined by Borg and Stranahan (2002), Chang and Chang (2000), and Sanborn (2013).

When examining students' preferences towards Thinking and Feeling in their learning and studying approaches, those with a preference for Thinking are primarily motivated by the logical reasoning that learning is the "right" thing to do. Additionally, Thinkers are driven by a desire to be perceived as competent. On the other hand, individuals with a preference for Feeling are motivated by external encouragement from others to engage in learning. Similarly, Feelers find motivation when the subject matter aligns with their personal values (Sanborn, 2013).

Dunning (2008) recommends that logical and analytical thinkers should focus on asking questions and seeking comments and answers without engaging in debates. While the credibility of information remains important, students with a preference for Thinking should practice appreciation and listening to enhance their information processing (Sanborn, 2013). Thinkers often prefer learning through abstract conceptual or abstract sequential processes (Chang & Chang, 2000). For Feelers, successful information processing and learning occur when the content resonates with their individual perspectives. Feelers typically prefer learning through practical experiences and engaging with abstract random information (Chang & Chang, 2000).

2.2.4.1.4 Judging and Perceiving: The way individuals navigate and organize their ‘outer world’ is determined by their preference towards Judging (J) or Perceiving (P) as stated by Sanborn (2013). Those who have a preference for Judging tend to value organization, structure, and planning, while those who lean towards Perceiving value independence, flexibility, and spontaneity. Judging individuals perceive time in segments and aim to complete specific tasks within designated time periods. They strive to maintain order and seek closure once they initiate a task (Chang & Chang, 2000). Conversely, individuals with a preference for Perceiving view time as a continuous flow and are open to changing tasks, incorporating new information, and exploring new possibilities (Borg & Stranahan, 2002; Chang & Chang, 2000).

When considering students' orientations to learning and studying, their preferences towards Judging or Perceiving play a significant role. Students who lean towards Judging tend to thrive academically by emphasizing task completion and perform well in structured learning environments with clearly defined goals (Sanborn, 2013). It is important for judging students to be mindful of avoiding over commitment and overly rigid scheduling systems. Dunning (2008) suggests that they should take the time to make decisions thoughtfully and “plan for inevitable interruptions to minimize academic stress” (p. 22).

On the other hand, students who identify with Perceiving preferences excel in open learning environments that offer flexibility in learning approaches and academic deadlines (Sanborn, 2013). However, it is important for perceiving students to be aware that they may not always have enough time to explore and maintain the desired level of openness in their learning. Dunning advises that perceiving students must recognize the natural flow of their learning process and establish appropriate structures and

organizational boundaries to ensure they can manage their time effectively and avoid running out of time (Dunning, 2008).

2.2.4.2 Interpreting Type

After completing the MBTI self-assessment, the individual's preferences are combined to determine their MBTI type. The combination of these preferences results in 16 distinct Personality Types, as illustrated in Figure 02 (Myers & Myers, 1995).

ISTJ	INTJ	ISFJ	INFJ	
ISTP	INTP	ISFP	INFP	
ESTP	ENTP	ESFP	ENFP	
ESTJ	ENTJ	ESFJ	ENFJ	

■ Thinking Types
■ Feeling Types

Figure 03. Myers-Briggs 16 different Personality Types as identified using the MBTI instrument (Myers & Myers, 1995).

Thinking Types:

- ISTJ: Introverted, Sensing, Thinking, Judging
- ISTP: Introverted, Sensing, Thinking, Perceiving
- ESTP: Extroverted, Sensing, Thinking, Perceiving
- ESTJ: Extroverted, Sensing, Thinking, Judging
- INTJ: Introverted, Intuitive, Thinking, Judging
- INTP: Introverted, Intuitive, Thinking, Perceiving
- ENTP: Extroverted, Intuitive, Thinking, Perceiving
- ENTJ: Extroverted, Intuitive, Thinking, Judging

Feeling Types:

- ISFJ: Introverted, Sensing, Feeling, Judging
- ISFP: Introverted, Sensing, Feeling, Perceiving
- ESFP: Extroverted, Sensing, Feeling, Perceiving
- ESFJ: Extroverted, Sensing, Feeling, Judging
- INFJ: Introverted, Intuitive, Feeling, Judging
- INFP: Introverted, Intuitive, Feeling, Perceiving
- ENFP: Extroverted, Intuitive, Feeling, Perceiving
- ENFJ: Extroverted, Intuitive, Feeling, Judging

All MBTI types are considered equally valuable, with no type being inherently better than another. Each type possesses unique preferences, strengths, and challenges. (The Myers Briggs Foundation, 2023). For a comprehensive description of each of the 16 Personality Types, please refer to Appendix A.

2.3. The Relationship between Personality and Corrective Feedback

According to Lemark and Valeo (2020), effective teaching involves the incorporation of corrective feedback, which has been extensively studied to identify the most effective strategies and approaches. However, researchers have begun to acknowledge the importance of individual differences that can influence the impact and effectiveness of corrective feedback. Among these individual differences, personality traits are relevant to the effectiveness of corrective feedback.

This means that an individual's personality traits play a role in determining the effectiveness of received corrective feedback. Each personality type requires a specific approach to receiving comments and guidance throughout the learning process. To elaborate further, corrective feedback is most effective when it is tailored to an

individual's personality. In other words, there are learners, such as extroverts, who prefer to receive direct feedback in the classroom to enhance their learning. However, some students may benefit more from receiving feedback privately rather than in front of their classmates.

Based on an individual's personality, teachers can draw the best way to correct their students' mistakes, through adopting different feedback delivery methods. According to Banaruee, Khoshsima, and Askari (2017) "extroverts benefited more from explicit feedback than from implicit feedback" (p.18). In other words, the more direct the correction is given to the extroverts, the more they learn and benefit from it. It even opens doors of discussion of the corrected point with the instructor. On the other hand, the authors also argued that introverted learners are more comfortable with internal interactions and indirect feedback. Therefore, teachers should consider this aspect during their instructional process.

Conclusion

This section provided an overview of the literature related to MBTI personality types. It delved into the definition of personality and its foundational theory by Carl Jung, including a discussion on personality measurement with an emphasis on the MBTI as a self-report assessment tool for personality, and its scientific validity. The basics of the four dichotomies of the MBTI were explained, along with the interpretation of types. Additionally, the section explored how the MBTI can be applied in professional and educational contexts to understand learning preferences, and ended with the relationship between personality and corrective feedback.

Chapter Two: Fieldwork

Introduction

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Chapter Two: Fieldwork

Introduction

The current chapter is dedicated to the practical part of the research at hand, which aims to investigate the relationship between EFL learners' MBTI (Myers-Briggs Type Indicator) personality types, particularly thinking/feeling types, and their response to oral corrective feedback. Additionally, it seeks to raise awareness about how learners with different MBTI personality types respond to and experience OCF in the classroom among teachers and students. The chapter begins by presenting the methodological design employed in the study, including the population and sample, as well as the research instruments used to conduct this study. Subsequently, it focuses on the description, analysis, interpretation, and discussion of the data collected through an online questionnaire administered to the 3rd-year students at the University of Mohamed Seddik Ben Yahia, Jijel.

3.1. Data Collection Procedures

The present study has employed a quantitative method approach, beginning with data collection and analysis through the utilization of an online MBTI personality test. This initial phase aimed to obtain primary responses to the research questions. Following that, an online questionnaire was distributed to gather additional data regarding the subject matter.

3.2. Population and Sampling

The target population is third year students of English in Mohammed Seddik Benyahia University. For this study, a sample of 100 students was conveniently selected to participate in the MBTI personality test and complete the questionnaire. The convenience sampling approach was chosen due to its practicality and accessibility, as it allowed for the inclusion of participants who were readily available and willing to

participate in the study. This population was chosen because third-year students have a previous background about oral performance as they have been studying English language for at least three years; therefore, they can understand the importance of their answers.

3.3. The Research Instruments

To address the research questions, two data collection instruments were utilized: an MBTI personality test and a questionnaire. The purpose of the personality test was to determine the students' personality types, which enabled them to be categorized into two groups based on their decision-making preferences (Thinking/Feeling). On the other hand, the questionnaire aimed to explore how students with different personality types perceive and respond to oral corrective feedback (OCF). By employing a quantitative method approaches, the study aimed to enhance the validity of its findings.

3.3.1. The MBTI Personality Types Test

The MBTI, or Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, personality types test was conducted online following a brief explanation of the test procedure. This integration of the test with the questionnaire served the purpose of identifying the specific personality types of the participants, thereby enabling a more targeted approach in addressing the research questions. Additionally, this integration facilitated the data analysis process, considering the time constraints involved. By using both a test and a questionnaire, students were able to provide their anonymous responses comfortably, ensuring a streamlined and efficient data collection process.

3.3.1.1 Description and Purpose of the MBTI Personality Test

The MBTI is a widely used personality assessment tool that categorizes individuals into 16 different personality types based on their preferences in four dichotomies: Extroversion (E) - Introversion (I), Sensing (S) - Intuition (N), Thinking

(T) - Feeling (F), and Judging (J) - Perceiving (P). It provides insights into an individual's behavior, communication style, and decision-making processes. The primary objective of the utilization the MBTI personality test is to determine the students' personality types and categorize our sample into two groups based on their decision-making tendencies: whether they rely more on rational thinking or emotional feeling. The test comprises straightforward closed-ended psychological questions with multiple-choice options. At the conclusion of the test, the student's personality type will be revealed among one of the sixteen possible personality types.

3.3.2.1. Description of the students' questionnaire

The students' questionnaire comprises a total of 13 questions, with 3 of them being open-ended and the remaining 10 consisting of closed-ended questions with multiple-choice options. After completing the MBTI personality test, students were requested to answer different questions regarding oral corrective feedback. They were encouraged to provide additional explanations for their answers whenever necessary.

The questionnaire was structured into two sections. The first section, titled "MBTI Test," focused on the integrated personality test and comprised four questions. These questions aimed to gather information about the students' gender, the results of their MBTI personality types test, their preferred decision-making style (Thinking/Feeling), and their overall satisfaction level regarding their speaking or listening class experience.

The second section, titled "Oral Corrective Feedback," included ten questions. These questions consisted of yes or no options as well as multiple-choice options with space provided for participants to offer explanations when needed. The questions in this section specifically related to the topic of oral corrective feedback.

