Original Paper

Emotions of L2 Learners in Different Contexts and Modes

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Abstract

Considering the role of emotions in L2 use/learning and in different contexts and modes (online, hybrid, in-person), the present study aims to analyze and discuss the role of different emotions that emerged in those three contexts and modes. With that aim, we draw on two different sets of data produced as part of larger studies to discuss the role of emotions in online, in-person and hybrid settings in Brazil, Spain, the UK and the USA. Overall, results point to the need to address native-speakerism in L2 education as well as unpleasant feelings related to online learning and/or to abrupt transitions in learning modes.

Keywords

Emotions, L2 learners, online, hybrid, in-person

1. Introduction

Common sense belief and research evidence converge in the view that emotions play an important part in all kinds of human activity, including learning, as they affect motivation, attention, memory and how we experience the world outside and inside us. If we consider foreign/second/additional language (L2) (Note 1) learning and use, the role of emotions can be even more critical because of, at least, the following reasons: 1. Emotions influence motivation to learn and use a L2, 2. they affect cognitive attention, as well as what is retained and lost in memory, and 3. they can raise or lower the affective filter which in turn may enable, facilitate or impede L2 learning/use.

As we walk out of the COVID-19 pandemic and look back at the two years in which we experienced (and compared) different modes of learning (online, in-person and hybrid), we begin to amass evidence on how emotions also affect the way people experience those three different learning contexts. For instance, online learning is usually associated with feelings of anxiety (due to lack of technological competence), loneliness (for lack of face-to-face interaction) and distraction (too much input with many

windows open, for example). In contrast, in-person learning usually evokes feelings of motivation, social interaction and support, but also anxiety and frustration (having to speak in front of a class, for example). Autonomous, shy learners may prefer the online mode whereas more social and extrovert people might feel more motivated in face-to-face interactions/classes. Despite individual and learning differences, it is not possible to ignore the potential of online interaction to boost/foster L2 learning/use beyond the classroom walls and that is why hybrid approaches that involve a combination of online and in-person instruction, became so popular and relevant after the pandemic.

Considering the role of emotions in L2 use/learning and in those three different modes, the present study aims to analyze/discuss the role of different emotions that emerged in different contexts and modes. With that aim, we draw on two different sets of data produced as part of larger studies that sought to analyze L2 learners' perceptions and emotions to discuss the role of emotions in online, in-person and hybrid settings. Before describing the present study, we offer a brief review of literature on emotions in L2.

2. Emotions and Language Learning

Studies on affective aspects of language acquisition and education date back to at least the 1970s (e.g., La Forge, 1971). One of the most influential contributions in that regard was Krashen's notion of affective filter (e.g., Krashen, 1982; Krashen & Terrell, 1998), which has been prominent in some academic circles up to this date (e.g., Wang, 2020). However, interest in emotions and language teaching/learning has grown notably in recent years (Barcelos et al., 2022; Pavlenko, 2013) as can be seen in Pavlenko's (2013) claim that Applied Linguistics and Language Education are now going through an *emotional turn*.

In practice, this emotional turn has meant that several investigations on language teaching and learning have focused on the emotions of language teachers and students in different contexts, and from various theoretical approaches as can be seen in Table 1 with Barcelos et al.'s (2022) summary of these approaches.

Table 1. Approaches to the Studies of Emotions in Applied Linguistics

Approach	Definition
Psychological	Emotions are innate, biological, individual states. The focus on understanding emotions is on improving learning.
Sociocultural	Emotions are "higher mental/psychological functions, culturalized and susceptible to development, transformation, or new appearances" (Ramos, 2022, p. 244). They permeate all social activities, and act, together with thoughts and language, as mediators of our actions.
Critical	Emotions are political and related to power. They are discursively and socially constructed, and are thus "located at the intersection of mind and body" (Tagata, 2022, p. 23).

Systemic	Emotions are "bodily dispositions for doing, knowing and languaging in relational systems of dynamic recursive interactions" (Barcelos et al. 2022, p. 4). Emotions, cognition and language are thus intertwined (Aragão, 2022).

Source: Based on and adapted from Barcelos et al. (2022)

As explained by Barcelos et al. (2022), these perspectives are not mutually exclusive, since they may overlap in a number of ways – a view which we endorse. Thus, in this article, we do not align specifically with any of the aforementioned approaches in Table 1. Instead, we acknowledge upfront that each of the data sets analyzed in this study were produced based on different conceptions of emotions. Notwithstanding that caveat, we can say that overall our view of emotions are grounded in the following assumptions:

- Emotions are *dynamic* and *complex*: they involve cognitive, psychological, physical and sociocultural aspects of our experiences;
- Emotions are *relational*: we experience emotions in relation to other beings, in the contacts we establish with them;
- Emotions are conceptualized *discursively*: the ways in which we understand emotions are constructed through our discourses, as well as the discourses of the societies of which we are part;
- Emotions *lead to actions* (Maturana, 1998): The ways in which we act in the world are influenced by our emotions.

Moreover, we prefer to avoid the common binary differentiation between positive and negative emotions (based on Benesch, 2012, among others), since we understand that our emotions are part of a spectrum of states that is dynamic and that can cause different outcomes. Still, we conceive that there are emotions which are generally viewed as pleasant, while others are often considered unpleasant as will be highlighted in one of the studies whose data is analyzed in this article (section 5.2).

