

1 Personality Affects 'Fidgeting' in the Laboratory: Implications for Experimental Design

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5 Word Count: 4,372

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7

ABSTRACT

8 Eysenck suggested that extraverts are chronically cortically under aroused in comparison to
9 introverts. However, many psychophysiological studies do not show the predicted
10 differences. Gale's (1969) explanation is that extraverts engage in compensatory behaviour in
11 the laboratory to increase their level of arousal which would reduce differences between
12 extraverts and introverts. We tested this hypothesis by comparing the amount of movement
13 exhibited by introverts and extraverts in the laboratory. Stelmack has suggested that
14 movement is fundamental to differences between introverts and extraverts. We measured
15 movement using a pressure mat system located in the seat of the chair but unknown to the
16 participant. There were two conditions: a no activity condition; and an activity condition
17 where the participant could self-stimulate by pressing a keyboard to hear various sounds. We
18 found that more extraverted and more neurotic individuals moved more but this difference
19 was confined to the no activity condition. We conclude that in the laboratory, as in 'real' life,
20 people may use behaviour to manipulate their levels of arousal even if they are unaware that
21 they are doing so. Furthermore, this finding may partially explain failures to find predicted
22 differences in 'resting' levels of cortical arousal associated with extraversion in the
23 laboratory.

24 *Keywords:* Extraversion, arousal, Stelmack, psychophysiology, movement

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26

1. INTRODUCTION

27 This study investigates how personality influences a behaviour that for the majority of the
28 time is not under conscious, voluntary control. We measure how much participants move (or
29 fidget) when in the laboratory. Fidgeting could be employed unconsciously as a means of
30 regulating levels of physiological arousal in the laboratory. This may be important as self-
31 regulation of arousal using behaviour, could mediate the effects of personality and
32 extraversion in particular on task performance and levels of physiological activation in the
33 laboratory. Just as people use their behaviour to regulate arousal in everyday life, as they do
34 with drugs and external stimulation, participants may be involved in unconscious self-
35 regulation of arousal, using behaviour, in the laboratory environment.

36 Some variant of trait extraversion is common to a wide variety of both human and
37 non-human models of personality (e.g. Ashton, Lee & Paunonen, 2002; Catell, 1957; Corr &
38 Cooper, 2016; Costa & McCrae, 1992; Eysenck & Eysenck, 1963; Gosling, 2001).

39 Extraversion is important as it has been a useful heuristic for explaining many behaviours
40 including success or failure in a variety of social and cognitive tasks. Eysenck developed the
41 first widely known (and still deeply influential) trait model to include extraversion as a key
42 component, although both the concept and term have a longer history (Dumont, 2010).

43 Eysenck developed his model of extraversion during his career; in his early version of
44 extraversion (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1968) impulsivity was an important component of
45 extraversion, whereas in his revised model (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1975) impulsivity was
46 largely removed from extraversion (Rocklin & Revelle, 1981). In the more contemporary
47 literature there have been vigorous debates about the precise nature of extraversion. For
48 example, there has been an on-going debate between the supporters of Gray and the
49 supporters of Eysenck about the role of anxiety in extraversion (Corr, Pickering & Gray,

50 1997). However, regardless of the precise nature of extraversion, some version of
51 extraversion is found in almost all trait models of personality.

