

Faculty of Arts
University of Helsinki

**L2 MOTIVATION AMONG MAJORITY
LANGUAGE SPEAKERS IN LEARNING AND
USING MINORITY LANGUAGES**

Enikő Marton

DOCTORAL DISSERTATION

To be presented for public discussion with the permission of the Faculty of Arts
of the University of Helsinki, in hall 1, Metsätalo, on the 11th of January, 2021 at 13
o'clock.

Helsinki 2020

ISBN 978-951-51-6899-3 (pbk.)
ISBN 978-951-51-6900-6 (PDF)

Unigrafia
Helsinki 2020

ABSTRACT

More egalitarian forms of bilingualism, where bilingual interactions also take place in the minority language, are only possible if there are majority language speakers who are both able and willing to use the minority language for the purpose of authentic communication when interacting with minority language users. The present doctoral dissertation addresses the overarching research question of what motivates majority language users to learn and use minority languages.

The individual papers focused on the following aspects: What factors support majority language-speaking high school students' willingness to communicate (WTC, MacIntyre et al., 1998) in the minority language? How does minority language speakers' feedback influence majority language speakers' L2 use? How does the difference in the availability of the minority language in a monolingual vs. bilingual municipality influence majority language speakers' motivation in learning the minority language? Are there contextual limitations to the utility of central concepts from competing L2 motivation theories? How does L2 motivation unfold among hearing L2 learners who learn and use a sign language? How do L2 attitudes and L2 use influence each other among majority language-speaking learners when learning a minority language?

The research was conducted in four substantially different bilingual contexts: among Slovene speakers from the Dolinsko/Lendvavidék region in Slovenia who learn Hungarian as an L2 (Article 1), Finnish speakers who learn Swedish as an L2 (Articles 2 and 3), hearing Finnish speakers who learn Finnish Sign Language (FSL) as an L2 (Article 4), and Italian speakers from the South Tyrol region in Italy who learn German as an L2 (Article 5).

All the articles utilised path analysis. Article 1 found, among Slovene-speaking learners of L2 Hungarian ($N = 119$), that WTC was supported by more positive perceptions regarding the ethnolinguistic vitality (ELV) of the L2 group, and that the effect of ELV on WTC was transmitted through a chain of L2 motivational variables. Article 2 found, among Finnish-speaking learners of L2 Swedish ($N = 254$), that more frequent and more positive contact with Swedish speakers predicted higher L2 confidence (Clément, 1980) in Swedish, which in turn significantly predicted L2 use. However, the effect of L2 confidence on L2 use was moderated by the quality of the feedback that L2 learners received from Swedish speakers. Article 3 found, among Finnish-speaking learners of L2 Swedish, that in the monolingual setting, the role of practical benefits attached to good L2 skills was salient, whereas in the Finnish-Swedish bilingual setting, SLA was supported by integrativeness. The results indicate that ideal L2 self (Dörnyei, 2005) is a key concept in SLA in both contexts, whereas instrumental and integrative orientation (Gardner, 1985) are more context-dependent concepts. Article 4 found, among hearing

learners of FSL ($N = 173$), that L2 experiences, integrativeness, and instrumental orientation significantly predicted ideal L2 self, and that L2 competence mediated the effect of ideal L2 self on L2 use. In addition, integrativeness significantly moderated the effect of L2 competence on L2 use. Article 5 found, among Italian-speaking learners of L2 German ($N = 315$), that L2 attitudes and L2 use mutually influence each other. In addition, L2 related peer norms significantly moderated the effect of L2 attitudes on L2 motivation.

Overall, this dissertation confirms the assumption that there are two broad avenues to SLA (MacIntyre, 2010), the integrative/affective and the instrumental/cognitive. Minority language groups committed to the maintenance of their language benefit from shaping the language legislation and the curriculum for L2 learners with these two approaches in mind. The results also indicate that the use of minority languages can also be enhanced at the interactional level.

ABSTRAKT

Mer egalitära former av tvåspråkighet, där tvåspråkiga interaktioner pågår också i minoritetsspråket, är endast möjliga om det finns majoritetsspråktalare som både kan och vill använda minoritetsspråket för autentisk kommunikation med talare av minoritetsspråket. Den här doktorsavhandlingen behandlar den övergripande forskningsfrågan om vad som motiverar talare av majoritetsspråk att lära sig och använda minoritetsspråk.

De enskilda artiklarna fokuserade på följande aspekter: Vilka faktorer stöder majoritetsspråkiga gymnasieelevers vilja att kommunicera (WTC, MacIntyre et al., 1998) på minoritetsspråket? Hur påverkar minoritetsspråktalarnas feedback majoritetsspråktalarnas andraspråksanvändning? Hur påverkar tillgängligheten av minoritetsspråket majoritetsspråktalarnas motivation att lära sig minoritetsspråket i en enspråkig och tvåspråkig kommun? Finns det kontextuella begränsningar för användbarheten av centrala begrepp från konkurrerande L2-motivationsteorier? Hur utvecklas L2-motivationen bland hörande individer som läser och använder teckenspråk som andraspråk? Hur påverkar L2-attityder och andraspråksanvändning varandra bland majoritetsspråktalarna när de läser ett minoritetsspråk?

Forskningen genomfördes i fyra olika tvåspråkiga kontexter: bland talare av slovenska från regionen Dolinsko / Lendvavidék i Slovenien som lär sig ungerska (artikel 1), bland talare av finska som lär sig svenska (artiklarna 2 och 3), bland hörande talare av finska som lär sig finskt teckenspråk (artikel 4) och talare av italienska från Sydtyrolen i Italien som lär sig tyska (artikel 5).

Alla artiklar baserade sig på stiganalys. Artikel 1 visade att bland slovenskspråkiga elever (N = 119) stöddes WTC i ungerska av mer positiva uppfattningar om L2-gruppens etnolingvistiska vitalitet (ELV), och att effekten av ELV på WTC förmedlades genom en kedja av variabler relaterade till L2-motivation. Artikel 2 visade att bland finstalande elever (N = 254) bidrog mer frekventa och mer positiva kontakter med svensktalande till högre L2-självförtroende (Clément, 1980) på svenska, vilket i sin tur hade en signifikant inverkan på andraspråksanvändningen. Effekten av L2-självförtroendet på andraspråksanvändningen berodde dock på den kvalitet av feedback som elever fick från talare av svenska. Artikel 3 visade att bland finstalande elever i den enspråkiga finska miljön var rollen av praktiska fördelar kopplad till goda kunskaper i det andra språket viktig, medan i den finsk-svenska tvåspråkiga miljön stöddes andraspråksinläringen av integrativ orientering. Resultaten pekar på att det ideala L2-jaget (Dörnyei, 2005) är ett nyckelbegrepp i andraspråksinläringen i båda kontexterna, medan begreppen instrumentell och integrativ orientering (Gardner, 1985) är mer kontextberoende. Artikel 4 visade att bland hörande personer som lär sig

finskt teckenspråk (N = 173) hade L2-erfarenhet, L2-integrativ orientering och L2-instrumentell orientering signifikant inverkan på det ideala L2-jaget och att L2-kompetens förmedlade effekten av det ideala L2-jaget på andraspråksanvändningen. Dessutom dämpades inverkan av L2-kompetens på andraspråksanvändningen signifikant av integrativ orientering. Artikel 5 visade att bland italiensktalande elever som läste tyska som andraspråk (N = 315) påverkar L2-attityder och andraspråksanvändning ömsesidigt varandra. Dessutom dämpade L2-relaterade gruppnormer signifikant denna inverkan av L2-attityder på L2-motivationen.

Sammantaget bekräftar denna avhandling antagandet att det finns två breda vägar för andraspråksinläring (MacIntyre, 2010), det integrerande / affektiva och det instrumentella / kognitiva. Minoritetsspråksgrupper som åtar sig att upprätthålla sitt språk drar nytta av att utforma språklagstiftningen och läroplanen för L2-elever med dessa två tillvägagångssätt i åtanke. Resultaten visar också att användningen av minoritetsspråk och flerspråkighet även kan förbättras på interaktionsnivå.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Publishing the dissertation has given me an opportunity to go public with all the acknowledgements that have been due for a long time.

First, I have to thank Magdolna Kovács, university lecturer at the Department of Finno-Ugrian and Scandinavian Studies at the University of Helsinki, and Professor emerita Irma Hyvärinen at the Department of Modern Languages at the same university, for supporting my aspiration to become a PhD student in the first place.

I am indebted to Magdolna in several ways. Through the years, I have been able to count on her continuous support. The long discussions with her inspired my thinking, her erudition often put familiar issues in new perspectives. She also helped me all the way with practicalities concerning research funding and her trust motivated me when conducting research did not seem like a straightforward process. Köszönök mindent, Magdi!

I thank my co-authors for their contribution, the theoretical ideas, methodological suggestions, and insightful comments. It has been inspiring and rewarding to work with Nick Jocyce, Magdolna Kovács, Peter MacIntyre and László Vincze.

I thank professor Åsa Palviainen from the University of Jyväskylä and professor Jean-Marc Dewaele from the University of London who agreed to act as the preliminary examiners for my dissertation and who provided me with valuable suggestions on how my arguments could be enhanced. I thank Kenneth Quek for his great work as the proofreader of my thesis.

I also feel indebted towards the anonymous reviewers who devoted much time and attention to the work of an unknown aspiring colleague. The manuscripts have developed considerably due to their comments and suggestions.

I am indebted to all those involved in the data collection. I thank the school directors for their consent and the teachers for their practical help. I thank the great people at the Finnish Association of the Deaf for the inspiring conversations and the practical help with the data collection. I am indebted towards all the respondents for their contribution, most notably for tolerating the numerous multiple item measures. Kiitos, grazie, hvala!

I would like to express my gratitude to Anniina Sjöblom and Jutta Kajander, two dedicated officers at the Doctoral Student Services for the Faculty of Arts, for having helped me through the years with their prompt and accurate answers in all possible matters linked to my doctoral studies.

Looking back on how I got started with linguistic research, I can clearly recognise the impact of two persons from my past. Szűcs Tibor, my first university teacher in linguistics at the University of Pécs sparked my interest in linguistics. Köszönöm, Tibor! I feel truly indebted towards Kis Kádi Géza,

who was the first to teach me how to deal with multiple sources in a reliable and critical manner. Köszönöm, Tanár úr!

I thank the Kone foundation, the Nylands Nation foundation, the Ella and George Ehrnrooth foundation, and the Swedish Cultural foundation. It was their financial support that enabled me to work on my dissertation project. I also want to thank Finnish society at large for demonstrating a keen interest and involvement in maintaining linguistic diversity and the realisation of the linguistic rights of each individual regardless of the status of their mother tongue.

Finally, this dissertation work is dedicated to minority language users who endure language-based discrimination, and to majority language users who learn and use minority languages as L2s, whereby they actively facilitate communication across language barriers.

CONTENTS

Abstract.....	3
Abstrakt	5
Acknowledgements	7
Contents.....	9
List of original publications	11
Abbreviations	12
1 Introduction.....	13
1.1 The multiple roles of language in bilingual settings	13
1.2 The L2 use of majority language speakers	13
1.3 The role of motivation in L2 learning and L2 use	15
2 Objectives, research questions and the scope of the study.....	16
3 Theoretical framework	18
3.1 The socio-educational model of L2 acquisition	18
3.2 Ethnolinguistic vitality	20
3.3 The socio-contextual model of L2 communication.....	21
3.4 Willingness to communicate in the L2	22
3.5 The L2 motivational self system.....	22
4 Methods	25
4.1 Research design	25
4.2 Samples and procedures.....	26
4.3 Data.....	27
4.3.1 Qualitative data.....	27
4.3.2 Quantitative data	28
4.4 Analysis	29

5	The contexts.....	31
5.1	Hungarian in Slovenia	31
5.2	Swedish in Finland.....	32
5.3	Finnish Sign Language in Finland.....	34
5.4	German in South Tyrol, Italy	35
6	Results.....	37
6.1	Article 1.....	37
6.2	Article 2	39
6.3	Article 3	41
6.4	Article 4	43
6.5	Article 5	45
7	Discussion	47
8	Conclusions.....	53
	References	55

LIST OF ORIGINAL PUBLICATIONS

This thesis is based on the following publications:

- I Marton, E., Joyce, N., & Vincze, L. (2014). Ethnolinguistic vitality, attitudes and normative pressure as predictors of motivation in learning and speaking Hungarian as a second language in Slovenia. *Journal of Estonian Finno-Ugric Linguistics*, 5(3), 57–70, doi:10.12697/jeful.2014.5.3.03
- II Marton, E., & MacIntyre, P. (2019). Feedback from L1 users – a potential facilitator of L2 use. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 1–14, doi:10.1080/01434632.2019.1634721.
- III Marton, E., & Kovács, M. (2019). What motivates Finnish-speaking high school students in learning Swedish? *Nordand*, 3(2), 101–116, doi:10.18261/issn.2535-3381-2019-02-01
- IV Marton, E., & MacIntyre, P. (2020). L2 motivation among hearing learners of Finnish Sign Language. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 1–13, doi:10.1080/13670050.2020.1733928
- V Marton, E., Kovács, M., & Vincze, L. (submitted to the *International Journal of Bilingualism*). The virtuous cycle: the reinforcing relationship between L2 attitudes and L2 use among young Italian-speaking South-Tyrolese.

The publications are referred to in the text by their Arabian numerals.

ABBREVIATIONS

AMTB	Attitude and Motivational Test Battery
DV	dependent variable
FSL	Finnish Sign Language
IV	independent variable
LOTE	languages other than English
L1.	first language
L2	second language
L2MSS	L2 motivational self system
SELV	subjective ethnolinguistic vitality
SLA	second language acquisition
WTC	willingness to communicate

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 THE MULTIPLE ROLES OF LANGUAGE IN BILINGUAL SETTINGS

Language plays multiple roles even in monolingual settings: it serves practical purposes by enabling information exchange, it serves symbolic functions by displaying its users' identities, and it also enacts social order by positioning speakers within the relevant social hierarchies (Coulmas, 2013). When speakers of different mother tongues communicate in a language that is the first language (L1) of one of the interlocutors and a second language (L2) of the other, language use becomes an even more complex issue. The disparity between the interlocutors' competence can generate or exacerbate status differences even within a single interaction that occurs in a monolingual or international setting, that is, where the interactants are less likely to be perceived as representatives of their respective language groups (Dewaele, Mercer, Talbot, & Blanckenburg, 2020).

In bilingual settings, inhabited by larger speaking communities of different languages, communication between people of different mother tongues is part of everyday life. Language choice in bilingual interactions both reflects and reshapes the relationship between the contacting language groups, which can affect the speakers' linguistic identities. Notably, in bilingual settings, there is usually a status difference between the speaking communities. Thus, the terms majority and minority language usually reflect not only the relative size of the contacting language groups but also refer to status differences that can manifest themselves blatantly, e.g. when high prestige domains are reserved for the majority language by legal means, or in subtle ways, e.g. when the majority language dominates even in bilingual interactions where using the minority language would be not only possible but also more efficient. From the perspective of individual language users, each bilingual interaction adds to their accumulative knowledge about the value of the contacting languages: which one serves practical purposes best, and which one is more highly esteemed. In addition, for speakers of minority languages, adherence to the norm that proposes the use of the majority language as the unmarked choice carries an additional lesson: when it comes to communication efficacy, it can be beneficial to downplay language identity.

