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# Do you wish to waive your rights? Affect and decision-making in multilingual speakers

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This paper reviews recent developments in the study of multilingualism and affect, with the focus on two active areas: affective processing and decision-making. The converging pattern of findings suggests that foreign (FL) and second language (L2) processing do not engage affect to the same extent as processing in the first language (L1). This decreased reliance on affect has been linked to the systematic finding that speakers dealing with moral dilemmas and financial scenarios in a foreign language are less concerned about negative consequences and less averse to risk. This finding, termed the *foreign language effect*, may have important implications for language policies in multilingual contexts but first future studies need to link them conclusively to affective processing and identify mechanisms that give rise to these effects.

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On December 30, 2004, a Russian national, Natasha, a student in a US university, walked into the police precinct to be interviewed as a witness in a murder investigation. An hour into the English-language interview, she was read her Miranda Rights and asked if she wished to waive her rights and keep talking. The waiver, read in a casual monotone voice, was framed by the interrogating detective as a mundane bureaucratic procedure, used with everyone, and triggered neither fear nor even anxiety. Serene and unaware that her status had just changed from a witness to the suspect, Natasha waived her rights in what turned out to be the worst decision of her life [1]. In the traditional modular view of the mind, where language, emotions and decision-making are independent of each other, the only person to blame for this decision is Natasha herself. Language processing, in this view, is *semantic processing*, that is encoding and decoding of

meanings, and a speaker who can hold a conversation in a second language (L2) should be able to compute the meaning of ‘You have the right to remain silent’ as ‘You don’t have to talk’ and make an informed decision.

A growing body of research suggests, however, that there is more to language processing than computation of meanings — our interpretations are also sensitive to verbal and non-verbal cues and discursive framing and integrate affect and simulation of sensory-motor content: verbs like *running*, *grabbing* or *throwing* activate the same parts of the brain as direct physical actions they refer to and words that refer to emotional experiences activate neural structures involved in feeling the emotions in question [2–5]. These ground-breaking findings called for a reappraisal of the cognitive architecture of the human mind and became the cornerstone of a new approach that views cognition as situated and grounded, language as embodied, language processing as simulated action, language learning as a statistical process linked to frequency of experiences and word representations as clusters of experience [2,4–8]. This approach raises an interesting question with regard to multilingualism and emotions: if affective responses to words and phrases are a function of individual experiences, how do we process languages in which had few or no emotional experiences?

## Four facets of affective processing in bilingual and multilingual speakers

Some words and phrases, like *book*, *chair*, or *Come in*, are fairly neutral, others, like *kitten*, *hug*, or *I love you* make us feel warm and fuzzy, and yet others, like *homework*, *spider*, or *You have the right to remain silent*, may trigger anxiety, aversion or fear. In psycholinguistic research, words and phrases that trigger positive or negative reactions are known as *emotion-laden* and emotional reactions to these words as *affective processing*. Note though that these terms, useful as shorthand, are also misleading because affect resides in speakers and hearers, not in words, and varies across speakers and situations: a diagnosis of *Alzheimer’s* or *cancer* triggers a much more powerful reaction than experimental exposure to the same words. Nevertheless, laboratory studies show that some words and phrases, and in particular taboo and swearwords, do trigger affective responses as a function of previous experiences. The key question in studies with bi-linguals and multilinguals is whether these responses are triggered similarly in the L1 and the L2, a collective term for all languages learned later in life. The answer is not easy because bi-linguals and multilinguals are a heterogeneous population and affective processing consists of four sub-processes, two

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of which are cognitively oriented and the other two linked to embodiment.

The first subprocess involves *assignment of affective valence*, that is categorization of individual words and phrases as positive, negative or neutral. In the L1, this process is automatic but is it the same in the L2? This question is usually addressed through behavioral methods, such as lexical decision tasks (i.e. word/non-word), where congruent conditions (e.g. negative–negative) are expected to facilitate processing and lead to faster reaction times than non-congruent ones (e.g. negative–positive), an effect known as *affective priming*. In bilinguals, semantic priming (e.g. bread-baker) is observed in both languages, while affective priming is evident only in participants with high levels of immersion and frequency of L2 use [9,10]. A longitudinal study of adult L2 learners further found that learners begun extracting affective valence in the first weeks of L2 learning but the integration of semantic and affective processing did not occur until 6 months into their stay in the L2 context [11\*\*].

