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The effect of perception of teacher characteristics on Spanish EFL Learners' Anxiety and Enjoyment¹

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<ABSTRACT>

The present study explores the relationship between Foreign Language Enjoyment (FLE) and Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCA) and a number of teacher-centered variables within the Spanish classroom context. Participants were 210 former and current EFL learners from all over Spain who filled out an online questionnaire with Likert scale items. A moderate negative relationship emerged between FLE and FLCA. Participants who had a L1 user of English as teacher reported more FLE and less FLCA than those with a foreign language user of English. Teacher characteristics predicted close to 20% of variance in FLE but only 8% of variance in FLCA. The strongest positive predictor of FLE was teacher's friendliness while teacher's foreign accent was a weaker negative predictor. Teacher-centered variables predicted much less variance for FLCA. Participants experienced more FLCA with younger teachers, very strict teachers and teachers who did not use the FL much in class. The findings confirm earlier research that FLE seems to be more dependent on the teachers' pedagogical skills than FLCA (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2019a; Dewaele et al., 2018).

Keywords: Foreign Language Enjoyment, Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety, teacher age, teacher gender, teacher accent, teacher Foreign Language use, teacher strictness, teacher first/foreign language user

Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) indicated that research into emotions in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) had long been overlooked due to the cognitivist foundations of the field and noted that it is about time to overcome this 'emotional deficit'. The present

paper forms part of a new wave of research in SLA that is filling the emotional gap. The interest in emotion in SLA predates the emergence of Positive Psychology in the field (Arnold, 1999; Dewaele, 2005, 2011; Dewaele & Pavlenko, 2002; MacIntyre, 2002). However, Positive Psychology or the scientific study of positive human functioning and flourishing, has offered an excellent framework and basis for research into the emotions of foreign language learners and teachers. The principal argument of positive psychologists is that general psychology has concentrated on the negative and not on the positive, and that it is important to boost positive emotions, cultivate greater engagement, and increase the appreciation of meaning in life and its activities (MacIntyre & Mercer, 2014). Positive Psychology supports a more holistic perspective on humans, which for SLA translates as shifting away from the exclusive focus on negative emotions, foreign language classroom anxiety (FLCA), and taking into equal consideration learners' positive emotions, foreign language enjoyment (FLE) (Dewaele & Li, 2018; Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; Dewaele et al., 2016; Saito et al., 2018). Research on emotions in SLA is blooming and booming, reflected in increasing numbers of special issues and edited books on the topic (Arnold, 2011; Berdal-Masuy & Pairon, 2015; Berdal-Masuy, 2018, 2019; Dewaele & Li, 2018).

One intriguing avenue of research is that of the relative weight of learner-internal and learner-external variables (such as peers and teacher) on FLE and FLCA. Dewaele et al. (2018) showed that teachers have a stronger effect on their students' FLE than on their FLCA. Similarly, Jin and Dewaele (2018) found that teacher emotional support had no effect on adult Chinese EFL learners' FLCA but that high levels of learners' positive orientation combined with strong emotional support from peers were linked to significantly lower levels of FLCA. Such research

has important pedagogical implications, as it can help teachers create the optimal emotional climate in their classrooms.

The present study expands this investigation into sources of FLE and FLCA by considering teacher characteristics that have not been investigated before, such as the FL teacher's foreign accent and teacher's friendliness/strictness. Participants are 210 Spanish EFL learners' who filled out an online questionnaire about their anxiety and enjoyment in English classes.

<A>LITERATURE REVIEW

A note on our terminology is needed at this point. Rather than adopting the outdated dichotomy "Native Speaker" and "Non Native Speaker" teachers, we will talk about EFL teachers who are First language users ("L1 users" - i.e. those who acquired English before the age of 3) and those who are Foreign language users ("LX users" - i.e. those who acquired English after the age of 3). Dewaele (2018a) argued that the term "Native Speaker" carries unwanted ideological overtones and is typically understood as referring to somebody with quasi-mythical maximal competence/proficiency in the L1. LX users are legitimate users of the LX, and whether they deviate or not from the L1 norm (having a foreign accent for example) is of little importance. The crucial point is that L1 and LX users use the language, and that both can vary on the language proficiency continuum over a range of skills. We thus completely agree with Moussu (2010) who stated that "English proficiency and teaching skills should no longer be defined by the ambiguous notion of native versus nonnative speaker" (p. 746), a view already voiced by Cook (1999).

Research on language learning anxiety in SLA flourished in the late 1970s. However, these early studies, described by MacIntyre (2017) as the 'Confounded Approach', produced inconsistent results, since the concept of language anxiety was

not yet clearly understood. The field moved into a second phase, called the 'Specialized Approach' (MacIntyre, 2017), with Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) who defined FLCA as: "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings and behaviors related to classroom learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (p. 128). Horwitz further explained that students who face FLCA "have the trait of feeling state anxiety when participating in language learning and/or use" (Horwitz, 2017, p. 33). The field is now in its third phase, the so-called "Dynamic Approach" influenced by complexity and dynamic system theory:

This new, emerging tradition emphasizes situating anxiety among the multitude of interacting factors that affect language learning and development. Anxiety is continuously interacting with a number of other learner, situational and other factors including linguistic abilities, physiological reactions, self-related appraisals, pragmatics, interpersonal relationships, specific topics being discussed, type of setting in which people are interacting and so on (MacIntyre, 2017, p. 23).

Foreign language anxiety can be "highly detrimental to the learning process" (MacIntyre, 2017, p. 150). The realization that negative emotions hinder L2 learning is not new. Krashen (1982) claimed that learners have an affective filter that regulates "the degree to which the acquirer is 'open'" (p. 9). When the filter is 'up', a learner's understanding and processing of language input is reduced. To bring learners' filters down, teachers were encouraged to spark interest, provide low-anxiety environments, and bolster learners' self-esteem (Krashen, 1982, p. 10). Similarly, Schumann's (1978) acculturation hypothesis maintained that enough contact and integration in the target language community would enable the learner to process and absorb the target language (TL) if "he is psychologically open to the

TL such that input to which he is exposed becomes intake” (p. 29). Fredrickson’s (2003) broaden-and-build theory suggests that positive emotions can “broaden people’s momentary thought-action repertoires and build their enduring personal resources, ranging from physical and intellectual resources to social and psychological resources” (p. 219). The positive psychologist added that positive emotions encourage creativity, play, curiosity and exploration, behaviors that are considered extremely advantageous to learning.