In what follows, we present some more specific concepts that are related to the studies we contrast and discuss here. Although each of these concepts pertain mostly to one study in particular (rather than to both), our subsequent analyses attempt to construct bridges between them, in such a way that we can approximate, rather than distance, investigations that come from distinct understandings and frameworks.

2.1 Anxiety

Anxiety was the main topic of investigation in the first study discussed in this article. Spielberger (1983, p.1) defined anxiety as the "subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system". Others such as Horwitz et al. (1986) define anxiety more as a physiological response stating that it is, "an emotion characterized by feelings of tension, thoughts of worry, and physical changes such as increased blood pressure" (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 125).

For the purpose of this study, we will focus on a subset of anxiety referred to as "situation-specific anxiety" which can be defined as "the likelihood of becoming anxious in a particular type of situation, such as during tests, when solving math problems, or when speaking a second language" (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994, p. 2). Anxiety experienced in the language classroom is a type of situation-specific anxiety that can hinder performance and achievement (Von Word, 2003). Horwitz et al. (1986) went further to coin the term foreign language anxiety as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to language learning in the classroom that arises from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (p. 128). Guiora (1983) argues that language learning itself is "a profoundly disturbing psychological proposition" because it "directly threatens the individual's self-concept and worldview" (Guiora, 1983, p. 8). L2 anxiety has been further broken down into three specific types: communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. For the purpose of the first study discussed here, we will focus on communication apprehension, specifically relating to listening and speaking anxiety.

2.2 Communication Apprehension

Communication apprehension arises from fear of communicating with others (Horwitz et al., 1986). Anxiety can arise in the form of "stage fright" when speaking in public (oral communication anxiety) or listening to a spoken message (receiver anxiety) (Horwitz et al., 1986). MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) believe that communication apprehension is a personality trait that is affected by other individual traits such as low self-esteem, cultural divergence, and introversion. According to Krashen (1985), anxiety contributes to the creation of an affective filter that makes the individual unreceptive to linguistic input. Although students may understand parts of what they read and hear, they will not be able to increase language acquisition (Krashen, 1985, p. 3). With the transition from in-person to online learning during the COVID-19 pandemic, there are more factors contributing to communication apprehension. Amorim, Có and Finardi (2021) carried out a study in Brazil during the pandemic so as to evaluate perceptions of L2 students in the online mode concluding that both students and teacher's anxiety increased during this period because of the social distance measures coupled with the extra anxiety of learning a L2 online.

Oral communication anxiety or speaking anxiety results from the fear of having difficulties in making oneself understood. Learners are more motivated to learn a language after communicating successfully, and, therefore, it is important to understand the factors that affect speaking ability (Bouddage & Elfatihi, 2018). Speaking requires knowledge of many competencies including linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic abilities (Babakhouya, 2019). From a cognitive, psycholinguistic perspective, speaking a L2 requires working memory capacity and attention to encode/decode messages (Finardi, 2010a, b). Individuals who already have difficulty speaking in front of others experience an even greater fear in a foreign language classroom where they have little control of the situation (Horwitz et al., 1986). In role-play situations, students are more likely to "freeze," as speech is expected to be much more spontaneous (Horwitz et al., 1986). Because speaking is interconnected with listening, students

94

who experience anxiety in speaking may also experience anxiety in listening.

Receiver anxiety, or listening anxiety, in turn, refers to "a person's psychological response to a listening task, which is determined by the effect of feelings, beliefs, and behaviors" (Tahsildar, 2014, p. 44). Learners who experience this type of anxiety have difficulty differentiating sounds and structures when listening to spoken language (Horwitz et al., 1986). Yusnida et al. (2017) states that, in the classroom, "students are expected to listen twice as much as they speak, four times as much as they read, and five times as much as they write." (p. 440). In Shi's (2017) research, students had moderate to low receiver anxiety as a result of speed, accent, vocabulary, experiences, and attention.

In 1983, Horwitz devised the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), which is used to measure anxiety experienced in the foreign language classroom (Horwitz, 1983, cited in Horwitz et al., 1986). Students at the University of Texas reported anxiety responses related to language learning, such as freezing, trembling, tension, and palpitations, and were used to construct the FLCAS scale (Horwitz et al., 1986). The scale ranges from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). The FLCAS scale remains one of the most common measures of foreign language anxiety and can differentiate anxiety levels in the four skills of communication: speaking, listening, writing and reading (Horwitz et al., 1986).

2.3 Imposture

As previously stated, the notion of anxiety was the main focus of the first study that we discuss in the present article. While the second study also used anxiety as one of the emotions it addressed, it was more concerned with emotions in a broader sense. Still, one aspect that was present in the designing phase of the second study was that of imposture (Kramsch, 2012). More specifically, one factor that was important when planning/conducting the study was the plausibility that feelings of imposture may be pervasive among pre-service teachers, that is, students who are learning a language to become L2 teachers.

Imposture is understood here as a "difficulty of finding authentic or legitimate subject positions" (Kramsch, 2012, p. 483) that is experienced by multilingual individuals and language users in general. This type of emotion seems particularly common among nonnative language teachers (Bernat, 2008), who are faced with native-speakerism – i.e., the pervasive ideology that positions native language instructors as true representatives and models of the languages they teach (Holliday, 2006).