Yet we do not simply assign valence — we also prioritize words that elicit affect, extracting them faster than neutral words from the perceptual stream and holding on to them longer [12]. The process of *perceptual prioritization* has been examined through lexical decision tasks, event-related potentials (ERPs), and the Emotional Stroop task, where participants are asked to identify the print color of negative (e.g. *shit* in blue ink) and neutral (e.g. *table* in red ink) words, with the expectation that aversive words are harder to ignore and slow down the naming of color. The findings show that bilinguals process negative and positive words faster than neutral words [12,13] and display amplified early posterior negativity — interpreted as attention shift toward words with affective relevance — in both languages, with a time lag in the L2, which indicates reduced automaticity [14]. Bilinguals confronted with self-related stimuli also produced faster and more accurate responses in both languages, but the magnitude of the self-bias effect was significantly smaller in the L2 [15]. Several studies also identified a difference between negative and positive words, interpreted as *positivity bias*: positive words in the L2 display greater affective priming and are processed faster than other words [11\*\*,12,16\*]. Negative L2 words, on the other hand, are easier to ignore, as seen in the Emotional Stroop task and ERP studies, where aversive words trigger interference only in the L1 [17\*,18,19,20\*,21].

Such stimuli may also elicit *heightened autonomic arousal*, whereby the brain upregulates the sympathetic nervous system, causing eccrine sweat glands to fill. Increased sweating, in turn, enhances electrical conductivity of the skin, also known as *electrodermal reactivity*, measured via fingertip electrodes. A transient increase in reactivity, following a presentation of a verbal stimulus is recorded as the *skin conductance response* (SCR) [22]. Studies with

monolinguals show that aversive words (e.g. *fuck*) elicit higher SCRs than euphemisms (e.g. *f-word*) and neutral words [23]. In late bilinguals, SCRs and the overall skin conductance level (SCL) are higher in the L1, especially for taboo words and childhood reprimands, while in the L2 we do not sweat the small stuff, or at least not as much [22,24–26]. SCR, however, is not a perfect measure, since electrodermal reactivity can also be affected by other factors, ranging from room temperature (we sweat in response to heat) to anxiety associated with tests, lying or speaking in the less proficient language [25].

To deepen their understanding of embodiment researchers are beginning to examine *emotion simulation* in bilingual speakers. In one study, positive sentences, such as ‘I am smiling’, activated the zygomatic muscle involved in smiling in both languages, albeit with reduced magnitude in the L2, while the effect of negative sentences was limited to the L1 [27\*]. In another, ‘happy’ passages from Harry Potter books in the L1 elicited stronger hemodynamic responses in bilateral amygdala and the left precentral cortex, associated with emotions [28\*].

Together, these findings show that automaticity of affective processing and the magnitude of effects in the L2 vary according to the type of stimuli (negative versus positive) and the subprocess in question. In the early stages, semantic processing is decoupled from the assignment of affective valence and somatovisceral responses. With the rise in the L2 proficiency and frequency of use, we see an increase in automaticity and integration of semantic and affective valence processing [9,11\*\*] and perceptual prioritization [12,13]. In contrast, somatovisceral responses may remain more pronounced in the L1 [24,26].

The integration of all four subprocesses is modulated by the age and context of L2 acquisition, language dominance and contexts and frequency of L2 use: L2-dominant bilinguals display both perceptual prioritization and heightened autonomic arousal in the L2 [12,22]. These findings suggest that affective processing in multilingual speakers constitutes a continuum between the dominant L1 and foreign languages learned in the classroom. In between are languages learned later in life through daily use. The reason for diminished affective processing in the foreign language lies in the fact that language classrooms do not offer many opportunities for integration of word representations with autobiographic memories and sensory modalities — as a result, foreign languages are experienced as ‘disembodied’ [29–31]. The question asked in recent research is whether such disembodied processing could influence the decisions we make.

### Moral judgments and decision-making in the first and second language

Decision-making is commonly influenced by affective reactions and in particular by anxiety, which tends to

215 increase our aversion to risk. The reduced affective  
 216 responses to aversive verbal stimuli in the L2 raised  
 217 intriguing questions about the role of language in deci-  
 218 sion-making and moral judgment in bi-lingual and multi-  
 219 lingual speakers. The paradigm-setting study by Keysar  
 220 and associates [32\*\*] used a task known as the Asian  
 221 disease problem, where participants have to select one  
 222 of two medicines to treat a disease and save lives. The  
 223 choices are framed either in positive terms (e.g. 200 lives  
 224 out of 600 will be saved) or in negative ones (e.g.  
 225 400 people out of 600 will die). The findings showed  
 226 that the responses were significantly influenced by the  
 227 language of the task. In the L1, the speakers displayed  
 228 risk aversion in the context that emphasized gains  
 229 (200 lives saved) and risk seeking in the context that  
 230 emphasized losses (400 people will die). In the foreign  
 231 language, this framing effect disappeared, with the dis-  
 232 appearance explained through decreased reliance on af-  
 233 fective processing — hence, the term the *foreign language*  
 234 *effect*.  
 235

