

THE BILINGUAL SCREEN

ETHNOLINGUISTIC IDENTITY AND TELEVISION
VIEWING AMONG THREE LANGUAGE MINORITIES

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”The media are one of the most powerful instruments for standardizing, changing or consolidating languages and cultural identities. Present in the landscape, and in the intimacy of every home, they shape values, attitudes and even identities, like a fine rain that eventually penetrates the being’s every pore.”

(Marti et al., 2005, p.181)

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the present study was to examine the relationship between ethnolinguistic identity and television viewing among minority language speakers.

Inspired by the model proposed by Abrams, Eveland and Giles (2003), and Reid, Giles and Abrams (2004), the study integrated ethnolinguistic identity theory (Giles & Johnson, 1981, 1987), uses and gratifications approach (Katz, Blumler & Gurevitch, 1974; Katz, Gurevitch & Haas, 1973) and cultivation theory (Gerbner & Gross, 1976). More precisely, a novel model was proposed, that consisted of two parts reflecting the idea of ethnolinguistic identity gratifications and ethnolinguistic cultivation. From the point of view of ethnolinguistic identity gratifications, it was examined how ethnolinguistic identity influences media needs and media use; whereas, from the perspective of ethnolinguistic cultivation, the research inspected the relationship between television viewing, the perception about ethnolinguistic social context (like perceived vitality, permeability and status stability) and ethnolinguistic identity management strategies (mobility, creativity and competition).

The hypotheses were tested empirically among young media users in the German minority in South-Tyrol, Italy (N = 415); the Hungarian minority in Transylvania, Romania (N = 401); and the Swedish minority in Southern Finland (N = 363). The data was analysed with variance analyses, correlational analyses, OLS-regressions and multiple mediations.

The results yielded considerable support for the proposed model across the three regions. In particular, hypotheses based on the assumptions of ethnolinguistic identity gratifications and ethnolinguistic cultivation were substantiated for the most part in each setting; however regarding the predictions derived from ethnolinguistic identity theory, the findings were inconsistent.

Key terms: television, minority language media, language minority, minority language, ethnolinguistic identity, cultivation, uses and gratifications

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Preface

François Boileau, the French Language Services Commissioner of the Canadian province Ontario informed the readers of his blog in an entry of 14 September, 2012 that he recommended the provincial government to prepare a detailed study on the situation of Ontario's French-language community radio stations. This would serve as ground for coming up with concrete, permanent solutions to meet the specific needs of Francophones. Boileau's letter followed the publication of the results of a survey conducted among 5000 Francophones residing outside Quebec, which examined the linguistic aspects of media use. The survey revealed that the position of the English language is very strong in the media use of French speakers living in the English majority regions of Canada: while 65 % of participants mostly read newspapers in French, only 44 % said the same about radio listening and a mere 30 % watch television in French.

Similar tendencies are not uncommon in Europe either. While in the beginning of the 1980s in the Basque Country one Basque and two Spanish television channels were available, today Basque television viewers can choose from two Basque language and 38 Spanish language channels. Not surprisingly, the ratio of Basque language television viewing has plummeted to a fifth in just three decades.

The question is why is this all so important? Why does it matter if Francophones in Canada listen to the radio in English or French, or if Basques in Spain watch television in Basque or Spanish?

In general, theoretical speculations suggest that majority language media tends to accelerate language shift and assimilation among minority language groups (Fishman, 2001, p. 473-474; Busch, 2001, p. 35-37), while minority language media can play an important role in preserving and maintaining minority languages (Cormack, 2007; Crystal 2000, 2001). The fact is, however, that we do not have enough knowledge to answer these questions thoroughly in a scientifically grounded way. Although, minority language studies have become an independent field within media studies (Cormack, 2004) and the scientific interest in this area has increased considerably (see, Cormack & Hourigan, 2007; Jones & Uribe-Jongbloed, 2013), the research has focused so far mostly on the social, political and cultural importance of minority language media, without addressing the diverse aspects of its use.

The present doctoral dissertation is novel and innovative in several respects. First, it concentrates on the *use* of minority language media. Second, it attempts to analyse minority language media use in the light of two well-known theories of audience research developing them in the direction of language. Third, it provides comparative empirical research performed among three European language minorities revealing the linguistic characteristic of their media habits.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Research rationale

Linguistic diversity is one of the main cornerstones of Europe's cultural heritage, which was recognized in Article 22 of the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union. Minority language groups are important in this regard as they largely contribute to the linguistic richness of the continent – each in a particular and unique way.

Yet, protecting and preserving linguistic diversity is a complex challenge (for an overview, see Kraus, 2009). Globalizing forces and “modern homogenizing pressures” (Edwards, 2005, p. 471) with English as a primary vehicle have adverse effects on diversity in various ways. This is the case particularly when it comes to minority languages, which are under a constant pressure generated by the big ones.

Media play a crucial role in this context. In general, mass media are considered to be a central agent in socialization, that is, in that complex, long-term and multi-dimensional process in which we acquire the knowledge, experience and practice, which enable us to behave as a member of society (Gripsrud, 2002; McQuail, 2005; Perse, 2001). However, because socialization occurs largely through language – the most important tool to convey, communicate, transform and reproduce socio-cultural knowledge (Ochs, 1986; Garrett & Baquedano-López, 2002) – socialization is closely related to language socialization (Duff & Hornberger, 2008). As media operate through language, carry language and develop language (Moring, 2007), they are formative both in socialization and language socialization: we internalize through language the messages, images and symbols transmitted by the media. As a consequence, media permanently form our relationship to languages and to the world through languages.

Whilst in monolingual settings the linguistic aspects of media use are less the focus of attention, in bilingual settings they play a weighty role. Media can offer a vital arena where speakers may encounter their language and/or their language group, which can be of great importance, especially as people spend more and more of their leisure time with the media.

However, smaller languages are often equipped with smaller media options, which often stimulate the speakers to rely on majority language media products. Two questions arise. First, what are the antecedents and consequences of media use in the minority and the majority language? Second, how does media use in different languages relate to certain aspects of identification?

Not surprisingly, in recent years several scholars have drawn attention to the lack of knowledge and called for research on the relationship between media use and language retention (e.g., Busch, 1999; Cormack, 1998, 2004, 2007; Moring, 2007). The present study attempts to contribute to filling in this gap.

1.2. Aims of the study

The overall aim of this study is to examine the relationship between ethnolinguistic identity and television viewing among three minority language groups: among the German minority in South-Tyrol, Italy; the Hungarian minority in Transylvania, Romania; and the Swedish minority in Southern Finland.

The selection of the regions was motivated partly by similarities, partly by differences. Looking at similarities, all three groups are indigenous people in their regions with collective history, culture and traditions; and each of them lives near a state, where their language is the majority, mainstream language. When it comes to differences, the three groups are characterized by different ethnolinguistic vitalities (Giles, Bourhis & Taylor, 1977), that is, different degrees of demographic capital, status and institutional support, which are rooted in historical, political, economic and socio-cultural circumstances. Besides, there are major variances in the minority language television supply: in South-Tyrol both locally made as well as transfrontier German language television channels are available; Transylvanians have access to transfrontier television channels from Hungary but they do not have a regional Hungarian television; whilst in Southern Finland people have free access to merely a locally made Swedish television channel but not to transfrontier channels from Sweden. As a consequence, the study lies at the crossing between *most similar systems design* (seeking differences between similar cases) and *most different systems design* (seeking similarities between different cases), in order to discover regularities (Przeworski & Teune, 1970).

For the most part, choosing television as the focus of the present research was inspired by the experiences gained by the pilot studies. On the one hand, these indicated that newspaper and radio often lag far behind television with regard to the amount of usage time, which increases the relevance of studying television to a great extent. Also the European Social Survey demonstrated that during the period between 2002 and 2010, when internet became the dominant media all over Europe, there was a considerable decline in radio and newspaper use but – contrary to expectations – an increase in television use among Europeans. On the other hand, the pilot studies also pointed out to the complexity of internet use, where multidimensionality is often accompanied by multilingual use (Vincze, 2012).

Television viewing refers here not to genre-specific use but much more overall viewing with special care to relative use of television in minority and majority languages, and the frequency of use of different channel types, where channel types are defined by language.

Theoretically, the research is located in the intersection of media studies and social psychology integrating ethnolinguistic identity theory (Giles & Johnson, 1981; 1987), uses and gratifications (Katz et al., 1973, 1974) and cultivation theory (Gerbner &

Gross, 1976). Based on this interdisciplinary approach a model will be proposed, which provides the angle to develop hypotheses.

Methodologically, the research is cross-sectional in nature (De Vaus, 2001) and based on a stratified sample drawn from secondary school students between the ages of 15 and 18. This choice was motivated by the fact that adolescence is an important period in life, located at the intersection between childhood and adulthood, when identity formation becomes central (Adams, Gullotta & Montemayor, 1992; Bourgeois, Busseri & Rose-Krasnor, 2009).

Concerning the methods, the research relies on a quantitative audience research, the results of which are analysed with multivariate statistical techniques.

1.3. Previous research pertaining to the topic

Although there is a general lack of knowledge about the relation between language and media use, several case studies provided important insights into certain aspects of this relationship, and highlighted the significance of language in media use in minority language contexts.

An important body of research addressed the sociolinguistic background of media choice in bilingual settings. Studies conducted among linguistic minorities, such as the Swedish minority in Finland (Nordqvist, 2002a, 2002b), the Hungarian minority in Slovakia (Vincze, 2010), the Hungarian minority in Romania, the German minority in South-Tyrol and the Finnish minority in Sweden (Moring et al., 2011) showed a more frequent use of majority language media in bilingual families than in monolingual minority language speaking families. Relatedly, Moring and his colleagues (2011) and Vincze (2010) demonstrated the effects of school background on media use, as individuals with a majority language school background used more majority language media than those with a minority language educational background. Research performed among Swedish-speaking Finns (Nordqvist, 2002a, 2002b; see also Moring & Husband, 2007) and Francophone Canadians (Clément, Baker, Josephson & Noels, 2005; Landry & Allard, 1994) revealed that the greater presence of the minority language in the surrounding geographical environment was related to more use of minority language media. It was also shown in Belize (Barnett, Oliveira & Johnson, 1989) and Canada (Gaudet & Clément, 2005) that the frequency of contact with a language in everyday life correlated significantly with preferences for and exposure to television viewing in that language.

Another cluster of studies focused on the bond between language competence and media use in bilingual contexts. Subervi-Velez (1986) reviewed a set of studies conducted among Latinos in the USA, which demonstrated that higher competence in English

was accompanied by greater preference for and exposure to English language media. Similarly, Ksiazek and Webster (2008) found that monolingual Spanish-speaking and English-speaking Americans consumed media products overwhelmingly in their own language, but language played a smaller role in the media consumption of those who had a better competence in the other language. In a comparative research performed among three minority language groups in Europe, Vincze and Harwood (2013b) connected language competence as a condition of media use, with language identity as a motivator in media use, and showed how competence and identity interact to predict media preferences and exposure.

Further, the connection between language identity and media use was revealed by several investigations, such as among Estonian speakers and Russian speakers in Estonia (Brady & Kaplan, 2000), among Swedish speakers in Finland (Sundback, 1994; Vincze & Moring, 2012, 2013) and among French speakers in Canada (e.g. Gaudet & Clément, 2005); higher identification with a language was associated with more use of the media in that language. Outstandingly though, a study performed among Chiapas in Mexico (Viladot, Giles, Esteban & Gasiorek, 2013) revealed a negative association between the use of minority language media and the intention of identity maintenance; Viladot and her colleagues explained this extraordinary result as an outcome of the specific minority language setting and the content of minority language media.

The relationship between language and media use was also addressed by longitudinal studies. Research conducted among Welsh-speaking children (Jones, 1982; Baker, 1985) indicated that English television use had some influence on linguistic attitudes even if there was rather small variation in the language of television viewing, as the participants used the Welsh language channel for about 5 % of their total viewing time. In Canada, Clément and his colleagues (2005) demonstrated among young Francophone adults that the increase of English language media brought about no change in identification with Francophones, however it enhanced the identification with Anglophones.

Additionally and importantly, some studies focusing on the use of minority language media *by majority language speakers* demonstrated that the use of German media in South-Tyrol (Vincze & Harwood, 2013a) and Swedish media in Finland (Harwood & Vincze, 2011, 2012) was related to better attitudes toward the minority language groups.

As this review pointed out, there is a relative richness of case studies that have documented empirical evidence about the language-media link in minority language settings. At the same time, while these studies provided important information about different aspects of the nexus between language and media use, research in this field is still at a preliminary stage and our understanding of the relationship between media and language is rather poor.

Ultimately, the field has remained theoretically underdeveloped. No extensive and

comprehensive theoretical framework was offered that would cover both the input and output of minority language media use, and point toward the possible underlying mechanisms. As a consequence, empirical case studies failed to establish firm evidence, and organizing and systematizing the findings of different cases could not contribute to a general, comprehensive knowledge about the field.

All in all, as it becomes clear from this reasoning, a study into the media use of language minorities actually addresses a missing link in research within communication and media studies.

1.4. The structure of the study

After introducing the study in the first chapter with the research rationale and the overall aims of the research, the second chapter attempts to clarify and explain some basic definitions concerning language, identity and media. In the third chapter the three regions are presented as regards demographic capital, status and institutional support of the minority languages (Giles et al., 1977) and the minority language media landscape with special view on television. The aim of the fourth chapter is to place the research in an integrated theoretical framework based on ethnolinguistic identity theory (Giles & Johnson, 1981, 1987), uses and gratifications (Katz et al., 1973, 1974) and cultivation theory (Gerbner & Gross, 1976). The fifth chapter presents the hypotheses formulated under the proposed framework. The sixth chapter outlines the design, the methods, and the techniques of analysis. Chapter seven explores the empirical results; the three regions will be examined separately. Chapter eight is devoted to the discussion of the findings; results obtained in the different regions will be synthesized and contrasted in a comparative way. In chapter nine, the findings will be placed in a broader context and implications for language policy and media policy will be outlined.

2. BASIC DEFINITIONS

The notion of ethnolinguistic vitality (Giles et al., 1977) was introduced in the second half of the 1970s, and, though conceptually contested (Ehala, 2010, 2011), refers to the overall strength of a language and its speakers based on factors as demography, status and institutional support. Traditionally, vitality is measured both at an objective (Giles et al., 1977) and subjective level (Bourhis, Giles & Rosenthal, 1981). Objective vitality is based on the available data to provide an overall assessment, while subjective vitality focuses on individuals' assessment of the vitality of their ethnolinguistic ingroup and outgroup. This study utilizes vitality as a general framework, and employs its conceptual toolbox across the paper.

In general terms, identity is approached here from a post-positivist perspective, which supports the idea that identity is complex and fluid, still salient, meaningful and relevant in any context (Alcoff, 2009, p. 157). Although, the terms “ethnic” and “ethnolinguistic” are often used interchangeably in the pertinent literature, the present study makes an important distinction in this respect. Based on the definition offered by Reid and Giles (2009), an *ethnolinguistic group* is regarded here as an ethnic group defined by its language, whereas *ethnolinguistic identity* is seen as an ethnic identity defined by language (see also Bourgeois, Busseri & Rose-Krasnor, 2009). Undoubtedly, language is not always a component of ethnic identity (Liebkind, 1999); however, in this research it is central and therefore accentuated.