MacIntyre and Gregersen (2012) suggested that positive emotions can undo the effects of negative emotions, since the latter-mentioned causes inadequate concentration and limits the potential language input. They argued that learners who experience positive emotions easily acclimatize to the events in the language classroom, becoming more aware of language input and consequently absorbing better the FL better. Positive emotions positively affect learners’ long-term resilience and hardiness, encouraging learners to explore and take measured risks that boost social cohesion. One such complex positive emotion is enjoyment, which Boudreau, MacIntyre and Dewaele (2018) distinguished from the more basic experience of pleasure: “If pleasure can occur simply by performing an activity or completing an action, enjoyment takes on additional dimensions such as an intellectual focus, heightened attention, and optimal challenge” (p. 153). FLE is a prerequisite for flow experiences in the classroom (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2019b).

Dewaele and MacIntyre (2014) studied 1740 FL learners across a varied range of ages and from different parts of the world. The authors introduced a new FLE scale which included Likert scales of 21 items combined with an 8-item FLCA scale that was extracted from the FLCAS (Horwitz et al., 1986). FLE and FLCA were linked to a number of independent variables showing that significantly higher levels

of FLE and significantly less FLCA were experienced by those who: (a) knew more languages, (b) felt that they were performing better than their peers, (c) had achieved higher FL proficiency, (d) were older and (e) studied at tertiary education. The results also revealed that FLE and FLCA shared a moderate negative correlation ($r = -.36$, $p < .0001$, $r^2 = 12.9\%$), suggesting that even though FLE and FLCA are connected to a certain extent, they are indeed independent dimensions (p. 248). On an open-ended section of the questionnaire, 1076 participants reported their views on episodes of enjoyment in the FL class, revealing the importance of a supportive peer group and teachers' professional and emotional skills. The participants also mentioned episodes where the teachers had been positive, respectful and well organized, had praised the learners, and had been funny and used humor judiciously, therefore playing an important part in the students' FLE. Students stated that their FLE levels also increased when engaging in unusual activities that provided them with a sense of autonomy and creativity to customize the activities according to their own interests. Similarly, a positive classroom atmosphere and a good relationship with their peers can be beneficial or detrimental to students' FLE.

A second study by Dewaele and MacIntyre (2016), which employed Principal Components Analysis of the same data, showed that three dimensions explained 45% of the variance, revealing also the independence of social and private FLE (i.e., students' positive feelings about their relationship with other peers vs. their own pride and happiness about their progress). FLCA explained 26% of the variance, the social FLE explained 13%, and private FLE 6%. In an effort to partially replicate the Dewaele and MacIntyre (2014) study within a single national context, and including teacher-centered variables, Dewaele et al. (2018) collected data from 189 secondary

school pupils in London UK, most of which were studying French as a FL. A moderate negative correlation emerged between FLE and FLCA ($r = -.194$, $p < .007$, $r^2 = 3.8\%$) (p. 9). FLCA turned out to be much less related to teacher-centered variables than FLE. Indeed, lower levels of FLCA were linked to being more advanced in the FL ($\eta^2 = .17$), higher relative standing among peers in the FL ($\eta^2 = .08$), and positive attitudes towards the FL ($\eta^2 = .07$). In contrast, higher levels of FLE were linked to significantly more positive attitudes towards the FL ($\eta^2 = .29$), the FL teacher ($\eta^2 = .27$), frequent use of the FL by the teacher ($\eta^2 = .12$), more time spent by pupils on speaking ($\eta^2 = .08$), and being more advanced in the FL ($\eta^2 = .07$). The pedagogical implication was that teachers need to boost learners' enthusiasm and enjoyment rather than trying to reduce FLCA while creating a friendly low-anxiety classroom atmosphere.

In a mixed-methods study that focused on the Chinese university context, Jiang and Dewaele (2018) found that FLE levels of 564 Chinese undergraduate EFL learners were comparable to those reported in Dewaele and MacIntyre (2014). However, their FLCA levels were higher, possibly because of the highly exam-oriented context. The negative correlation between FLE and FLCA was also stronger ($r = -.44$, $p < .0001$, $r^2 = .19$). The predictors of FLE were mainly teacher-related variables while FLCA was mostly predicted by learner-internal variables, confirming Dewaele et al. (2018). Qualitative analysis of episodes of emotional experiences also revealed that FLE was more likely to have been triggered by the teacher while FLCA originated more in the learners themselves.

A second mixed-methods study focused on Chinese high school EFL learners. Li, Jiang and Dewaele (2018) collected data from more than 2000 pupils using a new validated Chinese version of the FLE questionnaire. A 3-factor model

emerged from the FLE items (FLE-Private, FLE-Teacher, and FLE-Atmosphere). Participants scored highest on FLE Teacher, followed by FLE-Private and FLE-Atmosphere. Interview data showed that the individual experience of FLE is mainly shaped by learner-external variables such as teacher and peers. Li (2018) used the Chinese version of the FLE questionnaire to investigate individual differences and the dynamic interactions between emotions and EFL performance of 1718 high school pupils. She found a strong positive relationship between FLE and EFL learning achievement ($r = .511, p < .0001$) and a slightly weaker negative relationship between FLCA and EFL learning achievement ($r = -.335, p < .0001$) (p. 81). A negative relationship also existed between FLE and FLCA ($r = -.426, p < .001$) (p. 85). Parallel multiple mediator models revealed that FLE and FLCA mediate the relationships between emotional intelligence and self-perceived English proficiency, and between emotional intelligence and English achievement.

Revisiting the same data from Dewaele et al. (2018), Dewaele and Dewaele's (2017) pseudo-longitudinal study investigated the FLE and FLCA changes over time, adopting a dynamic approach. The authors compared three groups of students divided according to age (12-13 years old; 14-15 years old; 16-18 years old) and found a moderate increase over time in FLE ($\eta^2 = .11$) and no significant variation in FLCA (p. 17). Further regression analyses revealed that fewer learner-internal and teacher-centered variables predicted FLE and FLCA at the start (relative standing explaining 28.1% of variance of FLE and language level explaining 24.6% of FLCA) and at the end of secondary education (attitude towards the teacher explaining 44.4% of variance in FLE and relative standing and teacher predictability explaining 30% of FLCA respectively) compared to the middle phase (attitude towards the FL followed by attitude towards the teacher, predictability of the teacher and the number

of languages known explaining 44.5% of variance in FLE and relative standing and teacher predictability explaining 20% of variance) (p. 18). These findings suggest that sources of FLE and FLCA are dynamic and changeable between the age of 12 and 18.