52 One of the enduring attractions of Eysenck's model of personality is that it integrates
53 cognition, behaviour and physiology. The model has also generated clear, testable hypotheses
54 attractive to research psychologists. Eysenck claimed that the physiological basis of
55 extraversion was a difference in arousability between introverts and extraverts. Eysenck
56 suggested that extraverts had higher thresholds for arousal and had an associated lower level
57 of cortical arousal at rest. This difference in arousability is itself a function of differences
58 found in the ascending reticular activating system of introverts and extraverts. He predicted
59 that there would be measurable differences in the levels of cortical activation found in
60 introverts and extraverts as a function of basic central nervous system physiology. Extraverts
61 should be chronically cortically under aroused whereas introverts should be chronically over
62 aroused. However, despite an intense, sustained and continuing research effort the results
63 have not been consistent; a wide range of influences on the relationships between
64 extraversion, arousal and experimental context have been identified (Gale, 1983; Hahn,
65 Buttaccio, Hahn, & Lee, 2015; Korjus et al. 2015; Lei & Yang, 2015; Matthews & Gilliland,
66 1999; Stelmack, 1990; 1997; Schweckendiek & Klucken, 2016; Zuckerman, 2005). Gale
67 (1983) suggested that the failure to find consistent findings was due to variation in conditions
68 of testing. He argued that a moderately arousing experimental environment was necessary to
69 produce the hypothesised difference in activation levels between introverts and extraverts; in
70 either high or low arousing conditions participants could use adaptive countermeasures to
71 regulate their level of arousal (Gale, 1983; Sternberg, 1992) so reducing any difference in
72 levels of cortical arousal. However, O'Gorman (1984) argued that the failure to find
73 consistent findings was most likely attributable to problems with the personality measures
74 used.

75 In addition to the research focused on resting levels of physiological activation
76 associated with extraversion, there is robust evidence that there are differences in sensory
77 sensitivity (Stelmack & Campbell, 1974; Stelmack, 1990) and motor function (Doucet &
78 Stelmack, 1997) associated with extraversion. Stelmack (1997) has highlighted a number of
79 differences between extraverts and introverts associated with motor function including faster
80 movement times, more frequent movements (Stelmack, Houlihan, & McGarry-Roberts,
81 1993) and greater restlessness (Gale, 1969) in extraverts. The increased motor restlessness
82 shown by extraverts may be the mechanism used as the unconscious adaptive countermeasure
83 to regulate arousal in a boring laboratory environment. Bob Stelmack has been seminal in this
84 important literature on movement and extraversion, and this special issue dedicated to him
85 recognises this fact

86 The purpose of the current study is to investigate whether or not participants with
87 varying levels of extraversion do indeed use adaptive (although unconscious)
88 countermeasures to regulate their level of arousal in the laboratory. We tested participants in
89 two conditions. In one condition participants simply did nothing, and in the other condition
90 the participant had the opportunity to use an activity to self-stimulate by using a keyboard to
91 hear sounds. The “task” was chosen as Gale (1969) had found differences in activity on the
92 task between introverts and extraverts. The task would allow a measure of overt activity as a
93 function of level of extraversion. Therefore, in the no activity, low arousing condition, we
94 predicted that extraverts would move much more than the introverts in an attempt to increase
95 their levels of arousal to a more hedonically satisfying level. In the activity condition we
96 predicted that extraverts would self-stimulate (by pressing the keys to hear sounds) more than
97 introverts and that the differences in movement between conditions would be reduced. The
98 movement difference would be smaller because the extraverts would be able to self-stimulate

99 using the sounds. The movement measure is novel so we also explored the relationship
100 between movement and psychoticism, and movement and neuroticism.

101 2. METHOD

102 2.1 *Participants*

103 An opportunity sample of fifty three participants (40 females, 13 males) was used in the
104 study. All participants were university psychology students ($M_{\text{age}} = 19.85$, $SD_{\text{age}} = 4.81$).
105 Participants were recruited through the departmental participant pool (a system for recruiting
106 students to participate in studies) and were rewarded for participation with course credit.

107 2.2 *Design*

108 This study employed a correlational design. The personality scores of participants were
109 correlated with the amount of movement in the no activity condition, the amount of
110 movement in the activity condition and the difference in movement between the activity and
111 no activity conditions. The design could also be regarded as a 2 x 2 mixed factorial design
112 where the independent groups variable was personality (extraversion vs. introversion) and the
113 repeated measures variable was condition (no activity condition vs. activity condition [can
114 press keyboard to obtain different sounds]). Order of presentation of the conditions was
115 counterbalanced. The primary dependant variable was how much the participant moved,
116 however, stimulus hunger was also examined in the experimental condition by examining
117 behaviour on the computer.