3.3.2.2. Analysis of the students' questionnaire

Section One: Personal Information

Questions 01, 02, and 03 explore the frequency of Students' MBTI personality types, their preferred decision-making style (including categorizing individuals as thinkers or feelers), and the overall satisfaction ratings for their speaking or listening class level.

Question 01: Students' MBTI personality types

Table 02. Students' MBTI personality types

Type	ENTJ	ENTP	ESTJ	ESTP	INTJ	INTP	ISTJ	ISTP
Number	11	04	01	02	10	06	08	04
Percentage %	11	04	01	02	10	06	08	04

ENFJ	ENFP	ESFP	ESFJ	INFJ	INFP	ISFJ	ISFP	Total
02	04	06	04	11	05	15	07	100
02	04	06	04	11	05	15	07	100%

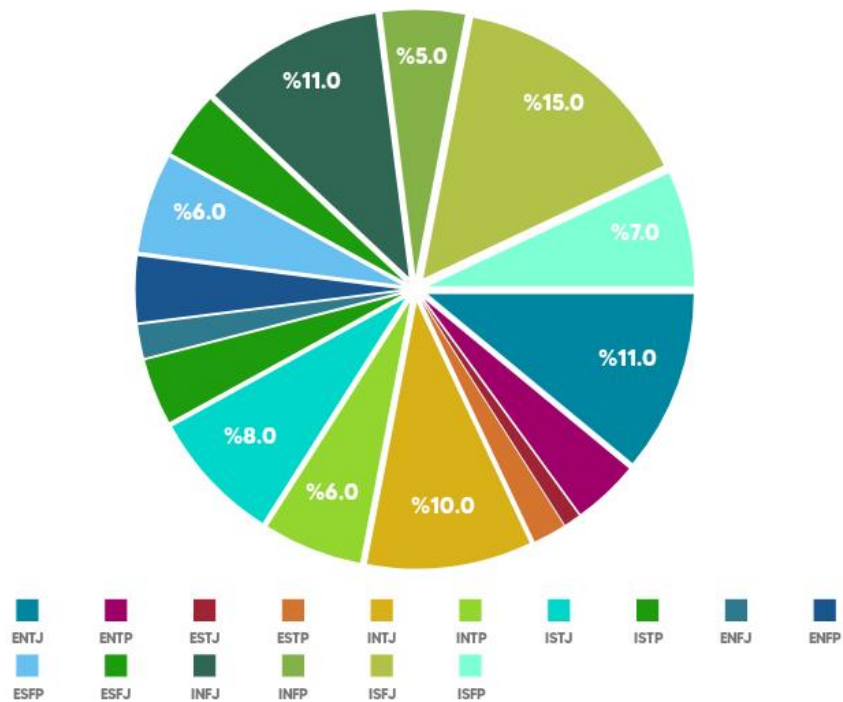


Figure 04. Students' MBTI personality types

The analysis of the MBTI test results revealed interesting patterns in the distribution of personality types among the participants. The most common personality type observed was ISFJ, accounting for 15% of the participants. Following closely behind were ENTJ and INFJ, both at 11% each, along with INTJ at 10%. Moderate representation was seen among INTP, ISTJ, and ESFP types, each comprising 6-8% of the participants. The remaining personality types, such as ENTP, ESTJ, ESTP, ENFJ, ENFP, ESFJ, INFP, and ISTP, had lower representation, ranging from 1% to 5%. These findings provide insights into the diverse range of personality types within the surveyed group.

Question 02: Based on your test results, do you have a thinking or a feeling type?

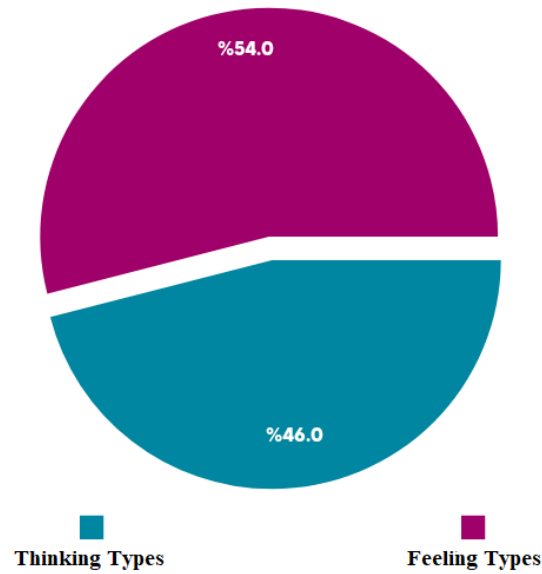


Figure 05. Thinking vs. Feeling Types

The purpose of this question is to group the participants into two categories: thinkers and feelers. Based on the responses, the feeling types accounted for 54% of the participants, while the thinking types accounted for 46%. This distribution suggests that there were a relatively higher proportion of individuals who tend to make decisions based on personal values, emotions, and consideration for others (feeling types). On the other hand, there were a slightly lower proportion of individuals who lean towards rationality, logic, and objective analysis when making decisions (thinking types).

Question 03: What is your overall satisfaction rating regarding your speaking or listening class level?

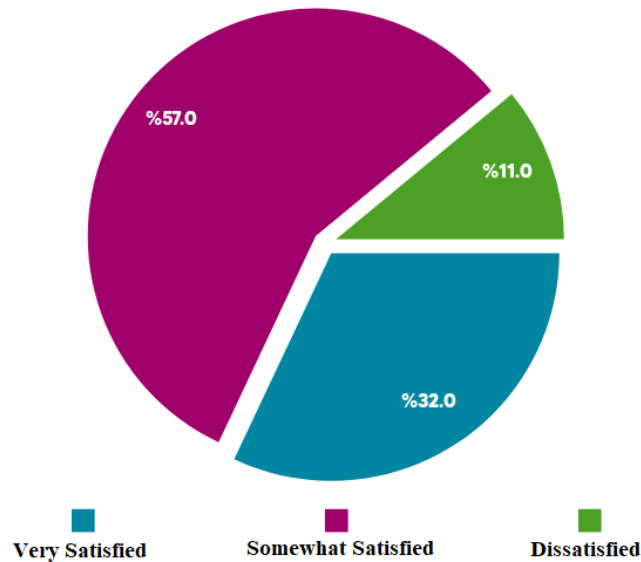


Figure 06. Overall Satisfaction Ratings for Speaking or Listening Class Level

The majority of participants expressed a level of satisfaction with their speaking or listening class, with 57% indicating they were somewhat satisfied and 32% reporting being very satisfied. This suggests that a significant portion of the participants had a positive experience and felt that their needs were met to a satisfactory extent. However, it's worth noting that a minority of participants (11%) expressed dissatisfaction with their speaking or listening class level. This feedback indicates that there were some individuals who did not feel completely satisfied with their experience.

Section Two: Oral Corrective Feedback (OCF)

To ensure both groups have an equal number of participants, 8 responses from students with feeling types were randomly excluded. This adjustment results in 46 participants for each group.

Question 01: Does your teacher provide you with oral corrective feedback when you make errors?

Table 03. Proportion of Participants Receiving OCF from Teachers

Types	Yes	%	No	%	Total	%
Thinkers	39	84.78%	7	15.22%	46	100%
Feelers	41	89.13%	5	10.87%	46	100%

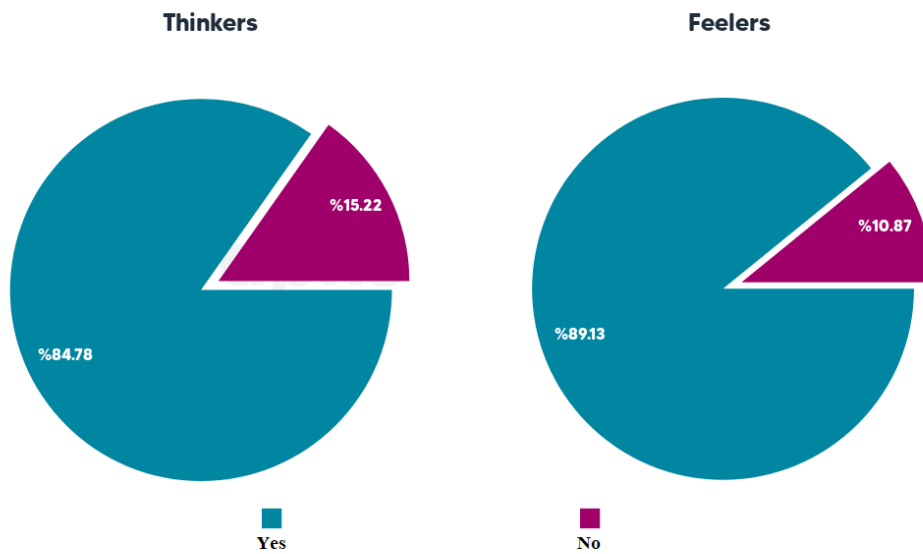


Figure 07. Proportion of Participants Receiving OCF from Teachers

These results indicate that the majority of both Thinkers and Feelers reported receiving oral corrective feedback from their teachers when they make errors. Among the Thinkers group, 84.78% answered "Yes," while 89.13% of the Feelers group responded positively. Conversely, a smaller proportion of participants in both groups reported not receiving oral corrective feedback, with 15.22% of Thinkers and 10.87% of Feelers responding "No." Overall, it appears that there is a relatively high level of oral corrective feedback provided by teachers to both Thinkers and Feelers in the surveyed group.

If yes, how often?