Similarly, Boudreau et al. (2018) showed that FLE and FLCA also fluctuate by the second during speech production in French L2, very often independently of each other, caused by dis/interest in the topic or linguistic obstacles. In other words, the relationship between FLE and FLCA was found to be highly dynamic, with varying patterns of correlation ranging from negative to positive in the course of a single minute.

In their quest to better understand the nature and the relationship between FLE and FLCA, Dewaele and MacIntyre (2019a) added a number of independent variables to the research design, including five personality traits and a number of teacher characteristics such as attitude towards the teacher, strictness, friendliness, FL use in class, predictability and joking. They collected quantitative and qualitative data from 750 FL learners from around the world via an online questionnaire. A moderate negative correlation between FLE and FLCA confirmed earlier findings ($r = -.28$, $p < .0001$, $r^2 = 7.8\%$). Female participants were found to score higher on FLCA but no significant differences emerged for FLE. Multiple regression analyses revealed that teacher-related variables (attitude towards the teacher, friendliness, joking) were the strongest predictors of FLE with Cultural Empathy being the strongest learner-internal variable (explaining a total of 40% of variance). In contrast, two personality traits, Emotional Stability versus Neuroticism and Social Initiative versus Introversiveness were the strongest negative predictors of FLCA, followed by a number of variables (relative standing in the group, number of languages known, FL

level, and attitude towards the teacher), which explained a total of 44% of variance. Thematic analysis of participants' descriptions of classroom episodes in which they had experienced intense FLE and FLCA showed that the most frequent cause of FLE was the teacher while FLCA episodes were mostly frequently linked to the self. The separate quantitative and qualitative analyses thus both confirmed the independence of the FLE and FLCA dimensions.

The central role of teachers in the classroom has also been investigated by education researchers (Arnold, 1999; Borg, 2006; Dewaele, 2015; Gkonou & Mercer, 2017, 2018; Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2014). Teachers who manage to create an emotionally safe and positive atmosphere in their FL class boost their students' wellbeing and FL development (Cuéllar & Oxford, 2018). Progress in the FL occurs when good chemistry exists not only among students, but also among students and the FL teacher, this latter being responsible for delivering effective pedagogical practices and encouraging linguistic experimentation whilst supporting and promoting group solidarity. Teachers are able to control certain aspects of the emotional atmosphere in class, but not all, including their attitudes toward students. The teacher's gender might be a factor, as Split, Koomen and Jak (2012) showed that "female teachers reported better (i.e. more close, less conflictual, and less dependent) relationships with students than male teachers" (p. 363).

Dewaele and Mercer's (2017) study based on feedback from 513 EFL teachers showed that those with higher Trait Emotional Intelligence had more positive attitudes towards their students. A separate study on the same database showed that high Trait Emotional Intelligence also corresponded with higher levels of self-reported creativity, classroom management, and pedagogical skills (Dewaele, Gkonou, & Mercer, 2018). A final study on the same database (Dewaele, 2018c)

considered the effects of the four facets of Trait Emotional Intelligence (well-being, emotionality, self-control, and sociability) on teachers' love of English, attitudes towards their students and institution, self-reported classroom practices, enjoyment, unpredictability and creativity. Well-being and sociability were found to be significantly positively correlated with most dependent variables while emotionality and self-control were significantly correlated with fewer dependent variables. Emotionality was significantly positively correlated with the English proficiency of English LX users but not to that of the English L1 users.

Derwing and Munro (2009) explained that L2 speakers interact in the L2 with varying degrees of accent strength differing phonetically from utterances of L1 users. Given that even LX users with very early age of acquisition (e.g., 3 years) may demonstrate detectable L1 influence while speaking an L2 (Flege, Munro, & MacKay, 1995), foreign accent is a normal characteristic of L2 speech. Even though accent strength is considered independent from L2 competence (Cook, 1999), it has been proven that accent strength can generate negative feelings and biases among the interactants (Gluszek & Dovidio, 2010; Munro, 2003). Moreover, the general impression gleaned from studies on accented speech among L2 speakers of English also indicates that accented English is perceived negatively compared to a native accent in regard to social status, educational background and intelligence (Cargile et al., 1994). L2 speakers of English also have been found not to show much solidarity with foreign accented English from speakers from their own L1 background and to rate accents that are closer to standard British English to be more prestigious (Beinhoff, 2013). Dewaele and McCloskey (2015) found that the attitudes of 2035 multilingual participants towards their own and other people's foreign accents were linked to psychological factors such as extraversion, emotional stability, tolerance of

ambiguity, as well as socio-biographical factors such as experience with ethnically diverse environments, having lived abroad, gender, education level and age.

Regarding students' attitudes towards their teachers' accents, there have been a number of survey studies documenting students' strong preference towards L1 users' accents in various foreign language classrooms (Tokumoto & Shibata, 2008) and taking classes taught by L1 user teachers rather than LX user teachers (Clark & Paran, 2007). Unfortunately, some learners perceive teachers with foreign accents to be less intelligent and less qualified (Butler, 2007) and certain administrators seem to be reluctant to hire LX user teachers (Mahboob & Golden, 2013). Not surprisingly, many LX user EFL teachers have concerns about their foreign accents (Golombeck & Jordan, 2005) and suffer from a lack of confidence (Florence Ma, 2012).

However, it is important to note that students' preference and attitude towards teachers could be a multifaceted phenomenon, as it can be affected by a range of factors especially related to teachers' level of professionalism despite their L1 background and physical appearance (Selvi, 2014). For example, Moussu's (2010) study revealed that students' impressions of their LX user EFL teachers became more positive over the semester. Even though students overtly reported their preference for the L1 user teachers, an implicit association test suggested that students equally valued L1 and LX user teachers. Liang's (2002) investigation of 20 university ESL students and six teachers with zero to fairly strong foreign accents showed that students were more concerned with their teachers' professional attributes than with their accents. The students believed that accent was not as problematic as expected, and generally accent did not negatively affect students' attitudes towards their LX user teachers. As Moussu and Llurda (2008) pointed out,

being qualified, prepared and professional were the features that played a key role in the students' judgments about their teachers.