Therefore, we understand that imposture encompasses feelings of anxiety, but it also brings with it emotions such as fear, discomfort, insecurity, and at times even despair (Rajagopalan, 2005). Understanding imposture thus involves dealing not only with these emotions, but also with others that are considered more pleasant: confidence, comfort, desire, enthusiasm, etc. What is important in this case is to understand how different emotions interact with one another in individuals who suffer from feeling like a fraud, and how these individuals fluctuate from less to more pleasant feelings in their understandings of themselves as speakers and teachers of a language.

This means that imposture relates not only with temporary feelings that emerge in specific situations, but with a sense of identity. We thus agree with Barcelos (2015) that emotions are better understood when they are studied as closely tied to learners' and teachers' identities, as well as to their beliefs about language teaching and learning.

3. Modes of Teaching and Learning

The two unpublished studies whose data we analyze in this article dealt with L2 learners' perceptions and emotions in different contexts and modes of learning. The first of them specifically looks into differences between students (most of whom are from Spain, the UK or the USA) who perceive themselves as in-person, online or hybrid learners. The second engages with the emotions of pre-service teachers *during* emergency remote learning in Brazil throughout the Covid-19 pandemic (e.g. Có, Amorim, & Finardi, 2020), and also *after* the return to the in-person mode. Therefore, in this section we review what is understood as online learning, hybrid education and emergency remote learning so as to link this to the analysis of emotions permeating the use/teaching/learning of L2 in those modes.

3.1 Online Learning

Research has shown that online learning provides "just-in-time learning; increased access; removal of time, place, and situational barriers; cost-effectiveness; increased accountability; increased interaction; provision of future employability skills for students; and effective support for lifelong learning" (Anderson, 2008, p. 92). In addition, other research has found that virtual classrooms can create a much more engaging environment for students (Maloy et al., 2020). In a study conducted to compare online and in-person models by Diaz and Entonado (2009), the results found that, although teacher-student interaction was greater in the in-person model, satisfaction with the hands-on content and design was reported as higher by online learners.

Although online learning may be beneficial to some through self-directed learning, others may find the autonomy too much (Barr & Miller, 2013). Drelich-Zbroja et al. (2021) found that students have a strong negative view of full online learning and, as a result, it has had a negative effect on their mental health. Có, Amorim and Finardi (2020) and Amorim, Có and Finardi (2021) found that both teachers and students experience different emotions and levels of autonomy, anxiety and frustration in the online mode, especially when it is done as the norm or only solution rather than as an option. Di Marco et al. (2017) also considered distraction as a negative consequence of online learning, as many students were often found on social networks, watching TV and napping instead of studying. Therefore, a model that blends in-person with online may stand more chances of catering for different needs and views of online/in-person classes and seems to have increased in popularity since the pandemic.

3.2 Hybrid Model

The hybrid learning model can be defined as part of the classroom content delivered online and part in-person (Mossavar-Rahmani & Larson-Daugherty, 2007). It can also have different variations such as

96

the Flipped Classroom Approach (e.g. Finardi, Prebianca, & Schmidtt, 2016), or the integration of MOOCs in classroom contents (Sevilla-Pavón & Finardi, 2022) or even the use of MOOCs (e.g. Finardi et al., 2016) in the Inverted CLIL approach (Finardi, 2015). The analysis of the perceptions of teachers from different countries during the pandemic in Finardi and Sevilla-Pavón (2021) showed that though most teachers see the benefits of hybrid approaches, they were also concerned with the institutional and technical support for this mode of delivery.

Through hybrid learning, students can benefit from the advantages of both online and in-person models. More importantly, students can possess aspects that may be lacking in a fully in-person or online model. Students can interact with faculty and peers both online and in person (Mossavar-Rahmani & Larson-Daugherty, 2007; Meyanlioglu & Arikan, 2014), which can promote creativity through activities and discussions (Olapiriyakul & Scher, 2006). The hybrid model can increase learner autonomy and make learners more responsible for their learning, while having in-person support 50% of the time (Meyanlioglu & Arikan, 2014). Educators can benefit from saving classroom time to teach critical thinking skills while posting lower-order thinking skills tasks online (Meyanlioglu & Arikan, 2014).

3.3 Communicative Apprehension in Technology Use

The studies by Bakar et al. (2013) and Bashori et al. (2020) used Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) tools to employ students to speak directly to the computer during class. When asked in interviews, students responded by stating that they felt less anxious when talking to a computer than to a person. Indeed, in a series of studies (Prebicana, Finardi, & Momm, 2013; Prebianca, Vieira & Finardi, a, b, 210; Prebianca, Santos Jr., & Finardi, 2014; Prebianca, Cardoso, & Finardi, 2014; Finardi, Prebianca, Schmidtt, & Andrade, 2014; Prebianca, Finardi, & Cardoso, 2015 and Vieira & Finardi, 2018), that analyzed different aspects of human-computer interaction in softwares for L2 teaching/learning and their use in hybrid approaches, the authors conclude that software and digital resources can support L2 use-learning-teaching if certain pedagogical concerns are included in the design of these artifacts.