Language is a critical element also with respect to the media related concepts. Media language refers here to the linguistic character of media use, that is, the language in which the media content is consumed. *Minority language media use* implies the use of media in the minority language including not only locally made media but also trans-frontier (cross-border; cf. Collins, 1994; Fillion, 1996) media produced elsewhere, while *majority language media use* means media use in the majority language.

3. THE CASES

3.1. South-Tyrol

Italy has twenty provinces and South-Tyrol is one of the five autonomous ones. The province is officially one of the two provinces that make up Italy's region of "Trentino-Alto Adige/Südtirol", which itself is an autonomous region with a broad institutional framework of self-government, and with three official languages: Italian and German at a regional level and Ladin at a local level.

Demography. The German-speaking minority of South-Tyrol lives on a compact area of 7400 km². Out of the 116 municipalities of the province 103 have a German majority; the proportion of German speakers is above 99 % in 21 settlements, and above 95 % in 46 settlements (ASTAT, 2010). In absolute terms, the German-speaking minority is one of the few traditional language minorities in Europe that is continuously growing in numbers: while there were 224 thousand German speakers in the area in 1910, in 2011 their number was 310 thousand. In relative terms, German speakers make up about 70 % of the population of South-Tyrol, which is nearly 0.5 % of the total population of Italy. The last official data on mixed marriages was made public in 1981. Then about 7 % or 6000 of the South-Tyrolese families involved an Italian and a German parent; in almost four fifths of the cases an Italian-speaking man married a German-speaking woman (Egger, 1985, 1996).

Status. South-Tyrol became a part of Italy as a result of the peace treaties following the First World War; this implied that German speakers got into a minority position (Gruber, 2008; Meraner, 2004). After decades of conflict, struggling and fights (Peterlini, 2005; Unterkircher, 2006), the situation of the German-speaking minority was settled by the Autonomy Statute, which was enforced in 1972. In the province both Italian and German are official languages today and have equal rights in almost every aspect of social life. The status of the languages is ensured by two special regulations, which are at the same time the most fundamental points of the autonomy. One of these is the principle of ethnic proportions: jobs in public administration, public housing and subsidy for culture and sport are divided in accordance with the proportion of language groups (Bonell & Winkler, 2006; Oberrauch, 2006). The other special regulation states that knowledge of both languages is obligatory in the public administration, and it is also obligatory to pass a language exam to occupy such positions.

Institutional support. The residual legislative power of South-Tyrol is vested in a provincial parliament (*Landtag*) which has 35 representatives. The government of the province has 11 members. The strongest German-speaking political organisation is the conservative South-Tyrolese People's Party, which now has 55,000 members. In the

legislation in Rome, the party has two representatives and three senators, as well as a member in the European Parliament. There are also three smaller radical German parties which have 1–5 seats in the *Landtag*. Regarding education, the language groups of South-Tyrol have their own school system from kindergarten to secondary school; and in 1997, a multilingual South-Tyrolean university was also founded. A further important institution is the Bozen-Brixen Catholic diocese, which was founded in 1964 and works in both Italian and German.

Media. The use of German in the mass media was legally authorized under Article 8.4 of Chapter 3 of the Autonomy Statute and its enacting laws, and is also given official encouragement by the provision of financial aid (Bonell & Winkler, 2006). As a consequence, the German-speaking media supply in South-Tyrol today could be considered very abundant thanks to both locally produced and foreign media products. There are two German dailies, the *Dolomiten* with a circulation of 56,000, and *Die Neue Südtiroler Tageszeitung* with 12,000 (Ebner & Rautz, 2006), some weeklies and monthlies; moreover, several Austrian, German and Swiss papers are available. The regional channel of the public radio is the RAI Sender Bozen, which has been airing German-speaking radio programmes since 1960. In accordance with the 1997 convention of the Council of Ministers, the channel broadcasts approximately 13 hours of programmes in German a day (Bonell & Winkler, 2006, p. 216). Besides RAI Sender Bozen, there are several private, commercial radio channels as well, such as Südtirol1, Radio Holiday and others. The German-language television landscape is similarly rich. The RAI Sender Bozen is a German-language regional channel of the Italian Broadcasting Company (RAI) which can be received with analogue and digital technology all over South-Tyrol. The minimum length of German-speaking programmes is 50 minutes per day; the channel primarily broadcasts news and cultural programmes. Besides, the Austrian National Public Service Broadcaster (ORF) has a program titled “Südtirol Heute” on weekdays, which also contains news and culture in 30 minutes.

One particular media institution is the public broadcasting service Rundfunkanstalt Südtirol (RAS). RAS was established in 1975 due to the presidential Decree 691/1973, which enabled South-Tyrol to set up the necessary technical equipment to relay public broadcasting German-language radio and television programmes of Austria, Germany, and Switzerland. All the public broadcasters from Austria, Germany and Switzerland give the possibility to RAS to relay their programmes (except for international sport events) without any cost; so the provincial citizens do not have to pay extra license fees. Both Italian and German language channels air foreign television series and films with dubbing.

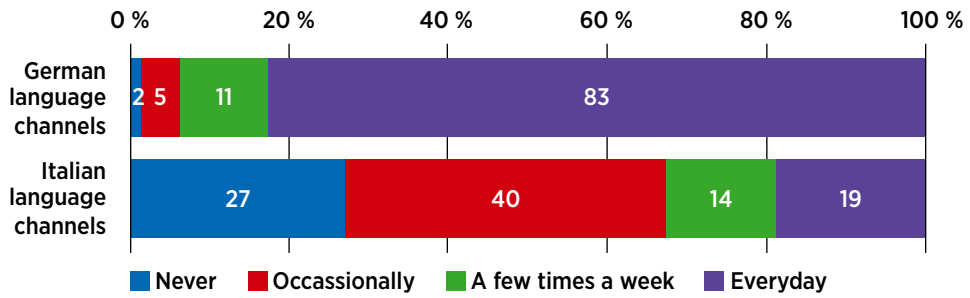


Figure 1. The frequency of use of German and Italian television channels among German speakers in South-Tyrol (N = 1134). The data is based on Ceccon, Egger, Giungaio & Plasinger (2006).

Figure 1 and Figure 2 show representative survey data about the television use among German-speaking South-Tyrolese. As it can be seen, both demonstrate the overwhelming use of German language channels and a scarce use of the Italian ones.

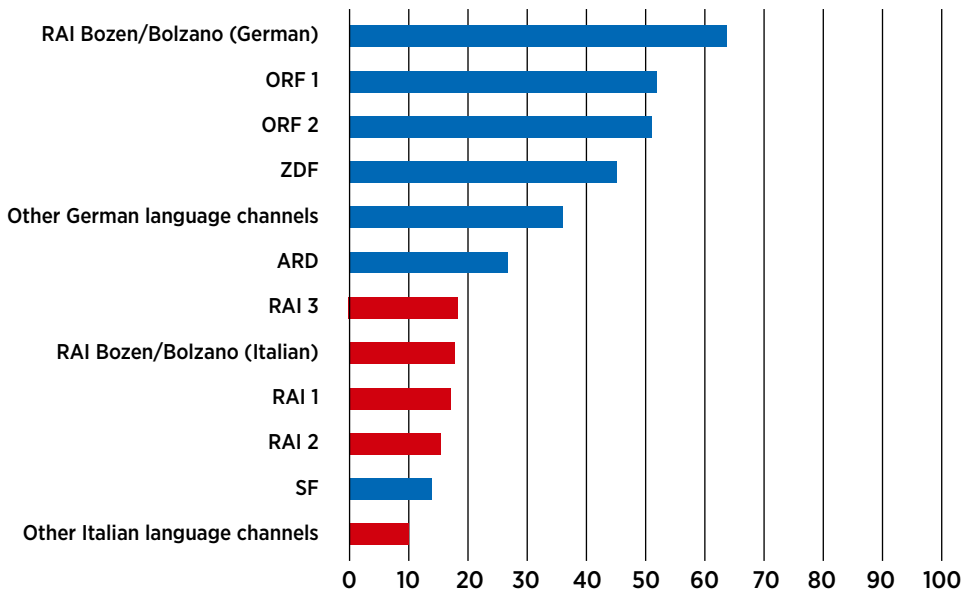


Figure 2. The frequency of daily use of specific German and Italian television channels among German speakers in South-Tyrol in percentages (N = 2087). Blue refers to German language channels, while red to Italian channels. The data is based on Ausserbrunner (2005).

3.2. Transylvania

Transylvania is a historical region in Romania populated, traditionally, by several ethnic groups. The most significant of these is the Hungarian minority in both demographic and political terms.

Demography. The census of 2011 found that 6.5 % of the population of Romania or 1,238,000 people are ethnic Hungarians. The Hungarian minority makes up a fifth of the population of Transylvania; in the western parts of the region, their proportion varies between 5 % and 30 %, whereas in the eastern part they make up more than 80 % of the population. At the same time, owing to forceful population transfer, assimilation and emigration, the proportion of Hungarians has been continuously decreasing since Transylvania became a part of Romania in 1920 (Kocsis, 1990, 2006; Varga E., 1996). Today, one third of the Hungarian population live in towns and villages where the proportion of Hungarians is over 80 % of the population; another 16 % live in settlements where the proportion of Hungarians is between 50 % and 80 % (Kocsis, 2006). In the last two decades, approximately one third of Hungarians founded interethnic marriages (Horváth, 2004), which are mostly oriented towards the Romanian language.

Status. After Transylvania became part of Romania following the First World War, an assimilation policy was launched (Köpeczi, Moskolczy & Szász, 1986), which extended across the communist dictatorship (Bottoni, 2008; Kovrig, 2000). The situation has improved in several aspects following the change of the political system and a return to democracy, but the social situation and lack of rights for the Hungarian minority often lead to ethnic conflicts and are frequently the subjects of political debates. The Hungarian language has no official status in Romania. At the same time, according to the Romanian public administration law (2001/215), local authorities have to allow the use of the minority language in administrative units where more than 20 % of the population belong to a minority group. However, there are various studies on the limitations to the linguistic rights ensured by the law (Péntek & Benő, 2003; Veress, 2005), which usually emphasize the fact that the effect of laws is usually very weak in Romania and that the majority of employees in the public sector are Romanian speakers and they generally do not speak Hungarian even in towns where Hungarian speakers make up the majority of the local population. Notably, in the last few years several precedential condemning rulings were made in cases where a public administration job announcement in a Hungarian majority territory required speaking Hungarian, as the courts claimed this was discrimination against applicants who do not speak Hungarian (see Krónika, 2005, 2008, 2009).

Institutional support. The Hungarian minority has two political parties: the Democratic Union of Hungarians in Romania and the Hungarian Civic Party; the former has

18 MPs and 9 senators. There is a Hungarian school system in Romania including pre-schools, elementary schools, vocational schools and high schools; and there are some higher education institutions, which provide instruction also in Hungarian. Regarding informal institutions such as churches, theatres and other cultural institutions, the Hungarian language is considerably more often present.

Media. There are 14 Hungarian dailies in Transylvania, with a combined circulation of approximately 150 thousand; two of these are national dailies (the *Krónika* and the *Új Magyar Szó*), whereas the rest are regional or local papers (Magyari, 2003). Besides, there are more than 20 weeklies in Hungarian, and at areas populated mostly by Hungarians one can find press from Hungary, too. The Romanian Public Radio has four regional studios that air Hungarian programmes: the ones in Cluj/Kolozsvár and Târgu Mureş/Marosvásárhely air 4–6 hours a day, and the ones in Bucharest and Timișoara/Temesvár air one hour a day in Hungarian (Gáspár, 2001, 2008). Gáspár (2008) counted some 40 commercial radio channels that air in Hungarian too (including those that air only 15 minutes of Hungarian programmes a day). There is no state financed Hungarian television channel in Romania; the Romanian Public Television airs six and a half hours a week in Hungarian, which is about less than 1 % of the total broadcasting time. As a result, watching Hungarian language television relies primarily on channels coming from Hungary. The availability of television channels from Hungary is not institutionally and centrally organised but it depends on the composition of the local packages of service providers varying from settlement to settlement. Romanian language channels air foreign television series and films with original voice and Romanian subtitles, while the Hungarian channels do it with dubbing.

There is no published representative statistics about the linguistic characteristics of the television use among the Hungarian minority. Figure 3, however, shows the results of a representative survey about the frequency of the use of different Hungarian and Romanian channels. These suggest that the television use of the Hungarian minority is dominated by the Hungarian language.

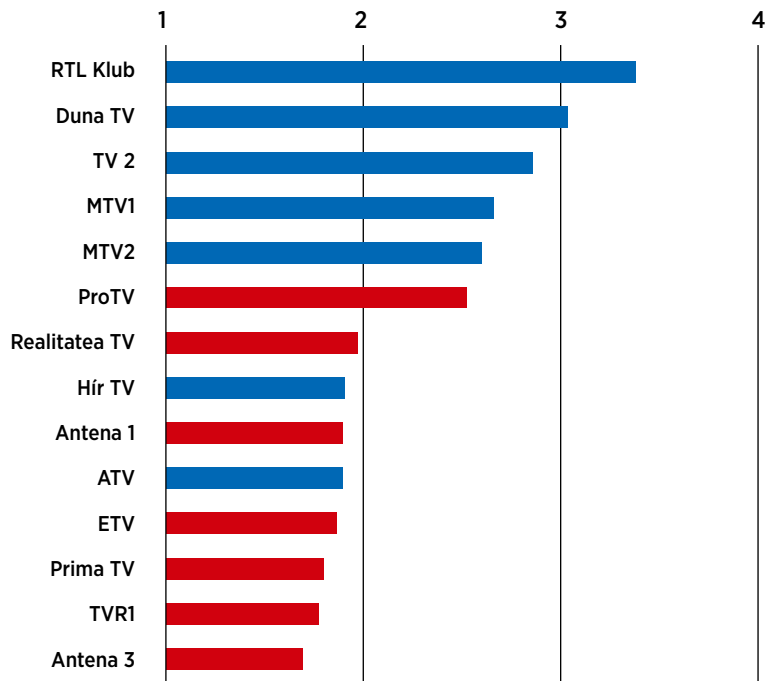


Figure 3. The frequency of use of certain Hungarian and Romanian television channels among Hungarian speakers in Transylvania (N = 1190). 1 = almost never, 4 = every day. Blue refers to Hungarian language channels, while red to Romanian channels. The data is based on the public survey “Közélet és közérzet” conducted by the Romanian Institute for the Research on National Minorities in 2011 (unpublished).

3.3. Southern Finland

Finland is a bilingual country, with Finnish and Swedish as national languages. Although the Swedish minority owns a sense of their language, culture and different traditions, they regard themselves neither as Swedes nor as a separate ethnic group, but as Swedish-speaking Finns.