What emerges from the literature review is that, whilst a plethora of research has been conducted on FLCA, the study of FLE in the FL classroom deserves further investigation, and it is especially important to look at both emotions simultaneously. Previous research has demonstrated that FL learners experience both negative and positive emotions in the FL classroom which are affected by a range of learner-internal and learner-external variables such as the relationship with peers, the classroom atmosphere, and the teachers' personal and pedagogical skills. What remains to be explored in more detail is the relationship between FL teachers' characteristics -as perceived by their students- and the level of FLE and FLCA of the latter.

<A>RESEARCH QUESTIONS

RQ1. What is the relationship between FLE and FLCA of Spanish EFL learners?

RQ2. Does the status of the teacher as L1 or LX user of English have an effect on FLE and FLCA of Spanish EFL learners?

RQ3. Does the gender of the teacher as L1 or LX user of English have an effect on FLE and FLCA of Spanish EFL learners?

RQ4. What is the effect of teacher age, strictness, friendliness, foreign accent, frequency of use of the FL on the FLE and FLCA of Spanish EFL learners?

<A>METHOD

Participants

Data were collected through snowball sampling, which is a form of non-probability sampling (Ness Evans & Rooney, 2013). An open-access anonymous online

questionnaire was used. Calls for participation were sent through emails to Spanish colleagues and informal contacts asking them to forward the link to colleagues and their students. The questionnaire remained online for two months in 2018.

A total of 210 participants (151 females, 58 males, 1 preferred not to say) completed the questionnaire. Participants were mostly young adults (Mean = 25.6, SD = 9.12), ranging from 18 to 63 years old. Most were Spanish and a few had dual nationalities. All participants reported having Spanish as their L1, which was often combined with other L1s, such as: Armenian, Basque, Catalan, Galician, Italian, Korean, Portuguese, Romanian, Russian and Valencian. The participants were from a wide range of provinces in Spain and were studying English as a FL at different levels of education, with 65% (n = 137) at university, 24% (n = 50) at secondary school, and the remaining participants were in other institutions including private academies and the Official Languages School, *Escuela Oficial de Idiomas* (EOI). Participants were also asked to report their results on their last major FL (English) test. The average grade was 76.6% (SD = 17), which suggests they were good students.

Instrument

The online questionnaire started with a demographics section from which the information above was retrieved. The next section started with a question whether the FL teacher was a L1 user of English. A minority of participants had L1 users (n = 52) and a majority had LX users (n = 153) while the remaining 5 participants were unsure. Two further questions enquired about the teacher's gender (16 participants had a male teacher, 68 had a female teacher) and age group (4 had a teacher in their twenties, 57 had a teacher in their thirties, 101 had a teacher in their forties, 41 had a teacher in their fifties and 7 had a teacher in their sixties. Following this, participants were asked to rate on a five-point Likert scale how strict their FL teacher was. Possible answers ranged from "not strict at all" (value 1), to "a little strict" (2), "rather strict" (3), "strict" (4) and "very

strict" (5). The mean score on the Likert scale was 2.7 (SD = 1.1). The next question asked how friendly the FL teacher was. Possible answers ranged from: "very unfriendly" (value 1), "unfriendly" (2), "neutral" (3), "friendly" (4) and "very friendly" (5). The mean score was 4.0 (SD = 1.0). The following question inquired about frequency of use of the FL in class by the teacher. Possible answers ranged from "hardly ever" (value 1), "not very often" (2), "sometimes" (3), "usually" (4) and "all the time" (5). The mean score on the Likert scale was 4.4 (SD = 0.9). The final question in this section asked whether the teacher had a foreign accent in the FL. The responses ranged from "not at all" (value 1), "a little" (2), "moderate" (3), "quite strong" (4) and "very strong" (5). The mean score was 2.0 (SD = 1.1).

Participants were then invited to complete 10 items extracted from the Foreign Language Enjoyment questionnaire that contained 21 items (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014). They were selected to capture the reliability of the original scale without sacrificing the reliability of the measurement. They included items reflecting the two FLE dimensions: Social FLE and Private FLE (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2016) and excluded teacher-centered items. Possible responses ranged from: "strongly disagree" (value 1), "disagree" (2), "undecided" (3), "agree" (4), "strongly agree" (5). Items that referred to the teacher in the original scale were not included. All items were positively phrased. A scale analysis revealed high internal consistency (Cronbach alpha = .87). The mean score for FLE was 3.9 (SD = 0.5).

Another eight items were extracted from the FLCAS and reflected physical symptoms of anxiety, nervousness and lack of confidence (Horwitz et al., 1986). They also captured the reliability of the original scale (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014). Two FLCA items were phrased to indicate low anxiety and six were phrased to reflect high anxiety (see Appendix A and B). The low-anxiety items were reverse-coded so that high scores reflect high anxiety for all items in this measure. A scale analysis of the whole

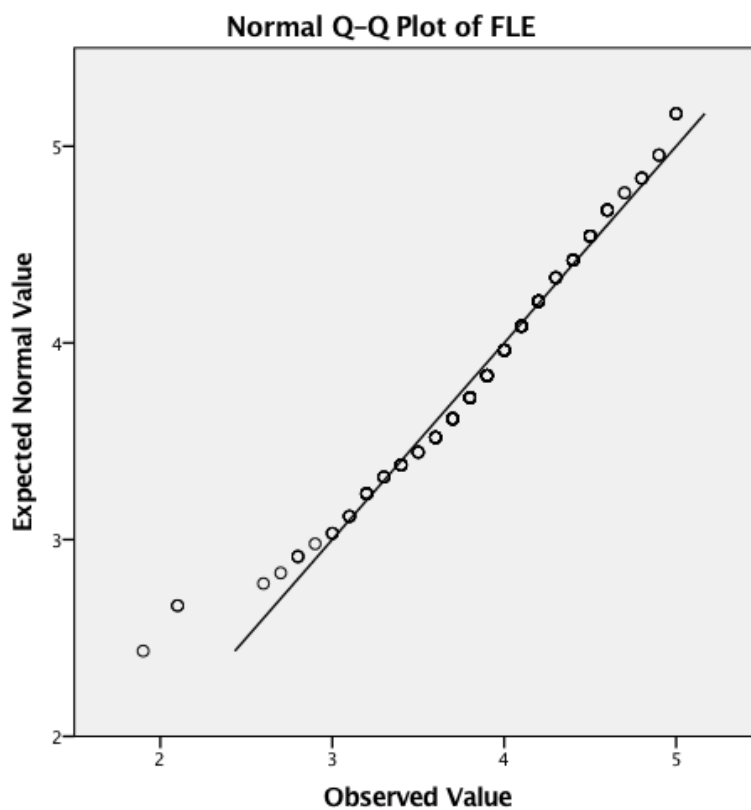
dataset revealed high internal consistency (Cronbach alpha = 0.85). The mean score was 2.8 ($SD = 1.0$).