Although students felt they had lower levels of anxiety using the CALL software, statistical analyses did not show a difference between students' anxiety before and after using the software. In a study by Punar and Uzun (2019), the results found that the level of foreign language anxiety was lower in the Skype video call group than in in-person students. Although technology could be contributing to students' anxiety, other factors must also be considered when analyzing foreign language anxiety.

3.4 Emergency Remote Learning

During the Covid-19 outbreak, Brazilian public universities, like most higher education institutions worldwide, had to adapt their practices to the new realities imposed by the health crisis. In Brazil, however, particularly in the public sector, this involved months of planning before emergency remote instruction or emergency remote learning could take place (Sevilla-Pavón & Finardi, 2021; Sanfelici, 2022).

97

According to Sanfelici (2022), as well as many others, this shift involved having to rapidly learn about new modes, methodologies, resources, platforms, among many other aspects, all while having to also deal with the fear, isolation and anxiety caused by the pandemic itself. As explained by Sevilla-Pavón and Finardi (2021), many language teachers in the Brazilian context felt unprepared to address the demands of this new form of teaching and learning, due to lack of preparation and institutional support, as well as to the tense political climate in Brazil at the time. Sevilla-Pavón and Finardi go on to elucidate that instructors in the Brazilian context showed concerns over the limitations of the online mode in terms of interaction and assessment.

Studies on emotions and language education during this period have also addressed similar matters (e.g. Tumolo & Finardi, 2022). Carneiro and Lima (2022), for instance, describe the emotional distress experienced by an English teacher, in face of the "the lack of boundaries between work and home and the health concern" (p. 78). Bezerra and Silveira (2022), in turn, address the feelings of fear and of missing the school environment, which were also common among educators not only in Brazil but in many parts of the world.

What is particularly interesting about all of the studies cited here is that they also address notions of resilience, resistance, and possibilities for change. Bezerra and Silveira (2022), for example, discuss the creation of communities of practice in which participants can share their emotions and build collaborative knowledge to overcome the hurdles of the pandemic. Sevilla-Pavón and Finardi (2021) look to the future, as they discuss possibilities of learning from this difficult, challenging period. These insights are important here because they illustrate the complex ways in which different people in a vast number of contexts dealt with emergency remote learning, which is particularly insightful in understanding our findings for the second study discussed in this article.

4. Method

As stated previously, the present study analyzes data from two separate studies that aimed to investigate emotional issues related to the learning of L2 in different educational settings. In this section, we describe the main aspects and procedures for each of these studies, including details about settings, participants, instruments and analytical processes. Our goal, as also presented earlier, is to compare and contrast the results of the two studies so as to better understand some of the factors that may be involved in how foreign language students feel in their different classroom environments.

4.1 K-12 Students in Spain, the United Kingdom and the United States

The first set of data was originally collected for a larger study on anxiety as part of a master thesis (Waterman, 2022) among K-12 students in three contexts: Spain, the United Kingdom (UK) and the United States (US). Teachers from language academies (Spain), public high schools (UK) and private high schools (US) were contacted via email and asked students to complete the online questionnaire as extra credit. Although the investigation focused more specifically on anxiety, participants were also asked about different feelings in relation to their practices as language learners (see more below).

Ninety-six students accepted to participate in the investigation and responded to the questionnaire. Participants' ages ranged from 11 to 18 years old with the majority aged 12 (38.5%) and 13 (21.9%). Most students (81.3%) indicated that English was their first language, while (11.5%) indicated Spanish as their first language. Other speakers were represented such as Arabic (1%), Kurdish (1%), Polish (1%), Romanian (2%) and Urdu (2%). The average number of years that the students have spent learning languages was 3.8 years.

The participants were asked to mark the type of learning model they were currently enrolled in. Many students, 42 (43.8%) were enrolled in in-person classes. The students enrolled in classes taught completely online were 17 (17.7%). The hybrid students represented 37 (38.5%) of the population.

The questionnaire was divided into three parts. In Part 1, which consisted of 6 questions, students had to provide demographic information and also inform whether they saw themselves as online, in-person or hybrid (online and in-person) learners. In Part 2, respondents had to answer 21 Likert-scale questions adapted from the FLCAS scale (Horwitz et al., 1986), focusing on how anxious, confident, comfortable and/or nervous (among other possibilities) they felt about different activities that are part of their routines as language learners. Participants were asked to rate the statements from (1) "strongly disagree" to (5) "strongly agree". The questionnaire used positive and negative statements in order to collect accurate data. Finally, in part 3 the participants had to respond to one open-ended question, which asked them to state a strategy (or strategies) that they use when they feel overwhelmed in their foreign language class. Quantitative data (parts 1 and 2) were analyzed using SPSS version 28. Negative questions were transformed in SPSS to positive data. Means were calculated using a t-test. Qualitative data (part 3) was transcribed and divided into five categories for further analysis. It is important to note that the quantitative results were not analyzed with inferential statistics, but only in descriptive terms at this time. However, this does not weaken our perceptions of trends regarding participants' anxiety or the comparisons we make in this article. We intend to run further analyses of these data for future publications/presentations.