Demography. Today 285 thousand persons speak Swedish as their mother tongue (about 5.4 % of the total population of the country: Finnäs, 2010). Southern Finland is one of the two bilingual regions of the country, populated by Finnish speakers and Swedish speakers. However, while Swedish speakers make up the overwhelming majority on the autonomous Åland-islands (90 %) and a slight majority in the region of Ostrobothnia (52 %), the southern coast of Finland is dominated by the Finnish language and Swedish is the mother tongue of only 12 % of the inhabitants. In absolute terms it implies 134,000 Swedish speakers in Southern Finland. The municipalities in Southern Finland can be grouped according to their linguistic structure: Swedish-dominated municipalities where two thirds of inhabitants speak Swedish as a mother tongue; municipalities where the proportion of Swedish speakers varies between 20 % and 40 %; and, the big cities of the Finnish capital area as Helsinki, Vantaa and Espoo where Swedish speakers make up only a small fraction (4-8 %) of the population. Both the absolute numbers and proportion of Swedish speakers have declined slowly but steadily since the Second World War, which can be traced back to two main reasons: first, during the industrialization in the 1950s and 1960s a great number of Finnish speakers moved to the formerly Swedish dominated areas from the other parts of the country; second, during the economic recession of the 1950s and 1960s about 60,000 Swedish-speaking Finns migrated to Sweden (Finnäs, 2010; Tandefelt & Finnäs, 2007). At present, 40 % of the Swedish-speaking men and 33 % of the Swedish-speaking women marry a Finnish-speaking partner; children growing up in bilingual families often attend Swedish schools (Finnäs, 2010).

Status. Until 1863, Swedish was the only official language in Finland; however, Finnish rapidly became the dominant language after the country's independence in 1917 (Liebkind, 1982; The Swedish Assembly of Finland, 2004). The Constitution of Finland and the Language Act declare that Finnish and Swedish are the two national languages of the country. As it is posited in Section 17 of the Finnish Constitution, "The national languages of Finland are Finnish and Swedish. The right of everyone to use his or her own language, either Finnish or Swedish, before courts of law and other authorities, and to receive official documents in that language, shall be guaranteed by an Act. The public authorities shall provide for the cultural and societal needs of the Finnish-speaking and Swedish-speaking populations of the country on an equal basis." The rights of the languages are ensured by the Language Act (Ministry of Justice, 2004),

according to which Finnish or Swedish can be used officially in municipalities where the speakers of the language make up 8 % of the local population or 3,000 persons.

Institutional support. The high status of Swedish is accompanied by a broad institutional network at both formal and informal levels, which provides cultural autonomy for the Swedish-speaking minority. This includes among others a complete educational system in Swedish from pre-school education to universities, an evangelical Lutheran church diocese and a military unit where the training is provided in Swedish. When it comes to politics, there is a Swedish political party in Finland, the Swedish People's Party, which has been in governmental position since 1979 and also some other parties have a Swedish section.

Media. There are eight Swedish daily newspapers in Finland with a total circulation of 140,000 copies a day. One of these, the Hufvudstadsbladet is a national paper; one, the Vasabladet is a regional paper, while the others are local in nature. The Finnish Broadcasting Company (YLE) provides two Swedish radio channels, one of which was started in the late 1990s for the younger audience. YLE also has a Swedish television channel. YLE Fem, a digital public service television channel, was launched in 2001 and offers news, children's and youth programs, documentaries, talk shows, sport and cultural programs, and some movies. As YLE Fem presents overwhelmingly homemade productions in prime time, which are oriented to the Finnish society, the role of the channel is decisive in contextualizing and interpreting the reality of its audience from a Finland-Swedish point of view. The target audience of the channel is the Swedish-speaking Finns; however, the majority of the programming is subtitled in Finnish making it accessible to Finnish speakers. Since September 2011, YLE Fem has shared the program with SVT World, the international television channel from the Swedish broadcaster Sveriges Television. Alongside the Western coast of the country, where people have free access to television channels from Sweden, transfrontier television viewing is also noteworthy; it is however, much more uncommon in Southern Finland, where subscribers of television channels from Sweden must pay for an extra broadcast receiving license. Both Finnish and Swedish language channels air foreign television series and films with original voice and subtitles.

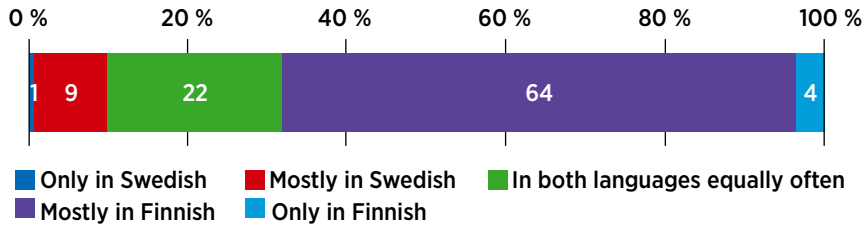


Figure 4. The linguistic characteristics of television viewing among Swedish speakers in Southern Finland (N = 532). Unpublished survey data, Gallup Finland (2009).

Figure 4 and Figure 5 show unpublished demographically representative survey data collected by TNS-Gallup Finland in 2009 among Swedish speakers. As it can be seen, the television viewing of the Swedish speakers in Southern Finland is characterized largely by the use of Finnish language.

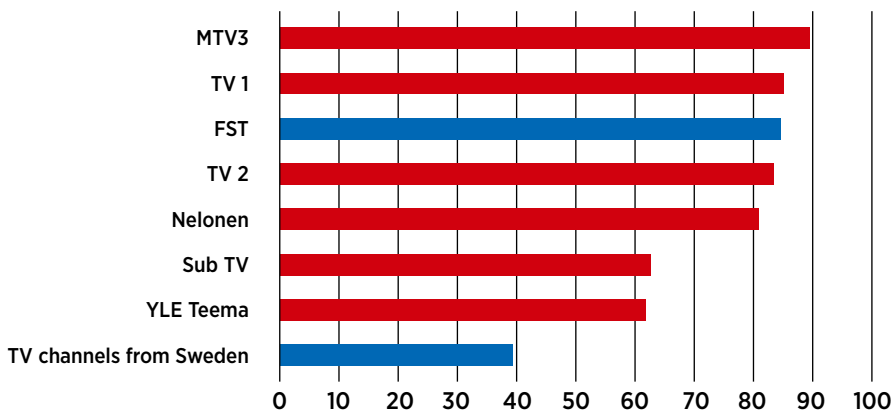


Figure 5. The frequency of daily use of certain Swedish and Finnish television channels among Swedish speakers in Southern Finland in percentages (N = 532). Blue refers to Swedish language channels, while red to Finnish channels. Unpublished survey data, Gallup Finland (2009).

3.4. Summary

Taken together, German in South-Tyrol, Hungarian in Transylvania and Swedish in Southern Finland are characterized by different objective ethnolinguistic vitalities, that is, different degrees of demography, status and institutional support. Overall, the vitality of German in South-Tyrol can be seen as very strong regarding all three dimensions; Hungarian in Transylvania presents a case in which low status and weak institutional support is accompanied by a moderately good demographic capital; whereas Swedish in Southern Finland may be considered as a language with high status and institutional support but a lower demographic position.

In parallel, German speakers in South-Tyrol appear to have a much wider range of options in their language regarding all three media types than the Hungarian minority in Transylvania and Swedish minority in Southern Finland. Especially, a remarkable variance can be noticed between the regions concerning the television supply. As it is summarized in Table 1, the South-Tyrolese can have contact with locally made as well as transfrontier television channels in German; Transylvanians can view only television channels from Hungary; whilst people in Southern Finland have free access to merely one locally made television channel in Swedish.

Table 1. Objective Vitality of the Minority Languages and Access to Minority Language Television Channels.

	South-Tyrol	Transylvania	Southern Finland
Demographic capital	Strong	Moderate	Weak
Status	High	Low	High
Institutional support	Strong	Weak	Strong
Regional television channel	+	-	+
Transfrontier television channels	+	+	-

4. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

4.1. Ethnolinguistic identity theory

Ethnolinguistic identity theory (ELIT; Giles & Johnson, 1981, 1985) is designed for understanding the relationship between identity and language behaviour in bilingual contexts (for an overview, see Liebkind, 1996; Burns, 2010). Conceptually, the theory is an offspring of social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), which addresses the ways in which individuals develop a sense of belonging to various social groups and define themselves in the light of these group memberships. According to social identity theory, a particular group membership can be associated with positive or negative sense, and has meaning only through comparisons with other groups. The theory posits that people endeavour to reach a positive sense of social identity through making their social group favourably distinct from and relatively superior to other groups on valued dimensions. The theory argues that individuals have a wide repertoire of group memberships (like class, gender, nationality, age and others) that vary in relative overall importance in the self-concept (Hogg, 1996).

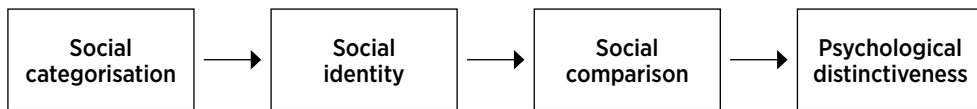


Figure 6. Causal sequence in social identity theory (adapted from Oakes, 2001).

Ethnolinguistic identity theory places language in the centre of social categorizations and claims that in cases where language is a salient component of identification, individuals strive for a positive psychological distinctiveness along ethnolinguistic dimensions. When a positive ethnolinguistic identity is reached, people will adapt strategies to promote a linguistic differentiation (Giles & Viladot, 1994; Liebkind, 1996; Sachdev & Bourhis, 1990). However, when the comparison with the ethnolinguistic outgroup leads to a negative sense of ethnolinguistic identity, other strategies will be utilized to implement a more fitting self-concept (Abrams et al., 2003; Hogg & Abrams 1988; Reid et al., 2004). Specifically, people can make efforts to pass into the ethnolinguistic outgroup (“mobility”), attempt to maintain their ethnolinguistic identity while avoiding confrontation with the outgroup (“creativity”), or seek to strengthen or reverse the position of their ethnolinguistic ingroup typically via direct confrontation with the outgroup or by challenging the status quo (“competition”).

According to ELIT, ethnolinguistic mobility is associated with the perception of low

ethnolinguistic vitality, more permeable intergroup boundaries and stable intergroup relations. High vitality, less permeable boundaries and a stable status quo between the groups can lead to ethnolinguistic creativity. While ethnolinguistic competition arises when the ethnolinguistic group has high vitality, the intergroup boundaries are less permeable and the status relations can be changed (Reid et al., 2004).

Table 2. Ethnolinguistic Identity Management Strategies.

Mobility	Creativity	Competition
Low identification	High identification	High identification
Soft boundaries	Hard boundaries	Hard boundaries
Legitimate status	Legitimate status	Illegitimate status
Stable status	Stable status	Unstable status
Low ingroup vitality	Moderate ingroup vitality	High ingroup vitality

(adapted from Reid et al., 2004)

According to ethnolinguistic identity theory the sense of an ethnolinguistic identity depends on three main factors, more specifically, on their interplay. The first of these is ethnolinguistic vitality (for a review, see Bourhis & Barrette, 2006), which links language organically to the social identity perspective. Vitality stands for the strength of an ethnolinguistic group compared to that of its rival group, and is defined as a capacity “which makes a group likely to behave as a distinctive and collective entity within the intergroup setting” (Giles, Bourhis & Taylor, 1977, p. 308). Three broad dimensions of sociostructural variables are important here: demography (population numbers and distribution, birth rate, endogamy, immigration/emigration rates), status (economic, wealth, social and socio-historical prestige) and institutional support both at formal and informal level (education, public services, religion, culture). Ethnolinguistic vitality can be assessed in objective (Giles et al., 1977) as well as in subjective terms (Bourhis et al., 1981).

The other factor, which plays a role in the perception of ethnolinguistic identity, is the nature of the boundary set between the ethnolinguistic groups (Barth, 1969). Ethnolinguistic groups may be considered as occupying different positions along a continuum from perceived “soft” to “hard” boundaries both in linguistic and non-linguistic dimensions (Giles, 1979), which can be characterized in terms of distinctiveness, strength and value (Ross, 1979). Finally, as people have a large repertoire of social group memberships, ethnolinguistic identity theory takes into account the relative prominence of language in the totality of social group memberships (Beebe & Giles, 1984; Johnson, Giles & Bourhis, 1983).

In summation, ethnolinguistic identity theory proposes that higher vitality, hard and closed boundaries and identification with few other social groups contribute to a strong and positive ethnolinguistic identity, which, in turn, enhances the likelihood of maintaining an ethnolinguistic group membership and the related distinctive language

practices (Giles & Johnson, 1981, 1987). By contrast, when vitality is low, boundaries are soft and more permeable, and individuals have other attractive group memberships, ethnolinguistic identity will be more negative and the probability of ethnolinguistic differentiation will decrease (Hogg & Abrams, 1988; Reid et al., 2004). Additionally, however, the theory asserts that members of an ethnolinguistic group are likely to maintain their ethnolinguistic identity and the distinctive language practices even in cases where boundaries are hard and vitality is perceived to be low, and also in cases where boundaries are soft and vitality is perceived to be high (Giles & Johnson, 1987).

The ethnolinguistic framework proposed by Giles and colleagues has been criticised from different angles over the years. Vitality has been condemned because its factorial structure by several authors (e.g. Hansen & Liu, 1997; Husband & Khan, 1982; Moring & Husband, 2009), who usually pointed out, that the variables in question are not independent of each other or mutually exclusive, and that vitality lacks the means of weighting them. Similarly, empirical studies utilizing subjective vitality questionnaire (Bourhis et al., 1981) often demonstrated a low reliability of the three underlying dimensions (status, institutional support and demography), thus the three-factor structure could not be consistently confirmed (for an overview and discussion, see Abrams, Barker & Giles, 2009); instead, status, institutional support and demography variables were usually collapsed into one single compound measure, whose reliability was satisfactory. Besides, vitality has also been criticized on grounds such as conceptual unclearness (Ehala, 2010, 2011) for ignoring important language specific components (as e.g. the linguistic distance between languages; Haarmann, 1986), for disregarding historical and political background (Edwards, 2005) and for lacking the ability to deal with large-scale groups such as nations (Husband & Khan, 1982; Oakes, 2001). Nevertheless, despite such criticism and doubt, the application, development and refinements of the approach have been furthered for more than three decades, and literally hundreds of academic studies have utilized the tenets of vitality in both theoretical and empirical terms.

When it comes to identity, the criticism has mostly been concerned with the dichotomized view of the theory, which is implemented in the so-called monolingual-assimilationist bias (Husband & Khan, 1982; Liebkind, 1996; Oakes, 2001). The monolingual bias refers to the theory being incapable of handling bilingual identity, that is, when two ethnolinguistic group memberships are integrated into a hybrid ethnolinguistic identity encompassing both (see Dallaire, 2003; Dallaire & Claude, 2005; Dallaire & Denis, 2000; Lojander-Visapää, 2008; Pieterse, 2001). Relatedly, the assimilationist bias implies that the theory regards language maintenance to be an either/or exclusive process ending in separation or assimilation (Liebkind, 1999).

A further concern can be that although the notion of multiple memberships and its contribution to ethnolinguistic identification is evidently correct, the empirical meas-

urability of the salience of language relative to other social identities seems to be rather problematic. Partly, this could also be the reason that most follow-up studies into ethnolinguistic identity failed to measure multiple memberships. For this methodological reason, the present study does not apply a distinct measure to assess the importance of language among the other social group memberships. At the same time, ethnolinguistic identity theory (Giles & Johnson, 1981, 1987) fails to include a variable on the perceived stability of the intergroup status, that is, the extent to which status relations between the ethnolinguistic groups are likely to be realized as it was argued by social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Therefore, based on Reid et al. (2004) this research will consider and treat stability as a contextually relevant variable regarding ethnolinguistic identity, which expresses the degree to which individuals believe that the power hierarchy between the minority group and the majority group can be changed (Turner & Brown, 1978). When intergroup hierarchy is perceived as unstable, the minority group is more likely to challenge the status quo and fight for collective rights and self-determination (i.e. competition); however, in the case of a more stable hierarchy this option is less realistic, therefore mobility or creativity are more typical strategies.