1.2 THE L2 USE OF MAJORITY LANGUAGE SPEAKERS

L2 use by majority language speakers has been suggested as a way to counteract the tendencies that would push minority language speakers to use their mother tongue only for in-group purposes (Bourhis, Sioufi, & Sachdev,

2012; Kolláth, 2012). Empirical research has found that interactions between speakers of different mother tongues in bilingual settings usually take place in the majority language. This pattern of language choice seems to be consistent across vastly different settings (Bourhis, Montaruli, & Amiot, 2007; Clément, Baker, & MacIntyre, 2003; Madoc-Jones, Parry, & Hughes, 2012; May, 2000). Clément (1986) explained this phenomenon by showing how the numerical disparity between the contacting language groups has a bearing on individuals' exposure to their respective L2s. Thus, minority language users meet more majority language users than vice versa, experience greater exposure to their L2, and consequently acquire higher level competence in their L2, which in turn promotes the use of the majority language in interactions between minority and majority language speakers.

Would this mean that using the majority language as the tool of communication in bilingual interactions is inevitable? Empirical data suggest that this does not need to be the case, as there are bilingual settings where majority language speakers actively take responsibility for the success of bilingual communication (cf. Lindemann, 2002) by using the minority language when interacting with minority language speakers. This is a positive development because the mere tolerance of minority languages, that is, permitting or even supporting their maintenance while restricting their use to in-group purposes, is at times clearly insufficient. Applied linguistic research conducted within health care and psychological counselling settings has convincingly demonstrated that individuals in vulnerable positions are in need of, and benefit from, being able to use their mother tongue with Lx-speaking professionals (Costa & Dewaele, 2012; Costa & Dewaele, 2019).

A Deaf advocate has aptly captured how the unchallenged expectation that minority language users must accommodate to majority language speakers can foster inequality, whereas reciprocal bilingualism could reduce it:

“When you ask a Deaf person if they can read lips, you are asking if you can put the burden of communication solely on them. Prioritizing your own comfort and convenience in communicating instead of identifying a mutually beneficial mode of conversing is the epitome of privilege.”

(Chris Sano on Twitter, 20.01.2020)

In the most developed bilingual societies that support the use of minority languages not only for in-group communication but also for bilingual interactions, majority language speakers are offered the opportunity to acquire minority languages as L2s within formal education. However, how L2 learning can lead to L2 competence, and under what conditions L2 learners are willing to make use of their L2 competence, are complex questions. To handle such complexities, theories are needed that identify key concepts and outline the basic relationships between them.

1.3 THE ROLE OF MOTIVATION IN L2 LEARNING AND L2 USE

In accounting for individual differences in second language acquisition (SLA), that is, why some L2 learners are more successful in mastering an L2 than their peers, Gardner and Lambert (1959) suggested motivation as a key construct in their pioneering study. The extensive empirical research that was inspired by Gardner's work showed consistently, across vastly different samples, among Croatian, Polish, Spanish, Brazilian and Japanese learners of English, that L2 achievement was closely associated with language learners' motivation to learn the L2 (Gardner, 2010). A paradigm shift within L2 motivation research occurred in the late 1990s and scholars who focused on the acquisition of global English highlighted different mechanisms in accounting for L2 learners' motivation than those suggested by Gardner (Boo, Dörnyei, & Ryan, 2015), but Gardner's basic idea, that motivation is a central component in L2 achievement, remained uncontested. Taken together, over six decades of applied linguistic research has substantiated the role of L2 motivation in SLA and L2 use in various SLA settings (Al-Hoorie & MacIntyre, 2019).

At the same time, most of these studies have been conducted among learners of one specific language, global English (Boo et al., 2015), and only to a smaller extent among learners of languages other than English (LOTE). This imbalance in the data begs the question of whether insights based on data from students of global English, an L2 with a unique status, are generalisable to the L2 motivation processes in play when learning LOTEs (Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017). The present dissertation investigates the opposite end of the spectrum by examining L2 motivation among L2 learners of minority languages.

2 OBJECTIVES, RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND THE SCOPE OF THE STUDY

Against this background, the overarching research question of the present doctoral dissertation is what motivates majority language users to learn and use minority languages. Apparently, more egalitarian forms of bilingualism, that is, where bilingual interactions also take place in the minority language, are only possible if there are majority language speakers who are both able and willing to use the minority language for the purpose of authentic communication when interacting with minority language users.

In order to provide a valid answer to the overarching RQ, the individual papers addressed the following aspects:

- What factors support majority language-speaking high school students' willingness to communicate in the minority language? (Article 1)
- How does minority language speakers' feedback influence majority language speakers' L2 use? (Article 2)
- How does the difference in the availability of the minority language in a mono vs. bilingual municipality influence majority language speakers' motivation to learn the minority language? (Article 3)
- Are there contextual limitations to the utility of central concepts from competing L2 motivation theories? (Article 3)
- How does L2 motivation unfold among hearing L2 learners who learn and use a sign language as L2? (Article 4)
- How do L2 attitudes and L2 use influence each other among majority language-speaking learners when learning a minority language? (Article 5)

Throughout this dissertation, I use the term 'motivation' as a set of interrelated concepts and processes that facilitate SLA and L2 use, instead of fully adhering to existing definitions (e.g. Dörnyei, 2005; Gardner, 2010). The flexible definition of a core concept of my work was necessary when mapping L2 motivation in a specific context, that is, when majority language speakers acquire minority languages. Throughout my research, I sought to explore the bilingual realities with the conceptual inventory of well-established theories while checking the theories against the realities I became increasingly familiar with during the research process.

In the context of the present dissertation, bilingualism is defined as the active use of two languages (cf. Grosjean, 1997) that are present in a given bilingual setting and are used as L1 by distinct language groups that are in regular contact with each other. Throughout this summarising report and the individual articles, the terms minority and majority language refer to the languages with fewer vs. more L1 users respectively within the bilingual setting

where the research has been conducted. In order to be able to assess how context sensitive the results are, I designed my research to include four substantially different bilingual contexts and L2 learner groups. These are: Slovene speakers from the Dolinsko/Lendvavidék region in Slovenia who learn Hungarian as an L2 (Article 1), Finnish speakers who learn Swedish as an L2 (Articles 2 and 3), hearing Finnish speakers who learn Finnish Sign Language (FSL) as an L2 (Article 4), and Italian speakers from the South Tyrol region in Italy who learn German as an L2 (Article 5). By designing the research in this way, I sought to show both the effect of contextual differences as well as some common tendencies prevalent in various settings where majority language speakers learn a minority language.

This dissertation has twofold aim. First, acknowledging researchers' responsibility in offering guidelines for curriculum developers, L2 teachers and learners (Dewaele, 2019), it aims to reveal what motivational strategies can support majority language speakers' learning and use of minority languages. Second, it aims to add to theoretical knowledge about L2 motivation and L2 use in two ways: by highlighting the contextual relevance of some well-established concepts within L2 motivation research while showing the contextual restrictions of others, and by drawing attention to the role of minority language speakers in encouraging majority language speakers' L2 use.

3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Majority language users' learning and use of minority languages is a complex phenomenon that can be approached from different angles. It can be viewed as a primarily educational issue, as a social issue, or as matter of the identity of L2 learners (cf. Dewaele, 2016). Admittedly, all of these perspectives are valid in the contexts where I collected the data: the respondents of the studies learn the minority languages within formal education; the L2s are, albeit to varying degrees, present in the L2 learners' social milieus (Hungarian in Slovenia, German in Italy, Swedish and FSL in Finland); and the process of SLA is linked to the identities of the learners (Dewaele, 2016). This complexity necessitates the integration of various L2 learning and L2 motivation theories that have clear relevance in the bilingual contexts where I conducted the empirical part of my research. I will now present the theories that constitute the theoretical framework of my dissertation. I choose to introduce these in chronological order because the newer approaches have emerged from discussion about and critical attitudes towards earlier work. Thus, the chronological order offers an opportunity to reflect upon how the various approaches challenge and complete each other.

3.1 THE SOCIO-EDUCATIONAL MODEL OF L2 ACQUISITION

The socio-educational model of second language acquisition (SE model, Gardner, 1985) emerged from the social psychological research on the language behaviour of French and English speakers in bilingual regions of Canada and was the first to feature motivation as a central variable in SLA. The remarkable variation in the L2 competence of individuals with similar levels of exposure to the L2s pointed toward an underlying factor that can explain the individual differences in SLA. Motivation was identified as a crucial factor in language learning, the effect of which was compared to that of language aptitude (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). Gardner (1985) observed that, in bilingual settings, the L2 is not only a school subject but also the most salient characteristic of the other language group, and therefore argued that attitudes towards the L2-speaking community influence how readily L2 learners master the L2. Whereas early studies (Gardner & Lambert, 1959) confirmed the positive association between L2 attitudes and L2 learning, a more detailed theoretical model was needed to do justice to the complexity of SLA and L2 use.

The SE model (1985) postulates language learning as motivated behaviour, that is, making efforts to acquire the L2, and summarises the characteristics of the motivated learner while also suggesting some processes and factors that

enhance or hamper the acquisition of the L2. Gardner (1985, 2010) argued that the motivated L2 learner displays certain cognitive, affective and behavioural characteristics. Thus, she has a reason for acquiring the L2; she enjoys the process of SLA while putting in effort to learn the target language. The motivation to learn an L2 is not a stable personality trait that one either possesses or does not possess. Instead, the degree to which L2 learners are motivated is the result of the interplay of various factors.

Since language is an inherently social construct, and in bilingual settings also the most salient characteristic of the other language group, factors that are present in the wider and more immediate social context of the SLA are assumed to exert an effect on L2 motivation. Gardner (1985, 2010) argued that learning an L2 involves the exploration of a foreign cultural code, a process that requires considerable openness on the part of the learner. Gardner (1985) labelled this disposition integrativeness, and argued that it represents a major reason for engaging in L2 learning. Accordingly, L2 learners who score higher on this variable, that is, who view SLA as a gateway to develop meaningful relationships with L2 speakers, are more motivated to learn the target language.

That integrativeness supports SLA has been confirmed in various L2 learning settings. Humphrey and Spratt (2008) found, among L2 learners of French, German, and Japanese, that L2 efforts were most closely associated with integrativeness. Among L2 learners of Spanish, integrativeness predicted both L2 achievement and the likelihood of continuing to study the L2 (Hernández, 2008). Kwok and Carson (2018) found, among L2 learners of Japanese, that integrativeness emerged as the most important predictor of L2 efforts. Among L2 learners of American Sign Language, integrativeness was found to significantly predict L2 proficiency (Lang, Foster, Gustina, Mowl, & Liu, 1996).

At the same time, the larger society's view regarding the value of the L2 may also exert an effect on SLA. Thus, when achievement in the L2 is rewarded, e.g. by good grades or a raise in salary, L2 learners are assumed to exert greater effort to master the L2. Promotional orientation, as the outlook on the practical benefits associated with mastery in the L2 is labelled in the SE model (Gardner, 1985; 2010), was found to support SLA among various L2 learner groups (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991). The SE model hypothesises integrativeness and promotional orientation as the two main reasons for SLA. Whereas these constructs reflect different approaches to L2 learning, they are not considered to form a dichotomy; obviously, there are L2 learners who are interested in communicating with members of the L2-speaking group while they also appreciate the practical benefits attached to good L2 skills.

The SE model further proposes that, in settings where the L2 is also learnt within formal education, characteristics of the immediate educational context, such as the L2 teacher's personality and the quality of the L2 course, also influence the acquisition of the L2. Meta-analysis found that more positive

evaluation of the L2 course is associated with greater efforts to learn the L2, and better L2 skills (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003).

The SE model became the major paradigm of L2 motivation research until the late 1990s, when Dörnyei (2005) proposed a new theoretical model for capturing L2 motivation. At the same time, key concepts and central hypotheses of the SE model were integrated into Dörnyei's model (in more detail, see 3.5). Overall, the SE model generated massive empirical research and the main hypotheses of the model have been confirmed across various SLA contexts and samples (Al-Hoorie & MacIntyre, 2019). I used concepts from the SE model in all of the articles that comprise this dissertation.

3.2 ETHNOLINGUISTIC VITALITY

In several bi- and multilingual contexts, language and ethnicity overlap. Slovenia is a case in point, where the pertinent language legislation ensures the right to the mother tongue for persons of 'Hungarian ethnicity' in 'ethnically mixed territories' (Article 11 of the Constitution of the Republic of Slovenia). In their seminal paper, Giles, Bourhis, and Taylor (1977) defined ethnolinguistic vitality (ELV) as a capacity "which makes a group likely to behave as a distinctive and collective entity within the intergroup setting" (p. 308). Giles et al. (1977) suggested three dimensions to capture speaking communities' ELV: status, demographic capital, and institutional support. The ethnolinguistic vitality framework postulates that ethnolinguistic groups are more likely to maintain their distinctiveness in intergroup settings if they enjoy higher status, have more speakers both in absolute numbers and in proportion to speakers of the contacting language group, and enjoy broader institutional support, that is, fill in important positions in mass media, business, etc.

Acknowledging that individuals have rarely access to accurate data about the ELV of the contacting language groups, Bourhis, Giles, and Rosenthal (1981) suggested using the concept of subjective ethnolinguistic vitality (SELV), which they defined as individuals' subjective perceptions of the objective ELV. Bourhis et al. (1981) argued that speakers' language behaviour is guided by their subjective perceptions of vitality. Research has found significant positive correlations between the objective measures of ELV and SELV perceptions (Clément, 1986; Harwood, Giles, & Bourhis, 1994), indicating that individuals living in intergroup settings possess a realistic judgement of the ELV of the contacting language groups.

In bilingual settings, speakers of both languages are aware of the language contact situation. Therefore, it can be informative to capture relative SELV perceptions, that is, how individuals perceive the vitality of their own language group compared to that of the contacting language group. Whereas both the structure of the measure used to assess SELV perceptions, as well as the suitability of the ELV definition in explaining successful revisions of

suppressing language arrangements, have attracted criticism and inspired refinements in methodology and theorising (Ehala, 2010a; 2010b), the core idea, that socio-structural factors influence the sustainability of minority languages, has been supported by extensive empirical research (cf. Bourhis, Sachdev, Ehala, & Giles, 2019).

The construct of ELV has been suggested to facilitate the understanding of how minority languages can be maintained. Accordingly, how SELV perceptions influence majority language speakers' language behaviour has been researched less extensively (but Clément et al., 2003). In Article 1, the concept of ELV has been linked to L2 motivational variables in assessing majority language speakers' willingness to communicate in the minority language.

3.3 THE SOCIO-CONTEXTUAL MODEL OF L2 COMMUNICATION

Another theoretical approach that has clear relevance in the context of the present study is the socio-contextual model of L2 communication (Clément, 1980; Sampasivam & Clément, 2014). Clément argued (1980) that, in bilingual contexts, SLA, and L2 use in particular, are inseparable from the social context where speakers of the contacting language groups meet and interact. The frequency of contact with L2 speakers, and general perceptions regarding the quality of these encounters, are assumed to influence the acquisition of the L2. Consequently, the more frequent and positive contact L2 learners have with speakers of the other language group, the more efficiently they acquire the L2 and the more readily they use it. Clément (1980) suggested L2 confidence as a central concept of the socio-contextual model, which reflects appropriate L2 competence and the absence of L2 anxiety. Merging these two components in one notion is justified on the grounds that language learners have to display both characteristics to use their L2s. Having high level competence in the L2 does not necessarily lead to L2 use if language learners are overly anxious about using their L2s. Similarly, the lack of L2 anxiety is not likely to generate L2 use unless L2 learners have acquired the L2 competence that enables them to carry out a conversation. Empirical data from the French-English bilingual context in Canada have substantiated the major hypotheses of the socio-contextual model. Thus, the quality and quantity of contact with speakers of the L2 group enhanced L2 confidence both among majority language speakers and minority language speakers (Clément et al., 2003). In addition, the significant positive relationship between L2 confidence and L2 use has been substantiated in various bilingual settings (e.g. Vincze & Gasiorek, 2016). Article 2 has been substantially inspired by the socio-contextual model.