4.2 Pre-service Teachers in Brazil

The second set of data we analyze in the present study is part of a larger study that seeks to understand the perspectives and practices of language teacher educators and pre-service teachers upon identity and emotional factors in their experiences as educators/learners. The data presented here consist of responses to an online questionnaire with Brazilian undergraduate students of English who are pursuing their degrees in English language teaching at a major Brazilian university located in a large city in the south of the country. As is common in Brazilian higher education, these students are learning English while at the same time preparing to become teachers themselves, and thus they are pre-service teachers. The questionnaire was sent by email to a total of 70 students in three classes, in the first semester of 2023. Thirty-eight students responded to the questionnaire. All of them were in the second half of their majors at the time. Around 29% of these students (n=11) already worked as English language teachers at the time they responded to the questionnaire. This is not uncommon among Brazilian undergraduate

students pursuing an English language teaching major, as many of them find jobs in contexts such as private language institutes and in online platforms. The majority of respondents (n=26, around 68%) had been pursuing their degree for between 1 and 3 years, while the others (n=12, around 32%) had been students of English language teaching for over 3 years. All of them spoke Portuguese as their first language.

The questionnaire consisted of 3 types of questions: a) 6 demographic items; b) a nominal scale table, in which participants had to respond to how they felt about 10 activities regarding their English language practices; and c) 7 open-ended questions asking about feelings that they relate to modes of learning (e.g., online, in-person) and to the possibility of engaging with emotional issues as part of their higher education. The nominal scale (see below) listed 7 options of feelings that participants could choose as a response. These responses were presented in alphabetical order, rather than in a traditional scale-type order, since our objective was not to assign values to each specific feeling that was presented.

Table 2. Nominal Scale Table

Question: How do you generally feel as a pre-service teacher in the following situations? (Choose the option that is closest to how you usually feel)

	Anxious	Comfortable	Confident	Confused	Enthusiastic	Indifferent	Insecure
Communicating with colleagues in English							
Communicating with professors in English							
Communicating in English outside of the classroom							
Communicating with native speakers of English							
Presenting papers in English							
Writing non-academic texts in English							
Writing academic							

| texts in English |
| Reading |
| non-academic   texts |
| in English |
| Reading   academic |
| texts in English |
| Imagining myself as |
| a teacher of English |

In the present study, we focus on the answers to the nominal scale questions and on responses that participants provided to questions regarding their emotions in relation to remote learning, in-person classes, and the use of technology in class. Our analyses of the nominal scale questions are based on frequency trends we observed in regards to participants' feelings. The open ended questions, in turn, were examined through content analysis, whereby the emotions were identified and categorized based on semantic similarity and salience. Unlike the first study presented earlier (section 4.1), this one did not focus specifically on one type of emotion (e.g., anxiety), but on emotions in more general terms.

5. Results and Discussion

In this section, we present and discuss the results of the two studies. At first, such results are addressed separately – i.e., the findings for each individual investigation are examined in distinct subsections (5.1 and 5.2), as was done in the explanation of our methods. We then move on to try and establish similarities and differences between our findings in a combined manner in our conclusion (section 6).

5.1 Understanding Anxiety and Related Emotions among K-12 Students in Spain, the UK and the US

In order to interpret the level of language anxiety experienced we first divided responses by learning model. Responses were collected from the questionnaire and analyzed using SPSS. We were able to conclude that online students experienced the highest levels of language anxiety (n=17, m=2.69) followed by in-person (n=42, m=2.53) and hybrid (n=37, m=2.37).

Our results correlate to previous studies conducted relating to the efficiency and overall satisfaction in each learning model. When considering communication, which is the principle of language learning, the interaction between students and teachers is much higher in the in-person model (Diaz & Entonado, 2009). Likewise, our results back up research by Dickinson et al. (2008) who noted that less traditional models can create comfortability resulting in success. Through a mixed model such as hybrid, students benefit from the advantages of both in-person and online classrooms and in turn, reduce overall language anxiety.

Afterwards, a further analysis on anxiety related to listening and speaking was conducted. Comparing the three models in terms of overall listening anxiety, online learners had the highest levels (m=2.69), followed by in-person learners (m=2.49), and finally hybrid learners (m=2.37).

Table 3. Quantitative Data on Listening Anxiety

Item	In-person M	Online M	Hybrid M
I get nervous when I do not understand all the words the teacher said (Item #Q1)	2.57	3.00	2.68
I feel overwhelmed when someone speaks in the language I am learning quickly (Item #Q7)	2.61	2.53	2.84
I am concerned about understanding native speakers (Item #Q13)	2.95	3.06	3.14
I like to challenge myself to understand different accents in the language I am learning (Item #Q20)	1.88	2.06	2.00
I feel confident that I can understand most of what the teacher says (Item #Q10)	1.85	2.18	2.03
Total	2.49	2.69	2.37

The most anxiety-provoking listening-related question for all models is related to understanding native speakers (#Q13). In-person and hybrid learners also show high levels of listening anxiety relating to quick speakers (Item #Q7). In contrast, online learners experience more anxiety when they cannot understand the words the teacher has said (Item #Q1) (m=3.00). Interestingly, hybrid learners had higher levels of anxiety on each item compared to in-person learners. Although the hybrid learners scored higher on certain items, their overall listening anxiety was the lowest of the three (m=2.37).