Finally, it has to be mentioned that in contrast to vitality, only a few empirical studies attempted to systematically test the propositions of ethnolinguistic identity theory (Liebkind, 1996) and even those were based on rather small samples (Giles & Johnson, 1987; Ytsma, Viladot & Giles, 1994).

Against a background like this, the present study employs an ethnolinguistic identity perspective to study the context of the media use of language minorities. Specifically, inspired by the reasoning of Abrams et al. (2003) and Reid et al. (2004), this study attempts to integrate tenets of ethnolinguistic identity theory with two, though debated, widely influential theories of media effects in a novel and theoretically sound manner: cultivation theory and uses and gratifications.

At the same time, it should be accentuated that the approach offered by this study differs from that by Abrams et al. (2003) and Reid et al. (2003) in two important ways. First, while the aforementioned authors focused on *ethnic groups* (as e.g. African-Americans) and how selective and non-selective consumption of television programs, which include negative or positive media portrayals of the given ethnic group, is related to ethnic identification, the present research concentrates on *language minorities* and their media use in the context of ethnolinguistic identity, where the “linguistic element” is central. Second, and allied to this, while ethnicity (and also other social identities as age, gender and others) appears in the content of television programs through the physical characteristics of the featuring persons, language can emerge not only in the appearance of media figures but also as the channel between media and media user, through which the message is transmitted. Consequently, television constitutes an important dimension of social identity and ethnolinguistic communication.

4.2. Uses and gratifications

The major purposes of the uses and gratifications (U&G) are to understand how the audience uses the media to gratify different needs, to explain what factors motivate media use, and to determine the outcomes of media use (Katz et al., 1974). Broadly, uses and gratifications researchers assert that in order to explain media effects, we must first understand the characteristics, motivation, selectivity, and involvement of audience members (Rubin, 2002) because these features can mediate or moderate the effects of media (Krcmar & Strizhakova, 2009). The theory is based on the assumptions that media use is motivated, goal-directed, and purposive behaviour; people freely select media sources that best fulfil or satisfy their needs; media use is led by individual differences, and social and psychological factors; beside media use, people also have other alternatives to gratify their needs; in the process of media use people are often more influential than the media (Rubin, 2002; see also Palmgreen, Wenner & Rosengren, 1985).

In their seminal work, McQuail and his colleagues (McQuail, Blumler & Brown, 1972) categorized the different media motives into four main clusters: *diversion* referring to emotional release, escape from routine or problems; *personal relationship* including relationship and social utility; *personal identity* relating self-reference and value reinforcement; and *surveillance*, that is, seeking information.

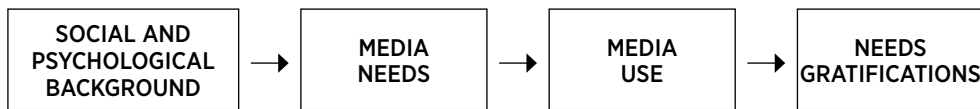


Figure 7. A model of uses and gratifications

Most uses and gratifications studies draw a distinction between the expectations in media use formed in advance of exposure and the satisfactions subsequently secured from consumption of the given media (Katz et al., 1973; Krcmar & Strizhakova, 2009; Rayburn, 2009; Rosengren, Wenner & Palmgreen, 1985), which has been usually referred to as ‘gratifications sought’ and ‘gratifications obtained’. In agreement with this notion, a significant body of research was built on the merging of uses and gratifications and expectancy value theory, and it was argued that gratification is a function of expectancy that the given medium will provide and the evaluation attached to the gratification at hand (Palmgreen & Rayburn, 1985; Pietilä, 2005).

The uses and gratifications approach has been considerably criticized over the years on several grounds (for a review, see Rubin, 2002, p. 530-531). For one thing, the rationality of media use and activity of audience has been called into question by several authors, who generally pointed out that media exposure is not always related to gratifications (e.g. Biocca, 1988). Others argued that the theory overestimates the part of

the individual and neglects the impact of the media itself on media use; though media structure does not always meet the individual needs but has an individual effect on both the volume and direction of media consumption (Cooper & Tang, 2009; McQuail, 2005; Webster & Newton, 1988; Webster & Wakshlag, 1983; Weibull, 1985).

Another body of criticism addressed the uncertainty of the typologies of media motives. Although, the initial categorization of media motives (McQuail et al., 1972) have remained the core of many uses and gratifications studies, researchers have continued to seek new motives and group them in different ways (e.g. Katz et al., 1973; Lin, 1999; Rubin, 1993). At the same time, even the idea of motives for media selection has been called into question. In an earlier work, Elliott (1974) argued that media-related needs are socially learned and not inborn, and, consequently, motives cannot play a mediator role between the social and psychological background and media use (see also Roe & Minnebo, 2007).

Concern was also raised because of the methodological approaches of the empirical uses and gratifications studies. Several researchers posed questions on self-report surveys (Gantz, 1996; Roe, 1996), and the validity of the standard U&G instruments (see Palmgreen, Wenner & Rayburn, 1980; Rubin, 1981), and pointed out that the employed methodology can easily bias the results. In a similar vein, Hendriks Vettehen and Van Snippenburg casted doubt on the wording and the grammatical structure of the items in the typical uses and gratifications questionnaires and argued that “motivation items grammatically reflect the nature of the motivation concept as a theoretically intermediate variable between behaviour and its social or mental background, thus constituting the most plausible indicators of the concept” (2002, p. 259). Importantly, researchers raised their voice against the one-sided use of multidimensional Likert-scale scaling, and urged the use of qualitative methods (e.g. Schröder, 1999).

Notwithstanding though the criticism and doubts, uses and gratifications have preserved their relevance and provoked a great amount of research, which contributed to different clarifications, improvements and refinements, and made the approach widely influential, including several streams and trends.

One of these efforts was to extend the scope of uses and gratifications toward social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Specifically, Harwood (1997, 1999a, 1999b) proposed that gratifications may operate at the level of social identity as individuals may seek media depiction that “strengthen their identification with a particular social group and/or make that identification more positive” (Harwood, 1999a, p. 123). His idea of social identity gratifications is based on the suggestion that social identity can be a motivational variable for seeking out specific media contents, whilst media in this way can support or reinforce that identity.

Harwood (1997, 1999a, 1999b) found empirical support for this notion: in his studies conducted among young television viewers, age-group identity gratifications

were separated from traditional gratifications and correlated with age-group identification; furthermore social identity reinforcement was sought more by television viewers with stronger identity than by those with weaker identity. In a similar study, Trepte (2004) found that television viewing was guided by gender identity as women preferred television series with female lead characters more than with male lead characters. More recently, Abrams and Giles found among African Americans (2007) and Latinos (2009) that ethnic identity was an important motivator when selecting television programs. Finally, in a set of experimental studies Knobloch-Westerwick and her colleagues demonstrated the role gender (Knobloch-Westerwick & Hastall, 2006), age (Knobloch-Westerwick & Hastall, 2006, 2010) and race (Knobloch-Westerwick, Appiah & Alter, 2008) in news selection. Specifically, individuals preferred news items featuring same-gender and same-age characters (Knobloch-Westerwick & Hastall, 2006, 2010); similarly, Blacks preferred news stories featuring Black people and spent more than twice the reading time on them compared to exposure to news stories featuring Whites, while race was not a motivating factor among White people (Knobloch-Westerwick et al., 2008).

In line with the notion of social identity gratifications and the related empirical observations, it can be proposed that ethnolinguistic identity can also be a motivational variable in media use, whilst media can, in turn, support or reinforce ethnolinguistic identity. More particularly, identification with a language can motivate individuals to prefer and expose themselves to television viewing in that language. However, ethnolinguistic identity gratifications may not be seen as the only, exclusive variable in the process of media use; rather, it can be seen as a co-function, whilst the other functions of the uses and gratifications work simultaneously and generate multiple needs (c.f. Harwood & Roy, 2005).

4.3. Cultivation theory

One of the major theories, which strives to explore the media-audience relationship, is cultivation theory (Gerbner & Gross, 1976). Broadly, cultivation theory focuses on the long-term exposure to television and its more or less independent contribution to people's socialisation, life-style and conceptions of social reality (Morgan & Shanahan, 2010). The main proposition of the theory is, that the more time people spend watching television and being immersed in that mediated world, the more likely it is that they will perceive the real world in greater accord with the way it is presented by television (Morgan, 2008; Signorielli, 2008).

Cultivation theory sees television as a coherent 'system of messages', whose themes are roughly consistent across different genres of programming (Gerbner et al., 2002),

and calls into question the sovereignty and activity of the audience member (Signorielli & Morgan, 1996).



Figure 8. Antecedent model of cultivation.

Two major tenets of the theory are mainstreaming and resonance. Mainstreaming refers to the role of television in a certain homogenization of otherwise divergent viewers: heavy television viewing may erode the variances in people’s perceptions and views stemming from other factors than television (such as from their socio-demographic background and others). In parallel, resonance refers to the intensified effect on the audience when the messages of the television correspond to what people have experienced in life: the combination of everyday reality and television viewing results in a ‘double dose’ which resonates with the individual (Gerbner et al., 2002).

In its original form, cultivation research consisted of three parts (Signorielli, 2008; Signorielli & Morgan, 1996): institutional process analysis investigating the organizational forms and power relations of the institutions that produce mass-mediated messages; message system analysis examining the structures and patterns of the dominant mediated messages (mostly, apart from genres, quality or aesthetic value of the programs); and cultivation analysis studying the relationships between television consumption and its cognitive, affective and behavioural outcomes on the audience.

Initially, cultivation research focused mostly on television violence; however, over the years the investigation has branched out into many other domains including gender roles, aging and the elderly, religion, health and nutrition, environmental attitudes, and political orientations (for a review, see Shanahan & Morgan, 1999; Morgan, 2008). Though not without controversy, cultivation theory has received significant empirical support across a wide variety of topics and in different societies. Remarkably, Shanahan and Morgan (1999) pointed out through a meta-analysis of over two decades of cultivation research that television viewing makes a small but consistent contribution to viewers’ beliefs and perspectives.

For a long time, the theory failed to explain the mechanisms underlying how individuals process and interpret television messages. More recently, though, Shrum and his colleagues (for a review, see Shrum, 2001, 2004) have provided some influential explication in this regard through operationalizing two vital concepts, construct accessibility and the availability heuristic. By construct accessibility they mean the ease with which audience members can recall different constructs, such as thoughts and experiences from their mind. This ability depends mainly on the recency and the frequency of its activation, and suggests that the more time people spend watching television, the

more easily they can activate the concepts they receive from television messages. The other notion, availability heuristic refers to the way in which individuals evaluate things in life: instead of devoting greater mental effort to making judgments about things on their own, most people tend to use judgmental heuristics in order to facilitate judgment tasks and rely heavily on outside/external judgments such as they are provided by television. Taken together, construct accessibility and availability heuristic can explain why people who spend more time watching television perceive reality to be more similar to the one they view on television.

Cultivation theory has been assailed from many directions over the years. Newcomb (1978) pointed out the conceptual gap between the theory and its methodological apparatus, and questioned the applicability of survey methods and content analysis in assessing cultural effects. Doob and MacDonald (1979) condemned the suggested causal mechanisms between television viewing and perceptions of crime. Although, their overall research confirmed the cultivation hypothesis, the relationship between television viewing and fear of crime disappeared when it was controlled for the crime in people's neighbourhoods. In a similar vein, cultivation effects were also called into question for neglecting social control variables for age, gender, education and others (Hirsch, 1981; Potter, 1991). More specifically, Hirsch performed a reanalysis of cultivation data presented by Gerbner and his colleagues, and found no support for cultivation effects when the variables were controlled. Hawkins and Pingree (1980) highlighted that the theory suffers from ignoring media content such as the variety of media genres, and argued that cultivation researchers should focus on content-based measures rather than on "total viewing". Besides, several studies pointed out that the theory addresses the American audience with its particular media behaviour and habits, and the impact of television is significantly less in other countries and cultures (Cohen & Weimann, 2000; Hawkins & Pingree, 1981; Wober, 1990).

The relevance of combining cultivation theory and ethnolinguistic identity theory rests on three pillars.

Firstly, Harwood and Roy (2005) argue that as television presents different social groups and their position in a society in a particular way, it has a potential to influence how individuals perceive cognitions as the vitality of their group, the status hierarchy between groups, the cognitive alternatives and attitudes. Indeed, different studies demonstrated among African Americans (Abrams & Giles, 2007), Latinos (Abrams & Giles, 2009) and Asian Americans (Abrams, 2010) that ethnic identity was an important motivator when selecting television programs, while television use, in turn, influenced the perception of ethnolinguistic vitality. In a similar vein, Vincze and Harwood (2012) found that among Hungarian speakers in Slovakia language identity guided the use of television in Hungarian and Slovakian, which consecutively contributed to the perception of vitality. Specifically, though, it can be proposed that the minority language television channels and majority language television channels provide, at least

partly, different information about the world and present the information differently. This information then may be used to form beliefs about the minority language and the minority language speakers, such as the number and characteristics of the minority language group, public support for the minority language, and type of behaviours in which group minority language speakers engage (cf. Abrams & Giles, 2007, p. 121).

Secondly, television is an important cultural environment and also an important vehicle of culture. Indeed, several studies demonstrated the role of television in acculturation among immigrant groups (e.g. Hyung-Jin & Dominick, 2003; Raman & Harwood, 2008; Stilling, 1997). These studies showed that greater exposure to the host country's television was associated with a greater adaptation to the host culture. Acculturation is also a pertinent process in minority language settings and is influenced largely by contact between the minority and the majority language group (Clément, Noels & Deneaults, 2001; Gaudet & Clément, 2005; Liebkind, 1999). Subsequently, it is reasonable to suppose that those minority language speakers, who are more immersed in the majority language culture via television, adopt majority language culture elements and attributes to a greater degree, and accordingly, will see the world more through the eyes of majority language speakers than those who view majority language television programs more rarely.

Thirdly, research within the vitality framework led to the development of the concept of individual network of linguistic contacts (INLC; Allard & Landry, 1994; Landry & Allard, 1994). Landry and Allard argue, that linguistic contacts allow for the individual "to be a receptor or a transmitter of linguistic information, or both" (Landry & Allard, 1994, p. 24). Linguistic contacts with the minority and the majority language group provide different ethnolinguistic experiences, which contribute to the perceptions of ethnolinguistic reality in different ways. Indeed, linguistic contacts act as a bridge between the objective sociostructural circumstances and conditions, and their subjective perception. Being a vehicle of power and prestige, television is a status-based domain (Landry & Allard, 1994), and the ethnolinguistic experiences gained in contact with television may exert decisive influence on the subjective perception of the objective sociostructural conditions.

All in all, based on the three assumptions listed above, it can be suggested that the dynamics of viewing television in the minority and majority languages can affect the perception of the relative position of the ethnolinguistic group, and contribute differently to their ethnolinguistic orientation and the related strategies among minority language speakers (Abrams et al., 2003; Reid et al., 2004).

Specifically, as viewing minority language television suggests a degree of involvement with the minority language and the minority language group, it is reasonable to expect that using television in the minority language should influence vitality, permeability, and stability (as outlined in chapter 4.1.), so that these factors contribute to the strate-

gies minority group members endorse for maintaining minority language identities. Simultaneously, as majority language television viewing suggests a willingness to engage with the majority language group and its language, it is rational to suppose that using television in the majority language should influence the perception of vitality, permeability, and stability, so that these contribute to the strategies minority group members endorse to suppress minority language identities.