3.4 WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE IN THE L2

The model of willingness to communicate (WTC, MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1998) originated from the insight that L2 learners with comparable level of L2 competence show remarkable difference in how frequently they make use of their L2 skills. MacIntyre et al. (1998) urged a deeper understanding of this phenomenon on the grounds that the ultimate goal of SLA is using the L2 for the sake of authentic communication.

WTC in an L2 can be described as a psychological state, the readiness to enter an interaction in the L2, that is elicited by the interplay of various societal and individual, language-related, cultural, affective, and cognitive factors. MacIntyre (2007) emphasises that, in this psychological state, L2 learners have reached a firm decision from which they do not withdraw, but act upon it by using the L2.

When describing how WTC in an L2 can be enhanced, Clément et al. (2003) referred to insights from the theory of reasoned action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; 2011) which claims that individuals are more likely to perform a behaviour if they assume that relevant others in their milieus approve of it. Adopted to the context of SLA, this means that language learners who perceive that important persons in their surroundings appreciate SLA and L2 use are more motivated to learn the L2 and use it more frequently. To capture individuals' perception of relevant others' endorsement of certain behaviours, the concept of normative pressure has been utilised in empirical research. MacIntyre, Baker, Clément, and Conrod (2001) found that those young L2 learners who perceived that their peers appreciate SLA were significantly more willing to communicate in their L2 outside the language class as well.

The WTC paradigm contributed to the articles included in this present dissertation in three ways. First, the dependent variable in Article 1 is WTC, and the theoretical model we tested was inspired by earlier empirical research on WTC (Clément et al., 2003; MacIntyre et al., 2001). Second, the role of normative pressure that is acknowledged by the WTC paradigm was tested for in Article 1 and Article 5. Third, the claims about the role of the interlocutor in theoretical and empirical papers on WTC (MacIntyre et al., 1998; MacIntyre, Burns, & Jessome, 2011; Zarrinabadi, 2014) inspired the research reported in Article 2.

3.5 THE L2 MOTIVATIONAL SELF SYSTEM

The ELV theory, SE model, the socio-contextual of L2 communication, and the WTC model share the underlying assumption that acquiring and using an L2 inevitably entails an external reference to another language group or another individual (cf. Claro, 2019). Therefore, the characteristics of the specific bilingual context and the interlocutor must be taken into account when examining how SLA and L2 use unfold. However, scholars interested in the

motivation underlying the learning of English have urged a change of perspective on the grounds that global English is largely decoupled from the speaking communities that use English as their L1 (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002). Therefore, when L2 learners acquire this global language, the characteristics of and relations to L1 speakers of the target language are assumed to be of minor importance.

Dörnyei (2005) maintained that motivation is a powerful concept in SLA, but suggested that instead of intergroup and interpersonal relations it is the individual L2 learner that is at the core of the emergence of L2 motivation. The L2 motivational self system (L2MSS, Dörnyei, 2005) is inspired by the possible selves theory by Markus and Nurius (1986), which explains how developing and maintaining mental images that encapsulate desired vs. feared characteristics of oneself can support goal-directed behaviour. Dörnyei (2005) proposed the ideal L2 self, the mental image of oneself as a competent user of the L2, as the source of L2 motivation. Dörnyei (2005) contended that L2 learners who can envision themselves as someone who is able to use the L2 for personally meaningful purposes exert greater effort to acquire the L2. Dörnyei (2005) also suggested some paths that can support the development of ideal L2 self: these hypotheses are in line with those featured in the SE model (Gardner, 1985). The idea that practical benefits related to higher level competence in the L2 can support SLA has been adopted by Dörnyei (2005) who suggested 'instrumentality promotion' as a facilitator of L2 motivation. Accordingly, the instrumental orientation construct of the SE model (Gardner, 1985) and instrumentality promotion tap into the same directions. Similarly, the role of the immediate SLA context that Gardner (1985) captured with the variables 'course evaluation' and 'teacher evaluation' has been acknowledged by Dörnyei (2005), who suggested 'L2 experience' as a central construct in the emergence of L2 motivation.

Whereas Dörnyei (2005) suggested that in the acquisition of global English the construct of integrativeness lacks external validity, studies have found that interest in the L2-speaking group, their culture, and the desire to develop relationship with L2 speakers is also relevant for learners of global English (Kim & Kim, 2012; Taguchi, Magid, & Papi, 2009).

Dörnyei's hypothesis how the development of an elaborate ideal L2 self supports SLA was inspired by the self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987), which claims that individuals cannot endure discrepancy in their self-perceptions for a long time. Therefore, if they feel that their actual and desired self-conceptions differ considerably, they take steps to reduce the gap between the two. With regard to SLA, this means that if L2 learners feel that their present perception of themselves with rather limited L2 skills clashes with their desired self-image as a competent user of the L2, they will make efforts to learn the L2. In other words, the ideal L2 self supports L2 efforts (Dörnyei, 2005).

The L2MSS has become a major paradigm that has generated a massive body of empirical research, conducted mainly among students of global

English (Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017). Among these L2 learners, ideal L2 was found to significantly predict L2 efforts across substantially different L2 learning settings (Taguchi et al., 2009) and age groups (Csizér & Kormos, 2009). Also, instrumentality promotion was found to highly correlate with the ideal L2 self (Kim, 2012).

At the same time, the central propositions of the L2MSS also seem to be relevant for the acquisition of LOTEs because imagination, the underlying capacity for developing L2 related self-images, is a fundamental human ability. Therefore, imagining oneself as a competent user of the L2 appears to be an accessible motivational strategy for any L2 learner in any SLA context. There are empirical studies that have applied concepts from the L2MSS in exploring the motivation in learning LOTEs. McEown, Noels and Chaffee (2014) found among learners of various L2s that ideal L2 self significantly predicted L2 efforts, and the intent to go on with learning the L2.

However, to my best knowledge, the L2MSS has not been investigated in bilingual settings and its tenets have not been applied to capture the motivation underlying the acquisition and use of minority languages. Concepts of the L2MSS (Dörnyei, 2005) and its central hypothesis, which claims that L2 learners who maintain a more elaborated ideal L2 self exert greater effort to acquire the L2 have been integrated into the complex motivational models tested for in Article 3 and Article 4.

4 METHODS

4.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design of this dissertation project was motivated by the overarching research question: what motivates majority language speakers to learn and use minority languages? Because this RQ concerns not only individual L2 learners but also bilingual communities, the use of quantitative methodology seemed to be appropriate (Articles 1, 2, 3, and 5, and predominantly also in Article 4). Quantitative methods allow for collecting and analysing data from larger groups of respondents, for establishing meaningful subgroups among the participants, for comparisons across subsamples, and they can also reveal common patterns that hold for individuals who otherwise show remarkable differences along several dimensions (Dörnyei, 2007).

Within applied linguistic research, quantitative studies have generated important knowledge of how the SLA of larger learner groups can be enhanced, as well as of the positive outcomes of L2 learning (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). Within sociolinguistic research, quantitative methodology has been used extensively to reveal how language policies may affect larger groups (Sioufi, Bourhis, & Allard, 2016). Previous empirical studies inspired by the theories that constitute the framework of this dissertation have a strong quantitative anchoring. Both social psychologically-oriented bilingualism research and the field of L2 motivation research have relied heavily on the use of quantitative methodology.

The propositions of the SE model have primarily been investigated using quantitative methods. The Attitude and Motivational Test Battery (Gardner, 1985) developed to capture the concepts of the SE model became a major measurement instrument in applied linguistic research (Al-Hoorie & MacIntyre, 2019), and the studies conducted on the propositions of the model introduced the use of path analysis to the study of L2 motivation, SLA, and bilingualism (MacIntyre, MacKinnon, & Clément, 2009). In a similar vein, research on ELV has used quantitative methods, facilitated by the development of a standardised ELV questionnaire (Bourhis et al., 1981). Also, the hypotheses of the socio-contextual model of L2 communication (Clément, 1986) have been examined using diverse quantitative methods (e.g. Vincze & Gasiorek, 2016). Likewise, early research on the WTC model has relied on quantitative methods (Clément et al., 2003): the WTC questionnaire (MacIntyre et al., 2001), a standardised measurement instrument, has been widely used in verifying the propositions of the model. The L2MSS was originally assessed with quantitative methods, partly because they allowed the comparison of its explanatory power to previous theoretical approaches to L2 motivation. To assess the concepts of the L2MSS, Taguchi et al. (2009)

developed a measurement instrument that generated data suitable for quantitative analysis.

Whereas quantitative studies are invaluable in charting tendencies that hold for a wider group of participants, the validity of survey studies has been questioned on the grounds that they limit the participants' opinions to ready-made answer options (Dörnyei, 2007). In full agreement with Dewaele (2019), I believe that, when the aim is to capture complex phenomena and provide answers to broad and socially relevant questions, such as how minority languages can be maintained, the focused and structured investigations that questionnaire studies ultimately are about can be of great value.

At the same time, I agree with the criticism that quantitative methods fail to grasp phenomena that are not necessarily characteristic for a larger group of respondents but are still highly relevant for some individuals (Dörnyei, 2007). Indeed, because of the interconnectedness of individuals in social reality, rare or even unique experiences of individuals are not likely to remain solely their personal concerns. Capturing numerically insignificant yet individually salient phenomena is important, because they can offer valuable insights i.a. into how language-related societal norms unfold and change.

Undeniably, both quantitative and qualitative methodologies have inherent values; therefore, combining them within a mixed methods design can generate solid knowledge and important insights. Accordingly, asking participants to share their thoughts has the potential to significantly enrich what quantitative methods can establish (cf. Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014). Participants' accounts can show how theoretical concepts manifest themselves in bilingual realities, how statistically verified processes actually unfold and are perceived by the individual, and finally, they can offer new insights that can inspire both theoretical thinking and future research. Article 4 used a mixed methods design by completing the quantitative study with an analysis of the respondents' qualitative contributions.

4.2 SAMPLES AND PROCEDURES

The articles that compose this dissertation are based on four datasets: on the data I collected among Slovene-speaking learners of Hungarian ($N = 119$), among Finnish-speaking learners of Swedish ($N = 254$), among hearing Finnish-speaking learners of FSL ($N = 173$), and among Italian-speaking learners of German ($N = 315$). The data for Article 1, 2, 3, and 5 were collected among majority language-speaking high school students who also learn the minority language of their respective region as a compulsory L2 within formal education. In Finland, the schools were selected from both monolingual and bilingual municipalities. All the samples were convenience samples. After permission from the school directors was received, the paper and pencil questionnaires were distributed at the schools. The data collection took place during class time and was overseen by the class teachers.

Since there are only a few high schools in Finland that offer L2 instruction in FSL, the data collection for Article 4 followed a different procedure. An online questionnaire was made available for two months on the Facebook site of the Finnish Association of the Deaf. Accordingly, the sample for Study 4 differs considerably from the other samples.

Table 1 summarises the main characteristics of the four distinct samples. In order to indicate the prevalence of bilingualism in each language contact setting, Table 1 also shows the number of respondents who stated that they were L1 users of the respective target languages, even though their data were not included in the analyses. Guided by the overarching RQ of the dissertation project, I decided to include the data only from those respondents for whom learning the minority language is clearly SLA. In adherence to research ethics norms (Finnish Advisory Board on Research Integrity, 2013), participation in the research was voluntary and the questionnaires anonymous.

Table 1 *The samples of the individual studies. N.B. L1 users of the target languages were excluded from the analyses.*

	Article 1	Article 2 and 3	Article 4	Article 5
Women (%)	45%	57%	92.5%	74 %
Age (<i>M, SD</i>)	18 (.96)	17.4 (.60)	33.3 (12.66)	17.5 (1.18)
Final sample size	119	254	173	315
L1 users of the target language	61	8	13	55

To ensure the quality of the data, I followed the same standards in every setting. To prevent the language of the questionnaires from distracting the respondents from the content, and to ensure that the wording of the items was appropriately adjusted to each L2 learning context, the original English items were translated into the mother tongue of the respondents and then carefully edited by L1 users of Slovene, Italian, and Finnish.

4.3 DATA

4.3.1 QUALITATIVE DATA

Article 4 was based partly on qualitative data. After filling in the questionnaire on learning FSL, research participants were invited to share their insights. Thirty-six percent of the respondents also contributed to the research with a comment. In this way, I received 63 qualitative entries.

4.3.2 QUANTITATIVE DATA

I collected the quantitative data with questionnaires. Substantial parts of the measurement instruments I administered were borrowed from previously validated, well-established questionnaires, such as Gardner's Attitude and Motivational Test Battery (AMTB, Gardner, 2010), the L2MSS questionnaire (Taguchi et al., 2009), the WTC questionnaire (MacIntyre et al. 2001) and the Subjective Ethnolinguistic Vitality Questionnaire (SEVQ, Bourhis et al., 1981). The contact quality and quantity measures (Article 2) were borrowed from Islam and Hewstone (1993), while the measures of normative pressure (Article 1) and peer norms (Article 5) were based on MacIntyre et al. (2001). To ensure the content validity of the measures, I used multiple items to assess theoretical concepts (e.g. L2 anxiety, L2 motivation) and also included negatively worded items recoded prior to the analysis.

Article 3 highlighted a new concept, L1 user feedback, the assessment of which required the introduction of a new measure. First, items were generated and then piloted (Marton & Vincze, 2013). Next, a revised version of the measure was reviewed by bilingual individuals and experts on Finnish-Swedish bilingualism. The final 6-item version that generated data for Article 3 yielded acceptable reliability (.74).

Overall, the values of the reliability statistics, ranging from .65 (integrative orientation in Article 1 and normative pressure in Article 5) to .92 (ELV and WTC in Article 1, quality and quantity of contact in Article 2), indicate that the data that served as the ultimate base for the theoretical claims made in the articles are of high quality.

Since this dissertation aims to allow comparison across different L2 learning settings, there is an overlap between the variables that were entered into the analyses in the individual papers. Table 2 provides an overview of the variables included in the separate articles. If the same construct was labelled differently in the diverse studies, then the variable names displayed in Table 2 may deviate from the labels used in the original papers. Thus Table 2 can aid in the comparison of the theoretical frameworks used in the individual articles. The following variables were treated as dependent variables (DVs) in the separate analyses: WTC in Article 1, L2 use in Article 2 and 4, L2 efforts in Article 3. In Article 5 there was no DV in the strict sense of the word, because its focus was on the reciprocal relationship between L2 attitudes and L2 use.