It is important to note the different factors present in each model that can influence listening comprehension. Students learning online have more contingencies that come with the nature of the model. According to Aydin (2011), the level of anxiety in the online model is correlated with unfamiliarity with the Internet as well as communication apprehension. It would be interesting to conduct a study that also incorporates questions related to internet anxiety in order to see a correlation with language anxiety. Unfortunately, we do not have this type of data as the questions asked were directly related to language anxiety specifically. As a result, we can determine based on responses from our questionnaire that learning using synchronous tools such as video calls can limit auditory reception and increase listening anxiety.

Although more questions relating to speaking anxiety were asked, there were no differences when comparing the overall levels of speaking anxiety with listening anxiety. Students presented the same amount of each type of anxiety and can be compared in ascending order starting with hybrid students (m=2.37), then in-person students (m=2.49), and finally online students (m=2.69).

Table 4. Quantitative Data on Speaking Anxiety

Item	In-person $\underline{M}$	Online $\underline{M}$	Hybrid $\underline{M}$
Speaking the foreign language that I am learning anywhere makes me feel worried (Item #Q14)	2.69	2.53	2.36
I panic when I have to speak unprepared in class (Item #Q5)	3.05	3.41	2.78
I get nervous when the language teacher asks me questions that I haven't prepared beforehand (Item #Q20)	3.49	3.65	2.72
I would probably feel comfortable speaking the language I am learning with native speakers (Item #Q11)	2.14	2.29	2.14
I feel confident when speaking the foreign language I am learning in class (Item #Q8)	2.07	2.18	2.03
I never feel confident when I speak in my foreign language class (Item #Q2)	3.12	3.24	2.76
Total	2.49	2.69	2.37

The highest levels of speaking anxiety in all models were in relation to spontaneous questions from teachers (Item Q#20) and speaking without prior preparation (Item #Q5). It is not surprising that students responded more anxious when put in situations where they are asked to speak with little preparation. Horwitz et al. (1986) found students to be more comfortable when given the opportunity to prepare before speaking. Typically, this is a factor that determines a speaker's likelihood to exhibit anxiety.

Qualitative data were used to determine the specific strategies students use to combat language anxiety. Not all participants responded to the qualitative question; responses were received from 34 in-person students, 15 online students, and 32 hybrid students. After analyzing the data, the responses were divided, according to the Kondo and Ying-Lingo (2004) study, into five categories: relaxation, preparation, positive thinking, peer help, and resignation.

Overall, students use the most coping methods related to relaxation (n=32, 41.56%), followed by preparation (n=18, 23.38%), peer help (n=17, 22.08%), resignation (n=7, 9.09%) and positive thinking (n=3, 3.90%). The type of coping method was also further divided among learning models and presented in Table 5.

Table 5. Number of Students Using Each Coping Method by Learning Model

Learning model	Relaxation	Resignation	Positive thinking	Preparation	Peer help
In-person	11	3	1	8	9
Online	7	0	2	2	3
Hybrid	14	4	0	8	5
Total	32	7	3	18	17

It is important to consider what types of coping methods students in each model are utilizing. As shown in Table 5, students in the in-person and hybrid models use methods of resignation, preparation and peer help more than online students. Although fewer online students responded to the question relating to coping methods, it is essential to analyze the number of responses in each category. For example, online students do not have the physical benefits that come with in-person and hybrid models. As a result, one can conclude that it may be more difficult to ask peers for help. When considering all factors, relaxation can be utilized in all models and therefore was recorded the most. To further understand the types of methods students, use the following responses are used as examples from each category.

"I take it easy; I just close my eyes, breathe and try to disconnect for a few seconds to relax and continue the class with more energy and enthusiasm" (Participant 29, in-person model, relaxation)

"Writing down words I don't recognize that the teacher says or writes down and writing down their translations as well. It gives me a feeling of control and like I can handle the situation." (Participant 29, hybrid model, preparation)

"I need to remind myself that I am in class to learn. I shouldn't focus on whether someone may be understanding the material more than me. It is a judgment free zone! At the end of the day, I should focus on myself and push myself to the best of my ability". (Participant 33, in-person model, positive thinking)

"To take refuge in my classmates and thus feel more confident when speaking or understanding in this language" (Participant 27, in-person model, peer help)

"I most commonly give up especially in a test and I need to learn how to carry on trying even if I don't get the answer or the word". (Participant 24, hybrid model, resignation)

From categorizing responses, we can understand more holistically how students are coping when faced with language anxiety. Understanding how students respond when in stressful situations can help in curriculum design no matter the learning model utilized.

5.2 Understanding Emotions of Pre-service Teachers in a Brazilian Higher Education Context

As stated earlier, the goals of the second study were different from those of the first. In particular, it sought to understand emotional issues more broadly, rather than having a specific focus on anxiety. Moreover, participants of the second study were students who are part of a teacher education program (i.e., pre-service teachers), instead of K-12 students. Still, as also discussed earlier, we will try to draw parallels between the two studies.