Table 04. Frequency of Oral Corrective Feedback Provided by Teachers

Types	a. Always	b. Often	c. Sometimes	d. Rarely	Total
Thinkers	03	11	16	09	39
%	07.69%	28.20%	41.02%	23.07%	100%
Feelers	06	13	18	04	41
%	14.63%	31.70%	43.90%	09.75%	100%

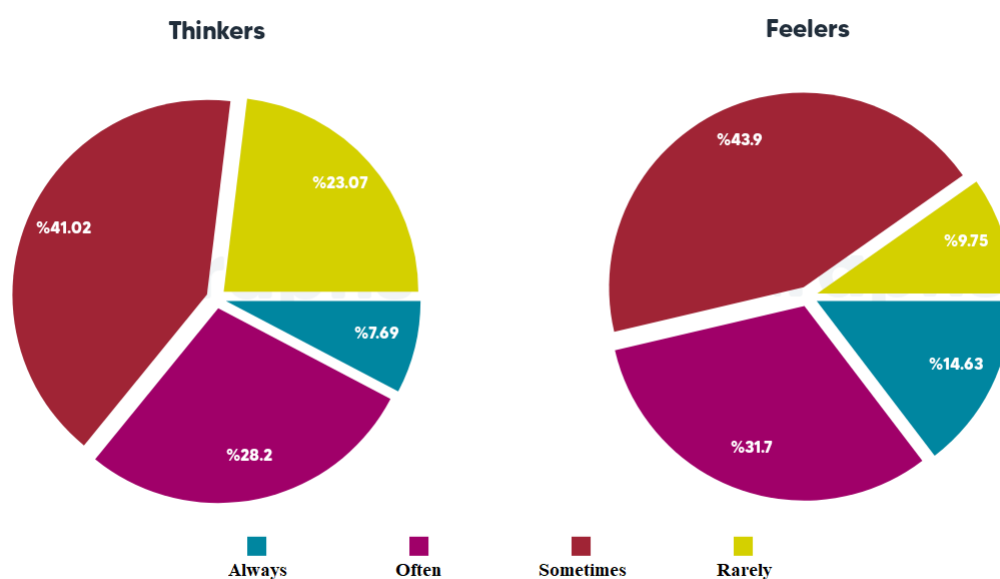


Figure 08. Frequency of Oral Corrective Feedback Provided by Teachers

For Thinkers, the most common response was "Sometimes" (41.02%), followed by "Often" (28.21%), "Rarely" (23.07%), and "Always" (7.69%). For Feelers, the most common response was also "Sometimes" (43.90%), followed by "Often" (31.70%), "Always" (14.63%), and "Rarely" (9.75%). It can be observed that both groups reported similar patterns in terms of the frequency of oral corrective feedback, with "Sometimes" being the most common response for both Thinkers and Feelers.

Question 02: How likely are you to seek clarification or ask questions when you do not understand something during a speaking activity?

Table 05. Likelihood of Seeking Clarification or Asking Questions during a Speaking Activity: Comparison between Thinkers and Feelers

Types	a. Very likely	b. Somewhat likely	c. Unlikely	Total
Thinkers	14	21	11	46
%	30.43%	45.65%	23.92%	100%
Feelers	9	22	15	46
%	19.56%	47.83%	32.61%	100%

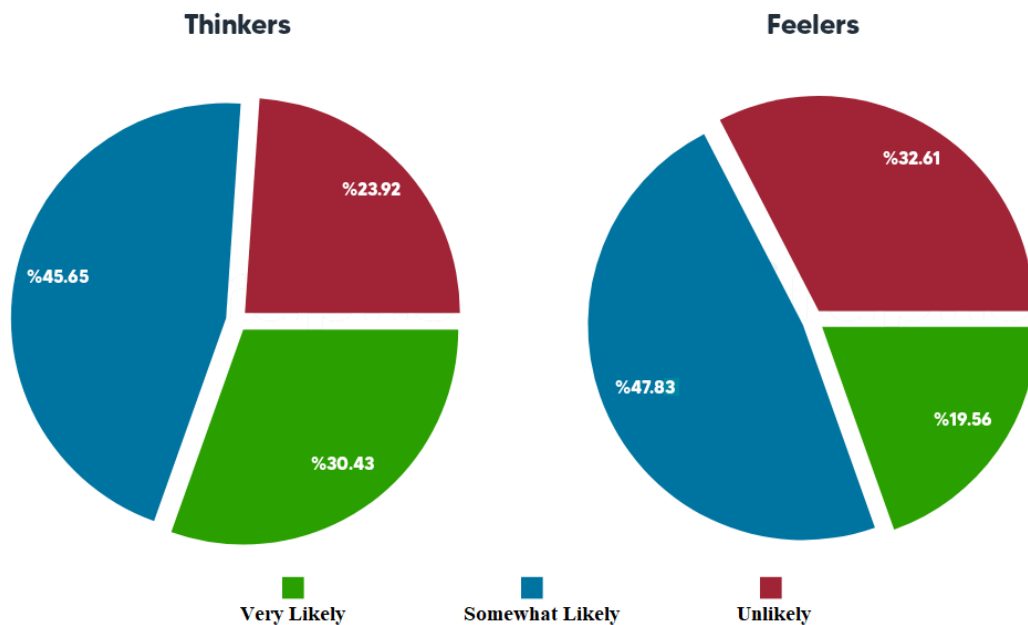


Figure 09. Likelihood of Seeking Clarification or Asking Questions during a Speaking Activity

When comparing the likelihood of seeking clarification or asking questions during speaking activities between Thinkers and Feelers, distinct patterns emerge. Thinkers exhibit a higher percentage in the very likely category (30.43%) compared to Feelers (19.56%). This suggests that Thinkers possess a stronger inclination towards

actively seeking clarification and asking questions. In the somewhat likely category, both Thinkers (45.65%) and Feelers (47.83%) demonstrate a significant presence. This indicates that individuals from both groups understand the importance of seeking clarification to some extent. However, they may face various obstacles or considerations that impact their willingness to ask questions or actively seek answers. In the unlikely category, Thinkers (23.92%) have a lower percentage compared to Feelers (32.61%). This suggests that Feelers face more significant barriers or hindrances when it comes to seeking clarification or asking questions during speaking activities.

Please, could you explain your answer?

The analysis highlights the different tendencies and justifications for seeking clarification or asking questions during speaking activities for both Thinkers and Feelers. It reveals a range of motivations, obstacles, and preferences that influence their likelihood of seeking clarification as follows:

Thinkers exhibit varying levels of likelihood when it comes to seeking clarification or asking questions during speaking activities. The first category consists of thinkers who are very likely to seek clarification. They demonstrate a strong desire for learning, a fear of misunderstanding, and an active engagement in speaking activities. These individuals prioritize seeking clarification as a means to improve their understanding and ensure accurate comprehension. The second category includes thinkers who are somewhat likely to seek clarification. They share a similar desire for understanding and self-reflection but may face obstacles such as shyness or hesitation when it comes to asking questions or sharing their ideas. Lastly, the third category comprises thinkers who are unlikely to seek clarification. These individuals have a self-reliant learning style, preferring to take personal responsibility for their understanding.

As a result, they may shy away from classroom participation and asking questions, focusing more on independent exploration.

On the other hand, feelers demonstrate a varied likelihood of seeking clarification or asking questions during speaking activities. Those in the very likely category place significant importance on asking for clarification, recognizing its benefits not only for their own understanding but also for the learning of their classmates. They have a deep understanding of the potential consequences of misunderstandings and actively seek to prevent them. However, a larger proportion falls into the somewhat likely category, where factors such as hesitation, shyness, and other personal considerations impact their likelihood of seeking clarification. While they still consider asking questions to some extent, these barriers can hinder their willingness to actively engage in seeking clarification. Feelers in the unlikely category face various obstacles such as shyness, fear of public speaking, and a preference for self-reliance, which significantly diminish their inclination to seek clarification or ask questions during speaking activities. Their reluctance may stem from concerns about judgment, a desire to search for answers independently, or a dislike of active participation in group discussions.

Question 03: How do you feel when your teacher corrects your errors during interactions?

Table 06. Students' Feelings towards Teacher's Error Correction during Interactions

Types	a. Offended	b. Satisfied	c. Ashamed	Other	Total
Thinkers	03	32	6	5	46
%	06.53%	69.56%	13.05%	10.86%	100%
Feelers	10	18	17	1	46
%	39.13%	21.75%	36.95%	02.17%	100%

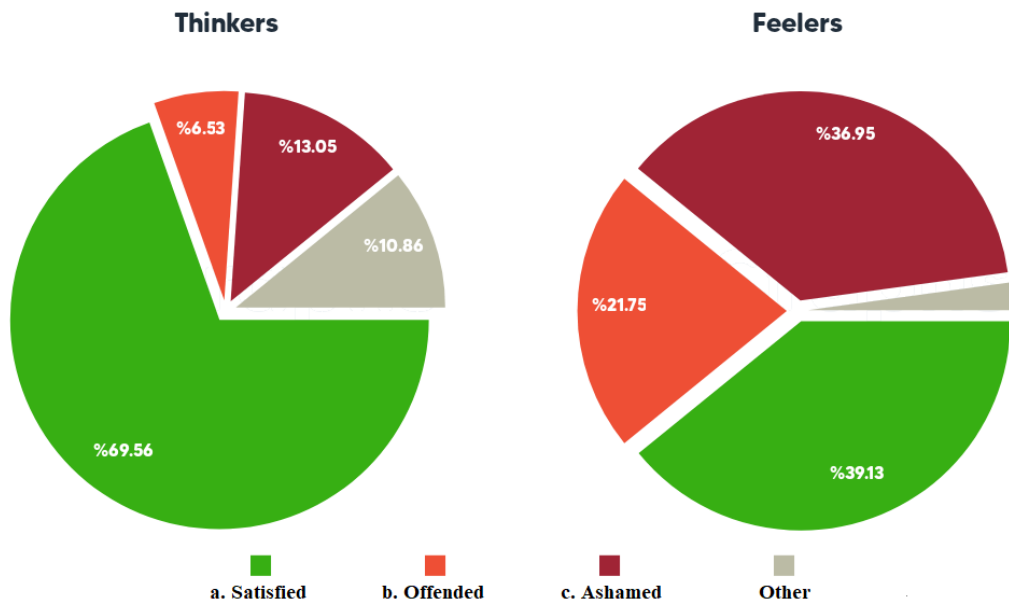


Figure 10. Students' Feelings towards Teacher's Error Correction during Interactions

The results indicate that there is a noticeable difference in the emotional responses of the "Thinkers" and "Feelers" groups towards teacher error corrections during interactions.

Firstly, it is interesting to see that the majority of "Thinkers" (69.56%) felt satisfied with the corrections. This suggests that they appreciate and value the feedback provided by the teacher, and they see it as a constructive learning opportunity. However, it is important to note that there were also other varied emotional responses within the "Thinkers" group. Among the respondents, 6.53% of students felt offended by the error corrections, indicating that they may have perceived them as critical or personally attacking. Additionally, 13.05% of students reported feelings of shame, suggesting that they may have internalized the mistakes and felt a sense of personal embarrassment or inadequacy. Furthermore, 10.86% of students had other varied

feelings, including disappointment, normalcy or an emotional response that depended on the way the corrections were delivered.