118 2.3 *Materials*

119 Measurement of extraversion was conducted using an adaptation (Francis, Brown &
120 Philipchalk, 1991) of the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1975). To
121 measure the fidgeting of the participant, a pressure mat (Body Pressure Mat System,

122 dimensions 539.2 mm x 618.4 mm, produced by Tekscan) was located in the fabric of a
123 standard office chair. Participants were unaware of the presence of the pressure mat. We
124 measured the magnitude (in x – y space) of the change of the centre of mass on the mat
125 second by second to provide an indication of how much the participant was moving on the
126 chair. An Eprime software computer program was used to record the number and length of
127 key presses to four different sounds in the activity condition. The sound lasted for as long as
128 the key was held down. The four sounds were 30 dB of white noise, 60dB 4,000 Hz
129 continuous wave, 60dB 4,000 Hz (modulated at 2 cps) continuous wave, 60dB 4,000 Hz
130 (modulated at 2 cps) continuous wave.

131 *2.4 Procedure*

132 Participants sat in an empty room and were told that they would take part in two conditions.
133 In the experimental condition, participants were provided with the computer program on a
134 laptop, and were told that they could either press keys A, S, D or F, with each key making a
135 different sound. They were told that they could press the keys as much or as little as they
136 liked. In the control condition, they were instructed to not do anything for ten minutes and
137 they were only informed that it was a control condition. The duration of both conditions was
138 ten minutes, and in both cases the investigator left the participant alone in the room.
139 Participants then completed the personality inventory. Ten minutes was selected as we
140 considered that asking participants to spend more than ten minutes doing nothing was
141 unreasonable in terms of ethics, and there was no reason to suppose that personality effects
142 would not manifest themselves in the ten minute period.

143 *2.5 Ethics statement*

144 The protocol had received ethical approval. Participants provided written informed consent
145 and the study was conducted in accordance the code of ethics of the world medical
146 association (Declaration of Helsinki).

147 3.0 RESULTS

148 We correlated extraversion, neuroticism and psychoticism scores with the amount of
149 movement in the no activity condition, the activity condition, and difference scores for each
150 individual between the activity and no activity condition (see Table 1.).

151 *Insert table 1. About here*

152 There were significant, moderate, positive correlations between extraversion and
153 amount of movement in the no activity condition, and extraversion and the difference in the
154 amount of movement between conditions. There was also a significant, moderate, positive
155 correlation between neuroticism and the difference between movement scores in the activity
156 and no activity conditions. There were no significant correlations associated with
157 psychoticism and movement, or movement and personality measures in the activity
158 condition. The correlations between extraversion and the difference score, and neuroticism
159 and the extraversion scores suggest that more extraverted and neurotic individuals exhibit the
160 largest increases in movement between the activity and no activity condition. This is perhaps
161 most clearly represented in a 2 x 2 interaction graph where one factor is condition (activity
162 vs. no activity) and the other factor is extraversion (median split).

163 *Insert Figure 1. About here*

164 It is worth noting that despite the loss of power associated with using a median split the
165 interaction was still significant with a medium effect size $F(1,51) = 5.44, p = .024, \eta_p^2 = .096$
166 Simple main effects analysis confirmed this interpretation as there was a significant

190 We found that more extraverted and more neurotic individuals moved more but only in the no
191 activity condition. We did not find any relationship in the amount of keyboard activity with
192 any of the personality. Furthermore, we did not find that any personality variable was related
193 to movement when controlling for amount of keyboard activity. Extraverts were significantly
194 more variable in the amount of keyboard behaviour in the activity condition than introverts. It
195 is perhaps notable that participants did actually use the keyboard to self-stimulate and there
196 was a huge range in the amount of activity observed.

197 The differences in the amount of movement provide evidence for Gale's hypothesis
198 that extraverts may engage in unconscious 'counter measures' in the laboratory in order to
199 increase their level of cortical arousal. Extraverts may indeed be moving more in order to
200 self-stimulate and raise their baseline level of cortical arousal. This would help to explain
201 why there has been a failure to find a consistent relationship between resting measures of
202 cortical activation and extraversion. Extraverts have comparable levels of cortical arousal in
203 the laboratory because they are unconsciously stimulating themselves using fidgeting to raise
204 their arousal to a more hedonically satisfying level. One advantage of the methodology
205 employed was that the result cannot be a function of any demand characteristics as the
206 participant was unaware that their movement was being recorded and quantified. The effect
207 sizes were not insubstantial. We suggest that the result gives qualified support to Gale's
208 hypothesis. However, we do not have any information about how the amount of movement
209 may impact on levels of arousal.