It was interesting to observe that the majority of the pre-service teachers who responded to our questionnaire reported feeling *comfortable*, *confident* or *enthusiastic* in 6 of the items presented to them: communicating with colleagues in English (n=27, 71%); communicating in English outside of the classroom (n=25, 65%); writing non-academic texts in English (n=30, 79%); reading non-academic texts in English (n=35, 92%); reading academic texts in English (n=26, 68%); and imagining themselves as English teachers (n=21, 55%).

In turn, for 3 of the items, the most prevalent feelings reported by participants were those of *anxiety*, *confusion*, *insecurity* or *indifference* (although it must be stated that indifference was a rare response amongst respondents): communicating with professors in English (n=20, 52%); presenting papers in English (n=23, 60%); and writing academic texts in English (n=27, 71%). Finally, for the item that asked pre-service teachers to state how they felt regarding communicating with native speakers of English, 50% (n=19) of them responded that they were *comfortable*, *confident* or *enthusiastic*, whereas the other 50% (n=19) replied that they had feelings of *anxiety*, *confusion*, *insecurity* or *indifference*.

There are several of ways in which these results may be interpreted. One possibility is to state that the participants reported mostly pleasant feelings (comfort, confidence and enthusiasm) for activities that may often be perceived as less formal (e.g., communicating with colleagues in English), as well as for practices with which they have more familiarity (e.g., reading academic texts in English). This is not the case only for one of the activities where such pleasant feelings were the majority: imagining themselves as English teachers. In this case, we believe that the majority of participants' responses reflected their *desire* to become educators, which makes sense, considering that they are studying to get a degree in English language teaching.

Moreover, we interpret our results as also showing that the pre-service teachers reported unpleasant, or less pleasant feelings when asked about practices that either involve academic genres (and that include the use of more formal, academic language) or that are less common for them (e.g., writing academic texts in English). What was intriguing for us in this case was that such prevalence of unpleasant feelings occurred even in regards to communicating with professors in English, which we expected might be less challenging for students, both linguistically and emotionally. Still, it is interesting to observe that this unpleasantness in relation to speaking to their educators was also observed in the study with K-12 participants (described in section 5.1), where students had high levels of anxiety when speaking to teachers.

Also noteworthy was the 50/50 split when it came to the question about communicating with native speakers. From a *glass half empty* perspective, we may interpret these results as evidence of imposture and of how *native-speakerism* (Holliday, 2006) is still prevalent in perceptions about language learning and teaching. Again, this corroborates results of the K-12 study (section 5.1 above). When considering pre-service teachers more specifically, it is particularly striking that even in a context where students are receiving formal education to become teachers of English, there was still a high number of them that felt discomfort, anxiety and related emotions when asked about native speakers, perhaps because of identity perceptions of non-native speakers of L2 who are being trained to become L2 teachers (Archanjo, Barahona, & Finardi, 2019).

From a *glass half full* standpoint, on the other hand, the fact that 50% of the pre-service teachers reported feeling comfortable, confident or enthusiastic about communicating with native speakers may attest to the fact that discussions about native-speakerism in English language teaching undergraduate degrees are influencing how students in these majors feel about themselves as speakers and (future)

teachers of the language. In our view, this possible interpretation is strengthened when we take two factors into account: a) the fact that previous reports about native-speakerism among *experienced* teachers in Brazil showed a prevalence of feelings of imposture (Diniz de Figueiredo, 2011; Rajagopalan, 2005); and b) the growth in teacher education courses, classes and other initiatives that specifically try to address native-speakerism (e.g., Walesko, 2019) with the aim of empowering students, using, for example, decolonial perspectives and virtual exchange to connect and support L2 teachers (Wimpenny et al., 2022).

When it comes to modes of learning, for which we were able to access perceptions of participants through open-ended questions (see section 4.2), we also observed interesting results. First, participants mostly associated unpleasant feelings to emergency remote learning – which in the case of these students took place through synchronous and asynchronous online classes during the pandemic. In fact, out of ten emotional words that were mentioned more than once by participants, six were in the realm of what we have interpreted as unpleasant: *anxiety* (n=7), *insecurity* (n=5), *discomfort* (n=4), *difficulty* (n=4), *tiredness* (n=2) and *frustration* (n=2). On the other hand, three of these words that were mentioned more than once brought connotations of pleasantness: *calmness* (n=2), *comfort* (n=2) and *easiness* (n=2). The other word that was mentioned in more than one instance was *challenge* (n=3), which we felt could be associated with both pleasantness and unpleasantness (we looked for contextual clues for understanding what meaning had been attributed to this word in participants' responses, but were unable to reach a conclusion, due to the short answers provided).

When looking at all of the words that were used, rather than just observing those that were stated more than once in participants' responses, we noticed that 26 (51%) of them pointed towards what we have interpreted as unpleasantness, while 19 (37%) referred to emotions associated with pleasantness (out of 51 words in total). The other words (n=6, 12%) were similar to the case of *challenge* above, in that we were not able to associate them to either pleasantness or unpleasantness.

The results presented thus far for modes of learning seem to point to a bigger sense of unpleasantness being associated with emergency remote learning. This is not surprising, given that such type of teaching/learning was planned and implemented out of urgency, at a time when professors, students and the rest of the world were going through extremely difficult circumstances, due to the pandemic. In spite of this result, it is still interesting to observe that emotions such as calmness, comfort and easiness were present in responses provided by the pre-service teachers, which points to the complex, complicated, convoluted web of emotions that was part of the emergency remote learning period.