Table 2 *Variables included in the individual articles with Cronbach's alpha reliability estimates. N.B. the dependent variables are in bold. The L2 use variable in Article 4 was measured with a single item, therefore no reliability estimate was calculated.*

	Article 1	Article 2	Article 3	Article 4	Article 5
Ethnolinguistic vitality	.92				
L2 attitudes	.74				.81
Normative pressure	.69				.65
Integrative orientation	.65		.78	.80	
L2 motivation	.79				.91
L2 anxiety	.74	.81			
L2 competence		.91		.87	.82
WTC	.92				
Quality of contact		.92			
Quantity of contact		.92			
L1 user feedback		.74			
L2 use		.91			.75
Promotional orientation			.85	.82	
Ideal L2 self			.88	.85	
L2 efforts			.71	.74	
L2 experience				.79	

4.4 ANALYSIS

As preliminary analysis, correlation analysis was conducted in each study to uncover whether the study variables correlate with each other as the pertinent theories suggest. In addition, in Article 3, an independent samples *t*-test was conducted. This method is suitable for establishing differences between the mean values in two distinct groups, e.g. to assess the variables along which L2 learners from mono vs. bilingual municipalities differ significantly.

However, multivariate analysis is needed to answer more complex RQs that address the relationship between more than two concepts. Path analysis has been used extensively in this dissertation, as it can test for complex relationships between multiple variables (Hayes, 2017). It is a useful methodological approach when there is empirical or theoretical reason to assume that two variables that are not directly connected constitute parts of a larger, more complex system and are indirectly linked to each other. For example, it is both reasonable and theoretically justifiable to assume that ELV perceptions have an effect on WTC via a chain of other variables, such as attitudes towards L2 speakers, integrative orientation, motivation, and L2 use anxiety (see Article 1).

Such complex relationships can be assessed and verified with mediation analysis. Mediation is the process when the effect of variable A on variable C

is transmitted through variable B, which is called the mediator. When testing for mediation, both the direct and indirect effect of the IV on the DV have to be assessed. At the same time, there are complex phenomena that can be best explained with complex mediation models including several mediators. Even these complex models can be managed in a straightforward manner with the PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2017), which is a regression-based computational tool attached to SPSS. When testing for mediation, the PROCESS macro assesses both direct and indirect effects. Simple mediation has been applied in Article 2 and 3, whereas multiple mediation has been applied in Article 1, 4 and Article 5.

Another approach to tackling complex relationships between variables is moderation analysis. Moderation means that the effect of one variable on the other is dependent on the values of a third variable, the moderator (Hayes, 2017). In other words, two variables interact with each other and exert a joint effect on the third variable. For example, in Article 3 it was hypothesised that the effect of L2 confidence on L2 use is dependent on the values on the variable Feedback from L1 users. Basically, the terms ‘moderation’ and ‘interaction’ are synonyms. Within applied linguistic research, moderation analysis has found e.g. among Francophones that the effect of L2 confidence in English on L2 identity was significantly moderated by normative pressure (Clément et al., 2003). Moderation analysis has been applied in Article 1, 2, 4 and 5.

Within applied linguistic and bilingualism research, there are plenty of phenomena that are assumed to mutually influence each other. For instance, substantial research has found that L2 attitudes predict L2 use (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003), while other studies convincingly demonstrated that L2 use contributes to better L2 attitudes (Lasagabaster, 2005; Wright & Tropp, 2005). There are various methodological options to assess the reciprocity between variables. Nonrecursive path modelling is a method that enables researchers to test for bidirectional relationships on cross-sectional data (Kline, 2013). In addition to testing for a complex model, including mediation and moderation, nonrecursive path modelling can also assess the significance of a feedback loop from the DV to the IV. This method of analysis was used in Article 5.

The qualitative data that were collected for Article 4 were analysed using thematic coding (Gibbs, 2007). After close reading of the contributions, the most salient content categories were established. The qualitative data for Article 4 were collected with the aim of enriching what quantitative data can capture; therefore, instead of weighting the content categories according to their frequency, I chose to represent every category that emerged from the data with excerpts. Furthermore, in order to maximise the benefits offered by mixed methods design, the content categories were related to the results of the quantitative analysis.

5 THE CONTEXTS

When presenting the bilingual contexts where I collected the data, I will concentrate on those features that are most salient with regard to the overarching RQ of the dissertation and the specific RQs addressed in the individual articles.

5.1 HUNGARIAN IN SLOVENIA

What is known today as Slovenia has been part of various multilingual political entities over the centuries. It was not until 1921 that Slovene gained the status of an official language within the Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes (Novak-Lukanovič & Limon, 2012). The Republic of Slovenia that declared its independence in 1991 granted the Hungarian-speaking minority special rights. According to article 11 of the Constitution of the Republic of Slovenia, Hungarian has the status of an official language in the ethnically and linguistically mixed border area where Hungarian speakers reside. The presence of Hungarian speakers in the north-eastern part of Slovenia has long historical roots, as the multilingual territory was periodically under the control of Hungarian political entities (Novak-Lukanovič & Limon, 2012; Roter, 2003).

In the 2002 census, the last time census data were collected on the Slovene population's linguistic composition, some 7,000 Slovene citizens claimed Hungarian as their mother tongue, which implies that their proportion within the Slovenian population is 0.4% (Novak-Lukanovič & Limon, 2012). The Hungarian speakers are highly concentrated in the Dolinsko/Lendvavidék region at the Slovene-Hungarian border, where 40% of the population speaks Hungarian as mother tongue. The Dolinsko/Lendvavidék region is officially bilingual, which means that Hungarian can be used alongside Slovene in official settings, e.g. in judicial authorities (Roter, 2003). Hungarian has relatively high status, as there is a local Hungarian-speaking radio channel, a weekly newspaper published in Hungarian, a Hungarian TV programme, and church services are also held in Hungarian (Kolláth, 2012). Since traffic signs and the text of signage are displayed in both languages, Hungarian is part of the linguistics landscape.

To facilitate the acquisition of the L2s and the communication between the contacting language groups, all educational institutions in the region are bilingual, and speakers of both Slovene and Hungarian have to learn the language of the other language group as a compulsory L2 within formal education (Vidmar, 2011). Slovene-speaking high school students take three Hungarian lessons per week for four years. Compared to several linguistic minorities, even within Slovenia, the situation of the Hungarian-speaking

minority is remarkably good (Novak-Lukanovič & Limon, 2012); still, there has been a steady decline in the number of Hungarian speakers, and the use of their mother tongue is characterised by diglossia (Kolláth, 2012).

Within the context of Slovene-Hungarian bilingualism, previous applied linguistic research addressed code-switching between Slovene and Hungarian, domain allocation, and the prestige of the contacting languages (cf. Kolláth, 2012), whereas the motivation of Slovene speakers in learning and using Hungarian as an L2 has been a largely unexplored area. Earlier research indicates that speakers of the majority language do not acquire high-level skill in L2 Hungarian, and are unwilling to use their L2 skills for authentic interaction with Hungarian speakers outside language classes (e.g. Bokor, 2001; Kolláth, 2012). Accordingly, what factors support Slovene speakers' willingness to communicate in Hungarian is a relevant question that has been addressed in Article 1.

5.2 SWEDISH IN FINLAND

The presence of Swedish in Finland has long historic roots. It dates back to the early Middle Ages and the geographical area that is now known as Finland was under Swedish rule until the early 19th century (Tandefelt & Finnäs, 2007). Throughout the centuries, language arrangements have been characterised by diglossia: Swedish was the main language of the high-prestige domains while Finnish, being the language of the majority, dominated in the low-prestige domestic area (Lindgren, Lindgren, & Sari, 2011). It was only in 1863 that Finnish, alongside Swedish, became recognised as an official language of the then Grand Duchy of Finland (Tandefelt & Finnäs, 2007).

After Finland gained independence, its first constitution in 1919 declared that the country was bilingual, entailing that Swedish had the same status as Finnish and Swedish speakers were entitled to use their L1 as freely as Finnish speakers use their Finnish L1. This exceptional generosity towards a linguistic minority that made up some 11% of Finland's population in 1920 (cf. Tandefelt & Finnäs, 2007) has been interpreted as a declaration of the Nordic cultural orientation and acknowledgement of the role that Swedish speakers played in the establishment of Finnish national culture, particularly in the development of the modern fully-fledged Finnish language, which can serve as an appropriate means of communication in all domains (Lindgren et al., 2011).

The new constitution from 2000 confirmed Finland's bilingualism, with two national languages, Finnish and Swedish. Swedish can be used in official communication with state authorities across the country and it is the authorities' responsibility to ensure that Swedish speakers can make use of their right to use their L1 (Report of the Government on the application of language legislation, 2017). In addition, Swedish speakers have access to a rich culture in their mother tongue, as there are several daily newspapers, radio channels, and theatres in Swedish. Swedish speakers have a comprehensive

educational system in their mother tongue, ranging from Swedish-speaking nurseries to Swedish-speaking universities.

Today, 5.2% of Finland's population, some 289,000 persons are Swedish speakers (SF, 2019) who reside mainly along the Western and Southern coasts of Finland, entailing that large areas of the country are inhabited by Finnish speakers only. Reflecting the uneven distribution of the two language groups, in Finland, bilingualism is also defined at the municipality level. According to the Language Act (423/2003, Section 5 Paragraph 2), a municipality is bilingual if the share of the demographically weaker language group, either Swedish or Finnish, is above 8%, or the number of its speakers is above 3,000. According to these criteria, 20% of Finland's municipalities are bilingual: in 18 of these, Finnish speakers form the majority, whereas in 15 bilingual municipalities Swedish speakers constitute the local majority (Report of the Government on the application of language legislation, 2017, p. 41).

A salient characteristic of Finland's bilingualism is that both Finnish and Swedish speakers learn the country's other official language as a compulsory L2. Thus, L2 Swedish is compulsory even in the monolingual Finnish-speaking areas. There is vivid societal debate on this policy (Hult & Pietikäinen, 2014; Palviainen, 2011; Saukkonen, 2011): whereas some see it as indispensable in maintaining the country's bilingualism and the realisation of the linguistic rights of the Swedish-speaking Finns, critics claim that obligatory L2 Swedish prevents schoolchildren from learning other L2s that might be more relevant in today's increasingly multilingual Finland. Most Finnish-speaking schoolchildren begin with L2 Swedish at grade six of elementary school and participate in 400 lesson hours until their graduation from high school (Juurakko-Paavola & Palviainen, 2011).

At the same time, in bilingual municipalities, "The texts of signs, traffic signs and other corresponding signposts directed at the public posted by authorities in bilingual municipalities shall be in Finnish and Swedish" (Language Act, 423/2003, Section 33). This has a bearing not only on the municipalities' linguistic landscape but also on Finnish speakers' exposure to the L2 and the possibility of authentic L2 use. Accordingly, how Finnish speakers' acquisition of Swedish differs in mono vs. bilingual municipalities is a pertinent question that is addressed in Article 3.

Applied linguistic research has examined the L2 Swedish competence of Finnish speakers (Lahtinen & Palviainen, 2011; Palviainen, 2010), codeswitching between Finnish and Swedish (e.g. Lehti-Eklund, 2013; Palviainen, Protassova, Mård-Miettinen, & Schwartz, 2016), L2 motivation and L2 attitudes among Finnish speakers across different educational levels, among primary school children (Tuokko, 2011), students participating in vocational education (Juurakko-Paavola, 2011; Kantelinen, 2011), and university students (Jauhojärvi-Koskelo & Palviainen, 2011). At the same time, Finnish-speaking upper secondary students' motivation in L2 Swedish has been researched less extensively. Furthermore, the studies that have explored the emergence of L2 motivation among Finnish speakers focused on

the role of immediate educational influences, such as that of the L2 teacher and the L2 learning peer group (Korkman, Green-Vänttinen, & Lehti-Eklund, 2010; Lehti-Eklund, 2013).

Representative data show that Finnish speakers rarely use their Swedish L2 for authentic communication (Leppänen et al., 2011), and previous research found that speakers of Swedish and Finnish use mainly Finnish when they communicate (Gasiorek & Vincze, 2016). Therefore, what factors support Finnish speakers' L2 use is a relevant yet under-researched question that has been addressed in Article 2 and Article 3.

5.3 FINNISH SIGN LANGUAGE IN FINLAND

Finnish Sign Language (FSL) is the mother tongue of 4,000-5,000 deaf persons, while FSL is also used by some 9,000 hearing persons either as their mother tongue or an L2 (Report of the Government on the application of language legislation, 2017). A reference to sign languages, to Finnish and Finland Swedish sign language, was added to the constitution in 1995, and a Sign Language Act (359/2015) entered into force in 2015.

The large numerical disparity between users of spoken and sign languages is a worldwide phenomenon that strongly determines the L2 contact opportunities and L2 exposure of Deaf and hearing persons alike. Whereas Deaf individuals encounter users of spoken languages all the time, only a small percentage of hearing persons has contact with users of sign languages. In addition, whereas spoken languages employ the auditory/vocal modality, sign languages are gestural-visual languages that utilise the visual/spatial modality. The different modalities of spoken and sign languages, coupled with the large numerical imbalance between their users, has resulted in the misconception among the hearing minority that employing the vocal modality is an essential criterion of language. This widespread fallacy has led to a persistent ignorance of or even disregard for sign languages. It was not until the 1960s that, as a consequence of their thorough linguistic description, sign languages became recognised as fully-fledged languages by the surrounding hearing majorities (De Meulder, 2017). Occasionally, users of FSL encounter belittling or negative attitudes even today (Report of the Government on the application of language legislation, 2017).

Finland ratified the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities in 2016; accordingly, deaf children's acquisition of FSL and their Deaf linguistic identity shall be supported. At the same time, less than 40% of Deaf individuals reported that they could use services in their FSL mother tongue (Report of the Government on the application of language legislation, 2017). Although interpretation services for Deaf individuals are available in Finland, scholars in the field of Deaf studies recommend that sign language users should be able to communicate in their FSL mother tongue, allowing them independence from interpreters (De Meulder, 2017). This suggestion

implies the acquisition of sign languages by hearing individuals of diverse professional backgrounds.

In Finland, hearing persons have the opportunity to acquire FSL as an L2 from several institutions at various levels. At adult education centres, sign language courses are organised at beginner level, while FSL can also be studied in tertiary education, and there are specialised graduate programmes in FSL interpreting. At the same time, because of the vast numerical disparity between hearing and Deaf persons, the existential experience of the “isolated sign language user” (Ladd, 2003, p. 90) also prevails in Finland. Against this background, Article 4 addresses how hearing L2 learners can extend the communication networks of Deaf sign language users.

5.4 GERMAN IN SOUTH TYROL, ITALY

South Tyrol is an autonomous region of Italy where, besides Italian, German enjoys the status of an official language. In South Tyrol, some 310,000 individuals speak German as their mother tongue, accounting for 70% of the population (ASTAT, 2019). However, the present linguistic arrangements are the result of decades-long arguments and negotiations.

The region that belonged to Austria became part of Italy after the peace treaties following World War One. In 1921, some 27,000 Italian speakers resided in the region; in 1971 they numbered over 137,000 (ASTAT, 2019). Oppressive means were used to enhance the territory’s incorporation into the Italian state, then ruled by a fascist government. The region’s population structure has been altered, as Italian-speaking labour from southern Italy was settled in South Tyrol (Voltmer, 2007), tripling the share of Italian speakers within five decades (ASTAT, 2019). At the same time, the intergenerational transmission of German was hindered by forbidding instruction in German in schools (Voltmer, 2007).

After several unsuccessful attempts to put an end to the repression of the German-speaking population in South Tyrol, a breakthrough was achieved in 1972 with the second autonomy statute, a package of legal and administrative means that aimed to ensure that the Italian- and German-speaking language groups enjoyed the same rights (Voltmer, 2007). The autonomy in South Tyrol has three main features.