On the other hand, the "Feelers" group had a higher percentage of students feeling offended (39.13%) or ashamed (36.95%) compared to the "Thinkers" group. Additionally, 2.17% of students in the "Feelers" group had other feelings, such as disappointment. This suggests that for some students in the "Feelers" group, the teacher's corrections may have had a more negative emotional impact, indicating a greater vulnerability to perceiving corrections as personal criticism or experiencing a sense of personal embarrassment. However, it is worth noting that a portion of students in the "Feelers" group still felt satisfied (21.75%) with the corrections. This suggests that some students in this group valued the feedback and saw it as beneficial for their learning process. It is crucial for teachers to acknowledge and reinforce this positive response, providing encouragement and support to further enhance their engagement and confidence.

Question 04: Does being corrected in front of your classmates prevent you from participating in the classroom?

Table 07. Students' Responses on Whether Being Corrected in front of Classmates

Prevents Classroom Participation

Types	Yes	%	No	%	Total	%
Thinkers	08	17.39%	38	82.61%	46	100%
Feelers	21	45.65%	25	54.35%	46	100%

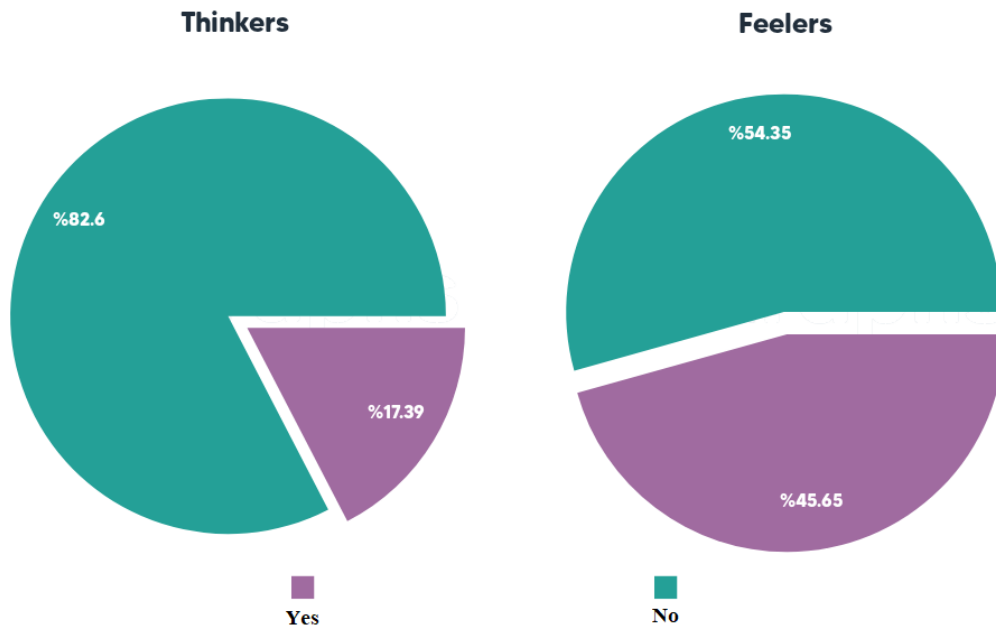


Figure 11. Students' Responses on Whether Being Corrected in Front of Classmates Prevents Classroom Participation

According to the data presented in Table 07 and Figure 11, the responses of students regarding whether being corrected in front of classmates affects their classroom participation are as follows:

In the "Thinkers" group, 17.39% of students reported that being corrected in front of classmates prevents their participation, while the majority (82.61%) stated that it does not hinder their participation.

Among the "Feelers" group, a higher percentage (45.65%) indicated that being corrected in front of classmates does prevent their participation, while 54.35% reported no impact on their participation.

These findings highlight the differing experiences between the two groups. While most "Thinkers" are not significantly affected by public corrections, a considerable portion of "Feelers" feel inhibited by them.

If yes, please explain why!

The "Thinkers" who said "Yes" to being corrected in front of classmates preventing their participation expressed feelings of insecurity, fluctuating self-confidence, shyness, and embarrassment. They have concerns about their self-image, and feel hesitant to draw attention to themselves.

Common themes among the "Feelers" group include shyness, insecurity, fear of embarrassment, and concerns about being perceived as stupid or facing ridicule from peers. They expressed a desire to avoid putting themselves in uncomfortable or vulnerable situations and highlighted the impact of teachers' attitudes on their feelings. Some mentioned being shy by nature, while others specifically mentioned feeling embarrassed or targeted by classmates they considered to be bullies.

These insights emphasize the need for teachers to create a supportive and respectful classroom environment that addresses the emotional well-being of both "Feelers" and "Thinkers", and fosters their confidence and participation.

Question 05: Do you consider corrective feedback important to the teaching/learning process?

Table 08. Students' Responses on the Importance of Corrective Feedback

Types	Yes	%	No	%	Total	%
Thinkers	44	95.65%	02	4.35%	46	100%
Feelers	42	91.31%	04	8.69%	46	100%

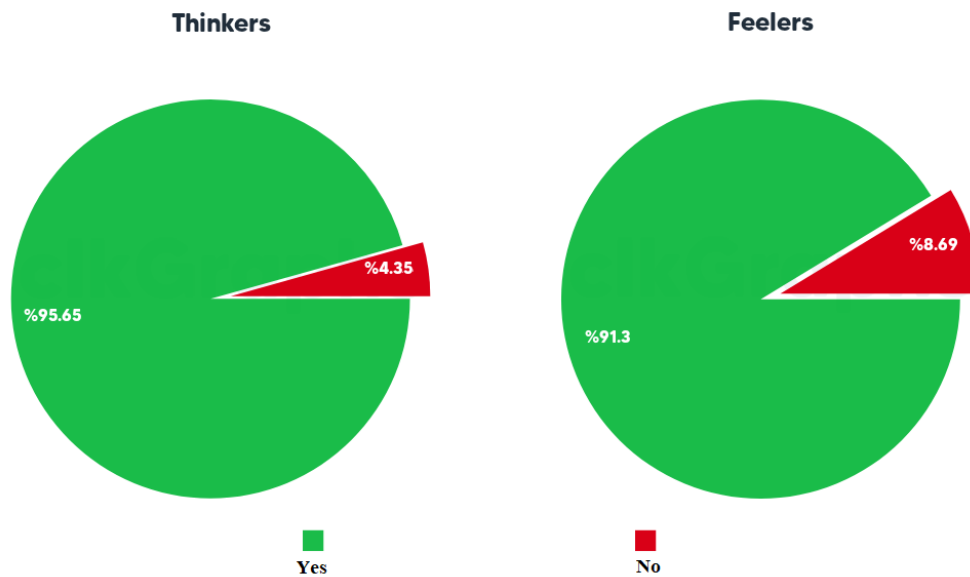


Figure 12. Students' Responses on the Importance of Corrective Feedback

Both the "Thinkers" and "Feelers" groups exhibit a strong consensus on the importance of corrective feedback in the teaching/learning process. The overwhelming majority of students in both groups consider it important, with 95.65% of "Thinkers" and 91.31% of "Feelers" expressing this viewpoint. However, a small portion of students, comprising 4.35% of "Thinkers" and 8.69% of "Feelers," do not consider corrective feedback to be important.

While this minority opinion exists within each group, it is important to note that it represents only a small fraction of the overall students' sample. The significant majority recognizing the importance of corrective feedback highlights its crucial role in fostering effective learning outcomes.

Question 06: From the following types of oral corrective feedback, please select the one you prefer the most by clicking the corresponding option. Consider the example scenario provided:

Example scenario:

Teacher: What did you do last weekend?

Student: I go to the movies.

Table 09. Students' Preferences for Types of Oral Corrective Feedback

Types of OCF	Thinkers	%	Feelers	%
a. Explicit Correction	13	28.27%	10	21.73%
b. Metalinguistic Clues	09	19.57%	09	19.57%
c. Repetition	04	8.69%	06	13.04%
d. Elicitation	06	13.04%	03	6.54%
e. Recast	09	19.57%	12	26.09%
f. Clarification Requests	05	10.86%	04	8.69%
g. No OCF	00	00%	02	4.34%
Total	46	100%	46	100%

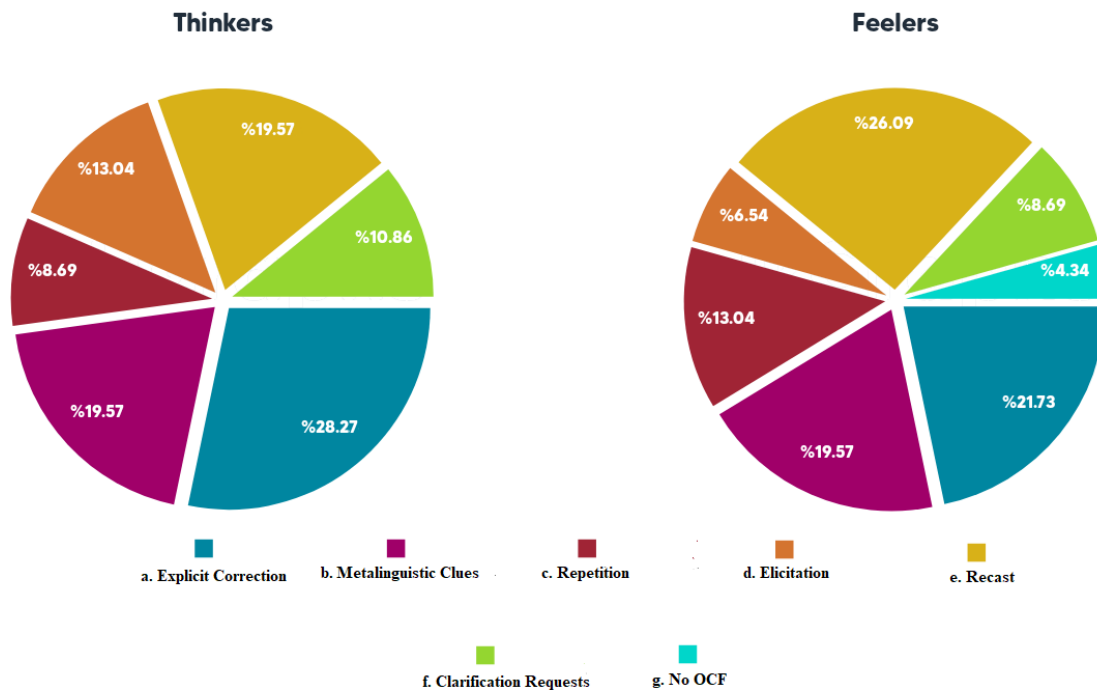


Figure 13. Students' Preferences for Types of Oral Corrective Feedback

In the "Thinkers" group, the most preferred type of oral corrective feedback is "Explicit Correction" with 28.27% of students selecting this option. This indicates that these students appreciate direct and straightforward error correction from the teacher. The second most preferred type is "Metalinguistic Clues" with 19.57% of students, suggesting that they find value in receiving linguistic explanations or hints to guide their understanding and error correction. "Recast" is also favored by 19.57% of students, indicating their preference for the teacher to rephrase their incorrect utterances into correct forms.