More importantly, it is crucial to note that these mostly unpleasant emotions towards emergency remote learning do not translate into similarly unpleasant feelings in regards to technology use in general (even after the pandemic). When asked specifically about the use of technology following the pandemic – and consequently, after the emergency remote learning period – only 7 participants referred to emotions that we associate with unpleasantness. These feelings, according to respondents, were mainly caused by factors such as the long-term incorporation of technologies like Zoom into classes, fear of not adapting

to the more constant use of technology, exaggerated use, and the need to use mobile phones at home (due to lack of computers in the home space). On the other hand, 23 participants reported feeling emotions associated with pleasantness when using these same technologies, for reasons such as effective communication, better organization, and practicality. The remaining 8 students, in turn, reported feeling indifferent.

The study with pre-service teachers seems to suggest, therefore, that issues such as technology anxiety or unfamiliarity did not necessarily play a part in how participants felt regarding the emergency remote learning – which is different from possibilities raised based on the K-12 study (section 5.1 above). However, it would be interesting to understand whether this mostly pleasant association with the use of technologies for language learning is also present when it comes to online and hybrid learning more specifically, as was done in the K-12 study. Unfortunately, we do not have specific data regarding this factor. However, as we plan to continue with the research, we should include items related to online and hybrid learning (as opposed to in-person) more specifically. Still, we infer that at least some of the positive emotions reported in the case of technology use would also be present in some of participants' responses regarding online learning.

One final aspect of our data that we wish to address is that of the return to in-person classes after the end of pandemic. What was particularly interesting to observe in this case was that the emotions presented by the pre-service teachers who responded to the questionnaire pointed to mixed feelings regarding such return. While 22 of the respondents showed mostly pleasant emotions in their answers, the others (n=16) either felt unpleasant about it or presented ambivalence in how they perceived the coming back to the university environment as it was before the pandemic. The responses below, which were originally in Portuguese and were translated into English to present here, illustrate these different types of emotions (pleasant, unpleasant, ambivalent):

"[I feel] c*omfortable, it affects me positively*" (Participant 2, pleasant)

"*Feelings of insecurity and isolation. My performance has not gone down with the return to in-person classes, but my feelings towards the in-person environment are not totally positive*" (Participant 7, unpleasant)

"*Anxiety, but also a certain relief. I think being able to move and to have human contact have been very good, but I also feel that I don't have so much energy for social interaction. The return has brought me physical, emotional and cognitive tiredness.*" (Participant 16, ambivalence)

"*Anxiety, closeness and safety. I think the return to in-person has left me somehow enthusiastic to have closer contact with my major, but at the same time I'm thoughtful as to if I'll be able to handle everything.*" (Participant 31, ambivalence)

We interpret the results provided by pre-service teachers as illustrative of an overall tension involved in the return to in-person classes after the most restrictive moments of the pandemic. On the one hand, there were students who felt that the return was comfortable and productive. On the other, several students felt either unprepared, unsure or fluctuated between emotions of relief/happiness and moments

107

of anxiety, discomfort and doubt. Such contradictory feelings are, for us, to be expected when it comes to such an abrupt change from in-person (before the pandemic) to totally online (during the pandemic) and then back to fact-to-face settings again. In fact, these types of contradiction and tension are common when it comes to understandings of emotion as a whole (Bensech, 2012).

Still, we want to emphasize that accounts such as the one presented by participant 7 (above) show that not only has the return to in-person not necessarily been smooth for many participants, but some of them perhaps felt less confused and isolated in the online environment of emergency remote learning. As we develop this research project with pre-service teachers further, we wish to further explore these issues. We also hope to explore how different participants coped with moments of anxiety and other unpleasant or less pleasant emotions, as was done in the K-12 study.

6. Conclusion

As stated in the outset of this study, we aimed to analyze the role of emotions in L2 use/learning in different contexts - Brazil, Spain, the UK and the USA / K12 and L2 pre-service teacher education – and modes (online, in-person and hybrid). With tht aim, we analyzed data of two other studies so as to contrast results of those different contexts and modes. Our contrastive analyses seems to point to the following conclusions: 1. Both L2 learners and non-native speakers of L2 being educated to become L2 teachers experience feelings of anxiety related to using the L2, specially with native-speakers of the language. We suggest that critical approaches to L2 teaching/learning that deconstruct the myth of the native speaker are beneficial in this case. 2. Unpleasant feelings associated with the online mode were more related to the first study (K12) than to the second (pre-service teachers), possibly because younger learners might need more social/physical interaction than adults (second cohort). Notwithstanding this result, data in the 2nd study suggest that the unpleasant feelings were more associated with the abrupt transition (from in-person to remote learning and then from remote learning back to in-person) than to those different modes. Our results contribute to the increasing need to study emotions in different contexts, in such a way that we are able to better address affective factors that pertain to L2 teaching/learning and use.

Acknowledgement

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110

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111

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Note

Note 1. Though we acknowledge the difference in terminologies used to refer to languages other than the native language, for the sake of our study we will use the acronym L2 to refer to foreign/second/additional language interchangeably and without differentiating among them, only highlighting the difference between L2 and the native language (L1).