First, to ensure that both language groups are represented at public institutions according to their actual proportion, jobs are allocated to Italian and German speakers in accordance with the linguistic composition within given municipality (Oberrauch, 2006). The share of positions open to Italian and German-speaking applicants within the public sector is adjusted to the latest census data every ten years. Second, to ensure that both language groups can maintain their own language, there are separate education systems for Italian and German speakers (Abel, 2007). At the same time, to enhance the communication between the contacting language groups, Italian is a

compulsory school subject in the German schools and German-speaking pupils learn Italian as a mandatory L2. The L2 learning begins in the first class of elementary school and is part of the curriculum until high school graduation (Abel, 2007). Third, obtaining employment within the public sector is dependent not only on the professional qualification of the candidate but also on her ability to communicate both in Italian and German. Therefore, prospective employees have to take the bilingualism exam at the level corresponding to the educational qualification required for the position (Bonell & Winkler, 2010). Accordingly, the bilingualism exam guarantees that both Italian and German speakers can be served in their mother tongues at public institutions, while it also necessitates high L2 competence and enhances the status of L2 education.

Today, the autonomy of South Tyrol is widely referred to as a model of successful regional bilingualism. At the same time, there is a divergence between German and Italian speakers in their evaluation of how the region's bilingualism is maintained. Italian speakers perceive that they are disadvantaged at the bilingualism exam, achieve lower level competence in L2 German than German speakers in L2 Italian, and use mainly their own Italian mother tongue when communicating with German speakers (Südtiroler Sprachbarometer, 2015). Against this background, how Italian speakers' attitudes toward German speakers and their use of L2 German unfold are pertinent questions that have been addressed in Article 5.

6 RESULTS

In Chapter 3, I presented the theories that constitute the framework of my work and reviewed the empirical research that they have inspired. I concluded that only a small proportion of the data came from bilingual settings and that majority language speakers' acquisition and use of minority languages seems to be a largely under-explored area. In Chapter 4, I demonstrated that, in the bilingual settings where I conducted my research, L2 motivation is a largely under-researched topic. Aiming to fill these two gaps, the articles that constitute this dissertation address specific aspects of the overarching RQ: what motivates majority language speakers in learning and using minority languages? The results from the individual papers are outlined below.

6.1 ARTICLE 1

Using path analysis, Article 1 explored how WTC unfolds among Slovene-speaking high school students ($N = 119$) who learn Hungarian as an L2 in the bilingual region of Dolinsko/Lendvavidék. The complex model we proposed and tested for was significant at the .01 p level, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .98, SRMR = .06, and explained 33% of the variance in WTC, $R^2 = .33$, $p < .01$. Supporting our hypotheses, we found that ELV perceptions predicted WTC via multiple mediators, $B = .01$, 95% CI [.00, .02]. ELV significantly predicted L2 attitudes, which in turn predicted integrative orientation. Integrative orientation, on the other hand, predicted L2 motivation, which decreased L2 use anxiety that, in turn, had a significant negative effect on WTC. In addition, we found that normative pressure significantly moderated the effect of L2 attitudes on integrative orientation. The results are summarised in Figure 1.

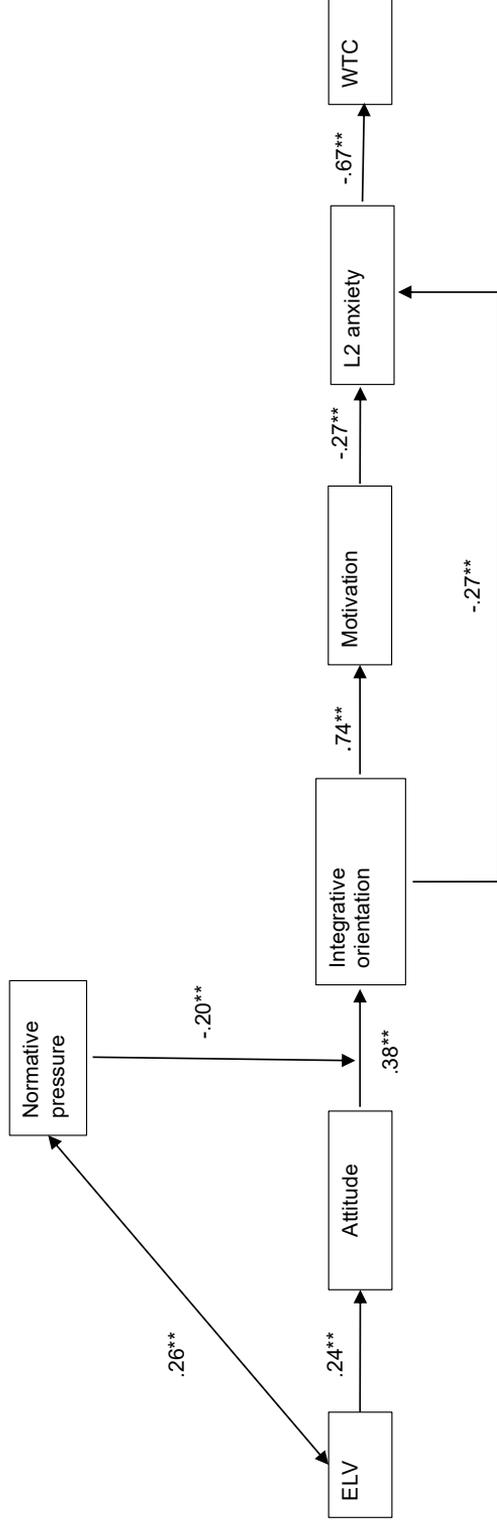


Figure 1 Results from the path analysis in Article 1. Coefficients are unstandardised regression coefficients (B).
****** $p < .01$

6.2 ARTICLE 2

Article 2 addressed how positive feedback from minority language speakers influences majority language speakers' use of the minority language. The questionnaire data that were collected among Finnish-speaking high school students ($N = 254$) who learn Swedish as a compulsory L2 were submitted to path analysis. The indirect effects were tested using 95% confidence intervals, which were generated by bootstrapping with 5000 resamples. The complex model was significant, $R^2 = .18$, $F(5, 219) = 10.35$, $p < .01$, and explained 18% of the variance in L2 use. The analysis revealed that both quality and quantity of contact with Swedish speakers exerted a significant effect on Finnish speakers' L2 confidence, a composite of L2 competence and the lack of L2 use anxiety. At the same time, L2 confidence significantly predicted L2 use. In addition, the effect of L2 confidence on L2 use was significantly moderated by feedback from L1 users. The results are summarised in Figure 2.

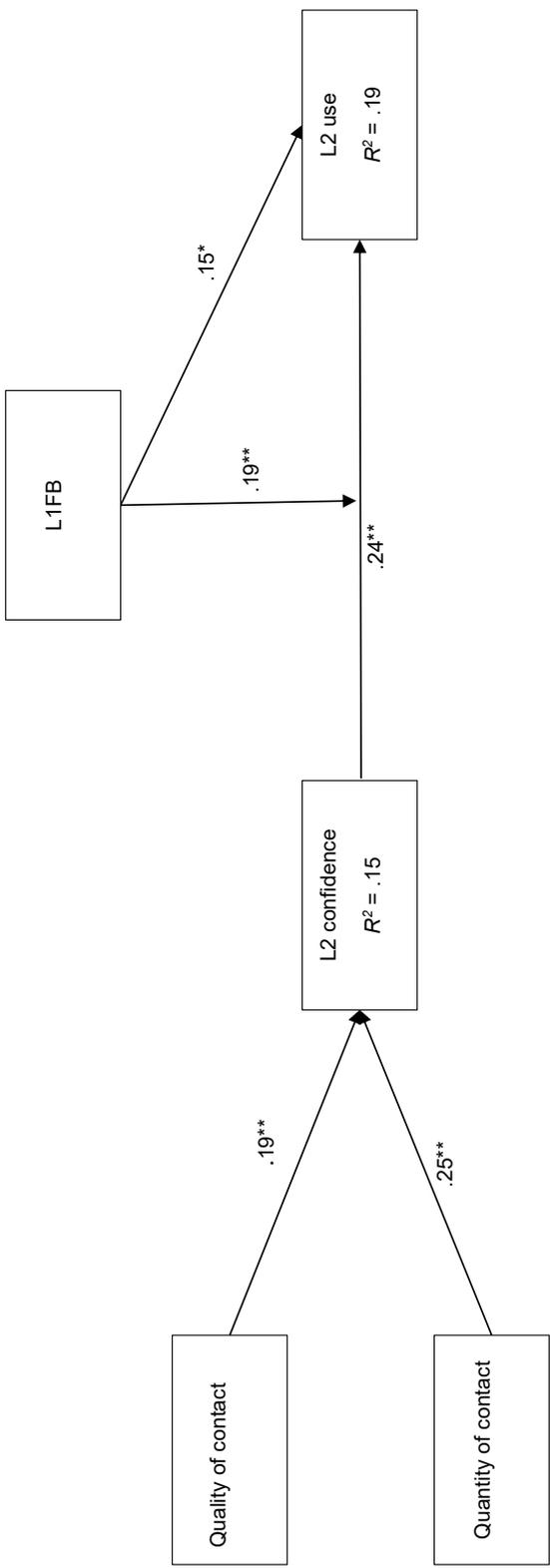


Figure 2 Results from the path analysis in Article 2. Coefficients are unstandardised regression coefficients (B).
 $^{**} p < .01$

6.3 ARTICLE 3

Article 3 examined how Finnish-speaking high school students' ($N = 254$) motivation to learn Swedish unfolds in municipalities providing substantially different L2 contact opportunities and L2 exposure. The results from the independent samples t -test revealed that Finnish speakers learning Swedish in a monolingual municipality differed significantly from those learning in a bilingual municipality on integrative orientation, promotional orientation, and ideal L2 self, whereas they did not show significant difference on the L2 efforts variable. The path analyses that have been conducted separately on each subsample confirmed and elaborated on this initial insight.

In the bilingual municipality ($n = 122$), the model was significant at the .01 p level and explained 58% of the variance in the dependent variable, $R^2 = .58$, $F(3, 108) = 50.58$, $p < .001$. Integrative orientation significantly predicted ideal L2 self, which in turn emerged as a significant predictor of L2 efforts. In addition, integrative orientation also exerted a significant direct effect on L2 efforts. At the same time, the effect of promotional orientation on ideal L2 self and L2 efforts was found to be nonsignificant. The results from the bilingual municipality are summarised in Figure 3.

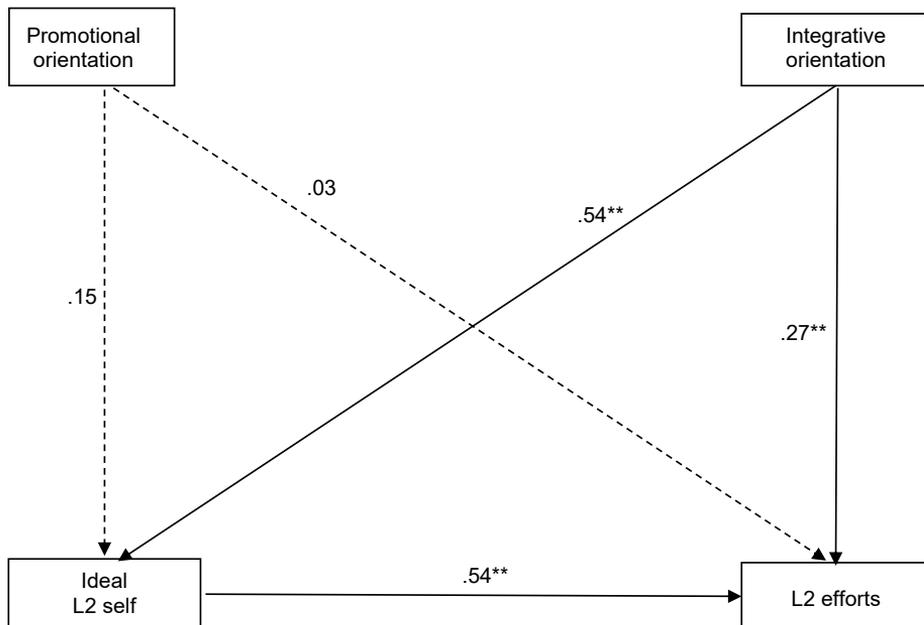


Figure 3 Results from the path analysis in the bilingual municipality. Coefficients are standardised regression coefficients (β). Significant paths are marked with solid lines, nonsignificant ones with dashed lines.

** $p < .01$

* $p < .05$

In the monolingual municipality (n = 132), the model was significant at the .01 p level and explained 50% of the variance in the dependent variable, $R^2 = .50$, $F(3, 124) = 41.45$, $p < .001$. Integrative orientation significantly predicted ideal L2 self, which in turn emerged as a significant predictor of L2 efforts. At the same time, promotional orientation had a significant effect on both ideal L2 self and L2 efforts. The results from the monolingual municipality are summarised in Figure 4.

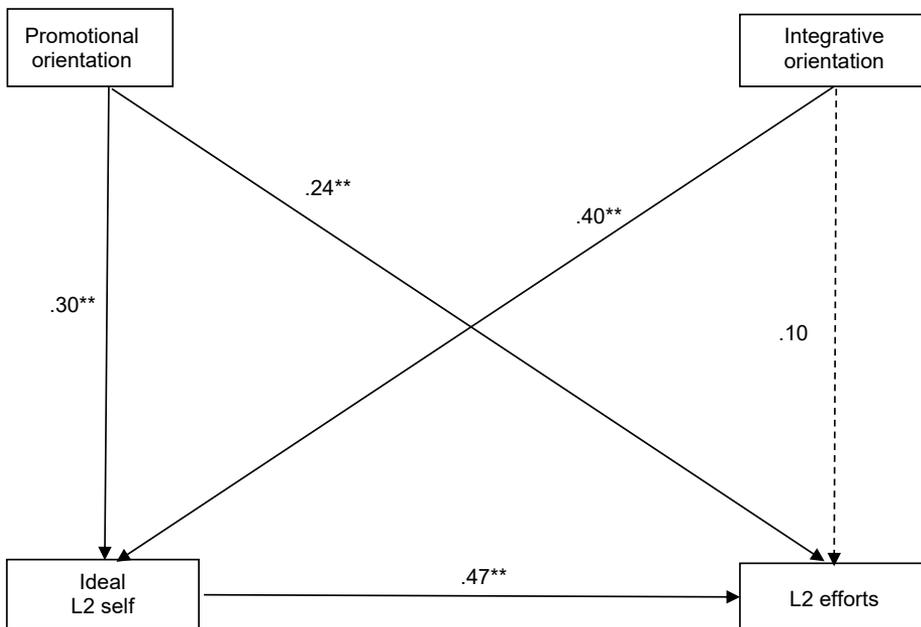


Figure 4 Results from the path analysis in the monolingual municipality. Coefficients are standardised regression coefficients (β). Significant paths are marked with solid lines, nonsignificant ones with dashed lines.
 ** $p < .01$
 * $p < .05$

6.4 ARTICLE 4

Article 4 examined the role of L2 motivation in SLA and L2 use among hearing learners of FSL. The quantitative data ($N = 173$) supported the complex mediational model. The model was significant and explained 66% of the variance in L2 use., $R^2 = .66$, $F(6, 154) = 19.67$, $p < .01$. All the proposed independent variables, that is, integrativeness, promotional orientation, and L2 experience, significantly predicted hearing learners' ideal L2 self in Finnish Sign Language. Moreover, confirming the further hypotheses, the path analysis showed that ideal L2 self mediated the effect of the independent variables on L2 efforts, which in turn significantly predicted L2 competence. L2 competence significantly predicted L2 use. The results are summarised in Figure 5.