210 The results would have provided even stronger evidence for Gale's hypothesis if the
211 expected relationship between extraversion and the amount of keyboard activity had been
212 replicated. Gale (1969) had found differences between introverts and extraverts using a
213 similar button pressing paradigm. All of the measures were in the predicted direction but not
214 one of the correlations achieved statistical significance. We think the explanation for the

215 failure to replicate the results could be due to differences in methods largely driven by
216 advances in technology. In Gale's experiment the participant pressed morse keys and the
217 experimenter selected the appropriate sound; furthermore, the experimenter was in the
218 laboratory with the participant separated by a blanket. In the current study the recording
219 process was automated. We cannot think of the precise mechanism that would explain the
220 differences in results between the two studies, but the differences in methods are sufficient
221 that a failure to replicate is not completely unsurprising. Furthermore, the support for Gale's
222 hypothesis would have been yet more compelling if an association between extraversion and
223 movement had been found in the experimental condition when the amount of overt behaviour
224 (i.e. pressing keys on the computer) had been partialled out. However, our finding with regard
225 to the size of the standard deviations in experimental condition are consistent with other
226 findings which show that extraverts have greater variability than introverts in other activities
227 such as reaction time tasks (Hundleby, Pawlik & Cattell, 1965).

228 The results also provide another source of evidence for Stelmack's hypothesis
229 (Stelmack, 1990) that one of the basic differences between extraverts and introverts is related
230 to motor function. Stelmack and Doucet (1997) commented that there is no obvious link to
231 the hypothesised cortical origins (Eysenck, 1967) of extraversion and many of the observed
232 difference in motor activity between introverts and extraverts. Stelmack attributes the
233 observed differences in motor function in his studies to fundamental differences in sensory-
234 motor processing (Doucet & Stelmack, 2000; Houlihan & Stelmack, 2011); we find it
235 difficult to reconcile our findings with the specifics of Stelmack's theory. Our participants are
236 not processing information, they are initiating motor activity even though it is not through
237 conscious volition. Therefore, we would agree with Stelmack that there may be fundamental
238 differences in motor activity as a function of extraversion, however, we think the mechanisms
239 that underpin such differences may be very different with reference to different types of

240 motor activity. Stelmack's studies (Doucet & Stelmack, 1997; 2000; Houlihan & Stelmack,
241 2011) focus on responses to discreet stimuli revealing interesting differences between
242 extraverts and introverts, for example, extraverts have faster initiation of movement than
243 introverts but are less efficient at processing stimulus signals. However, we speculate that
244 other types of motor behaviour (e.g. the observation that extraverts simply move more than
245 introverts [Howarth, 1964]) may be the result of motivational processes rather than sensory-
246 motor processing.

247 In the activity condition one aspect of the results is particularly striking. There was
248 huge variation in the behaviour of the participants. The situation is so unstructured that
249 intuitively it seems reasonable that such wide variations in behaviour must reflect some
250 personality trait. We did conduct some exploratory analysis which we did not report in the
251 results section as it formed no part of the original rationale for the study. The only suggestion
252 of a relationship between personality measures and the movement was a negative correlation
253 of $-.25$ between number of button presses and neuroticism scores which approached statistical
254 significance. Although there is no obvious theoretical explanation for such a relationship if
255 such a relationship is indeed robust. Gale (1969) did not report means or standard deviations
256 so it is not possible to compare our results with his results. A measure producing such wide
257 variations might be worthy of further investigation.

258 The classic Eysenck model of extraversion is being increasingly superseded by
259 developments emerging from Gray's model of personality. Empirical evidence from a variety
260 of sources has demonstrated the superior explanatory power of variations of reinforcement
261 sensitivity theory (Corr, 2008). However, we found it difficult to interpret the findings of this
262 study within the context of these more recent theories. It might be the case the Eysenck's and
263 Gray's theories relate to different processes; for example, extraversion/arousal might be the

264 result of the joint effects of the BIS, BAS and FFFS. Such an analysis is given support by the
265 finding that neuroticism was also positively correlated with movement.