Although merging cultivation theory and ethnolinguistic identity theory seems to be suitable and relevant in this study, some accommodations are necessary. Importantly, in its original form, cultivation research was tailored for the American audience, whose television consumption was far larger than that of the European audience. The present investigation places language in the centre of cultivation process, and makes distinctions between television viewers not based on their average viewing time, but according to the linguistic variation in the amount of viewing.

5. RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

More recently, different models were developed to examine media use from the angle of social identity (e.g. Harwood, 1997, 1999; Trepte, 2006) and, relatedly, ethnic identity (Johnson, 2010; Reid et al., 2004); and there were efforts to integrate uses and gratifications and cultivation into a single framework (Bilandzic & Rössler, 2004; Slater, 2007). Inspired by the idea of social identity gratifications and the work of Reid and his colleagues, the present research proposes a more extensive and comprehensive model to study ethnolinguistic television use (see Figure 9). The model integrates the tenets of ethnolinguistic identity theory, uses and gratifications and cultivation theory, and specifies how the various components hang together in accordance with this combined theoretical angle. Although, due to the divergent assumptions and perspectives underlying uses and gratifications and cultivation theory, the two theories offer contrasting propositions about the media-audience nexus, here they complement each other.

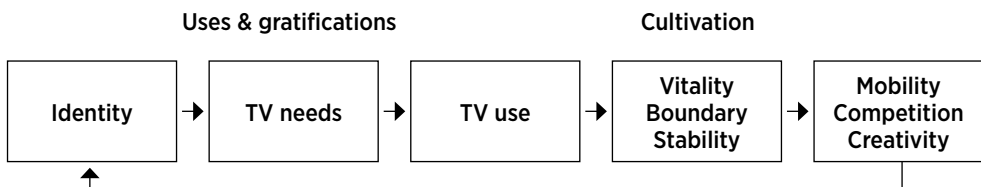


Figure 9. Schematic representation of the proposed model.

The first part of the model (see Figure 10) reflects the idea of ethnolinguistic identity gratifications and includes four hypotheses.

Hypothesis 1. Higher identification with the minority ethnolinguistic group will be accompanied by greater use of television in the minority language.

Hypothesis 2. Higher identification with the minority ethnolinguistic group will be accompanied by greater preferences for the minority language in motives for television use.

Hypothesis 3. Greater preferences for the minority language in motives for television use will be accompanied by greater use of television in the minority language.

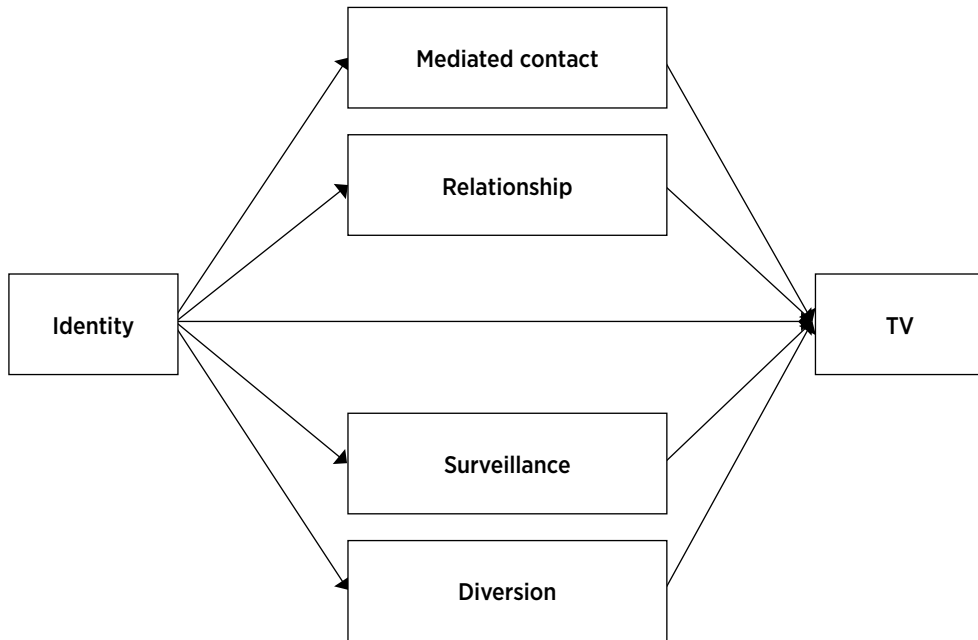


Figure 10. Schematic representation of the hypotheses 1-3.

Besides, relating to ethnolinguistic identity gratifications, two research questions are posed:

Research question 1. What motives guide television viewing in different languages?

Research question 2. How do linguistic preferences in the different motives mediate the relationship between ethnolinguistic identity and the language of television use?

The second part of the model reflects the idea of ethnolinguistic cultivation and is depicted in Figure 11 and Figure 12, respectively. With respect to ethnolinguistic cultivation two hypotheses are set.

Hypothesis 4. Minority language television viewing will be negatively related to ethnolinguistic mobility (4a), positively related to ethnolinguistic creativity (4b) and ethnolinguistic competition (4c).

Hypothesis 5. Minority language television viewing will be positively related to perceived vitality (5a), negatively related to perceived permeability (5b) and perceived stability (5c).

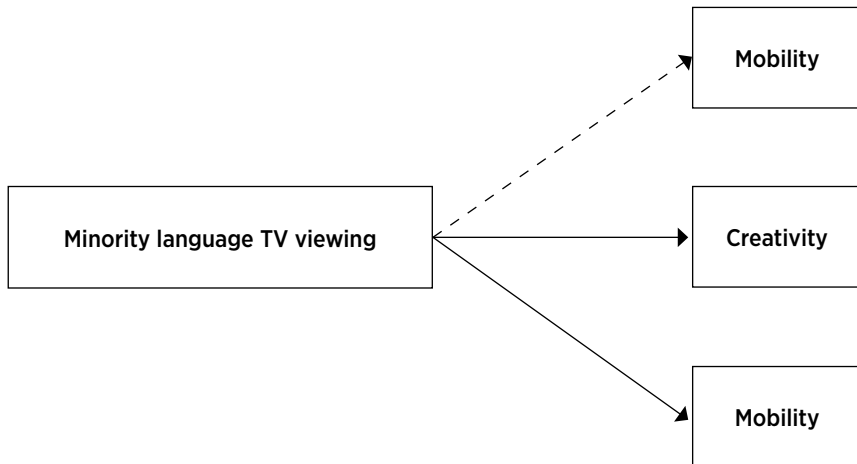


Figure 11. Schematic representation of hypothesis 4. The solid arrows indicate positive relationships, whereas the dashed ones indicate negative relationships between the variables.

Besides, grounded in ethnolinguistic identity theory, three additional hypotheses are put forward on the relationship between the sociostructural conditions and identity management strategies.

Hypothesis 6. Perceived vitality will be negatively related to ethnolinguistic mobility (6a) and positively related to ethnolinguistic creativity (6b) and ethnolinguistic competition (6c).

Hypothesis 7. Perceived permeability will be positively related to ethnolinguistic mobility (7a) and negatively related to ethnolinguistic creativity (7b) and ethnolinguistic competition (7c).

Hypothesis 8. Perceived stability will be positively related to ethnolinguistic mobility (8a) and ethnolinguistic creativity (8b), and negatively related to ethnolinguistic competition (8c).

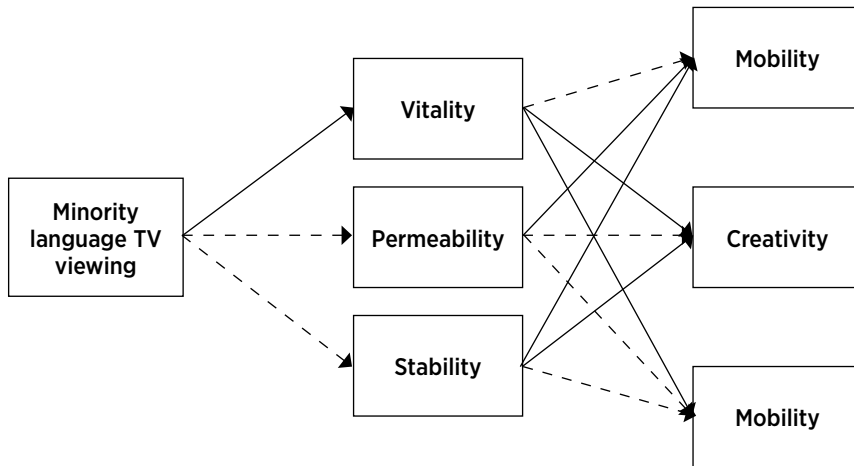


Figure 12. Schematic representation of hypotheses 5-8 (based on Raman, 2008). The solid arrows indicate positive relationships, whereas the dashed ones indicate negative relationships between the variables.

6. METHOD

The empirical part of the study is based upon a quantitative audience research of minority language speaking youth, which follows a cross-sectional design with descriptive as well as explanatory objectives. The three regions will be compared by employing a doubled approach that seeks to compose a dialogue between the *most different systems Design*, which aims at seeking similarities in different situations and the *most similar systems design*, which aims at seeking differences in similar situations (Przeworski & Teune, 1970).

6.1. Participants

A letter of invitation was sent to secondary schools where the language of instruction was the minority language. The schools were chosen in the following municipalities to reflect some contrastive variations in the specific ethnolinguistic profile of each region. Accordingly, in South-Tyrol Bruneck/Brunico (83 % German speakers) and Bozen/Bolzano (26 % German speakers), in Transylvania Csíkszereda/Miercurea Ciuc (82 % Hungarian speakers) and Brassó/Braşov (7 % Hungarian speakers), whereas in Southern Finland Borgå/Porvoo (32 % Swedish speakers) and Helsingfors/Helsinki (6 % Swedish speakers) were involved.

After the schools agreed to participate in the study, a paper-and-pencil questionnaire survey was conducted by research assistants. The questionnaires were handed out to all students present in the class during the day of data collection: in South-Tyrol in Bruneck/Brunico on 27.10.2011 and in Bozen/Bolzano on 28.10.2011; in Transylvania in Csíkszereda/Miercurea Ciuc on 26.10.2011 and in Brassó/Braşov on 4.10.2011; in Southern Finland in Borgå/Porvoo on 9.11.2011 and in Helsingfors/Helsinki on 25.10.2011. The students completed the questionnaire at their convenience.

The total dataset composed of N = 1179 participants; specifically N = 415 in South-Tyrol, N = 411 in Transylvania and N = 363 in Finland.

6.2. Measures

The questionnaire was broadly divided into five sections: variables pertaining to social and linguistic background, television viewing motives, television use, sociostructural variables and endorsement of ethnolinguistic identity management strategies (indicators for the included variables are presented in Appendix A). Unless otherwise indicated, all items were measured on 5-point Likert-type response format (1 = strongly

disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree). Reliabilities of the different scales were assessed by Cronbach's alpha (see Table 3 and Table 4).

Social background. Precise age data were not collected; all participants were between the ages of 15 and 18. In South-Tyrol 57 % of the participants were girls and 43 % boys; in Transylvania 60 % girls and 40 % boys, and in Southern Finland 65 % girls and 35 % boys.

The participants indicated on a 4-point ordinal scale the highest level of education of their parents including elementary school, vocational school, secondary school and higher. In South-Tyrol 12 %, in Transylvania 43 % and in Southern Finland 69 % of mothers had a higher education degree; in South-Tyrol 17 %, in Transylvania 32 % and in Southern Finland 64 % of fathers had a higher education degree (for more details, see Appendix C). A 2 x 2 MANOVA was performed to detect the possible effects of the parent's education on all other variables in the study separately for each region (for the results, see Appendix C). In South-Tyrol and Southern Finland neither the main effects nor the interaction was significant. Although in Transylvania the interaction had a significant effect, a follow-up univariate analysis indicated that this effect was minor and negligible. Consequently, the level of education of the parents was not used as control variable in any of the regions.

Linguistic background. The linguistic background of the respondents was assessed by two variables. The first of these was the linguistic composition of the family: in South-Tyrol 90 %, in Transylvania 94 % and in Southern Finland 43 % of the respondents had two minority language speaking parents; the others had one minority language speaking parent and one majority language speaking parent.

The second linguistic background variable was local vitality, which reflects the notion that ethnolinguistic behaviour can be affected by the local variation in the objective ethnolinguistic vitality (Henning-Lindblom & Liebkind, 2007; Landry & Allard, 1994). In this research, local vitality is defined according to the linguistic composition of the municipalities in the following way: low local vitality (1–33 % minority language speakers), medium local vitality (33–67 % minority language speakers) and high local vitality (67–100 % minority language speakers). In South-Tyrol 55 % of the participants were coming from Bruneck/Brunico (high German local vitality) and 45 % from Bozen/Bolzano (low German local vitality). In Transylvania 50 % of the participants were coming from Csíkszereda/Miercurea Ciuc (high Hungarian local vitality) and 50 % from Brassó/Braşov (low Hungarian local vitality). Finally, in Southern Finland 51 % of the respondents were from Borgå/Porvoo (medium Swedish local vitality) and 49 % from Helsingfors/Helsinki (low Swedish local vitality). In all three regions the towns were selected in a way that their linguistic composition represents the settlement structure of the region; this is why in Southern Finland a medium local vitality town

(Borgå/Porvoo) was chosen instead of a high local vitality settlement, as the latter is very rare in that region.

Ethnolinguistic identity. Identification with the minority language group and the majority language group was measured by three items each. Two of the items were based on Doosje, Ellemers and Spears (1995; e.g., “I feel strong ties with minority language/majority language speakers”), whereas the third item focused on linguistic identification (“I feel that the minority/majority language is my mother tongue”). The internal consistency of the two scales was acceptable in each region (see Table 4). The majority language speaking identity was subtracted from minority language speaking identity to yield a measure of relative ethnolinguistic identity strength. The measure was divided by 2 prior to summing so it would not have a disproportionate weight in the scale.

Motives for television use. Participants were asked about the reasons for minority language television use and majority language television use separately based on the commonly applied measures in the uses and gratifications literature (e.g. Rubin, 1993; Ruggiero, 2000) including surveillance (seeking media for information), diversion (seeking media for entertainment) and personal relationship (seeking media for personal relationship). In addition, inspired by the social identity gratifications questionnaire (Harwood, 1999a, 1999b) the respondents’ need for mediated intra- and intergroup contact (e.g. “To have contact with minority/majority language speakers”) was assessed as a reason for television use. All motives were measured with three items for the minority and the majority language television use alike. The reliability of the compound scales was good, except for the personal relationship motive in Hungarian television use in Transylvania and the diversion motive in German television use in South-Tyrol; nevertheless, in order to make relevant comparisons between the regions, the low reliability scales were kept and applied in the analyses.

Television use. The amount of television use was measured with three items (“on an average day”, “on a weekend day” and “yesterday”). The answer options were watching “not at all”, “1–30 minutes”, “31–60 minutes”, “61–120 minutes”, and “over 120 minutes”. To calculate the weighted average an estimated mean was matched to each interval as 0, 15, 45, 90, and 150 minutes. To calculate the overall amount of television viewing a two-step procedure was needed: television viewing on an average day and yesterday were collapsed into a single measure, and averaged; then data were combined by weighting the weekday viewing by a factor of five and the weekend viewing by a factor of two, and divided by seven, which resulted in a measure reflecting the average television viewing hours per day. Respondents reported using, on average, 54 minutes TV in South-Tyrol, 45 minutes in Transylvania and 49 minutes in Southern Finland.