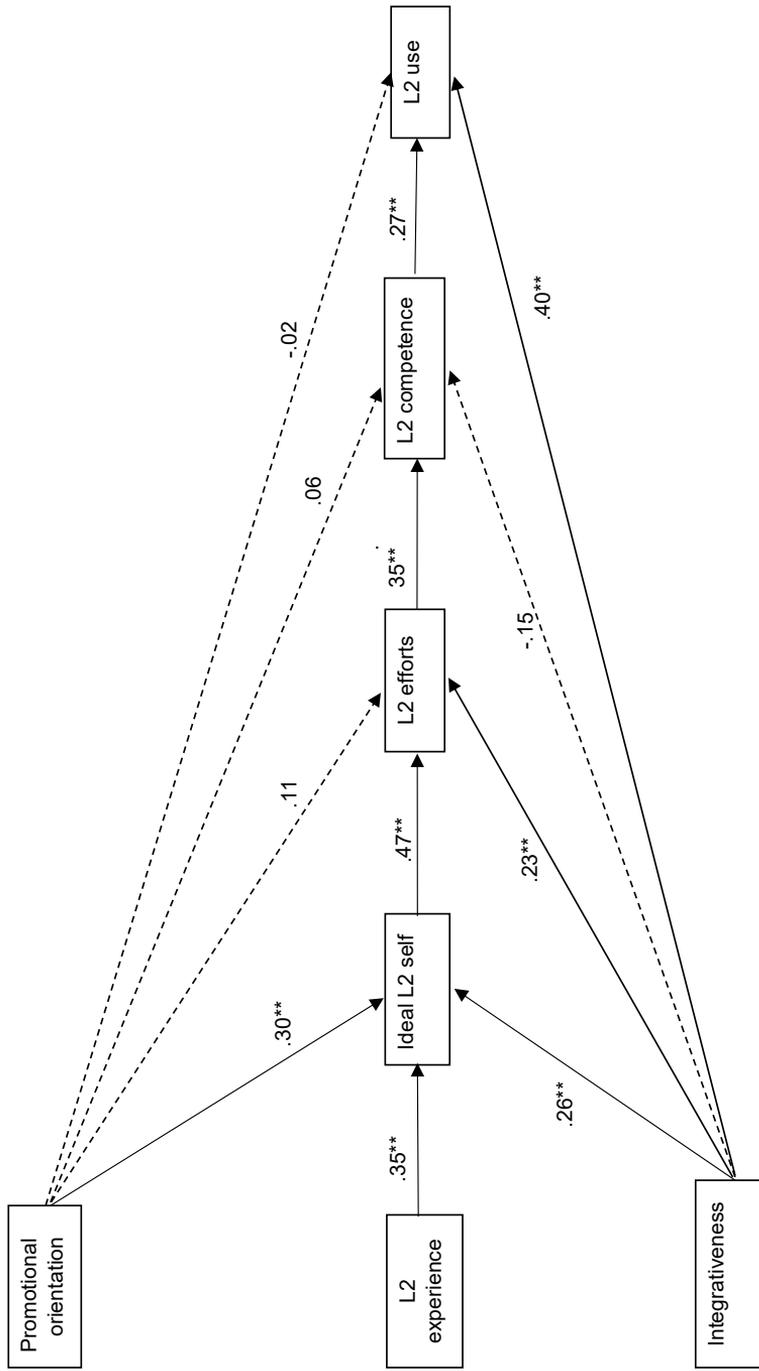


Figure 5 Results from the path analysis in Article 4. Coefficients are standardized regression coefficients (β). Significant paths are marked with solid lines, nonsignificant ones with dashed lines.
 ** $p < .01$
 * $p < .05$

The standardised regression coefficients from the complex model showed that some of the variables clustered together. Integrativeness had a significant indirect effect on L2 use, $B = .012$, 95% CI [.004, .025], but not on L2 competence. At the same time, ideal L2 self exerted a significant effect on L2 competence but not on L2 use. The insight that integrativeness was more closely associated with L2 use than L2 competence inspired a post hoc moderation analysis in which L2 competence was entered as the IV, integrativeness as the moderator, and L2 use as the DV. The analysis revealed that integrativeness significantly moderated the effect of L2 competence on L2 use, ($B = -.30$, $p < .01$).

To elaborate on what even advanced quantitative analysis can show, Article 4 utilised a mixed methods design. The qualitative data were analysed using thematic coding. The five content categories that emerged from the data were: 1. technical remarks (e.g. the wording of the questionnaire); 2. reasons for learning FSL; 3. L2 use; 4. benefits of learning FSL; and 5. attitudes towards Deaf individuals. The qualitative contributions of the respondents ($n = 63$) indicated that there are several valid approaches to SLA and confirmed the external validity of some theoretical concepts, such as integrativeness and promotional orientation. Moreover, qualitative entries illustrated how individual L2 learners perceive the processes uncovered by the quantitative analysis.

6.5 ARTICLE 5

Article 5 addressed the reciprocal relationship between L2 attitudes and L2 use within an overarching model of L2 motivation among Italian-speaking L2 learners of German ($N = 315$) in South Tyrol, Italy. The model we proposed was significant, $\chi^2(7) = 12.36$, $p = .09$, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .99, SRMR = .05, explaining 38% of the variance in language use, 45% of the variance in L2 motivation, 20% of the variance in L2 competence, and 10% of the variance in attitude to L2 speakers. We formulated six hypotheses, all of which have been supported by path analysis. We found that both L2 attitudes ($H1$) and peer norms ($H2$) significantly predicted L2 motivation. Peer norms significantly moderated the effect of L2 attitudes on L2 motivation ($H3$), which in turn significantly predicted L2 competence ($H4$) that exerted a significant effect on L2 use ($H5$). Finally, the analysis revealed a significant feedback loop from L2 use to L2 attitudes ($H6$), indicating that more frequent use of the L2 enhances attitudes towards the L2-speaking group. The results are summarised in Figure 6.

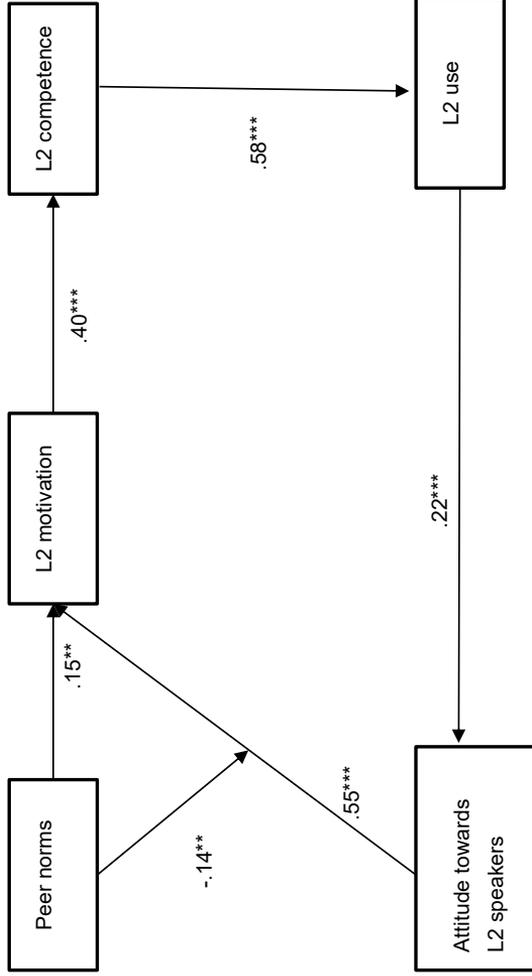


Figure 6 Results from the path analysis in Article 5. Coefficients are standardised regression coefficients (β).
** $p < .01$
*** $p < .001$

7 DISCUSSION

The articles that comprise the present dissertation address the overarching RQ: what motivates majority language speakers to learn and use minority languages? The individual papers tackle specific aspects of this complex question. Article 1 addresses what factors support majority language-speaking high school students' willingness to communicate in the minority language in a bilingual region. The complex model we tested for was significant and all the hypotheses were supported by the data. Among Slovene-speaking learners of L2 Hungarian, we found that WTC was supported by more positive perceptions regarding the ethnolinguistic vitality of the Hungarian language group and that the effect of ELV on WTC was transmitted through a chain of L2 motivational variables. The results of Article 1 enhance our understanding of bilingualism in three important ways.

First, Article 1 links two distinct yet compatible threads of investigation, ELV research (Bourhis et al., 2019) and WTC research (MacIntyre et al., 1998), to each other. To my best knowledge, Article 1 is the first undertaking that has successfully merged these two theoretical approaches within one empirical study (cf. Bourhis et al., 2019). Second, Article 1 uses the concept of ELV from a perspective that has received limited attention from bilingualism researchers thus far. How ELV perceptions influence language maintenance of minority groups has been researched extensively (e.g. Landry, Allard, & Deveau, 2010), but how ELV perceptions affect majority language speakers' acquisition of the minority language has rarely been examined. The research reported in Article 1 was designed to address this gap.

Third, Article 1 presents a theoretical and methodological innovation regarding the role of normative pressure in bilingual contexts. Theorising on WTC has acknowledged the role of normative pressure in SLA and L2 use (MacIntyre et al., 1998), and empirical studies have shown that normative pressure – that is, the perception that relevant others in one's social milieu endorse SLA and good L2 skills – supports WTC in authentic L2 use situations (MacIntyre et al. 2001) and L2 learners' L2 identity (Clément et al., 2003). In Article 1, we argue that normative pressure and L2 attitudes interact in predicting integrativeness. The significant results from the moderation analysis show that Slovene speakers with weaker attitudes toward the Hungarian-speaking minority can still develop an interest in learning Hungarian in order to use the L2 with Hungarian speakers if they perceive that relevant persons in their surroundings value good skills in Hungarian.

Article 2 addresses the specific RQ: how does feedback received from minority language speakers influence majority language speakers' L2 use? The data from Finnish-speaking learners of L2 Swedish supported the complex model we proposed. Specifically, and in line with the central claims of the socio-contextual model of L2 communication (Clément, 1986), we found that

Finnish-speaking high school students who reported more frequent and more positive contact with Swedish speakers developed higher L2 confidence in Swedish. These findings are in line with previous research results. Furthermore, in line with the assertions of Clément's model (1986), we found that L2 confidence significantly predicted L2 use. Finnish-speaking high school students who acquired higher level L2 skills and perceived less L2 anxiety used Swedish more often.

The main contribution of Article 2 is that it suggests and tests how majority language speakers' L2 use can be enhanced within the bilingual interaction. Inspired by experiences of bilingual individuals and guided by previous theorising and research on the role of the interlocutor in L2 use (MacIntyre et al., 1998; MacIntyre et al., 2011), Article 2 suggests Feedback from L1 users as a potential facilitator of L2 use. The results of the moderation analysis support the hypothesis that language learners use their L2 more frequently if they perceive that their L2 use is encouraged by native speakers of the L2. Notably, the analysis shows that Finnish speakers who received positive feedback from Swedish speakers on their L2 use made use of their L2 Swedish more often, even if their L2 skills were not particularly advanced. By comparison, L2 learners with more advanced L2 skills who did not perceive that Swedish speakers encouraged their use of Swedish tended to avoid L2 communication. This insight is valuable because it suggests that the use of the minority language by majority language speakers can be enhanced at the interactional level. This is in line with the contention of Ehala (2010b), who argued that the maintenance of minority languages is by no means dependent on external societal conditions alone. Whereas offering majority language speakers the opportunity to learn the minority language within formal education is an invaluable societal investment in the maintenance of bilingualism, the use of minority languages in bilingual interactions, that is, when speakers of the majority and minority language communicate, can be best enhanced within the interaction itself.

A further contribution of Article 2 is that it offers a suitable measure to assess L2 learners' perceptions about the feedback they receive from native users of their L2 when accommodating to them. The six-item measure was designed to reflect the two major dimensions, appreciation for the language learner's L2 use (Cao, 2011; Cao & Philp, 2006) and the face-saving handling of the L2 user's mistakes (Kang, 2005; MacIntyre et al., 2011), along which L1 users' feedback is likely to be perceived. The acceptable Cronbach's alpha reliability estimate (.74) of the composite measure suggests that future studies can use this scale to elicit reliable data on an under-researched aspect of bilingual communication. At the same time, I suggest that the validity of this measure is not restricted to bilingual settings, but the feedback scale can also be useful in considerably different settings, e.g. in mapping how willingly L2 learners make use of their L2 skills during study abroad programmes (cf. Kang, 2014).

Article 3 addresses two RQs; first, how the difference in the availability of the minority language in a mono vs. bilingual municipality influences majority language speakers' motivation to learn the minority language; second, whether there are contextual limitations to the utility of central concepts from competing L2 motivation theories, the SE model (Gardner, 1985) and the L2MSS (Dörnyei, 2005). The results from the independent samples *t*-test indicate that Finnish-speaking high school students exert similar amounts of effort to master L2 Swedish regardless of the prevalence of Swedish speakers in their respective municipalities, but SLA follows different patterns in monolingual and bilingual settings.

The path analysis revealed that, in both settings, integrative orientation significantly predicted ideal L2 self, which exerted a significant effect on L2 efforts. Overall, ideal L2 self played a central role in supporting L2 efforts in both settings, indicating that the relevance of this construct is not limited by the context of SLA. At the same time, promotional orientation and integrativeness supported SLA differently in the mono vs. bilingual setting, indicating that the relevance of these constructs is more context-dependent. In the monolingual setting, the practical benefits attached to good L2 skills facilitated majority language speakers' SLA by supporting their ideal L2 self while also exerting a significant direct effect on L2 efforts. By comparison, in the bilingual setting, the role of promotional orientation did not emerge as a significant predictor of ideal L2 self. With regard to the role of integrativeness, Article 3 found that in the bilingual setting it supported L2 learners' ideal L2 self more profoundly. In the bilingual municipality where Finnish speakers had substantially more contact opportunities with Swedish speakers and more exposure to the L2 outside the school context, integrativeness supported L2 efforts not only indirectly, via ideal L2 self, but also exerted a significant direct effect on L2 efforts.

The insight that our respondents' SLA followed a different pattern in monolingual vs. bilingual municipalities is remarkable against the background that both settings are part of bilingual Finland. According to the Finnish language legislation, Swedish is a compulsory school subject for Finnish-speaking pupils irrespective of the linguistic composition of their respective municipalities. Moreover, the same benefits are attached to high-level skills in L2 Swedish regardless of where the SLA takes place. Therefore, I interpret the results from Article 3 as a confirmation of the assumption that authentic contact with L2 users and also exposure to the L2 outside the language class are the most salient criteria for societal bilingualism.

Article 4 addresses how L2 motivation unfolds among hearing persons who learn and use a sign language as L2. The model we proposed and tested for was significant, and the data that were collected among Finnish-speaking learners of FSL supported all the hypotheses. We found that L2 learners who showed more interest in communicating with Deaf sign language users, who enjoyed their sign language classes, and who perceived that acquiring FSL is beneficial from a practical point of view, developed a more vivid mental image of

themselves as competent users of FSL. At the same time, participants who scored higher on the ideal L2 self variable achieved higher L2 competence and made greater use of their L2 skills when the opportunity arose. In addition, the path analysis revealed that integrativeness had a significant effect on L2 use but not on L2 competence, while ideal L2 self had a significant effect on L2 competence whereas its effect on L2 use did not reach statistical significance. These results support the contention of Gardner (2010) and MacIntyre (2010), that within SLA and L2 use there are two distinct components, the cognitive and the emotional.