A one-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test revealed that the distribution was close to normal distribution for FLE ($KS = 1.3, p < 0.04$) and for FLCA ($KS = 0.8, p = 0.39$). The calculation of Q-Q plots (figure 1 and 2) suggests that they follow a normal distribution reasonably well except for the extreme tail for FLCA (values below 1) and the region below 2.5 for FLE. We thus opted for the more powerful parametric statistics.

<INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE>

FIGURE 1

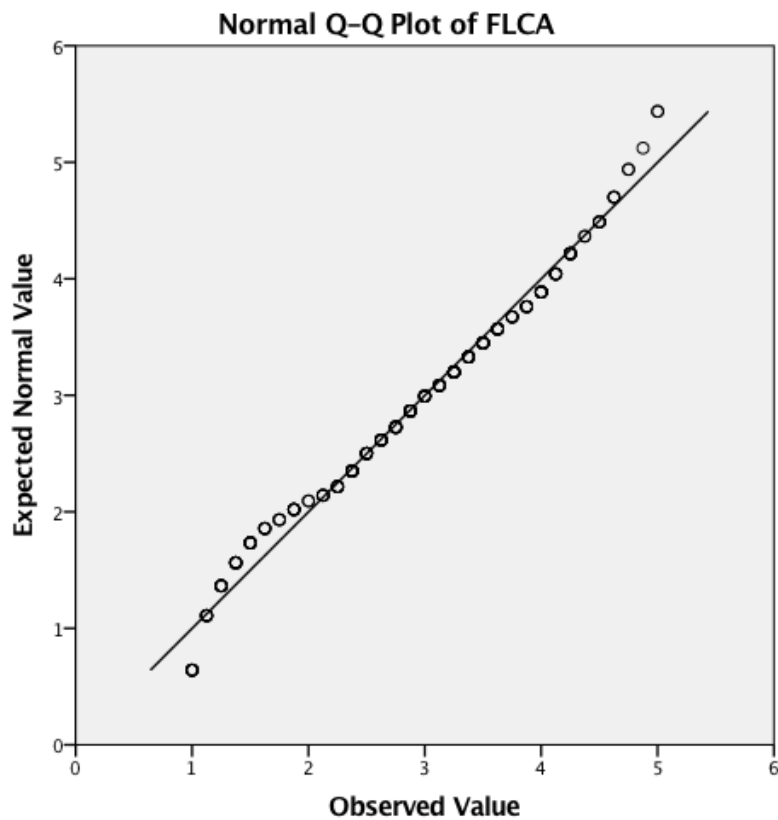
Normal Q-Q plot of FLE



<INSERT FIGURE 2 ABOUT HERE>

FIGURE 2

Normal Q-Q plot of FLCA



The questionnaire was anonymous: no names of participants or their teachers were collected. The research design and questionnaire obtained approval from the Ethics Committee in the authors' research institution. Each participant's individual consent was obtained at the start of the survey that was posted online using GoogleDocs.

<A>RESULTS

FLE and FLCA

A Pearson correlation analysis revealed a significant negative relationship between FLCA and FLE ($r(208) = -.212, p < .002$). Participants with higher scores on FLE

showed lower scores on FLCA. Looking at the strength of this relationship, these two variables share only 4.4% of the variance, which is considered a small effect size (Plonsky & Oswald, 2014).

Teacher as L1 or LX user of English

An independent t-test revealed that levels of FLE were significantly higher among the 52 participants with teachers who were L1 users of English (*Mean* = 4.08, *SD* = .52) compared to the 67 participants with teachers who were LX users of English (*Mean* = 3.76, *SD* = .60) ($t(117) = 3.11, p < .002$, Cohen's $d = .570$). Participants with English LX teachers also reported significantly higher levels of FLCA (*Mean* = 2.97, *SD* = 1.01) than those with English L1 teachers (*Mean* = 2.47, *SD* = .60) ($t(117) = -2.73, p < .007$, Cohen's $d = .606$). These are small-to-medium effect sizes according to Plonsky and Oswald (2014).

Teacher's gender

An independent t-test revealed that levels of FLE were unrelated to teacher's gender. The 147 participants with female teachers had similar levels of FLE (*Mean* = 3.92, *SD* = .50) compared to the 54 participants with male teachers (*Mean* = 3.91, *SD* = .63) ($t(199) = -.149, p = ns$). Similarly, participants with female teachers had similar levels of FLCA (*Mean* = 2.87, *SD* = 1.1) compared to the participants with male teachers (*Mean* = 2.80, *SD* = .84) ($t(199) = -.451, p = ns$).

Other teacher characteristics

To identify the significant relationships between teacher characteristics and FLE/FLCA, we ran preliminary Pearson correlation analyses (see Table 1). Four out of 5 independent variables were linked significantly with FLE, and two out of 5 independent variables were linked significantly with FLCA (see table 1). All the independent variables that were significantly related to the dependent variables were included in a linear

regression analysis in order to identify the strongest predictors of FLE and FLCA. The regression analysis can remove redundancy from the predictor variables to see which are retained compared to the zero-order correlations.

<INSERT TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE>

TABLE 1

Pearson correlation analyses between independent variables and FLE / FLCA

	FLE	FLCA
Age group	.444***	-.098
Strictness	-.078	.181**
Friendliness	.416***	-.091
Accent	-.271***	.019
FL Use	.199**	-.157*

*p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .0001

In order to verify the degree of inter-correlation between the independent variables, we ran a Pearson correlation analysis (see table 2). The results show that none of the variables shared more than 9.6% of variance. This means there is no danger of multicollinearity in the regression analysis (see table 3). Green (1991) suggests that the minimum sample size for any regression should be 50, with an additional 8 observations per term. This means the minimum sample size for 4 independent variables is 82, which is well below our sample size of 210.

Interestingly, older teachers were perceived to be stricter. Strictness was inversely related to friendliness. Friendliness was related to more FL use and less of a foreign accent. A stronger foreign accent was related to less frequent FL use in class.