236 The foreign language effect in decision-making was  
 237 then replicated by other researchers, with large and  
 238 diverse groups of participants and a variety of tasks,  
 239 lessening the likelihood of alternative explanations,  
 240 such as cultural priming or differential processing costs  
 241 [33\*,34\*\*,35\*\*,36\*,37\*,38,39\*,40\*,41, but see 42, 43].  
 242 One particularly popular task is a hypothetical, known  
 243 as the Footbridge Dilemma, that involves a situation,  
 244 where an on-coming train is about to kill five people.  
 245 The only way to save them is to push a heavy man off  
 246 the footbridge in front of the train but can you sacrifice  
 247 one life to save five? Studies with multilinguals found  
 248 that the utilitarian solution (kill one to save five) is  
 249 selected significantly more frequently in the foreign  
 250 language, with less proficient speakers making this  
 251 choice more frequently [33\*,34\*\*,37\*,42]. In contrast,  
 252 responses to non-moral and impersonal dilemmas  
 253 (where one pushes a switch to kill a person) did not  
 254 differ in the L1 and L2, nor did performance on logical  
 255 problems [33\*,34\*\*,35\*\*,37\*,40\*,42].  
 256

257 Moral judgment tasks also displayed the foreign language  
 258 effect: bilinguals asked to judge moral transgressions  
 259 provided more lenient evaluation in the L2 [36\*] and  
 260 participants asked to rate hazards, such as climate change  
 261 or traveling by airplane, judged the benefits higher and  
 262 the risks lower in the L2 [39\*]. In games of chance,  
 263 positive feedback in the L1 increased risk-taking behav-  
 264 ior (the ‘hot hand’ effect), in contrast, participants who  
 265 received positive feedback in the L2 responded slower  
 266 and took fewer gambles; the differential neural proces-  
 267 sing of the two languages was also reflected in ERP  
 268 components sensitive to emotional values [41]. This  
 269 converging pattern of findings suggests that bilinguals  
 270 are not always playing with a full deck in the L2 but what  
 271 does this mean for our everyday lives?

## 272 Implications and directions for future research

273 The reduced negativity of the L2 may be an advantage in  
 274 psychotherapy or trauma counseling, where we have to  
 275 discuss traumatic events [29–31] but in situations that  
 276 require detection of dangers and subtle threats, including  
 277 police interviews, L2 speakers are at a significant disad-  
 278 vantage. Take the phrase ‘You have the right to remain  
 279 silent’. In native speakers of English, this phrase triggers a  
 280 variety of negative associations: you are a suspect, you are  
 281 under arrest, it is time to call an attorney. In contrast,  
 282 Natasha, a native speaker of Russian and an international  
 283 student in the USA, was unfamiliar with the Miranda  
 284 rights and easily deceived by the framing of the waiver as  
 285 a trivial bureaucratic document, signed by everyone [1].  
 286 Familiarity aside, if the waiver were administered to her  
 287 in translation into her native Russian — whose terms  
 288 would have had fuller impact — she may not have signed  
 289 her rights away just as fast.  
 290

291 But before we draw implications for language policies, we  
 292 need to move beyond task effects toward identification of  
 293 mechanisms that give rise to these effects. To establish  
 294 conclusive links between affective processing and deci-  
 295 sion-making the field needs more studies that combine  
 296 behavioral, physiological and neuroimaging methods to  
 297 understand the unfolding of affective processing in real  
 298 time. To make recommendations for language policies,  
 299 we also need more longitudinal studies attentive to dif-  
 300 ferent subprocesses and studies that emulate communi-  
 301 cative situations. Most importantly, researchers need to  
 302 pay more attention to distinct characteristics of their bi-  
 303 lingual and multilingual participants. Most studies divide  
 304 participants based on the age and context of L2 acqui-  
 305 sition, proficiency, and frequency of L2 use. These vari-  
 306 ables are too generic to be of real use in the study of  
 307 affective processing: some speakers who reside outside of  
 308 the L2 context may have participated in emotional  
 309 speech events through work on multilingual teams and  
 310 others, who reside in the L2 context, may live their lives  
 311 through the means of the L1. To identify context effects  
 312 more precisely future research requires instruments sen-  
 313 sitive to the type and quality of emotional experiences in  
 314 the L2 [29,44]. In other words, what we really need to  
 315 know to understand affective processing in bi-lingual and  
 316 multilingual speakers is whether they had opportunities  
 317 to joke, flirt, date, argue, and fight in the languages  
 318 learned later in life.  
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## 320 Conflict of interest statement

321 Nothing declared.

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