In Article 4, a post hoc moderation analysis showed that integrativeness moderated the effect of L2 competence on L2 use. Accordingly, L2 learners who reported higher level of integrativeness used FSL more often with Deaf persons even if their L2 skills were less advanced. At the same time, L2 learners for whom integrativeness was a less salient motive in their SLA used FSL less frequently with Deaf individuals even if their L2 skills were at a higher level. This insight indicates that L2 learners with an integrative approach to L2 learning are more likely to extend to the communicative networks of Deaf sign language users.

In addition, the analysis of the qualitative data showed that there are several ways to SLA and highlighted that L2 learners are unique individuals with different motives for learning the L2. Whereas for some of the respondents their interest in communicating with Deaf people was the most salient feature of their SLA, for others interest in the language itself played a central role. Some participants shared how they benefited from FSL in their working life, whereas others highlighted how learning a language that utilises the visual/spatial modality can be a highly rewarding learning experience. Moreover, some respondents expressed their concern that emphasising the language group membership of Deaf individuals can undermine sensitivity towards their individuality. These comments indicate that SLA indeed has the capacity to bring users from different languages closer to each other and promote personal relationships across language boundaries.

A merit of the research reported in Article 4 is that it addresses L2 motivation within bimodal bilingualism, that is when users of a spoken and a visual language communicate. The study was conducted among a specific yet salient group of L2 learners whose SLA has received limited scholarly attention thus far. The studies that have investigated L2 motivation among hearing learners of sign languages have been conducted mainly among individuals who are professionally affiliated with the Deaf community (Lang et al., 1996; Pivac, 2014). By examining how L2 use unfolds among those hearing learners of FSL who have no Deaf family members and are not sign language interpreters, Article 4 extends our present understanding of L2 motivation among hearing L2 learners of sign languages.

The findings of the study are encouraging with respect to the concerns raised by scholars in the field of Deaf studies. Ladd (2003) explained that linguistic isolation is a salient life experience of Deaf persons whereas De

Meulder (2018) indicated that hearing L2 learners of sign languages, who are not related to deaf persons, usually do not enrich the communication experiences of Deaf individuals. Article 4 shows that this does not have to be the case as L2 learners of FSL accommodate to their Deaf interlocutors to a large extent, even though they are not sign language interpreters and have no family ties to Deaf individuals. In particular, L2 learners with a salient integrative disposition are likely to enrich Deaf individuals' communication experiences.

Article 5 addresses how L2 attitudes and L2 use influence each other among majority language speakers who learn a minority language. The data from the Italian-speaking respondents learning German as an obligatory L2 in South Tyrol were analysed using nonrecursive path modelling. The complex model was significant, and all the hypotheses were supported by the data. That more positive attitudes toward German speakers supported L2 motivation is in line with theoretical claims (Gardner, 1985) and previous research results (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). The finding that L2 competence significantly mediated the effect of L2 motivation on L2 use corroborates the findings of Article 4. That L2 related peer norms moderated the effect of L2 attitudes on L2 motivation is in line with the findings from Article 1.

Specifically, in Article 5, we found that among those Italian-speaking learners of German who had positive attitudes toward German speakers, peers' opinion about the value of good German skills did not really matter. These language learners were motivated to learn German regardless of whether their peers endorsed SLA or not. However, among L2 learners with negative attitudes towards the L2-speaking group, peers' positive disposition towards SLA made a significant positive difference. Accordingly, L2 learners who perceived that their peers valued good L2 skills were more motivated to learn the L2 even if they harboured rather negative attitudes towards German speakers.

Finally, the finding that more frequent use of German with German speakers supports the development of more positive attitudes towards the L2-speaking group corroborates earlier research findings from vastly different SLA settings (Lasagabaster, 2005; Wright & Tropp, 2005). The main contribution of Article 5 is that, using nonrecursive path modelling, it reveals the reciprocal relationship between L2 attitudes and L2 use. Although bilingualism researchers have pointed toward the possibility that L2 attitudes and L2 use may mutually influence each other in bilingual settings (Bourhis et al., 2012; Trofimovich & Turuševa, 2015), to my best knowledge, Article 5 is the first that has delivered empirical evidence in support of this assumption, by utilising advanced quantitative analysis.

Before discussing the implications of the individual studies and the dissertation project as a whole, I have to address some limitations. First, whereas the theoretical claims are based on high-quality data (see Chapter 4.4), I used convenience samples, which raises questions about the generalisability of the insights. Although the data I collected are not

representative according to the strictest statistical criteria, I do believe that they can serve as a valuable source for generalised claims as well (cf. Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014 p. 262). This is true not only for the data collected among Slovene-speaking learners of L2 Hungarian, who represent some 90% of the majority language-speaking high school students in the Dolínsko/Lendvavidék region. The significant results for the complex models including several variables suggest that the same patterns are also likely to hold among randomised samples, that is, for randomly recruited respondents who share the most important characteristics with the participants in my research.

A second limitation that must be kept in mind when evaluating the significance of the results is that all the articles used a cross-sectional design. Whereas the support for the complex models points strongly toward the causal relationships suggested by the hypotheses, longitudinal research design is necessary to ascertain causality. Third, using clear-cut categories such as minority- and majority-language speakers without including individuals with bilingual backgrounds may seem to be a conceptual limitation. However, studies have shown that individuals from bilingual homes acquire their L2s more easily (Baker, 2011), suggesting that with regard to achieving and maintaining more egalitarian forms of bilingualism, the most challenging aspect is majority language speakers' acquisition of the minority language. The present dissertation has contributed to a deeper understanding of this specific aspect of SLA and bilingualism.

8 CONCLUSIONS

Overall, the articles that constitute this dissertation work have linked current theory and pertinent research on L2 motivation to the study of a specific aspect of bilingualism, that is, when majority language speakers learn a minority language. Due to the variety of the bilingual settings included in the individual studies and the use of advanced statistical analysis, this dissertation has practical implications, offers theoretical insights, and suggests some exciting avenues for future research.

As for practical implications, the separate articles have shown that societal, educational and individual factors interact in shaping L2 learners' motivation, even among majority language speakers who learn a minority language as L2. The results from Article 1, 3, and 5 indicate that ELV perceptions, perceived normative pressure regarding the importance of SLA, and instrumental orientation are not independent of each other. Accordingly, heightening the status of a minority language through appropriate language legislation is likely to generate normative pressure towards L2 learning and support instrumental orientation, which in turn can facilitate SLA effectively. At the same time, majority language speakers' motivation to learn and use minority languages ought not to be a concern of language legislation alone. Their efforts should also be appreciated and supported by minority language speakers, e.g. by offering positive feedback on majority language speakers' accommodation.

As for theoretical implications, this dissertation confirms the assumption that there are two broad avenues to SLA, the integrative/affective and the instrumental/cognitive. Minority language groups committed to the maintenance of their language benefit from shaping the language legislation and the curriculum for L2 learners with these two approaches in mind. The research reported in this dissertation also reveals how L2 contact, L2 attitude, and integrativeness cluster together. The salience of the integrative/affective approach to SLA in bilingual contexts has been conformed in three remarkably different settings. The comparative analysis in Article 3 found that the availability of the L2 in the Finnish-Swedish bilingual municipality made integrativeness such a salient characteristic of SLA that practical benefits attached to good Swedish skills became irrelevant. In line with this, among hearing learners of Finnish Sign Language, integrativeness supported L2 use even if language learners' L2 skills were less advanced. Finally, in the German-Italian bilingual setting L2 attitude and L2 use were found to mutually influence each other.

The research reported in this dissertation generated insights that deserve further scientific investigation. I see three paths that could meaningfully extend our present understanding of bilingualism. First, the idea that feedback from native users of one's L2 can facilitate L2 use should be investigated with qualitative methods as well. Interview studies could elaborate on the results

that positive feedback experiences promote future L2 use (Article 2). Second, I propose a ‘mirror’ study among minority language users because it would be informative to learn more about how they perceive majority language users’ accommodation. In particular, it would be exciting to learn more about the psychological barriers that make it difficult for minority language users to accept majority language users’ accommodation. Third, it would be fruitful to examine the topic of present dissertation through the lens of positive psychology (cf. MacIntyre, Gregersen, & Mercer, 2016). All the articles, but especially the results from Article 2 and Article 4, indicate that L2 learners who perceive language learning in terms of positive psychology, that is, who frame SLA as a way of exploring the world, to broaden their experiences and extend themselves (Gregersen, MacIntyre, & Meza, 2016), and who experience appreciation and cooperation from others, are more likely to use their L2s. In addition, using the perspective of positive psychology has the potential to enhance positive attitudes towards bilingualism, which is clearly needed in several settings where bilingualism generates heated language political debates.

Finally, one might wonder whether the insights that the present dissertation offers are relevant in bilingual contexts with vastly different language arrangements. Admittedly, the settings where the empirical data for this dissertation work have been collected are specific in the sense that the respective minority languages are learnt by majority language speakers. By contrast, in several bilingual settings oppressive language legislations maintain such salient status differences between the contacting languages that majority language speakers’ acquisition of the minority language seems to be almost surreal. The present dissertation suggests, however, that majority language speakers’ acquisition of a minority language it is just like climbing a wall. It seems impossible from a distance but on taking a closer look, one can find holes in which to set one’s feet and grips to which to cling.

REFERENCES

- Abel, A. (2007). Language education and training. In A. Abel, M. Stuflesser, & L. Voltmer (Eds.), *Aspects of multilingualism in European border regions: Insight and views from Alsace, Easter Macedonia and Thrace, Lublin Voivodeship and South Tyrol* (pp. 236–242). Bozen: Europäische Akademie.
- Al-Hoorie, A., & MacIntyre, P. D. (2016). Integrative motivation: Sixty years and counting. In A. Al-Hoorie, & P. MacIntyre (Eds.), *Contemporary language motivation theory: 60 years since Gardner and Lambert (1959)* (pp. 1–4). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- ASTAT–Landesinstitut für Statistik (Ed.) (2015). *Sprachbarometer. Sprachgebrauch und Sprachidentität in Südtirol*. [South Tyrolean language barometer] (2015). Bozen: Autonome Provinz Bozen–Südtirol Landesinstitut für Statistik – ASTAT.
- ASTAT–Landesinstitut für Statistik (Ed.) (2019). *South Tyrol in figures*. Bozen/Bolzano: Provincial Statistics Institute – ASTAT.
- Baker, C. (2011). *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Bokor, J. (2001). *A magyar nyelv és használata a szlovéniai Muravidéken a ezredforduló küszöbén*. [The use of Hungarian in the Slovenian Prekmurje region at the turn of the millenium]. *Magyar Nyelv*, 7 (1), 34–52.
- Bonell, L., & Winkler, I. (2010). *Südtirols Autonomie [The autonomy of South Tyrol]*. Bozen: Südtiroler Landesregierung.
- Boo, Z., Dörnyei, Z., & Ryan, S. (2015). L2 motivation research 2005–2014: Understanding a publication surge and a changing landscape. *System*, 55, 145–157. doi:10.1016/j.system.2015.10.006
- Bourhis, R. Y., Giles H., & Rosenthal D. (1981). Notes on the construction of a 'subjective vitality questionnaire' for ethnolinguistic groups. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 2, 145–155.
- Bourhis, R. Y., Montaruli, E., & Amiot C. E. (2007). Language planning and French-English bilingual communication: Montreal field studies from 1977 to 1997. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*, 185, 187–224.
- Bourhis, R. Y., Sachdev, I., Ehala, M., & Giles, H. (2019). Assessing 40 years of group vitality research and future directions. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 38, 409–422.
- Bourhis, R. Y., Sioufi R., & Sachdev I. (2012). Ethnolinguistic interaction and multilingual communication. In Giles, H. (Ed.), *The handbook of intergroup communication* (pp. 100–115). New York: Routledge.
- Cao, Y. (2011). Investigating situational willingness to communicate within second language classrooms from an ecological perspective. *System*, 39, 468–479.
- Cao, Y., & Philp, J. (2006). Interactional context and willingness to communicate: A comparison of behaviour in whole class, group, and dyadic interaction. *System*, 34, 480–493.
- Claro, J. (2019). Identification with external and internal referents: Integrativeness and the ideal L2 self. In A. Al-Hoorie, & P. MacIntyre (Eds.), *Contemporary language motivation theory: 60 years since*

- Gardner and Lambert (1959) (pp. 233–261). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Clément, R. (1980). Ethnicity, contact and communicative competence in second language. In H. Giles, P. Robinson, & P. Smith (Eds.), *Social psychology and language* (pp. 147–159). Oxford: Pergamon.
- Clément, R. (1986). Second language proficiency and acculturation: An investigation of the effects of language status and individual characteristics. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 5(4), 271–290.
- Clément, R., Baker, S. C., & MacIntyre P. D. (2003). Willingness to communicate in a second language. The effects of context, norms, and vitality. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 22, 190–209.
- Costa, B., & Dewaele, J. M. (2012). Psychotherapy across languages: beliefs, attitudes and practices of monolingual and multilingual therapists with their multilingual patients. *Language and Psychoanalysis*, 1, 18–40.
- Costa, B., & Dewaele, J. M. (2019). The talking cure—building the core skills and the confidence of counsellors and psychotherapists to work effectively with multilingual patients through training and supervision. *Counselling and Psychotherapy Research*, 19, 231–240.
- Coulmas, F. (2013). *Sociolinguistics: The study of speakers' choices*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Csizer, K., & Kormos, J. (2009). Learning experiences, selves and motivated learning behaviour: A comparative analysis of structural models for Hungarian secondary and university learners of English. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 98–119). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- De Meulder, M. (2017). Promotion in times of endangerment: the Sign Language Act in Finland. *Language Policy*, 16, 189–208.
- De Meulder, M. (2019). “So, why do you sign?” Deaf and hearing new signers, their motivation, and revitalisation policies for sign languages. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 10, 705–724.
- Dewaele, J. M. (2016). Why do so many bi-and multilinguals feel different when switching languages? *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 13, 92–105.
- Dewaele, J. M. (2019). The vital need for ontological, epistemological and methodological diversity in applied linguistics. In C. Wright, L. Harvey, & J. Simpson (Eds.), *Voices and practices in applied linguistics: Diversifying a discipline* (pp. 71–88). Sheffield, York: White Rose University Press
- Dewaele, J. M., Mercer, S., Talbot, K., & Blanckenburg, M. (2020). Are EFL pre-service teachers' judgment of teaching competence swayed by the belief that the EFL teacher is a L1 or LX user of English? *European Journal of Applied Linguistics*, doi:10.1515/eujal-2019-0030
- Dewaele, J. M., & MacIntyre, P. D. (2014). The two faces of Janus? Anxiety and enjoyment in the foreign language classroom. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 4, 237–274.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition*. London: Lawrence Erlbaum. doi:10.4324/9781410613349
- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics..* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Dörnyei, Z., & Al-Hoorie, A. H. (2017). The motivational foundation of learning languages other than global English: Theoretical issues and research directions. *The Modern Language Journal*, 101, 455–468. doi:10.1111/modl.12408
- Dörnyei, Z., & Csizér, K. (2002). Some dynamics of language attitudes and motivation: Results of a longitudinal nationwide survey. *Applied Linguistics*, 23, 421–462.
- Ehala, M. (2010a). Refining the notion of ethnolinguistic vitality. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 7, 363–378.
- Ehala, M. (2010b). Vitality and intergroup processes. *Multilingua*, 29, 203–221. doi:10.1515/mult.2010.009
- Finnish Advisory Board on Research Integrity (2013). *Responsible conduct of research and procedures for handling allegations of misconduct in Finland*. Helsinki: Finnish Advisory Board on Research Integrity.
- Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief, attitude, intention, and behavior: An introduction to theory and research*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (2011). *Predicting and changing behavior: The reasoned action approach*. New York: Psychology Press.
- Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1959). Motivational variables in second-language acquisition. *Canadian Journal of Psychology/Revue Canadienne de Psychologie*, 13, 266–272.
- Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social psychology and language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Gardner, R. C. (2010). *Motivation and second language acquisition. The socio-educational model*. New York: Peter Lang.
- Gardner, R. C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (1991). An instrumental motivation in language study: Who says it isn't effective? *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 13, 57–72.
- Gasiorek, J., & Vincze, L. (2016). Modeling motives for bilingual accommodation by minority and majority language speakers. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 35(3), 305–316.
- Gibbs, G. (2007). Thematic coding and categorizing. In G. Gibbs, *Analyzing qualitative data* (pp. 38–55). London: Sage.
- Giles, H., Bourhis, R. Y., & D. Taylor (1977). Towards a theory of language in ethnic group relations. In H. Giles (Ed.), *Language, ethnicity and intergroup relations* (pp. 307–348). New York: Academic Press.
- Grosjean, F. (1997). The bilingual individual. *Interpreting*, 2(1-2), 163–187.
- Gregersen, T., MacIntyre, P. D., & Meza, M. (2016). Positive psychology exercises build social capital for language learners: Preliminary evidence. In P. MacIntyre, T. Gregersen, & S. Mercer (Eds.), *Positive psychology in SLA* (pp. 147–167). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Harwood, J., Giles H., & Bourhis, R. Y. (1994). The genesis of vitality theory: Historical patterns and discursal dimensions. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*, 108, 167–206.
- Hayes, A. F. (2017). *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis. A regression based approach*. (2nd. ed.). New York: Guilford Press.
- Hernández, T. (2008). Integrative motivation as a predictor of achievement in the foreign language classroom. *Applied Language Learning*, 18, 1–15.
- Higgins, E. T. (1987). Self-discrepancy: a theory relating self and affect. *Psychological Review*, 94(3), 319–340. doi:10.1037/0033-295x.94.3.319