<INSERT TABLE 2 ABOUT HERE>

TABLE 2

Inter-correlations between the independent variables

	Strictness	Friendliness	FL use	Accent
1. Age	.18**	-.10	.07	.07
2. Strictness		-.30***	.07	.04
3. Friendliness			.23**	-.30***
4. FL use				-.31***

** $p < .01$, *** $p < .0001$

Multiple regression analysis (enter method) was used. Values for the variance inflation factor (VIF), which quantifies the severity of multicollinearity, hover around 1, which suggest there is no problem (Kutner et al., 2004, p. 409).

A significant regression equation was found for FLE, indicating that two variables predicted 20% of the variance (Adjusted $R^2 = 19.0$, $F(2\ 207) = 43.6$, $p < .0001$). The strongest predictors were friendliness ($Beta = .368$, $t = 5.7$, $p < .0001$), followed by accent ($Beta = -.163$, $t = -2.5$, $p < .013$). In other words, teachers' friendliness boosted FLE but the strength of the foreign accent depressed FLE. The effect size could be described as small (Plonsky & Ghanbar, 2018).

A significant regression equation was also found for FLCA, indicating that three variables predicted 8.4% of the variance (Adjusted $R^2 = 7.0$, $F(3\ 206) = 6.3$, $p < .0001$). The strongest predictors were strictness ($Beta = .219$, $t = 3.2$, $p < .001$), followed by FL use ($Beta = -.162$, $t = -2.4$, $p < .016$) and teacher age ($Beta = -.152$, $t = -2.2$, $p < .027$). In other words, participants experienced more FLCA with younger

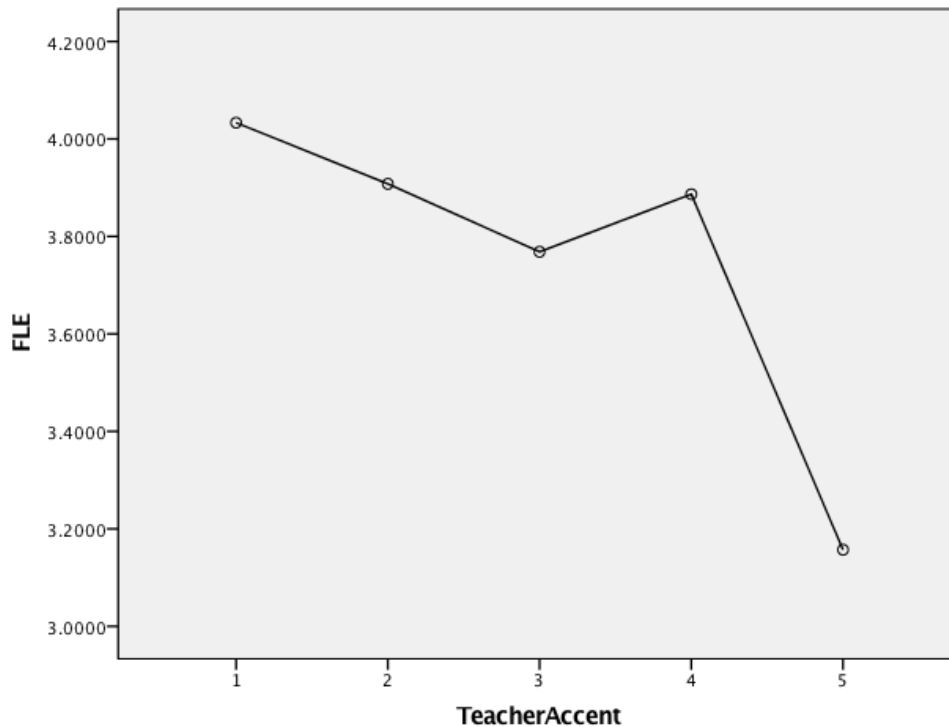
teachers, very strict teachers and teachers who did not use the FL much in class. However, the effect size is substantially small (Plonsky & Ghanbar, 2018).

Considering the fact that it is perfectly normal for a teacher who is a LX user to have a foreign accent (Dewaele, 2018a), we decided to run an additional analysis to determine to what extent learners' FLE levels drop with higher levels of foreign accent. An ANOVA with FLE as dependent variable and teacher accent as independent variable confirmed the existence of a significant effect ($df = 4$, $F(4, 205) = 5.88$, $p < .0001$, $\eta^2 = .10$). A close look at the means shows a slow decline with a steeper drop at the top of the accentedness scale (see figure 3). A Scheffé post-hoc comparison revealed that the only differences to be significant between levels of foreign accent were between "1 = no foreign accent at all" ($p < .001$) or "2 = a little accent" ($p < .013$) and a "5 = strong foreign accent".