In the "Feelers" group, the most preferred type of oral corrective feedback is "Recast" with 26.09% of students selecting this option. This suggests that these students find value in the teacher's restatement of their incorrect utterances without directly

pointing out their mistakes. The second most preferred type is "Explicit Correction" with 21.73% of students, indicating that they also appreciate direct error correction. "Metalinguistic Clues" and "Repetition" are equally preferred by 19.57% of students, showing their interest in receiving linguistic explanations to aid their error correction.

It is worth noting that there are slight variations in preferences between the two groups. "Recast" is more preferred by "Feelers," while "Explicit Correction" is slightly more favored by "Thinkers." However, overall, there are no significant differences in preferences for the other types of oral corrective feedback between the two groups.

These findings suggest that both "Thinkers" and "Feelers" value different types of oral corrective feedback that provide clear guidance and explanations. Educators can utilize these preferences to tailor their feedback strategies and incorporate a variety of approaches to meet the diverse needs and learning preferences of their students.

Question 07: When do you want your spoken errors to be treated?

Table 10. Students' Preferences for Timing of Spoken Error Treatment

Timing	Thinkers	%	Feelers	%
a. As soon as errors are made, even if it interrupts my conversation.	17	36.96%	08	17.39%
b. After I finish speaking.	21	45.66%	32	69.57%
c. After the activities.	04	8.69%	00	00%
d. At the end of the class.	04	8.69%	06	13.04%
Total	46	100%	46	100%

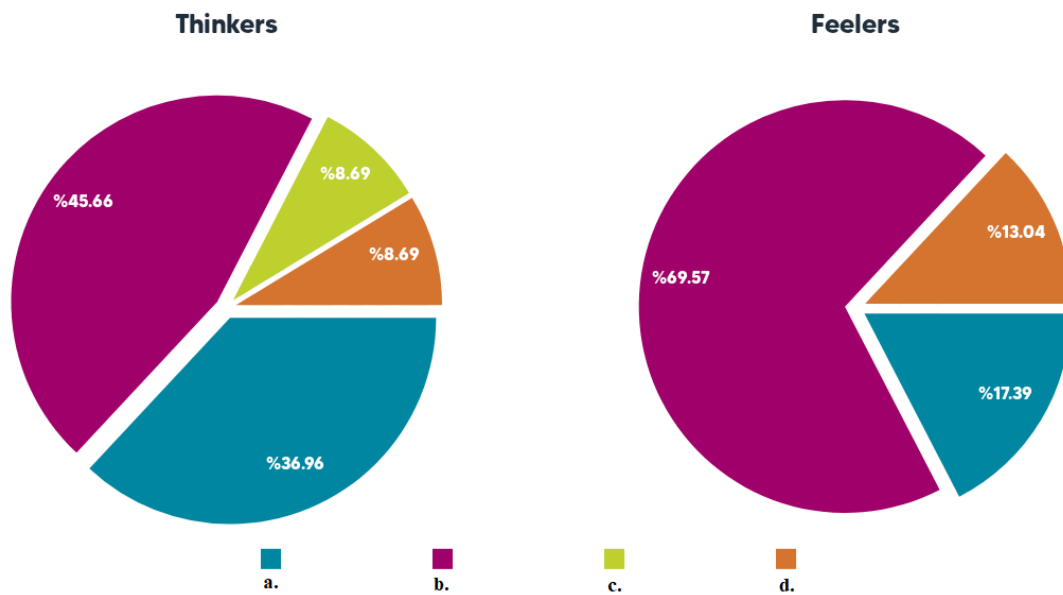


Figure 14. Students' Preferences for Timing of Spoken Error Treatment

Among the "Thinkers" group, the majority (45.66%) expressed a preference for error treatment "After I finish speaking." This indicates their desire for uninterrupted communication, where errors can be addressed once they have completed their speech. A significant portion (36.96%) also indicated a preference for immediate error treatment, even if it interrupts their conversation. This suggests their willingness to receive instant feedback to address mistakes. A smaller percentage of "Thinkers" chose other options, such as error treatment "At the end of the class" (8.69%) or "After the activities" (8.69%).

Similarly, within the "Feelers" group, the largest portion (69.57%) preferred error treatment "After I finish speaking." This emphasizes their desire for uninterrupted communication as well. A smaller percentage (17.39%) indicated a preference for immediate error treatment, even if it interrupts their conversation. None of the

participants in the "Feelers" group chose the option of error treatment "After the activities." However, a notable percentage (13.04%) indicated a preference for error treatment "At the end of the class."

Overall, both the "Thinkers" and "Feelers" groups shared a preference for error treatment after they finish speaking, highlighting the importance of uninterrupted communication for effective feedback. The "Thinkers" group also demonstrated a significant preference for immediate error treatment, while the "Feelers" group leaned more towards addressing errors at the end of the class.

Question 08: Do you prefer to receive corrective feedback on your speaking errors privately or in a group setting?

Table 11. Students' Preferences for the Manner of Receiving Corrective Feedback

Manner of Correction	Thinkers	%	Feelers	%
a. Privately, one-on-one with the teacher.	13	28.27%	16	34.78%
b. In a small group with other students.	07	15.22%	12	26.09%
c. In a large group with the whole class.	04	8.69%	02	4.35%
d. No preference.	22	47.82%	16	34.78%
Total	46	100%	46	100%

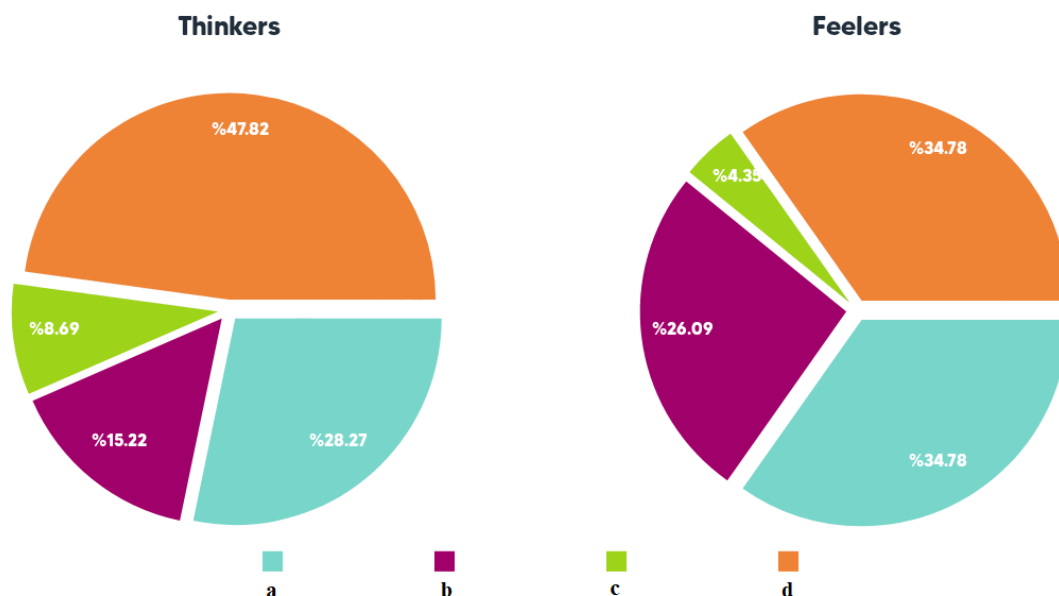


Figure 15. Students' Preferences for the Manner of Receiving Corrective Feedback

Among the "Thinkers," 28.27% preferred to receive feedback privately, one-on-one with the teacher, while 15.22% preferred a small group setting with other students. Only a small percentage (8.69%) of "Thinkers" favored receiving feedback in a large group with the whole class. Interestingly, a significant portion (47.82%) of "Thinkers" expressed no preference for the manner of correction.

Similarly, among the "Feelers," 34.78% preferred private, one-on-one feedback with the teacher, and 26.09% preferred a small group setting. Only a few students (4.35%) in the "Feelers" group indicated a preference for feedback in a large group with the whole class. Like the "Thinkers," a substantial percentage (34.78%) of "Feelers" had no specific preference for the manner of correction.

These results suggest that both groups value personalized feedback, with a considerable portion leaning towards private or small group settings. The high

percentage of students in both groups expressing no preference may indicate that they are open to receiving feedback in different ways or that they trust their teachers to determine the most appropriate setting for corrective feedback.

Question 09: In your opinion, how important is it for teachers to provide positive reinforcement and encouragement alongside corrective feedback?