- Hult, F. M., & Pietikäinen, S. (2014). Shaping discourses of multilingualism through a language ideological debate: The case of Swedish in Finland. *Journal of Language and Politics*, 13, 1–20.
- Humphrey, G., & Spratt, M. (2008). Many languages, many motivations: A study of Hong Kong students' motivations to learn different target languages. *System*, 36, 313–335.
- Islam, M. R., & Hewstone, M. (1993). Dimensions of contact as predictors of intergroup anxiety, perceived outgroup variability, and outgroup attitude: An integrative model. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 19, 700–710.
- Jauhojärvi-Koskelo, C., & Palviainen, Å. (2011). Jag studerar gärna svenska men är inte nöjd med vad jag kan. Motivation, attityder och färdigheter i svenska hos finskauniversitetsstudenter [I like to study Swedish but I'm not content with what I can. Motivation, attitudes and competences in Swedish among Finnish-speaking university students]. In T. Juurakko-Paavola, & Å. Palviainen (Eds.), *Svenskan i den finska skolan och högre utbildningen. Om kunskaper och motivation genom olika utbildningsstadier* [Swedish in Finnish schools and higher education. On knowledge and motivation through different educational stages] (pp. 81–102). Hämeenlinna: Hämeen ammattikorkeakoulu.
- Juurakko-Paavola, T. (2011). Yrkeshögskolstudenters kunskaper och motivation för att studera svenska. [Competence and motivation to learn Swedish among politechnic students.] In T. Juurakko-Paavola, & Å. Palviainen (Eds.), *Svenskan i den finska skolan och högre utbildningen. Om kunskaper och motivation genom olika utbildningsstadier* [Swedish in Finnish schools and higher education. On knowledge and motivation through different educational stages] (pp. 61–80). Hämeenlinna: Hämeen ammattikorkeakoulu.
- Juurakko-Paavola, T., & Palviainen, Å. (2011). Svenskan i den finska skolan och högre utbildningen. Om kunskaper och motivation genom olika utbildningsstadier. [Swedish in Finnish schools and higher education. On knowledge and motivation through different educational stages.] Hämeenlinna: Hämeen ammattikorkeakoulu.
- Kang, D. M. (2014). The effects of study-abroad experiences on EFL learners' willingness to communicate, speaking abilities, and participation in classroom interaction. *System*, 42, 319–332.
- Kang, S. J. (2005). Dynamic emergence of situational willingness to communicate in a second language. *System*, 33, 277–292.
- Kantelinen, R. (2011). Kan yrkesstuderande svenska och vill de alls lära sig det? [Can polytechnic students Swedish and do they want to learn it?] In T. Juurakko-Paavola, & Å. Palviainen (Eds.), *Svenskan i den finska skolan och högre utbildningen. Om kunskaper och motivation genom olika utbildningsstadier* [Swedish in Finnish schools and higher education. On knowledge and motivation through different educational stages] (pp. 41–60). Hämeenlinna: Hämeen ammattikorkeakoulu.
- Kim, T.-Y. (2012). The L2 motivational self system of Korean EFL students: Cross-grade survey analysis. *English Teaching*, 67(1), 29–56.
- Kim, Y.-K., & Kim, T.-Y. (2012). Korean secondary school students' L2 learning motivation: Comparing L2 motivational self system with socio-educational model. *English Language & Literature Teaching*, 18(1), 115–132.
- Kline, B. R. (2013). Reverse arrow dynamics: Feedback loops and formative measurement. In G. R. Hancock, & R. O. Mueller (Eds.), *Structural*

- equation modeling: A second course* (pp. 41-80). Charlotte, North Carolina, USA: Information Age Publishing.
- Kolláth, A. (2012). *A szlovéniai magyar nyelv a többnyelvűség kontextusában*. [Hungarian in Slovenia within the context of multilingualism.] Maribor: Filozofska fakulteta Univerze v Mariboru.
- Korkman, M. C., Green-Vänttinen, M., & Lehti-Eklund, H. (2010). *Svenska i finska gymnasier*. Helsingfors: University of Helsinki.
- Kwok, C. K., & Carson, L. (2018). Integrativeness and intended effort in language learning motivation amongst some young adult learners of Japanese. *Language Learning in Higher Education*, 8(2), 265–279.
- Ladd, P. (2003). *Understanding Deaf culture: In search of Deafhood*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.
- Lahtinen, S., & Palviainen, Å. (2011). Omvänd ordföljd–en indikator för nivåbedömning inom CEFR? [Reversed word order – an indicator for CEFR level assessment?] In *AFINLA-E: Soveltavan kielitieteen tutkimuksia*, (3), 88–101. Retrieved from <https://journal.fi/afinla/article/view/4459>
- Landry, R., Allard, R., & Deveau, K. (2010). *Schooling and cultural autonomy: A Canada-wide study in Francophone minority schools*. Ottawa: Canadian Heritage.
- Lang, H. G., Foster, S., Gustina, D., Mowl, G., & Liu, Y. (1996). Motivational and attitudinal orientations in learning American Sign Language. *Journal of Deaf Studies and Deaf Education*, 1(2), 137–144.
- Lasagabaster, D. (2005). Attitudes towards Basque, Spanish and English: An analysis of the most influential variables. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 26(4), 296–316.
- Lehti-Eklund, H. (2013). Code-switching to first language in repair: A resource for students' problem solving in a foreign language classroom. *International Journal of Bilingualism*, 17(2), 132–152.
- Leppänen, S., Pitkänen-Huhta, A., Nikula, T., Kytölä, S., Törmäkangas, T., Nissinen, K., Kääntä, L., Räisänen, T., Laitinen, M., Pahta, P., Koskela, H., Lähdesmäki, S., & Jousmäki, H. (2011). National survey on the English language in Finland: Uses, meanings and attitudes. *Studies in Variation, Contacts and Change in English*, 5. Retrieved from <http://www.helsinki.fi/varieng/journal/volumes/05/>
- Lindemann, S. (2002). Listening with an attitude: A model of native-speaker comprehension of non-native speakers in the United States. *Language in Society*, 31(3), 419–441.
- Lindgren, A. R., Lindgren, K., & Sari, M. (2011). From Swedish to Finnish in the 19th century: a historical case of emancipatory language shift. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*, 209, 17–34.
- MacIntyre, P. D. (2007). Willingness to communicate in the second language: Understanding the decision to speak as a volitional process. *The Modern Language Journal*, 91(4), 564–576.
- MacIntyre, P. D. (2010). Perspectives on motivation for second language learning on the 50th anniversary of Gardner & Lambert (1959). *Language Teaching*, 43, 374–377.
- MacIntyre, P. D., Baker, S. C., Clément, R., & Conrod S. (2001). Willingness to communicate, social support, and language learning orientations of immersion students. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 23, 369–388.

- MacIntyre, P. D., Burns C., & Jessome, A. (2011). Ambivalence about communicating in a second language: a qualitative study of French immersion students' willingness to communicate. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95 (1), 81–96.
- MacIntyre, P. D., Clément, R., Dörnyei Z., & Noels, K. A. (1998). Conceptualizing willingness to communicate in a L2: a situational model of L2 confidence and affiliation. *Modern Language Journal*, 82 (4), 545–562.
- MacIntyre, P., Gregersen, T., & S. Mercer (Eds.), *Positive psychology in SLA* Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- MacIntyre, P. D., MacKinnon, S. P., & Clément, R. (2009). The baby, the bathwater, and the future of language learning motivation research. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 43–65). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters. doi:10.21832/9781847691293-004
- Madoc-Jones, I., Parry, O., & Hughes, C. (2012). Minority language non-use in service settings: what we know, how we know it and what we might not know. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 13 (3), 249–262.
- Markus, H. R., & Nurius, P. (1986). Possible selves. *American Psychologist*, 41(9), 954–969.
- Marton, E., & Vincze, L. (2013). Hur öka användningen av svenska hos finskspråkiga? [How to promote the use of Swedish among Finnish speakers?] *Språkbruk*, 4, 26–28.
- Masgoret, A.-M., & Gardner, R. C. (2003). Attitudes, motivation and second language learning: A meta-analysis of studies conducted by Gardner and associates. *Language Learning*, 53(1), 123–163. doi:10.1111/1467-9922.00227
- May, S. (2000). Uncommon languages: the challenges and possibilities of minority language rights. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 21(5), 366–385.
- McEown, M. S., Noels, K. A., & Chaffee, K. E. (2014). At the interface of the socio-educational model, self-determination theory and the L2 motivational self system models. In K. Csizér & M. Magid (Eds.), *The impact of self-concept on language learning* (pp. 19–50). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters. doi:10.21832/9781783092383-004
- Novak-Lukanovič, S., & Limon, D. (2012). Language policy in Slovenia. *Language, Culture and Curriculum*, 25(1), 27–39.
- Oberrauch, S. (2006). *Ethnischer Proporz und Arbeitsvermittlungsvorrang. Südtiroler Minderheitenschutz und Arbeitnehmerfreizügigkeit in der EU*. [Ethnic proportions and primicy in empolyment. Minority protection in South Tyrol and the free movement of labour in the EU]. Innsbruck: STUDIA Universitätsverlag.
- Palviainen, Å. (2010). The proficiency in Swedish of Finnish-speaking university students: Status and directions for the future. *Apples – Journal of Applied Language Studies*, 4(1), 3–23.
- Palviainen, Å., Protassova, E., Mård-Miettinen, K., & Schwartz, M. (2016). Two languages in the air: a cross-cultural comparison of preschool teachers' reflections on their flexible bilingual practices. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 19(6), 614–630.
- Pivac, L. (2014). Learner autonomy in New Zealand Sign Language interpreting students. In D. McKee, R. S. Rosen, & R. McKee (Eds.), *Teaching and learning signed languages: International perspectives and practices* (pp. 197–221). Houndsmill, Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

- Report of the Government on the application of language legislation 2017. Helsinki: Prime Minister's Office.
- Roter, P. (2003). Language issues in the context of "Slovenian smallness". In F. Daftary & F. Grin (Eds.) *Nation-building, ethnicity and language politics in transition countries* (pp. 211–242). Budapest: Central European University Press.
- Sampasivam, S., & Clément, R. (2014). The dynamics of second language confidence: Contact and interaction. In S. Mercer, & W. Marion (Eds.), *Multiple perspectives on the Self in SLA* (pp. 23–40). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Sano, Chris (Twitter, 20.01. 2020). Retrieved from <https://twitter.com/csano/status/1219321803790671877>
- Saukkonen, P. (2011). Mikä suomenruotsalaisissa ärsyttää. Selvitys mediakeskustelusta Suomessa. [What is irritating about Finland-Swedes? An analysis of media debates in Finland]. Helsinki: Magma.
- Sioufi, R., Bourhis, R. Y., & Allard, R. (2016). Vitality and ethnolinguistic attitudes of Acadians, Franco-Ontarians and Francophone Quebecers: Two or three solitudes in Canada's bilingual belt? *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 37, 385–401.
- Statistics Finland (SF) (Ed.). (2019) *Finland in Figures 2019*. Helsinki: Statistics Finland.
- Taguchi, T., Magid, M., & Papi, M. (2009). The L2 motivational self system among Japanese, Chinese and Iranian learners of English: A comparative study. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda, *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 66–97). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Tandefelt, M., & Finnäs, F. (2007). Language and demography: historical development. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language* 187–188: 35–54. doi: 10.1515/IJSL.2007.049
- Trofimovich, P., & Turuševa, L. (2015). Ethnic identity and second language learning. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 35, 234–252.
- Tuokko, E. (2011). Hur behärskar elever svenska i den finska grundläggande undervisningen? En utvärdering av inlerningsresultat i B-svenska årskurs 9 våren 2008 [How do students of Finnish-speaking elementary schools master Swedish? Evaluation of the results of 9 graders in B-course Swedish in the summer of 2008] In T. Juurakko-Paavola, & Å. Palviainen (Eds.), *Svenskan i den finska skolan och högre utbildningen. Om kunskaper och motivation genom olika utbildningsstadier* [Swedish in Finnish schools and higher education. On knowledge and motivation through different educational stages] (pp. 23–40). Hämeenlinna: Hämeen ammattikorkeakoulu.
- Vidmar, T. (2011). Schooling of national minorities in Slovenia – two approaches. *Facta Universitatis-Series: Philosophy, Sociology, Psychology and History*, 10(1), 31–43.
- Vincze, L., & Gasiorek, J. (2016). The moderating effect of valenced contact: Slovak language media use, acculturation and L2 confidence among young Hungarian speakers. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 37(8), 805–816.
- Voltmer, L. (2007). Languages in South Tyrol: Historical and legal aspects. In A. Abel, M. Stuflesser, & L. Voltmer (Eds.), *Aspects of multilingualism in European border regions: Insight and views from Alsace, Easter Macedonia and Thrace, Lublin Voivodeship and South Tyrol* (pp. 201–131). Bozen: Europäische Akademie.

Conclusions

- Wright, S. C., & Tropp, L. R. (2005). Language and intergroup contact: Investigating the impact of bilingual instruction on children's intergroup attitudes. *Group Processes and Intergroup Relations*, 8, 309–328.
- Zarrinabadi, N. (2014). Communicating in a second language: Investigating the effect of teacher on learners' willingness to communicate. *System*, 42, 288–295.