<INSERT FIGURE 3 ABOUT HERE>

FIGURE 3

The effect of teacher accent on learners' FLE

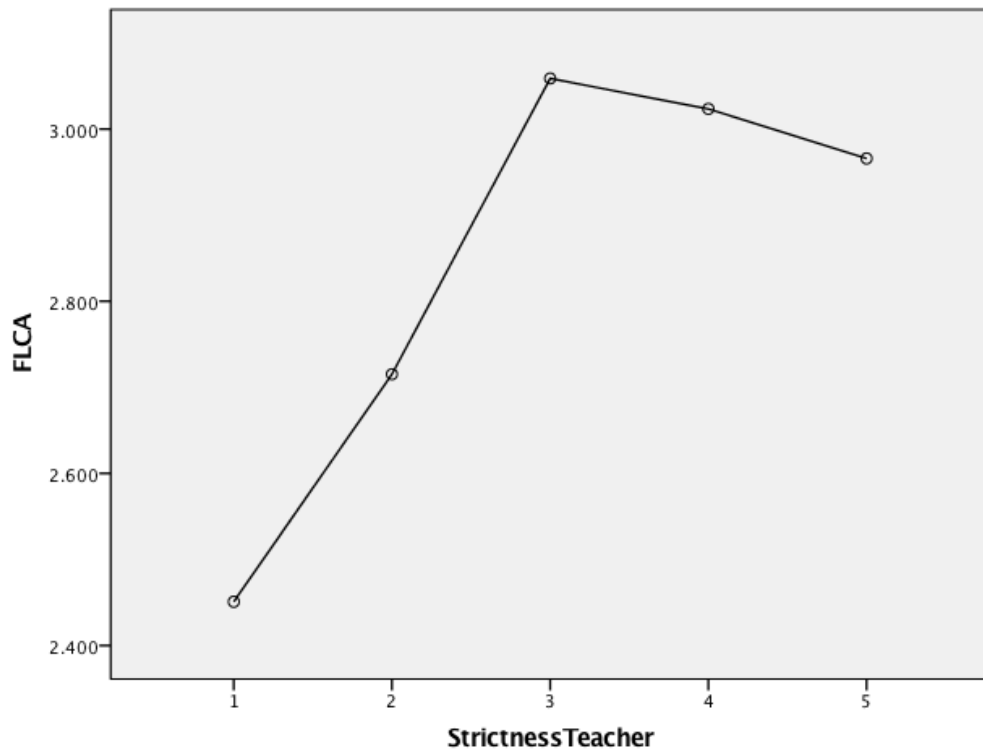


In order to find out whether the link between teacher's strictness and FLCA is linear, we ran a final ANOVA with FLCA as dependent variable and teacher strictness as independent variable. The effect was only marginally significant ($df = 4$, $F(4, 205) = 2.39$, $p = .052$, $\eta^2 = .045$). A closer look at the means shows a steady increase in FLCA up to "3 = rather strict", after which the trend levels off (see figure 4). A Scheffé post-hoc comparison revealed no significant differences between levels of strictness.

<INSERT FIGURE 4 ABOUT HERE>

FIGURE 4

The effect of teacher strictness on learners' FLCA



<A>DISCUSSION

The first research question focused on the relationship between FLE and FLCA. A small but significant negative correlation was found between the emotional dimensions, with both sharing 4.4% of the variance. This shared variance is even lower than that found in Dewaele and MacIntyre (2014) and comparable to that found in Dewaele et al. (2018), further confirming that even though FLE and FLCA are related, they are separate emotions and not opposite ends of the same dimension. These results indicate that students with high FLE levels tend to experience lower FLCA levels but it could also happen that students experience high levels of both emotions, as well as low levels of both. For instance, students may

present ambivalent feelings during the FL class, thus experiencing enjoyment from certain aspects and anxiety from others (Dewaele et al., 2016). Conversely, disengaged students may present both low enjoyment and low anxiety in the FL classroom.

The second research question focused on the effect of having an L1 versus an LX user of English as teacher. Participants with teachers who were L1 users of English reported significantly higher levels of FLE and lower levels of FLCA than participants with teachers who were LX users of English. It thus seems that teachers who L1 users of English managed the emotions of their students better than their LX user peers. This could be seen as partial support for Moussu (2010) who found that when asked overtly (as was the case in the present study), students reported a preference for L1 user teachers. It also fits with previous research that showed that learners prefer L1 users as FL teachers (e.g., Clark & Paran, 2007). However, this result needs to be interpreted with great caution for several reasons. First, the effect size was small. Second, less than half of our participants answered this question. It is possible that for many participants it was impossible to know whether their teacher was a L1 or an LX user. It is therefore possible that teachers who stood out on either end of this dimension were more likely to be identified. The difference between L1 and LX teachers might therefore be strongly diluted if more teachers had been included that could not be clearly identified as either L1 or LX users. Second, although the participants in our study who answered the question about their teachers L1/LX status reported a preference towards L1 user teachers, certain scholars (e.g., Moussu & Llorca, 2008) have argued that students' attitude towards teachers can be most strongly linked to the extent to which they are well prepared, qualified and passionate towards teaching. We need to acknowledge that our data

does not allow us to speculate whether the participants' preference for L1 user teachers over LX user teachers could be ascribed to the L1/LX status or to the degree of professionalism. Third, it is important to remember that many LX user teachers have concerns about their foreign accented speech and demonstrate the lack of confidence/willingness to use the target language (Florence Ma, 2012). Thus, students may show less enjoyment with LX user teachers not because of their LX status, but because of their lack of confidence/willingness to use the target language. When LX teachers have any negative perception towards their own proficiency or/and teaching, it may in turn hinder LX teachers' competence to create enjoyable classroom environments, wherein students are encouraged to use the LX to complete a range of meaningful, interesting and challenging tasks. Finally, considering that less than half of participants provided the information on the L1/LX status of their teacher, it is also important to interpret the finding with great caution.

The third research question about the effect of teacher's gender showed that this variable was not linked to any significant differences in participants' FLE and FLCA. This finding contradicts Split et al. (2012) and Dewaele and Mercer (2018) who found that female teachers reported more positive attitudes towards their students than their male peers, but echoes the finding in Dewaele, Gkonou and Mercer (2018) that male and female EFL teachers reported similar levels of self-reported creativity, classroom management, pedagogical skills and predictability.

The fourth research question dealt with the effect of teacher characteristics -in the form of continuous variables- on participants' FLE and FLCA. Multiple regression analyses revealed that two teacher characteristics, friendliness and accent, predicted close to 20% of variance in FLE (a small effect size), while three teacher characteristics, strictness, FL use and age predicted only 8% of variance in FLCA (a

very small effect size). This confirms earlier findings about the bigger influence teachers have over their students' FLE than over their FLCA, everywhere in the world (cf. Dewaele et al., 2018; Jiang & Dewaele, 2018; Li, 2018). Dewaele and MacIntyre (2019a) argue that the reason for this is that FLCA is more strongly linked to learners' personality traits (Neuroticism and Introversion) than FLE which is more strongly predicted by learner-external factors such as attitude towards the teacher and his/her friendliness, and by the learner's personality trait Cultural Empathy. Additionally, no relationship was found between the attitude towards the teacher and FLCA. Our findings also revealed that learners reported lower FLCA with teachers who are not strict, though the relationship was found to be non-linear: the highest FLCA occurred with teachers who were "rather strict". Teachers' friendliness was found to foster learners' FLE. This finding is common-sense and yet fundamental: teachers being friendly with students boost their enjoyment of the class. It contributes to the creation of a positive, non-threatening atmosphere in the classroom which enhances students' ability to absorb the FL (Dewaele, 2011, 2015, Li, 2018). Indeed, students value teachers who are happy, positive, humorous, respectful, and well organized (Arnold, 2011; Cuéllar & Oxford, 2018; Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; Gkonou & Mercer, 2017, 2018).