The ethnolinguistic patterns of television use were measured with three items in Transylvania and four items in South-Tyrol and Southern Finland. The relative television viewing language was measured by a five grade scale from “only in the major-

ity language” to “only in the minority language”. One item assessed the frequency of majority language television use and one item the frequency of transfrontier minority language television use, respectively (“almost every day”, “more times a week”, “once a week”, “more seldom” and “never”). Additionally, in South-Tyrol and Southern Finland a further item measured the frequency of the use of the regional minority language television channel, the German RAI Bozen and the YLE Fem (Finland Swedish Television). All variables were scored so that the higher values indicate a more frequent TV use in the given language.

As media availability and the structure of existing options can play a determining role in media choice (Webster & Newton, 1988; Weibull, 1985; see also Reid et al., 2004), we developed a measure to assess how the respondents perceive the minority language television supply at their disposal. The measure included three items (e.g. “Usually I can find appropriate television programs in the minority language”, “Sometimes, it is really difficult to find interesting television programs in the minority language”). The internal consistency of the summated scale was acceptable in each region.

Sociostructural variables. Perceived vitality was measured by twelve items from the subjective vitality questionnaire (Bourhis et al., 1981) separately for the minority language group and the majority language group. Four items gauged each of the three dimensions of vitality: perceived status, demography, and institutional support. The internal consistency of the ingroup as well as the outgroup scales was good in each region. Subtracting the majority language group’s vitality from the minority language group’s vitality scale yielded a single measure of relative perceived vitality. The composite measure was divided by 2 so it would not have a disproportionate weight in the scale.

Perceived permeability and stability measures were adapted from Mummendey, Klink, Mielke, Wenzel, and Blanz (1999) and Mummendey, Kessler, Klink and Mielke (1999). Permeability was measured with two items (e.g. “For a minority language speaker it is nearly impossible to be regarded as a majority language speaker”); as the internal consistency of the two items was acceptable only in South-Tyrol, in the other two regions single items were applied in the analyses. As the mean values of the permeability items ($M = 3.15$, $SD = 1.36$), ($M = 3.21$, $SD = 1.27$) in South-Tyrol were close to that of the compound variables, the use of the compound variable in the regional comparisons did not lead to biased results. Stability was assessed with a single measure (“I think the relationship between minority language speakers and majority language speakers will remain stable for the next years”). Higher scores on both permeability and stability scales indicated greater belief in the given sociostructural condition.

Ethnolinguistic identity management. Ethnolinguistic mobility was measured with three items based on the scales developed by Mummendey and her colleagues (e.g., “I make some effort to be considered a majority language speaker”). To assess ethnolinguistic competition, two items were developed (e.g. “Minority language speakers

should do much more for their rights”). The reliability of both mobility and competition scales was acceptable. Ethnolinguistic creativity was measured with a single item encompassing superordinate, linguistically neutral recategorization. The item was specifically adjusted to all three settings: “After all, both German speakers and Italian speakers are South-Tyrolese”, “After all, both Hungarian speakers and Romanian speakers are Transylvanians”, “After all, both Swedish speakers and Finnish speakers are Finns”. Higher scores on all three identity management scales indicated greater endorsement in the given identity management strategy.

Table 3. Internal Consistency for the Scales Used in the Study.

	South-Tyrol	Transylvania	Southern Finland
Mediated contact in the minority language ^a	.74	.79	.85
Mediated contact on the majority language ^a	.76	.80	.78
Personal relationship in the minority language ^b	.81	.59	.76
Personal relationship in the majority language ^b	.74	.76	.78
Surveillance in the minority language ^a	.88	.78	.85
Surveillance in the majority language ^a	.92	.85	.89
Diversion in the minority language ^a	.59	.78	.82
Diversion in the majority language ^a	.85	.89	.82
Perceived minority language supply ^a	.75	.67	.72

Note. The table shows alphas (α).

^a Scale with three items.

^b Scale with two items.

Table 4. Internal Consistency for the Scales Used in the Study.

	South-Tyrol	Transylvania	Southern Finland
Minority language identity ^a	.77	.74	.76
Majority language identity ^a	.80	.81	.84
Minority language vitality ^c	.83	.84	.76
Majority language vitality ^c	.82	.81	.74
Permeability ^b	.67	single item	single item
Stability	single item	single item	single item
Mobility ^a	.84	.83	.75
Creativity	single item	single item	single item
Competition ^b	.69	.72	.76

Note. The table shows alphas (α).

^a Scale with three items.

^b Scale with two items.

^c Scale with 12 items.

6.3. Variable transformation

A compound variable, called language of exposure, was created as a combination of scores on relative television language, and the frequency of the use of majority language channel, transfrontier minority language channels and the regional minority language channels (the latter option does not exist in Transylvania). At the first step, in South-Tyrol and Southern Finland, the frequency of use of minority language transfrontier and regional channels were collapsed into a single measure, and averaged. In South-Tyrol and Southern Finland, this new variable contained information about the *overall* frequency of television viewing in the minority language, while in Transylvania only about the frequency of use of minority language transfrontier channels. Next, the frequency of majority language television use was subtracted from the frequency of minority language television use and divided by 2; this step resulted in a scale, which ranged between 1 and 5 and included information about the frequency of television in the minority language relative to the majority language. Lastly, this newly created variable was combined with relative television language into a single measure, and averaged. The final measure had a good reliability ($\alpha = .75$ to $.85$) in all three regions, ranged from 1 to 5 and accounted for all single measures of television viewing.

Additionally, new variables were created in regard to the respondents' declared motives for television use. The motives for majority language television use were subtracted from the motives for minority language television use, and divided by 2 so that the new variables would not have a disproportionate weight in the scale. The four variables, which this procedure resulted in, included information about motives for television viewing combined with specific linguistic preferences.

6.4. Analysis

In this study various statistical methods were used. When it comes to the interregional comparisons (Chapter 7.1.), a set of variance analyses was performed. Although, the Levene's test for equal variance as well as the Box's M test for equal covariance matrices indicated violations of homogeneity among groups, the variance and covariance matrices between the groups were assumed to be equal. First, the samples are rather large and of similar size (Hair et al., 2005); second, an examination of the standard deviations (see Tables D1 to D4) revealed that none of the largest standard deviations were more than two times the size of the corresponding smallest (Howell, 2009). The assumptions of the Mauchly's test of sphericity appeared to be violated too, but this was most probably also due to the relatively large sample sizes, since the alternative F tests (such as Huynh-Feldt F test) delivered precisely identical coefficients as the common F test. In

other words, whereas there seemed to be technical violations of the assumptions, the results of the analyses of variance reported and interpreted were not vulnerable to the threat of a Type 1 error, that is rejecting a null hypothesis, that is true.

When examining the first part of the proposed model, correlational analyses, within-subjects ANOVA, OLS-regressions and parallel multiple mediation analyses were applied, whilst the second part of the model was inspected with correlational analyses and parallel multiple mediation analysis.

The different mediational techniques were utilized with the help of the PROCESS SPSS macro created by Hayes (2012). The macro is based on bootstrapping and produces unstandardized regression coefficients. In the analyses, 5,000 bootstrap samples were produced by randomly sampling with replacements from the original data, resulting in 5,000 estimates of the indirect path coefficient. As Preacher and Hayes (2008) recommend, indirect effects can be considered significant when the bias corrected and accelerated confidence interval did not include zero. Consequently, the standardised bootstrap estimates of the total and specific indirect effects together with bias corrected and accelerated 95 % confidence intervals are presented.

As an a priori criterion for the probability of falsely rejecting the null hypotheses, an alpha level of .05 was used for all statistical tests; however, in some cases marginal significance was also reported.

Lastly, as the issue of missing values is an important concern in multivariate data processing, Appendix B presents an overview of the missing values in the different variables in all three regions. Following the recommendation of Tabachnick and Fidell (2007, p. 65-66), most analyses were repeated with linearly interpolated values; however, these repeated analyses yielded the same results with slight differences.

6.5. Research ethics

Ethical principles were carefully followed during the research in accordance with the guidelines of the National Advisory Board on Research Ethics. The students that participated in the research were in an age bracket, which can be considered as ethically appropriate for this study. Participation in the research was voluntary. Participants were fully informed about the procedures involved in research and they gave their consent to participate. Standards protecting the privacy of research participants, such as confidentiality and anonymity, were also applied. The data material is carefully archived and can, once anonymised, be used for secondary research.

7. RESULTS

7.1. Descriptive information

Before moving on towards testing the specific hypotheses, this chapter provides a descriptive account of the regions in a comparative fashion. The characteristics examined include variables relating to ethnolinguistic profiles and television viewing in the three regions. The exploration occurred with various analyses of variance. Bonferroni pairwise comparisons were subsequently carried out to reveal significant differences. The results are presented in figures; tables summarizing results for the different variance analyses and the related post-hoc tests, and also means and standard deviations are displayed in Appendix D.

Variations across the motives for minority language and majority language television use were analyzed separately with motives (surveillance, diversion, personal relationship and mediation contact) as within-subjects factor and region (South-Tyrol, Transylvania, Southern Finland) as between-subjects factor (see Figure 13). Regarding motives for minority language television use, the analysis revealed a main effect of motives, $F(3, 3159) = 591.61, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .36$, and region, $F(2, 1053) = 30.72, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .06$; besides a significant interaction emerged between motives and region, $F(6, 3159) = 104.26, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .17$. All pairwise comparisons between the regions were significant across the motives at the level $p < .01$. When it comes to surveillance, diversion and personal relationship, South-Tyrolean participants were more motivated for minority language television use than participants in the other two regions. However, with respect to need for mediated contact with minority language speakers, the South-Tyrolese lagged behind the other two regions. The most determining motive for minority language television viewing was diversion in all three regions, followed by seeking surveillance and personal relationship.

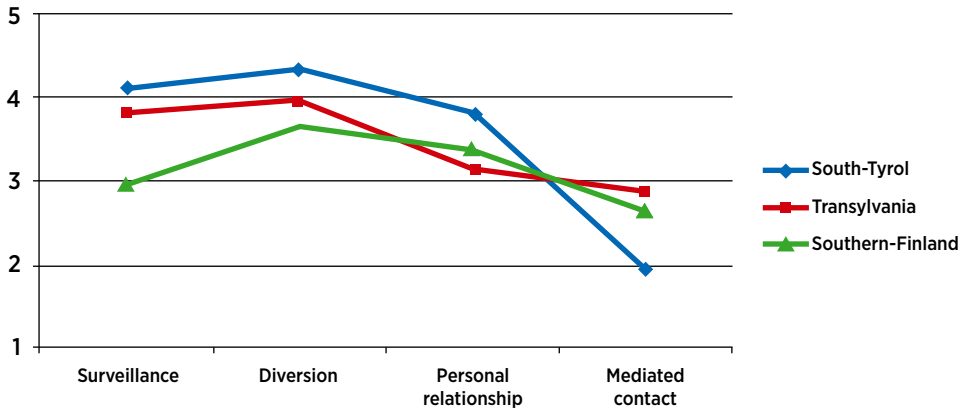


Figure 13. Motives for minority language television use in the different regions. The figure shows the mean values. The higher scores indicate higher motivation. N = 1056

Significant differences emerged between the regions also with regard to motives for majority language television use (see Figure 14). Again, a mixed ANOVA was performed, where both the main effect of motives, $F(3, 3264) = 337.83, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .24$, and region, $F(2, 1088) = 141.82, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .21$, were significant, and so was the interaction between motives and region, $F(6, 3264) = 93.55, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .15$. All pairwise comparisons between the regions were significant across the motives at the level $p < .01$, except between Transylvania and Southern Finland in surveillance ($p = 1.0$), and between South-Tyrol and Transylvania in personal relationship ($p = .48$) and mediated contact ($p = 1.0$). In general, the need for majority language television use seems to be far greater in Southern Finland than in the other two regions, which takes form in the need for diversion and personal relationship. Contrarily, in the other two regions the main motive for majority language television use was surveillance. Interestingly, there is hardly any difference between the regions regarding the need for mediated contact with majority language.

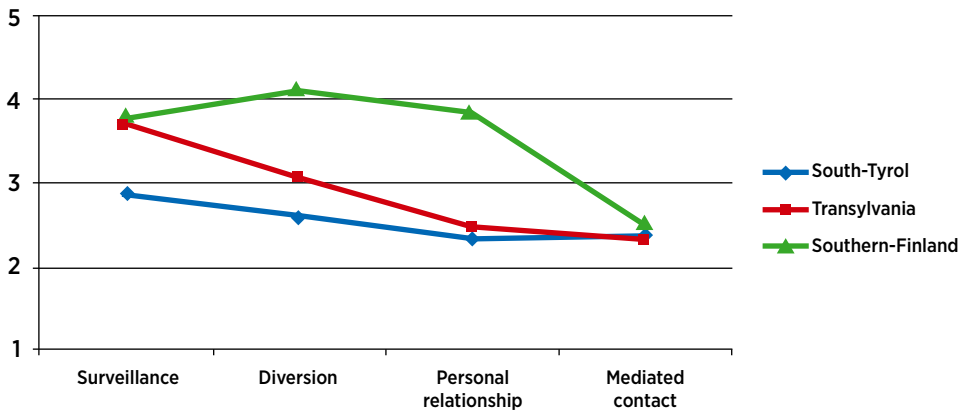


Figure 14. Motives for majority language television use in the different regions. The higher scores indicate higher motivation. The figure shows the mean values. N = 1091

A one-way ANOVA showed significant differences between the regions, $F(2, 1161) = 330.55, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .36$, in the perceived minority language television supply. Of note, the South-Tyrolese evaluated the minority language television supply to be fairly larger compared to the participants' opinion in Transylvania and Southern Finland. Particularly, respondents in Southern Finland indicated a low contentment with the minority language television supply. The results are shown also in Figure 15.

Variations in the linguistic patterns of television use were examined in two steps (see Figure 15). First, a mixed ANOVA with television use (relative television language, frequency of use of the majority language channels and transfrontier minority language channels) as within-subjects factor and regions as between-subjects factor revealed a main effect of television, $F(2, 2298) = 63.36, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .05$, and region, $F(2, 1149) = 172.53, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .23$, that was qualified by an interaction between television and region, $F(4, 2298) = 511.01, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .47$. All pairwise comparisons between the regions were significant across the three variables at the level $p < .01$. Then, with respect to South-Tyrol and Southern Finland, an additional mixed ANOVA was computed with minority language television use (regional, transfrontier) as within-subjects factor and region as between-subjects factor. The main effect of television, $F(1, 772) = 470.93, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .38$, as well as that of the region, $F(1, 772) = 651.91, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .46$ was significant, and that was qualified by an interaction between television and region, $F(1, 772) = 386.96, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .47$.

Remarkable differences can be discovered between the regions considering the relative use of languages in television viewing. Whilst the minority languages dominated the television use of the South-Tyrolese strongly and of the Transylvanians slightly,

participants in Southern Finland reported watching television mostly in the majority language. In accordance with this tendency, the South-Tyrolese reported a frequent use of transfrontier minority language channels and a rare use of majority language channels, while among participants in Southern Finland just the opposite trend could be observed. An additional difference between the two regions is that the respondents in South-Tyrol also reported a more frequent use of the regional minority language channel than respondents in Southern Finland did. In Transylvania, the occurrence of the consumption of majority language channels and transfrontier minority language channels is approximately balanced (there is no minority language regional television channel).