266 One possible implication of our findings is that movement artefacts in
267 psychophysiological studies of personality may be confounded with personality with
268 consequences that may be difficult to quantify. If extraverts move more they may produce
269 more movement artefacts. Many psychophysiological techniques (particularly the
270 electroencephalogram) are sensitive to movement artefacts and the data associated with
271 obvious movement artefacts is routinely removed from the data. However, the extent to
272 which smaller movements may contaminate data is difficult to quantify (Iriarte, et al. 2003).
273 Furthermore, it is difficult to know if such contamination may reduce or accentuate
274 differences in the physiological data recorded from different personality types. It may also be
275 reasonable to assume that movement (and therefore movement artefacts) could also change as
276 a function of task demands in an experiment; therefore movement artefacts may be
277 confounded with different tasks. Bob Stelmack's work points us in these novel research
278 directions.

279 In conclusion, we found that with a relatively small sample extraverts do indeed fidget
280 or move more when they do not have anything else to do in the laboratory. Participants also
281 do engage in self-stimulating behaviour and this behaviour is highly variable between
282 participants, but this variation was not related to any of the personality variables recorded.
283 We think the results of this study may help to explain why the predicted difference between
284 resting levels of arousal of extraverts and introverts are not reliably found in the laboratory.
285 Furthermore, the results should encourage researchers to reflect on the activities that
286 participants engage in the laboratory that are not the focus of their studies. Such activities
287 may not be problematic if they are uncorrelated with the independent variables being studied
288 and may just be another source of extraneous variance. However, there may be circumstances

289 where such behaviours may be confounded with the independent variables of interest with
290 unpredictable results. Finally, the volume and variability in both voluntary and involuntary
291 behaviours observed in the study give support to Stelmack's observations that motor activity
292 may have a clear link to personality.

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378 Table 1.

379 *Correlations between personality and movement variables*

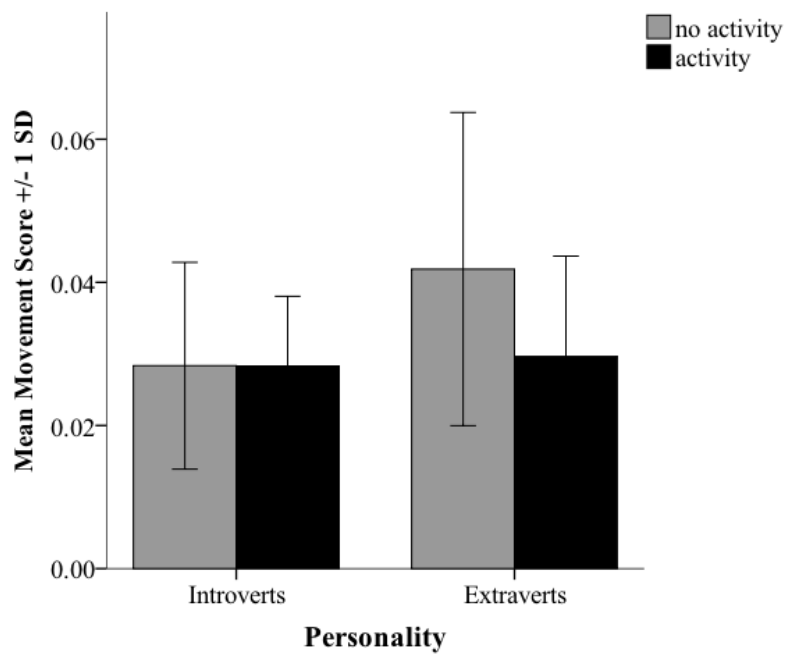
Personality variable	Move (activity)	Move (no activity)	Move (difference)
Extraversion	-.05	.30*	.27*
Psychoticism	-.04	.25	.24
Neuroticism	-.16	.16	.30*

380 • = p <.05

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385 *Figure 1. Movement as a function of personality and condition*

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