Table 12. Students' Opinions on the Importance of Positive Reinforcement alongside Corrective Feedback

Types	a. Important	b. Neutral	c. Not important	Total
Thinkers	27	17	02	46
%	58.69%	36.96%	4.35%	100%
Feelers	40	06	00	46
%	86.95%	13.05%	00%	100%

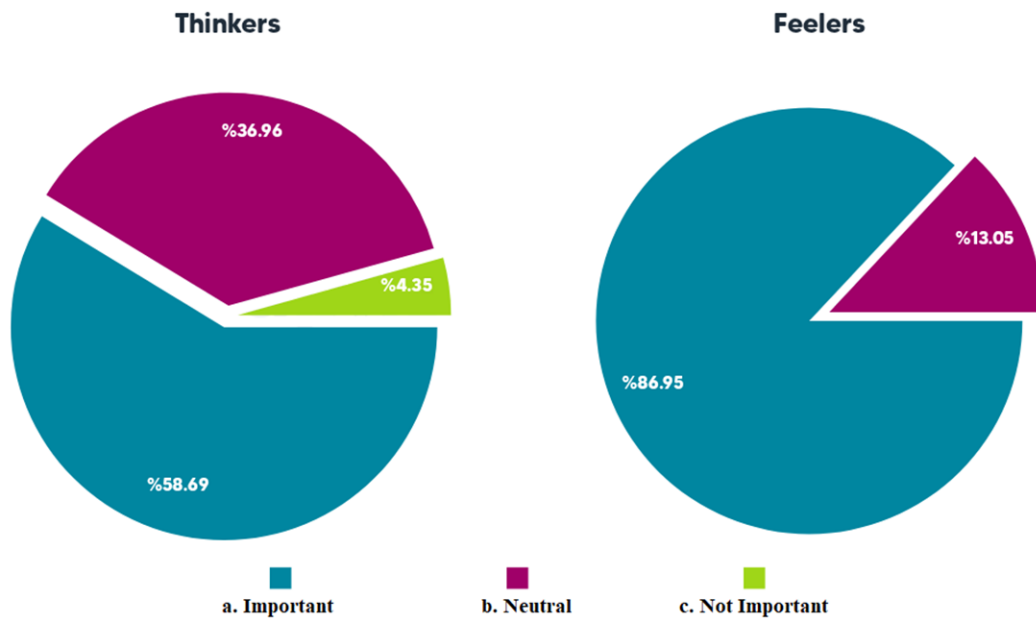


Figure 16. Students' Opinions on the Importance of Positive Reinforcement alongside Corrective Feedback

The majority of both "Thinkers" and "Feelers" expressed the opinion that it is important for teachers to provide positive reinforcement and encouragement alongside corrective feedback. Among the "Thinkers," 58.69% considered it important, while 36.96% had a neutral opinion, and only 4.35% believed it was not important. Similarly, among the "Feelers," a higher percentage of 86.95% expressed the importance of positive reinforcement, while 13.05% were neutral and none considered it not important. These results highlight the significance students place on receiving positive support and encouragement from teachers alongside corrective feedback.

Question 10: Who should be responsible for treating students' errors?

Table 13. Students' Perspectives on Responsibility for Treating Errors

Types	a. Classmates	b. Teachers	c. Myself	Total
Thinkers	00	40	06	46
%	00%	86.96%	13.04%	100%
Feelers	02	36	08	46
%	04.34%	78.27%	17.39%	100%

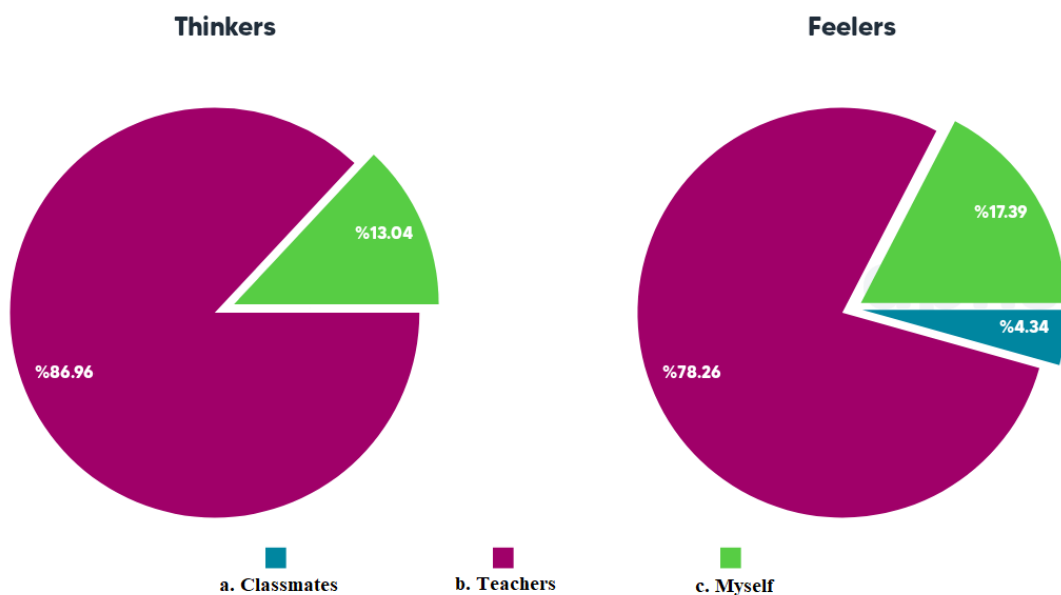


Figure 17. Students' Perspectives on Responsibility for Treating Errors

The results reveal that among both Thinkers and Feelers, the majority believe that teachers should be responsible for treating students' errors. In the Thinkers group, 86.96% expressed their preference for teachers to take on this responsibility, while only 13.04% believed they should handle it themselves. Similarly, in the Feelers group, 78.27% indicated that teachers should be responsible, while 17.39% believed in taking personal responsibility. It is worth noting that a small percentage of Feelers (4.34%) mentioned their classmates as potential responsible parties. These findings highlight the significant role that teachers play in addressing and correcting students' errors, according to the majority of respondents from both groups.

3.4. Discussion of Findings

The findings from the questionnaire provide valuable insights into students' experiences and preferences regarding oral corrective feedback. The study encompassed two distinct groups based on the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) personality dimensions, namely Thinkers and Feelers. The results revealed several noteworthy patterns and differences between these groups, shedding light on various aspects of how students perceive and respond to oral corrective feedback.

The majority of students, both Thinkers and Feelers, reported receiving oral corrective feedback from their teachers when they make errors. The results indicate a relatively high level of oral corrective feedback provided by teachers to both groups. The frequency of feedback reception was generally high, highlighting the significance placed on error correction in the classroom.

When examining the responses related to seeking clarification and asking questions, a notable difference emerged between Thinkers and Feelers. Thinkers exhibited a higher inclination towards seeking clarification, demonstrating their analytical nature and desire for understanding. On the other hand, Feelers faced more

barriers in seeking clarification or hindrances in doing so. This finding suggests that teachers should create a safe and supportive environment that encourages all students, especially Feelers, to seek clarification without fear of judgment or criticism.

The emotional responses to teacher error corrections differ between Thinkers and Feelers. Thinkers generally feel satisfied with the corrections, while a larger proportion of Feelers feel offended or ashamed displaying a greater vulnerability to perceiving corrections as personal criticism, which can have a significant impact on their motivation and engagement. These findings highlight the need for teachers to be mindful of the emotional aspects of error correction, employing strategies that foster a positive and supportive learning environment for all students, particularly Feelers.

Being corrected in front of classmates has also a different impact on participation for Thinkers and Feelers. Thinkers are generally not significantly affected by public corrections, while a significant portion of Feelers feel inhibited by them. Factors such as insecurity, shyness, and fear of embarrassment contribute to the reluctance to participate. This suggests that teachers should consider alternative approaches, such as private feedback or individual conferences, to provide corrections to Feelers, ensuring that their self-esteem and confidence are preserved.

Despite the differences observed, both Thinkers and Feelers recognized the importance of corrective feedback in the teaching and learning process. They acknowledged that feedback serves as a valuable tool for improving their language skills and enhancing their overall performance. Additionally, both groups highlighted the significance of positive reinforcement, emphasizing the need for teachers to acknowledge and praise students' efforts and progress. This positive reinforcement can contribute to students' motivation and self-confidence, fostering a growth mindset and a willingness to embrace challenges and learn from their mistakes.

The preferred types of oral corrective feedback differ slightly between Thinkers and Feelers. Thinkers prefer explicit correction and metalinguistic clues, while Feelers lean towards recasts. However, both groups value clear guidance and explanations in their preferred feedback types.

Both Thinkers and Feelers prefer error treatment after they finish speaking, emphasizing the importance of uninterrupted communication. Thinkers also show a significant preference for immediate error treatment, while Feelers lean more towards addressing errors at the end of the class.

Both groups value personalized feedback, with a considerable portion of 'feelers' preferring private or small group settings. However, significant percentages in both groups express no specific preference, indicating openness to different feedback settings as long as they are accompanied by positive reinforcement, notably among 'feelers.' Additionally, the majority of students from both groups believe that teachers should be responsible for addressing students' errors. This underscores the important role teachers play in handling and correcting errors, as perceived by the respondents.

Conclusion

This chapter examined the practical aspect of the research, analyzing the data collected through two research tools: a personality test and a questionnaire. It found that both Thinkers and Feelers received oral corrective feedback from teachers and recognized its importance. However, Thinkers sought clarification more readily, while Feelers faced barriers in doing so. Feelers displayed higher emotional vulnerability and reluctance to engage in public corrections. Both groups valued positive reinforcement and personalized feedback. These findings highlight the need for a supportive classroom environment that considers individual preferences and addresses emotional aspects of error correction, optimizing learning and promoting growth.

General Conclusion

1. Putting it All Together
2. Pedagogical Recommendations
3. Limitations of the Study
4. Suggestions for Further Research

General Conclusion

1. Putting it All Together

The findings of this study shed light on the complex dynamics between personality traits and feedback preferences among language learners.

The first research question examined whether there is a relationship between EFL learners' MBTI personality traits (thinking vs. feeling) and their response to oral corrective feedback in classrooms. The findings confirmed a significant relationship between learners' MBTI personality types and their response to OCF. The results indicated that learners with different personality types, particularly thinkers and feelers, exhibited distinct patterns in their engagement with and emotional responses to feedback. Thus, the first hypothesis was confirmed. The findings also supported the existing body of research that suggests learners' personality traits can influence their response to corrective feedback (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

The second research question aimed to investigate how learners with different MBTI personality types respond to and experience OCF in the classroom. The findings revealed several differences between thinkers and feelers in their emotional responses to OCF. Thinkers displayed a higher inclination towards seeking clarification, were less affected by public corrections, and generally felt satisfied with the corrections received. On the other hand, feelers faced more barriers in seeking clarification, were more emotionally vulnerable, and felt ashamed and inhibited by public corrections, with a larger proportion perceiving corrections as personal criticism. Thus, the second hypothesis, which posited that learners with thinking MBTI personality types would be more likely to seek out and use oral corrective feedback than learners with feeling personality types, was confirmed by the findings. This also corresponds to the

literature's suggestion that learners with high levels of neuroticism may respond less positively to feedback (Bao & Du, 2016).