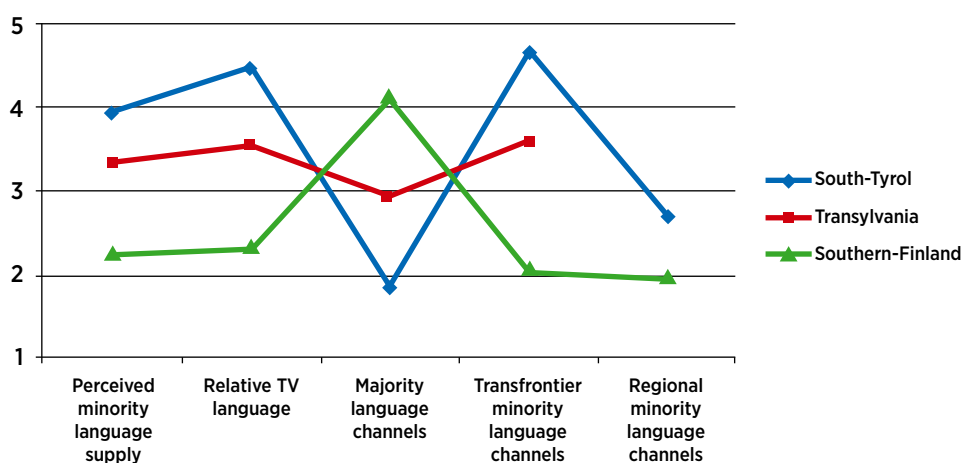


Figure 15. Linguistic patterns of television use in the different regions. The figure shows the mean values. The higher scores indicate the perception of greater television supply in the minority language, more use of the minority language when viewing television, and a more frequent use of the different channels. N = 1158-1174

Next, variables of the ethnolinguistic profile of the regions were inspected. A one-way ANOVA indicated significant differences between the regions, $F(2, 1144) = 149.25$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .15$, in ethnolinguistic identification. Specifically, Transylvanian students identified more highly with their ethnolinguistic group than participants in South-Tyrol and Southern Finland. The results are displayed also in Figure 17.

Differences across the sociostructural variables were analyzed with sociostructural variables (vitality, permeability and stability) as within-subjects factor and region as between-subjects factor (see Figure 16). Both the sociostructural variables, $F(2, 2108) = 113.07$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .10$, and region, $F(2, 1054) = 276.64$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .34$, had a significant main effect, and the interaction between them was also significant, $F(4, 2108) = 54.80$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .09$. All pairwise comparisons between the regions were

significant across the three variables at the level $p < .01$, except between South-Tyrol and Southern Finland in permeability ($p = .42$). Participants in South-Tyrol expressed a greater belief in the prevalent sociostructural conditions than participants in the other two regions. Surprisingly, the Transylvanians scored the relative vitality of the minority language higher than participants in Southern Finland, while the latter indicated a greater belief in the permeability of boundaries and stability of the ethnolinguistic positions between the minority and the majority groups. The greatest differences can be observed between South-Tyrol and the other two regions with respect to vitality and stability, and Transylvania and the other two regions with respect to permeability.

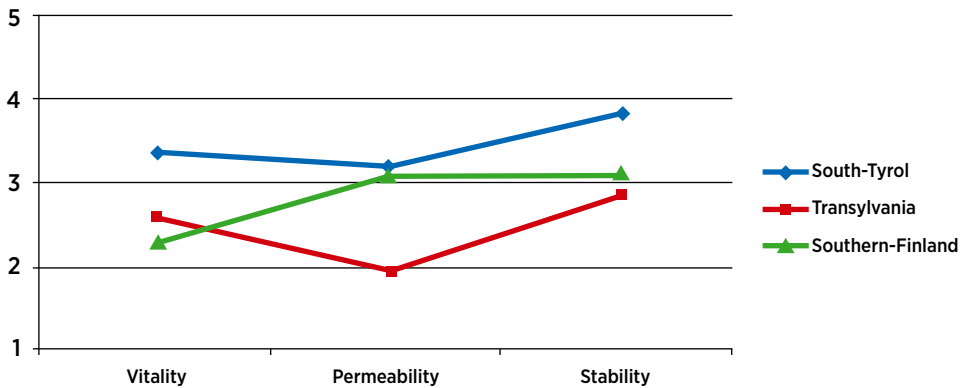


Figure 16. The perceptions of the sociostructural conditions in the different regions. The figure shows the mean values. The higher scores indicate greater belief in the given sociostructural condition. N = 1065–1166

Somewhat smaller differences emerged between the regions in the dynamics of ethnolinguistic identity management (see Figure 17). Here, a mixed ANOVA with strategies (mobility, creativity and competition) as within-subjects factor and region as between-subjects factor yielded significant main effects of both identity management, $F(2, 2290) = 1729.02, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .60$, and region, $F(2, 1145) = 108.63, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .16$ furthermore a significant interaction between them, $F(4, 2290) = 123,59, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .18$, was also found. All pairwise comparisons between the regions were significant across the three variables at the level $p < .01$. The least characteristic form of identity management is mobility in all three regions; though, whilst the most prevailing strategy in South-Tyrol as well as in Southern Finland is creativity, it is competition in Transylvania. From another point of view, mobility is most typical for South-Tyrol, creativity for Southern Finland, and competition for Transylvania.

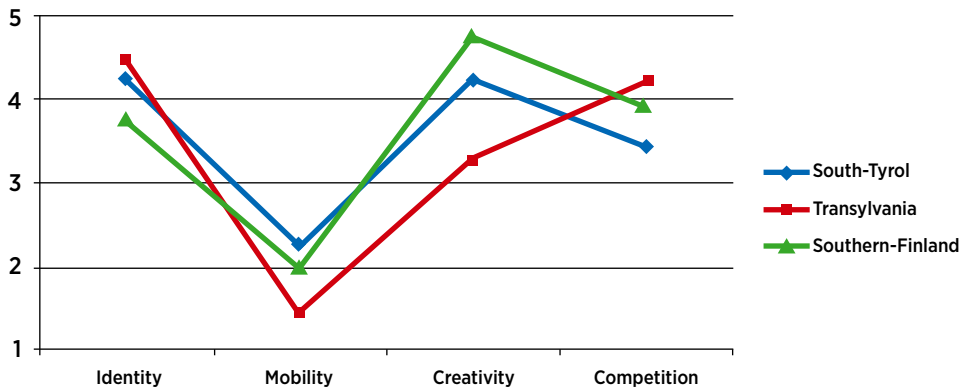


Figure 17. Ethnolinguistic identity and identity management strategies in the different regions. The figure shows the mean values. The higher scores indicate greater engagement in the given strategy. N = 1155-1166

7.2. South-Tyrol

As it was presented in section 7.1., the television use of the South-Tyrolean participants is highly dominated by the German language and implies only a relatively scarce use of Italian channels.

A 4 X 2 within-subjects ANOVA with motives for television use (surveillance, diversion, personal relationship and mediated contact) and language (German and Italian) as factors was performed to reveal the linguistic preferences in the different motives. The analysis revealed significant main effect of both motives, $F(3, 1023) = 274.67, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .45$, and language, $F(1, 341) = 289.10, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .46$, qualified by a significant interaction between them, $F(3, 1023) = 282.67, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .45$.

As shown in Figure 18, there were large linguistic differences incorporated in the needs for surveillance, diversion and personal relationships in favour of the German language, and a slight difference in the need for mediated contact in favour of Italian. These differences were indicated also by dependent sample t tests (see Table E1), which were statistically significant with large effect sizes for the first named three motives and with a small effect size for mediated group contact. The most important motive for German language television use is diversion, whereas for Italian language television use it is surveillance.

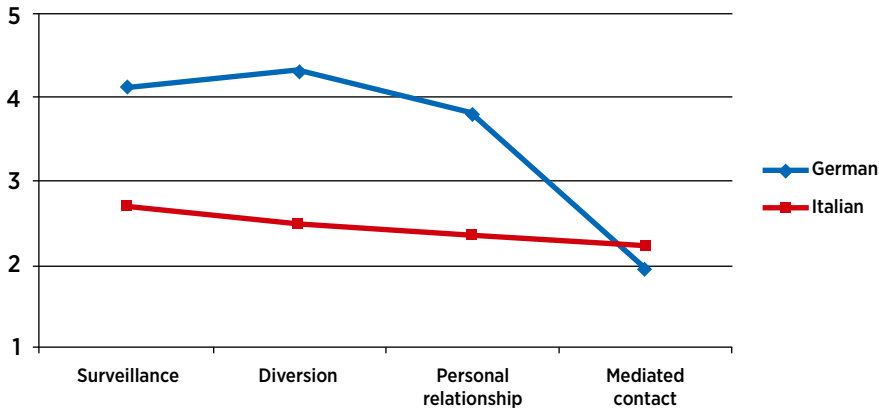


Figure 18. Motives for German and Italian language television viewing. The figure shows the mean values. The higher scores indicate higher motivation. N = 342

In order to answer research question 1, OLS multiple regressions were conducted to investigate the association between the motives and the frequency of use of the German regional channel, the German language transfrontier channels and the Italian channels, respectively. The regressions were controlled for the perceived television supply in German, the linguistic composition of the family, local vitality and gender. As can be seen in Table 5, all three regressions were significant, though there were considerable differences in the share of variance the models explained regarding the different television types.

The first model accounted for 8 % of the variance in the frequency of use of the regional German channel, RAI Bozen; two predictor variables had a significant effect: the need for surveillance and the need for mediated contact with German speakers. The second regression explained 25 % of the variance in the frequency of use of the transfrontier German channels. From the motives, only diversion had a significant effect. Perception of a greater German supply was significantly related to a more frequent use of the German channels. Besides, the linguistic composition of the family and local vitality were also significant and showed that participants in bilingual families and in a low German vitality local environment view the transfrontier German channels more seldom than those who live in monolingual German families and a high German vitality local environment.

The third regression explained 40 % of the variance in the frequency of use of the Italian language television channels. From the motives, both surveillance and diversion were significant predictors. Perception of a greater German supply was related to a less frequent use of the Italian channels. The linguistic composition of the family and local vitality were significant again, and indicated that participants in bilingual families and

in a low German vitality environment view Italian programmes more often than those who live in monolingual German families and a high German vitality environment.

Table 5. Multiple OLS Regression for the Frequency of German and Italian Television Use (N = 362–373).

	RAI Bozen	German channels	Italian channels
Surveillance	.23**	.05	.14**
Diversion	.07	.31**	.36**
Personal relationship	-.06	.04	-.08
Mediated contact	.11*	-.01	.10
Supply	-.03	.16**	-.09*
Parents' mother tongue	-.05	-.22**	.27**
Local vitality	-.09	.10*	-.10*
Gender	-.03	-.03	.05
<i>R</i> ²	.8	.25	.40
<i>F</i>	4.77	16.18	32.33
<i>p</i>	< .01	< .01	< .01

Note. The table shows standardized regression coefficients (Betas)

** $p < .01$

* $p < .05$

The first part of the proposed model was examined with correlational analyses and a parallel multiple mediation analysis.

Table 6 includes means, standard deviations and correlations between ethnolinguistic identity, linguistic preferences in the different motives (surveillance, diversion, personal relationship, and mediated contact), perceived German television supply and television language.

Hypothesis 1 was supported as ethnolinguistic identity was positively related to television use.

There was also support for hypothesis 2 as ethnolinguistic identity related positively to the linguistic preferences in the different motives.

Hypothesis 3 was substantiated as well, because linguistic preferences in all motives were positively related to television language.

Table 6. Intercorrelations between Identity, Motives for Television Use, Perceived Supply and Television Use in South-Tyrol (N = 375–410)

	Surveillance	Diversion	Personal relationship	Mediated contact	Perceived supply	Television use	M (SD)
Identity	.45**	.53**	.40**	.45**	.30**	.54**	4.24 (.71)
Surveillance		.50**	.47**	.49**	.27**	.43**	3.72 (.78)
Diversion			.73**	.56**	.38**	.62**	3.90 (.74)
Personal relationship				.50**	.30**	.46**	3.72 (.77)
Mediated contact					.23**	.36**	3.86 (.73)
Perceived supply						.30**	3.94 (.88)
Television use							4.19 (.69)

Then in order to answer research question 2, the study aimed at testing how the linguistic preferences appearing in the motives mediate the relationship between ethnolinguistic identity and the linguistic patterns of television use. A parallel multiple mediation analysis was performed, where the compound television language variable was used as the dependent variable, ethnolinguistic identity was entered as the independent variable, and the four motivational variables were proposed as mediators.

Results for the mediation are summarized in Figure 19. The overall model was significant, $B = .23$, 95 % CI [.16, .30] and explained 52 % of the variance in the compound television language variable, $R^2 = .52$, $F_{9,310} = 36.94$, $p < .01$. The total effect of ethnolinguistic identity ($B_{\text{total effect}} = .29$, $p < .01$) decreased considerably ($B = .11$, $p < .05$) when the proposed mediators were included in the model, but it remained significant thus indicating partial mediation. Diversion, $B = .22$; 95 % CI [.14, .30] was a significant mediator, but surveillance, $B = .03$; 95 % CI [-.02, .08], personal relationship, $B = -.01$; 95 % CI [-.06, .03] and mediated group contact, $B = -.01$; 95 % CI [-.06, .03] were not. Besides, local vitality had a significant effect on television language ($B = .16$, $p < .01$) showing that participants living in a high German vitality environment use the television more in German than those living in a low German vitality environment. Also the linguistic composition of the family was significant ($B = -.70$ $p < .01$), which means that respondents living in bilingual families use the television less in German than those living in homogenous German-speaking families. Perceived German television supply was not significantly related to using more German in television viewing ($B = -.06$, $p = .08$), gender had no significant effect on the dependent variable ($B = -.08$, $p > .10$).

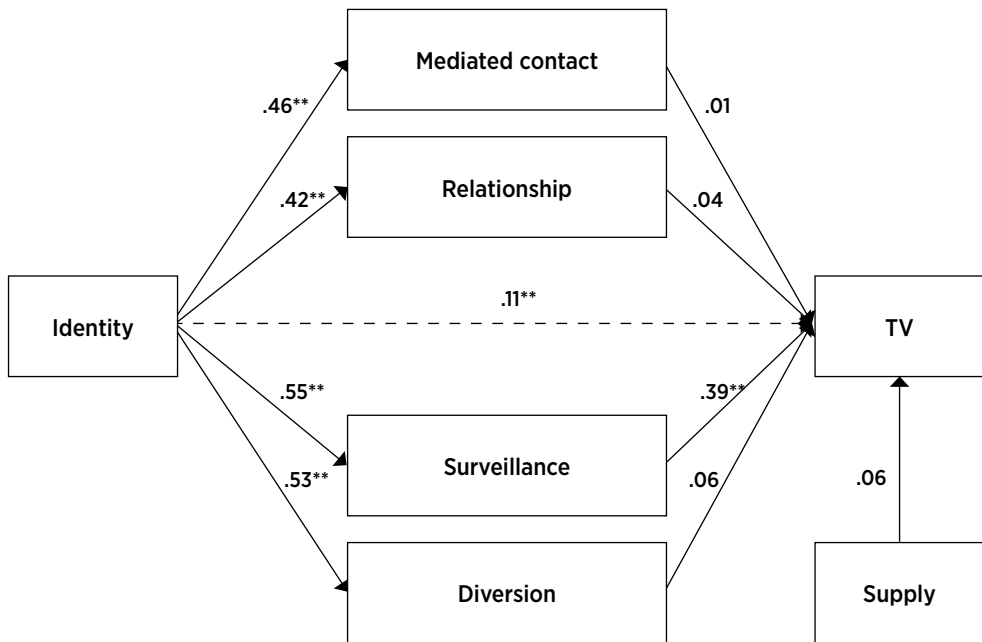


Figure 19. The figure shows a mediational analysis between ethnolinguistic identity and television use in South-Tyrol (N =320). The proposed mediators are motives for television use with incorporated linguistic preferences.