To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study to have investigated the relationship between teacher's FL accent and the levels of FLE and FLCA. Teachers' foreign accent was found to have a negative effect on FLE but had no effect on FLCA. A closer analysis showed that levels of FLE dropped significantly for teachers with a "strong foreign accent." It thus suggests that learners' FLE did not suffer much with teachers who had mild to fairly strong foreign accents, confirming Moussu's (2010) finding that students equally valued L1 and LX user teachers

according to an implicit test. This adds an important element to previous research (Butler, 2007; Golombek & Jordan, 2005), namely that below a fairly high threshold, learners' FLE do not mind their teacher's foreign accent. However, the strong foreign accent might not be the direct cause of the lower levels of FLE. The correlation analysis in table 2 showed that the strength of the teacher's foreign accent was significantly negatively linked to teacher's friendliness and FL use. In other words, teachers with a strong accent were perceived to be less friendly and less willing to use the FL in class. This behavior could arise from their lower proficiency and, possibly, their linguistic insecurity in the FL. Teachers with a strong foreign accent might suffer from the stigma attached to it, and by extension experience stress because their lower FL proficiency (Gluszek & Dovidio, 2010; Munro, 2003). As Mussa and Llorca (2008) put it, "it is normally assumed that the greater the language proficiency, the better the teacher" (p. 339). A number of interacting teacher characteristics could thus be at play resulting in the dampening of their learners' FLE. Accent perception is dynamic and may change over time (Moussu, 2010), so the initial negative perception of the teacher may change when students start appreciating other teachers' characteristics such as professionalism, personality, emotional intelligence, accurate linguistic knowledge of the FL, or empathy (Liang, 2002; Mahboob, 2003). Moreover, students' appraisal of teachers' accents may change over time.

Another interesting finding in the present study was that higher frequency of FL use by the teacher was related to higher levels of FLE but did not affect FLCA. This mirrors the patterns uncovered in Dewaele et al. (2018).

The non-random selection process is a limitation in the present study: self-selected participants do not represent the general population (Dewaele, 2018b) and

we can hence not generalize the findings to all Spanish EFL learners. Our sample has undoubtedly a higher proportion of good and enthusiastic FL learners who wanted to share their experience than the average EFL classroom in Spain. Weaker and unhappy students were less likely to fill out a 20-minute questionnaire on their EFL experience. Nevertheless, Wilson and Dewaele (2010) posited that feedback from volunteers is always of a better quality than that from those who are forced to complete a questionnaire, so the positive bias in self-selection could be considered a limitation as well as a strength.

We do keep in mind that the effect sizes in the present study are small, which suggests that many other variables (including learner-internal variables and other learner-external variables like peers or educational context) account for variation in FLE and FLCA. It is important to point out that the aim of the study was not to explain as much variance in FLE and FLCA as possible but rather compare the relative weight of teacher characteristics on FLE and FLCA.

The pedagogical implication of the present study, complementing previous research, is that FL teachers' friendly behavior and a not too atrocious foreign accent combined with frequent use of the FL in class and avoidance of overly strict behavior might help them hit the emotional sweet spot of their (good) learners. FLE is linked to the introduction of novel and challenging activities in the classroom that match students' language levels and interests. These are typically activities where students have agency, where they develop a sense of autonomy and are encouraged to use their imagination. Teachers who are friendly, positive, humorous, happy, well-organized, competent, enthusiastic about the FL, encouraging and considerate will boost their learners' FLE (Arnold, 1999, 2011; Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014; Li, 2018; Oxford, 2016, 2017). Crucially, it is FLE rather than FLCA that is directly tied to the

product of successful L2 learning in classroom settings. Such positively-oriented students not only practice the FL often, but also make the most of every learning opportunity. Thus, even among a group of students under the same classroom conditions, those with greater FLE tend to demonstrate more substantial, robust and sustainable progress in their FL proficiency in the long run (Saito et al., 2018).

The cross-sectional design adopted in the present study can only provide a snapshot of a highly dynamic system with multiple interacting variables. To obtain a better understanding of the effects of teachers' characteristics on FLE and FLCA, a longitudinal design is necessary. It is possible that some characteristics that are quite salient, like foreign accent strength, may have a stronger effect on learners' FLE during the first classes and then gradually fades as learners' start to appreciate the strengths of their teacher and develop a relationship of mutual trust and empathy. Similarly, teacher strictness might have a stronger effect on FLCA at the very start of the course than later on, when learners realize that their teacher is both strict and empathetic.

<A>CONCLUSION

The present study confirmed that learners' enjoyment and anxiety are not at opposite ends of a single emotion dimension. Although higher levels of FLE are typically linked to lower levels of FLCA, they can fluctuate and co-occur (Boudreau et al., 2018; Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014). The originality of the current study lies in the fresh evidence that teachers shape their learners' FLE to a larger extent than they shape learners' FLCA.

Two teacher characteristics (friendliness and foreign accent in English) explained close to 20% of variance in FLE, while three characteristics (teachers' age, strict behavior, and FL use in class) explained only 8% of variance in FLCA. This

strengthens previous findings that teachers are better able to boost their learners' FLE than to limit their FLCA (Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014, 2019a; Dewaele et al., 2018; Jiang & Dewaele, 2018). The effect teachers have on learners' emotions is partly intended and unintended. Age and foreign accent are largely outside of their control - though an extra pronunciation course might lessen a strong foreign accent and help achieve mildly accented, but highly comprehensible speech (Derwing & Munro, 2009). Classroom behavior is influenced by their personality, such as their trait emotional intelligence (cf. Dewaele, 2018c), which they cannot control, but also by their training and experience. Teachers may thus have realized that being friendly, not overly strict and encouraging everybody to use the FL frequently in class stimulates their learners' progress.

To conclude, teachers who create a positive emotional atmosphere in their FL classroom, allowing flow to occur, are like gardeners preparing the soil of a well-situated garden: they allow learners to develop deep roots and grow rapidly towards the sun.

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Appendix A

Foreign Language Enjoyment Scale

To what extent do you agree with the following statements?

Strongly disagree/ Disagree /Undecided/ Agree /Strongly agree

1. I don't get bored
2. I enjoy it
3. I'm a worthy member of the Foreign language class
4. In class, I feel proud of my accomplishments
5. It's a positive environment
6. It's cool to know a Foreign language
7. It's fun
8. The peers are nice
9. There is a good atmosphere
10. We laugh a lot

Appendix B

Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety

1. Even if I am well prepared for Foreign language class, I feel anxious about it
2. I always feel that the other students speak the Foreign language better than I do
3. I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in Foreign language class
4. I don't worry about making mistakes in Foreign language class (reverse)
5. I feel confident when I speak in Foreign language class (reverse)
6. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my Foreign language class
7. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in Foreign language class
8. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my Foreign language class