In conclusion, this research contributes valuable insights into the relationship between EFL learners' MBTI personality types and their response to oral corrective feedback. The study confirms that learners' personality traits, specifically thinking and feeling preferences, significantly influence how they perceive and respond to feedback in language learning contexts. These findings have practical implications for EFL educators, highlighting the importance of creating a supportive classroom environment that considers individual preferences and addresses the emotional aspects of error correction. By tailoring feedback strategies to meet the needs of learners with different personality types, educators can optimize the effectiveness of OCF and enhance students' language learning experiences.

2. Pedagogical Recommendations

Based on the findings of this research, several recommendations can be made to improve the effectiveness of feedback in the language learning process. Among these recommendations are:

- Personalizing feedback strategies to accommodate learners' individual needs and preferences.
- Creating a supportive and inclusive classroom climate that encourages active participation and inquiry.
- Emphasizing positive reinforcement alongside corrective feedback to motivate and boost learners' confidence.
- Providing opportunities for private clarification to address individual preferences and promote a safe learning environment.

- Scaffolded feedback processes that include follow-up activities to practice and apply the feedback received.
- Offering professional development for educators to enhance their understanding of learners' individual differences and effective feedback practices.
- Continually assessing and adapting feedback strategies based on student feedback and ongoing observations to optimize their impact on language learning.

3. Limitations of the Study

Despite the valuable insights provided by this study, there are some limitations that should be acknowledged:

- **Sample Size:** The study was conducted with a relatively small sample size of 100 EFL learners. While efforts were made to select participants through convenience sampling, the generalizability of the findings may be limited.
- **Self-Reported Data:** The data collected through the MBTI test and the questionnaire relied on self-reported responses from the participants. This introduces the possibility of response bias, with participants potentially providing socially desirable answers that may affect the accuracy of the findings.
- **Potential for Confounding Factors:** There may be other factors beyond MBTI personality types that influence learners' response to oral corrective feedback, such as language proficiency levels, cultural backgrounds, or prior educational experiences. These factors were not extensively explored in the study, leaving room for potential confounding variables.
- **Time Constraints and Delays:** The research process faced challenges due to difficulties in finding a supervisor and obtaining topic approval, resulting in significant time constraints. It should be noted that topic approval was not received

until the beginning of March. Additionally, due to our demanding schedules and work responsibilities, data collection started late during the last days of re-sit exams as we were awaiting approval for the proposed questionnaire. These multiple factors may have impacted the sample size and depth of data analysis.

4. Suggestions for Further Research

Starting from the findings of this study, we believe that following avenues can be suggested for further research:

- Investigate how different personality types relate to specific language skills, such as speaking, writing, listening, and reading, using a combination of self-report measures and objective assessments.
- Investigate how cultural factors interact with personality types in language learning through qualitative methods.
- Compare different feedback approaches based on learners' personality types to determine their effectiveness, utilizing quasi-experimental designs to manipulate and evaluate different feedback strategies.
- Examine how learners' personality types influence their choice and use of language learning strategies.
- Replicate the study in different educational settings to determine if the findings hold true across diverse populations, employing a multi-site study design that includes various schools or language institutes.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Characteristics Frequently Associated with Each Personality Type



STEP I / REPORT FORM FORM M

CHARACTERISTICS FREQUENTLY ASSOCIATED WITH EACH TYPE

Sensing Types		Intuitive Types	
<p>ISTJ</p> <p>Quiet, serious, earn success by thoroughness and dependability. Practical, matter-of-fact, realistic, and responsible. Decide logically what should be done and work toward it steadily, regardless of distractions. Take pleasure in making everything orderly and organized—their work, their home, their life. Value traditions and loyalty.</p>	<p>ISFJ</p> <p>Quiet, friendly, responsible, and conscientious. Committed and steady in meeting their obligations. Thorough, painstaking, and accurate. Loyal, considerate, notice and remember specifics about people who are important to them, concerned with how others feel. Strive to create an orderly and harmonious environment at work and at home.</p>	<p>INFJ</p> <p>Seek meaning and connection in ideas and relationships, and material possessions. Want to understand what motivates people and are insightful about others. Conscientious and committed to their firm values. Develop a clear vision about how best to serve the common good. Organized and decisive in implementing their vision.</p>	<p>INTJ</p> <p>Have original minds and great drive for implementing their ideas and achieving their goals. Quickly see patterns in external events and develop long-range explanatory perspectives. When committed, organize a job and carry it through. Skeptical and independent, have high standards of competence and performance for themselves and others.</p>
<p>ISTP</p> <p>Tolerant and flexible, quiet observers until a problem appears, then act quickly to find workable solutions. Analyze what makes things work and readily get through large amounts of data to isolate the core of practical problems. Interested in cause and effect, organize facts using logical principles, value efficiency.</p>	<p>ISFP</p> <p>Quiet, friendly, sensitive, and kind. Enjoy the present moment, what's going on around them. Like to have their own space and to work within their own time frame. Loyal and committed to their values and to people who are important to them. Dislike disagreements and conflicts, do not force their opinions or values on others.</p>	<p>INFP</p> <p>Idealistic, loyal to their values and to people who are important to them. Want an external life that is congruent with their values. Curious, quick to see possibilities, can be catalysts for implementing ideas. Seek to understand people and to help them fulfill their potential. Adaptable, flexible, and accepting unless a value is threatened.</p>	<p>INTP</p> <p>Seek to develop logical explanations for everything that interests them. Theoretical and abstract, interested more in ideas than in social interaction. Quiet, contained, flexible, and adaptable. Have unusual ability to focus in depth to solve problems in their area of interest. Skeptical, sometimes critical, always analytical.</p>
<p>ESTP</p> <p>Flexible and tolerant, they take a pragmatic approach focused on immediate results. Theories and conceptual explanations bore them—they want to act energetically to solve the problem. Focus on the here-and-now, spontaneous, enjoy each moment that they can be active with others. Enjoy material comforts and style. Learn best through doing.</p>	<p>ESFP</p> <p>Outgoing, friendly, and accepting. Exuberant lovers of life, people, and material comforts. Enjoy working with others to make things happen. Bring common sense and a realistic approach to work, and make work fun. Flexible and spontaneous, adapt readily to new people and environments. Learn best by trying a new skill with other people.</p>	<p>ENFP</p> <p>Warmly enthusiastic and imaginative. See life as full of possibilities. Make connections between events and information very quickly, and confidently proceed based on the patterns they see. Want a lot of affirmation from others, and readily give appreciation and support. Spontaneous and flexible, often rely on their ability to improvise and their verbal fluency.</p>	<p>ENTP</p> <p>Quick, ingenious, stimulating, alert, and outspoken. Resourceful in solving new and challenging problems. Adept at generating conceptual possibilities and then analyzing them strategically. Good at reading other people. Bored by routine, will seldom do the same thing the same way, apt to turn to one new interest after another.</p>
<p>ESTJ</p> <p>Practical, realistic, matter-of-fact. Decisive, quickly move to implement decisions. Organize projects and people to get things done, focus on getting results in the most efficient way possible. Take care of routine details. Have a clear set of logical standards, systematically follow them and want others to also. Forceful in implementing their plans.</p>	<p>ESFJ</p> <p>Warmhearted, conscientious, and cooperative. Want harmony in their environment, work with determination to establish it. Like to work with others to complete tasks accurately and on time. Loyal, follow through even in small matters. Notice what others need in their day-to-day lives and try to provide it. Want to be appreciated for who they are and for what they contribute.</p>	<p>ENFJ</p> <p>Warm, empathetic, responsive, and responsible. Highly attuned to the emotions, needs, and motivations of others. Find potential in everyone, want to help others fulfill their potential. May act as catalysts for individual and group growth. Loyal, responsive to praise and criticism. Sociable, facilitate others in a group, and provide inspiring leadership.</p>	<p>ENTJ</p> <p>Frank, decisive, assume leadership readily. Quickly see illogical and inefficient procedures and policies, develop and implement comprehensive systems to solve organizational problems. Enjoy long-term planning and goal setting. Usually well informed, well read, enjoy expanding their knowledge and passing it on to others. Forceful in presenting their ideas.</p>

Introverts

Extraverts



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Appendix B: The MBTI Test

Adapted from the 16 personalities test website (<https://www.16personalities.com/free-personality-test>).

Be yourself and answer honestly to find out your personality type.

Learn how your personality type influences many areas of your life.

Grow into the person you want to be with your optional Premium Guides.

1. You regularly make new friends.



2. You spend a lot of your free time exploring various random topics that pique your interest.



3. Seeing other people cry can easily make you feel like you want to cry too.



4. You often make a backup plan for a backup plan.



5. You usually stay calm, even under a lot of pressure.



6. At social events, you rarely try to introduce yourself to new people and mostly talk to the ones you already know.



7. You prefer to completely finish one project before starting another.



8. You are very sentimental.



9. You like to use organizing tools like schedules and lists.



10. Even a small mistake can cause you to doubt your overall abilities and knowledge.



11. You feel comfortable just walking up to someone you find interesting and striking up a conversation.



12. You are not too interested in discussing various interpretations and analyses of creative works.



13. You are more inclined to follow your head than your heart.



14. You usually prefer just doing what you feel like at any given moment instead of planning a particular daily routine.



15. You rarely worry about whether you make a good impression on people you meet.



16. You enjoy participating in group activities.



17. You like books and movies that make you come up with your own interpretation of the ending.



18. Your happiness comes more from helping others accomplish things than your own accomplishments.



19. You are interested in so many things that you find it difficult to choose what to try next.



20. You are prone to worrying that things will take a turn for the worse.



21. You avoid leadership roles in group settings.



22. You are definitely not an artistic type of person.



23. You think the world would be a better place if people relied more on rationality and less on their feelings.



24. You prefer to do your chores before allowing yourself to relax.



25. You enjoy watching people argue.



26. You tend to avoid drawing attention to yourself.



27. Your mood can change very quickly.



28. You lose patience with people who are not as efficient as you.



29. You often end up doing things at the last possible moment.



30. You have always been fascinated by the question of what, if anything happens after death.



31. You usually prefer to be around others rather than on your own.



32. You become bored or lose interest when the discussion gets highly theoretical.



33. You find it easy to empathize with a person whose experiences are very different from yours.



34. You usually postpone finalizing decisions for as long as possible.



35. You rarely second-guess the choices that you have made.



36. After a long and exhausting week, a lively social event is just what you need.



37. You enjoy going to art museums.



38. You often have a hard time understanding other people's feelings.



39. You like to have a to-do list for each day.



40. You rarely feel insecure.



41. You avoid making phone calls.



42. You often spend a lot of time trying to understand views that are very different from your own.



43. In your social circle, you are often the one who contacts your friends and initiates activities.



44. If your plans are interrupted, your top priority is to get back on track as soon as possible.



45. You are still bothered by mistakes that you made a long time ago.



46. You rarely contemplate the reasons for human existence or the meaning of life.



47. Your emotions control you more than you control them.



48. You take great care not to make people look bad, even when it is completely their fault.



49. Your personal work style is closer to spontaneous bursts of energy than organized and consistent efforts.



50. When someone thinks highly of you, you wonder how long it will take them to feel disappointed in you.

AGREE DISAGREE

51. You would love a job that requires you to work alone most of the time.

AGREE DISAGREE

52. You believe that pondering abstract philosophical questions is a waste of time.

AGREE DISAGREE

53. You feel more drawn to places with busy, bustling atmospheres than quiet, intimate places.

AGREE DISAGREE

54. You know at first glance how someone feeling.

AGREE DISAGREE

55. You often feel overwhelmed.

AGREE DISAGREE

56. You complete things methodically without skipping over any steps.



57. You are very intrigued by things labeled as controversial.



58. You would pass along a good opportunity if you thought someone else needed it more.



59. You struggle with deadlines.



60. You feel confident that things will work out for you.



Appendix C: The Students' Questionnaire

Dear 3rd year EFL students,

We sincerely appreciate your participation in this questionnaire, as it would help us collect the necessary data for our master's dissertation investigating the relationship between learners' MBTI (Myers-Briggs Type Indicator) personality types and their responses to oral corrective feedback at the University of Jijel. To ensure the reliability of the study, please answer each question by selecting **ONLY ONE** option that best describes your opinions and/or beliefs.

All data would be treated anonymously.

* Indicates required question

Section one: MBTI Test

1. What is your gender? *

Male

Female

2. The MBTI, or Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, is a widely used personality assessment tool that categorizes individuals into 16 different personality types based on their preferences in four dichotomies: Extroversion (E) vs. Introversion (I), Sensing (S) vs. Intuition (N), Thinking (T) vs. Feeling (F), and Judging (J) vs. Perceiving (P). It provides insights into an individual's behavior, communication style, and decision-making processes.

To contribute to the objectives of this study, we kindly ask you to take the MBTI test by following this secure link: <https://www.16personalities.com/free-personality-test>

Once you have completed the test, please return to this questionnaire and select your interpreting type from the list below: *

- ENTJ
- ENTP
- ESTJ
- ESTP
- INTJ
- INTP
- ISTJ
- ISTP
- ENFJ
- ENFP
- ESNP
- ESFJ
- INFJ
- INFP
- ISFJ
- ISFP

3. Based on your test results, do you have a thinking or a feeling type? (Does your interpreting type contain T or F?) *

- Thinking
- Feeling

5. What is your overall satisfaction rating regarding your speaking or listening class level? *

- a. Very Satisfied
- b. Somewhat Satisfied
- c. Dissatisfied

Section Two: Oral Corrective Feedback (OCF)

1. Does your teacher provide you with oral corrective feedback when you make errors?*

Yes

No

• If yes, how often?

a. Always

b. Often

c. Sometimes

d. Rarely

2. How likely are you to seek clarification or ask questions when you do not understand something during a speaking activity? *

a. Very likely

b. Somewhat likely

c. Unlikely

Please, could you explain your answer?

3. How do you feel when your teacher corrects your errors during interactions? *

a. Offended

b. Satisfied

c. Ashamed

Other: _____

4. Does being corrected in front of your classmates prevent you from participating in the classroom? *

Yes

No

If yes, please explain why: _____

5. Do you consider corrective feedback important to the teaching/learning process? *

Yes

No

6. From the following types of oral corrective feedback, please select the one you prefer the most by clicking the corresponding option. Consider the example scenario provided:

*

Example scenario:

Teacher: What did you do last weekend? Student: I go to the movies.

-
- a. "Go" is in the present tense. You need to use the past tense "went" here. (Explicit feedback: The teacher gives the correct form to the student with a grammatical explanation.)
 - b. How does the verb change when we talk about the past? (Metalinguistic clues: The teacher gives a hint or a clue without specifically pointing out the mistake.)
 - c. I go? (Repetition: The teacher emphasizes the student's grammatical error by changing their tone of voice.)
 - d. Last weekend, I... (Elicitation: The teacher asks the student to correct and complete the sentence.)
 - e. I went to the movies. (Recast: The teacher repeats the student's utterance in the correct form without pointing out the student's error.)
 - f. Could you say that again? (Clarification Requests: the teacher asks for clarification, it means they did not understand what the student said or there was a mistake. They need the student to explain it again or in a different way.)
 - g. Really? Did you enjoy yourself? (No OCF: The teacher does not give any oral corrective feedback on the student's errors.)

7. When do you want your spoken errors to be treated? *

- a. As soon as errors are made, even if it interrupts my conversation.
- b. After I finish speaking.
- c. After the activities.
- d. At the end of the class.

8. Do you prefer to receive corrective feedback on your speaking errors privately or in a group setting? *

- a. Privately, one-on-one with the teacher.
- b. In a small group with other students.
- c. In a large group with the whole class.
- d. No preference.

9. In your opinion, how important is it for teachers to provide positive reinforcement and encouragement alongside corrective feedback? *

- a. Important
- b. Neutral
- c. Not important

10. Who should be responsible for treating students' errors? *

- a. Classmates
- b. Teachers
- c. Myself

Thank you for completing this survey and submitting your invaluable responses. They are gratefully accepted!

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Résumé

Cette étude examine la relation potentielle entre les types de personnalité MBTI, Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, (pensée vs sentiment) des apprenants en anglais comme langue étrangère (ALE) et leur réaction aux rétroactions correctives orales (RCO) en classe. On suppose qu'il existe une connexion notable entre les types de personnalité et la manière dont les RCO sont reçues ou traitées, et que les apprenants avec des personnalités de type "pensée" ont plus de chances de s'engager avec et d'utiliser les RCO par rapport à ceux ayant des personnalités de type "sentiment". En utilisant une approche mixte, l'étude a impliqué 100 étudiants en troisième année en l'ALE de l'Université de Mohamed Seddik Benyahia, Jijel. Les participants ont été répartis en deux groupes en fonction de leur type de personnalité MBTI et ont rempli un questionnaire pour explorer leurs expériences et préférences concernant les RCO. Les résultats confirment une relation significative entre les types de personnalité MBTI des apprenants et leur réaction aux RCO, révélant des modèles distincts d'engagement et des réponses émotionnelles. Les "pensifs" ont fait preuve d'une plus grande proactivité et ont été moins affectés émotionnellement par les RCO, tandis que les "sentimentaux" ont rencontré des barrières émotionnelles et ont perçu les rétroactions comme des critiques personnelles, entravant ainsi leur engagement dans le processus de rétroaction. Cette étude contribue à une meilleure compréhension du rôle de la personnalité dans l'apprentissage des langues et informe les pratiques d'enseignement des langues pour des expériences d'apprentissage plus efficaces et personnalisées. Les résultats soulignent l'importance d'adapter les stratégies de rétroaction pour répondre aux besoins individuels des apprenants en fonction de leurs traits de personnalité.

Mots-clés : apprenants d'ALE, MBTI, types de personnalité, pensée, sentiment, RCO, réponse.

ملخص

تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى استقصاء العلاقة المحتملة بين أنواع شخصيات الـ MBTI لدى متعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية واستجاباتهم للتقييمات التصحيحية الشفوية (OCF) في الفصل. يُفترض وجود علاقة ملحوظة بين أنواع الشخصيات وكيف يتم استعمال التقييمات التصحيحية الشفوية والاستجابة لها، وأن الطلاب الذين يمتلكون شخصيات تفكيرية لديهم فرص أكبر للتجاوب مع التقييمات التصحيحية الشفوية والاستفادة منها مقارنةً بالشخصيات الشعورية. باستخدام منهجية متعددة الأساليب، شملت الدراسة 100 طالبًا من السنة الثالثة في تخصص اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية في جامعة محمد الصديق بن يحيى بجيجل. تم تقسيم المشاركين إلى مجموعتين بناءً على نوعية شخصيتهم في اختبار MBTI، وقاموا بملاء استبيان لاستكشاف تجاربهم وتفضيلاتهم فيما يتعلق بالتقييمات التصحيحية الشفوية. وتؤكد النتائج وجود علاقة واضحة بين أنواع شخصيات الـ MBTI الخاصة بالطلبة واستجاباتهم للتقييمات التصحيحية الشفوية، كما تكشف عن أنماط متميزة لتجاوب الطلبة وتفاعلاتهم العاطفية مع هاته التقييمات. أبدى الأشخاص الذين يمتلكون شخصيات تفكيرية نشاطا أكبر وانفعالا عاطفيا أقل مع التقييمات التصحيحية الشفوية، بينما واجه الأشخاص ذوو الشخصيات الشعورية عقبات عاطفية واعتبروا التقييمات انتقادًا شخصيًا، مما عرقل تفاعلهم معها. وتساهم هذه الدراسة في الحصول على فهم أفضل لدور الشخصية في تعلم اللغة وتوجيه ممارسات تدريس اللغات لتحقيق تجارب شخصية أكثر فاعلية في التعلم. وتؤكد النتائج أهمية تكييف استراتيجيات تقديم التقييمات التصحيحية الشفوية لتلبية احتياجات المتعلمين الفردية بناءً على سمات شخصياتهم.

الكلمات المفتاحية: متعلمو اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية، MBTI ، أنواع الشخصية، الفكر، العاطفة، التقييمات التصحيحية الشفوية، الاستجابة.