The second part of the proposed model was examined with correlational analyses and parallel multiple mediation analyses. Means, standard deviations and bivariate correlations of the variables are listed in Table 7. As can be seen, exposure is dominated by the German language. The participants perceived the vitality of the German language as higher than that of Italian, ethnolinguistic boundaries as moderately permeable and the stability of the intergroup status quo as relatively high. The most characteristic identity management strategy was creativity; the support for ethnolinguistic competition was weaker, and the least typical was mobility.

German language exposure was negatively related to mobility and also to creativity (i.e. inversely as expected), while it was positively related to competition. Thus, hypotheses 4a and 4c were supported, while hypothesis 4b could not be upheld.

Supporting the hypotheses 5a, 5b and 5c, the results indicated that German language exposure was positively related to the relative vitality of German, and negatively to permeability and stability.

Perceived vitality was negatively related to mobility and creativity, and positively to competition. Thus, there was support for hypotheses 6a and 6c but not for 6b because a positive relationship had been anticipated between vitality and creativity.

Hypotheses 7a and 7c were supported as permeability was positively related to ethn-

olinguistic mobility and it was negatively related to ethnolinguistic competition. However, there was no support for hypothesis 7b as permeability was positively related to creativity.

Likewise, there was support also for hypotheses 8a, 8b and 8c, as perceived stability was positively related to ethnolinguistic mobility and to ethnolinguistic creativity but negatively to ethnolinguistic competition.

Table 7. Means, Standard Deviations and Intercorrelations among the Variables in South-Tyrol.

	Vitality	Permeability	Stability	Mobility	Creativity	Competition	<i>M (SD)</i>
Language of exposure	.21**	-.15**	-.13*	-.32**	-.21**	.36**	4.19 (.69)
Vitality		-.16**	-.23**	-.27**	-.38**	.14**	3.35 (.36)
Permeability			.20**	.26**	.27**	-.29**	3.18 (1.14)
Stability				.23**	.52**	-.22**	3.83 (1.07)
Mobility					.31**	-.27**	2.24 (1.01)
Creativity						-.29**	4.27 (1.18)
Competition							3.43 (.98)

Note. The higher values indicate greater exposure in German.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

The results of the multiple mediation analyses are summarized in Table 8. There was support for the model regarding all three identity management strategies.

In the case of ethnolinguistic mobility, the model was significant, $B = -.13$, 95 % CI [-.19, -.07] and explained 25 % of the variance in the dependent variable, $R^2 = .25$, $F_{7, 349} = 16.94$, $p < .01$. The total effect of the language of exposure ($B_{\text{total effect}} = -.45$, $p < .01$) decreased significantly ($B_{\text{direct effect}} = -.33$, $p < .01$) as the mediators were included in the model, which indicated a partial mediation. All specific indirect effects through the mediators were significant. However, none of the control variables was significantly associated with the dependent variable (gender, $B = -.16$, $p > .10$; linguistic composition of the family, $B = .23$, $p > .10$; local vitality $B = .08$, $p > .10$)

In the case of ethnolinguistic creativity, the model was significant, $B = -.21$, 95 % CI [-.31, -.12] and explained 42 % of the variance in the dependent variable, $R^2 = .42$, $F_{7, 349} = 35.80$, $p < .01$. The total effect of the language of exposure ($B_{\text{total effect}} = -.29$, $p < .01$) became non-significant ($B_{\text{direct effect}} = -.08$, $p > .10$) after including the mediators in the model, which referred to a total mediation. All specific indirect effects through the mediators were significant. From the control variables, only local vitality ($B = -.36$, $p < .01$) had a significant effect on creativity indicating that this strategy is more characteristic for Bozen/Bolzano, where German speakers make up a local minority. Gender ($B = -.13$, $p > .10$) and the linguistic composition of the family ($B = .02$, $p > .10$) were not associated with the dependent variable.

Lastly, in the case of ethnolinguistic competition, the model was significant, $B = .06$, 95 % CI [.01, .11] and explained 24 % of the variance in the dependent variable, $R^2 = .24$, $F_{7,351} = 15.61$, $p < .01$. The total effect of the language of exposure ($B_{\text{total effect}} = .45$, $p < .01$) diminished significantly ($B_{\text{direct effect}} = .37$, $p < .01$) after including the mediators in the model, which referred to a partial mediation. The indirect effects through permeability and stability were significant; however, vitality proved not to be a significant mediator when it comes to competition. From the control variables, gender ($B = .29$, $p < .01$) was significant indicating that ethnolinguistic competition is less typical among girls than among boys; whereas the linguistic composition of the family ($B = -.30$, $p > .10$) and local vitality ($B = .06$, $p > .10$) were not significant control variables.

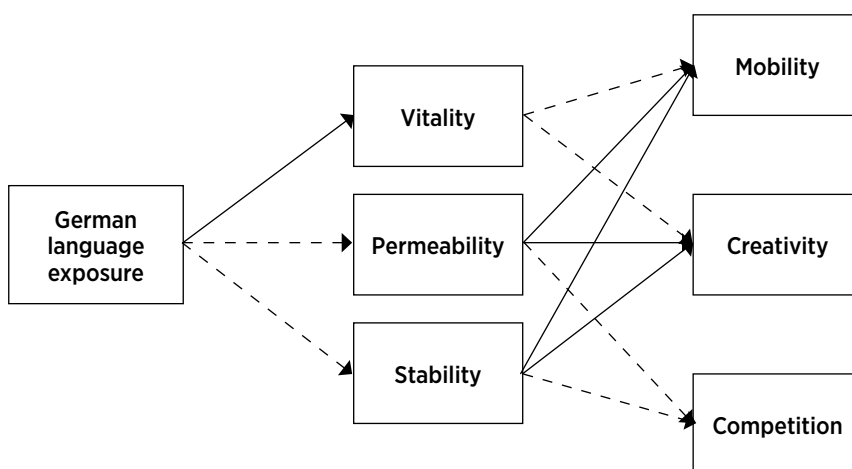


Figure 20. Schematic representation of the results of the multiple mediation for ethnolinguistic identity management strategies in South-Tyrol (N = 357–359). The solid arrows indicate positive relationships, whereas the dashed ones indicate negative relationships between the variables. All depicted mediated pathways are significant. Complete statistics are reported in Table 8.

Table 8. Multiple Mediation Analyses for Ethnolinguistic Identity Management Strategies in South-Tyrol (N = 357–359)

Dependent Variable	The Overall Model			Exposure on the Mediators			Mediators on the Dependent Variable			Individual Effect of the Mediators (95 % CI)		
	Total Effect	Direct Effect		Vitality	Permeability	Stability	Vitality	Permeability	Stability	Vitality	Permeability	Stability
Mobility	-.45**	-.33**	.11**	-.27**	-.23**	-.23**	-.40**	.20**	.11*	-.05 (-.08, -.02)	-.05 (-.11, -.02)	-.02 (-.06, -.01)
Creativity	-.29**	-.08	.11**	-.27**	-.23**	-.23**	-.54**	.13**	.49**	-.06 (-.12, -.02)	-.03 (-.08, -.01)	-.11 (-.20, -.04)
Competition	.45**	.37**	.22**	-.27**	-.23**	-.23**	.08	-.15**	-.13**	-.01 (-.04, .02)	.04 (.01, .08)	.03 (.01, .07)

Note. Coefficients indicate unstandardized parameter estimates (*B*).

** $p < .01$

* $p < .05$

7.3. Transylvania

As shown in section 7.1., the television use of the Transylvanian participants is slightly dominated by the Hungarian language, due to the somewhat more frequent use of the Hungarian (transfrontier) channels than the Romanian language channels.

A 4 X 2 within-subjects ANOVA with motives for television use (surveillance, diversion, personal relationship and mediated contact) and language (Hungarian and Romanian) as factors was performed to reveal the motives guiding Hungarian and Romanian television viewing. The analysis revealed significant main effect of both motives, $F(3, 1026) = 251.30, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .42$, and language, $F(1, 342) = 132.60, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .28$, which was qualified by a significant interaction between them, $F(3, 1026) = 55.60, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .14$.

The results are depicted in Figure 21. As it can be seen, the Hungarian language television use is motivated mostly by the need for diversion and surveillance, and less by the need for mediated contact with Hungarians and for personal relationship. Contrarily, the use of the Romanian channels is inspired first of all by the need for surveillance, less by diversion and even less by personal relationship and mediated contact with Romanians.

Dependent sample *t* tests (Table E2) indicated that there was no significant difference in the need for surveillance in the two languages, though in the case of the other three motives the mean scores regarding Hungarian and Romanian deviated significantly. Specifically, the need for diversion, mediated group contact and personal relationship was somewhat higher in the Hungarian language than in Romanian. For diversion and mediated group contact large effects, for personal relationship a medium size effect could be observed.

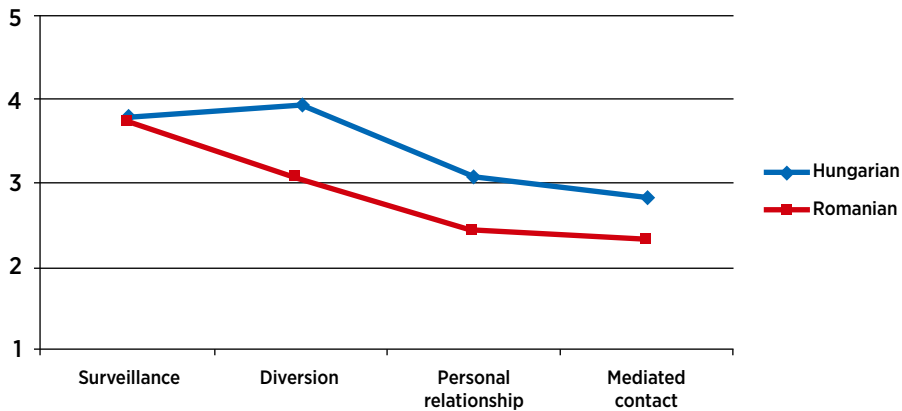


Figure 21. Motives for Hungarian and Romanian language television viewing. The figure shows the mean values. The higher scores indicate higher motivation. N = 343

Next, in order to answer research question 1, OLS multiple regression analyses were performed to investigate the association between the motives and the frequency of television use in Hungarian and Romanian, respectively (see Table 9). The regressions were controlled for the perceived television supply in Hungarian, the linguistic composition of the family, local vitality and gender.

The first regression accounted for 26 % of the variance in the frequency of use of Hungarian television channels. Surveillance and diversion were significant predictors. In addition, perception of a greater Hungarian television supply was significantly related to the dependent variable. Lastly, the Hungarian channels are viewed more frequently by participants living in monolingual Hungarian families, which was indicated by the significant effect of the parents' mother tongue.

The second regression accounted for 41 % of the variance in the frequency of use of the Romanian language television channels. Two motives explained the dependent variable significantly: the need for surveillance and diversion. Additionally, local vitality had a significant effect on the Romanian language television use reflecting the fact that the use of Romanian channels is more frequent among respondents living in a low Hungarian vitality environment. Gender had a significant effect on neither Hungarian nor Romanian television viewing.

Table 9. Multiple OLS Regression for the Frequency of Hungarian and Romanian Television Use (N = 355–358).

	Hungarian channels	Romanian channels
Surveillance	.17**	.17**
Diversion	.28**	.38**
Personal relationship	-.10	-.03
Mediated contact	-.03	.09
Supply	.25**	-.00
Parents' mother tongue	-.18**	-.03
Local vitality	-.06	-.29**
Gender	.01	.04
<i>R</i> ²	.26	.41
<i>F</i>	16.79	32.04
<i>p</i>	< .01	< .01

Note. The table shows standardized regression coefficients (Betas)

** *p* < .01

* *p* < .05

The first part of the proposed model was examined with correlational analyses and a parallel multiple mediation analysis.

Table 10 includes means, standard deviations and correlations between ethnolinguistic identity, linguistic preferences in the different motives (surveillance, diversion, personal relationship, and mediated contact), perceived Hungarian television supply and television language.

Hypothesis 1 was supported as ethnolinguistic identity was positively related to television use.

There was support also for hypothesis 2 as ethnolinguistic identity related positively to the linguistic preferences in the different motives.

Hypothesis 3 was substantiated as well, because linguistic preferences in all motives were positively related to television language.

Table 10. Intercorrelations between Identity, Motives for Television Use, Perceived Supply and Television Use in Transylvania (N = 372–394)

	Surveillance	Diversion	Personal relationship	Mediated contact	Perceived supply	Television use	<i>M (SD)</i>
Identity	.34**	.49**	.28**	.44**	.20**	.51**	4.49 (.64)
Surveillance		.48**	.36**	.41**	.13**	.40**	3.04 (.52)
Diversion			.64**	.40**	.32**	.66**	3.45 (.64)
Personal relationship				.29**	.26**	.45**	3.34 (.54)
Mediated contact					.29**	.33**	3.27 (.66)
Perceived supply						.33**	3.35 (.95)
Television use							3.45 (.93)

** $p < .01$

Then, in order to answer research question 2, a multiple mediation model was performed to examine how the linguistic preferences incorporated in the motives mediate the relationship between ethnolinguistic identity and the linguistic patterns of television use. In the analysis, the compound television language variable was used as the dependent variable, ethnolinguistic identity was entered as the independent variable, and the four motivational variables were proposed as mediators.

Results for the analysis are summarized in Figure 22. The overall mediation was significant, $B = .33$, 95 % CI [.24, .44] and the model explained 57 % of the variance in the dependent variable, $R^2 = .57$, $F_{9, 313} = 45.67$, $p < .01$. The total effect of ethnolinguistic identity ($B_{\text{total effect}} = .45$, $p < .01$) decreased considerably ($B_{\text{direct effect}} = .18$, $p < .01$) when the proposed mediators were included in the model, but it remained significant indicating partial mediation. Diversion, $B = .26$; 95 % CI [.16, .38] was a significant mediator, but surveillance, $B = .04$; 95 % CI [-.01, .10], personal relationship, $B = -.01$; 95 % CI [-.05, .04] and mediated group contact, $B = .03$; 95 % CI [-.02, .10] were not. Perception of a greater Hungarian supply was significantly related to viewing television more in Hungarian. Additionally, local vitality had a significant effect on television language ($B = .53$ $p < .01$) indicating that participants living in a high Hungarian vitality environment use the television more in Hungarian than those living in a low Hungarian vitality environment. The linguistic composition of the family was also significant ($B = -.37$ $p < .05$) showing that respondents living in bilingual families use the television less in Hungarian than those living in homogenous Hungarian families. Gender had no significant effect on the dependent variable ($B = .07$, $p > .10$).

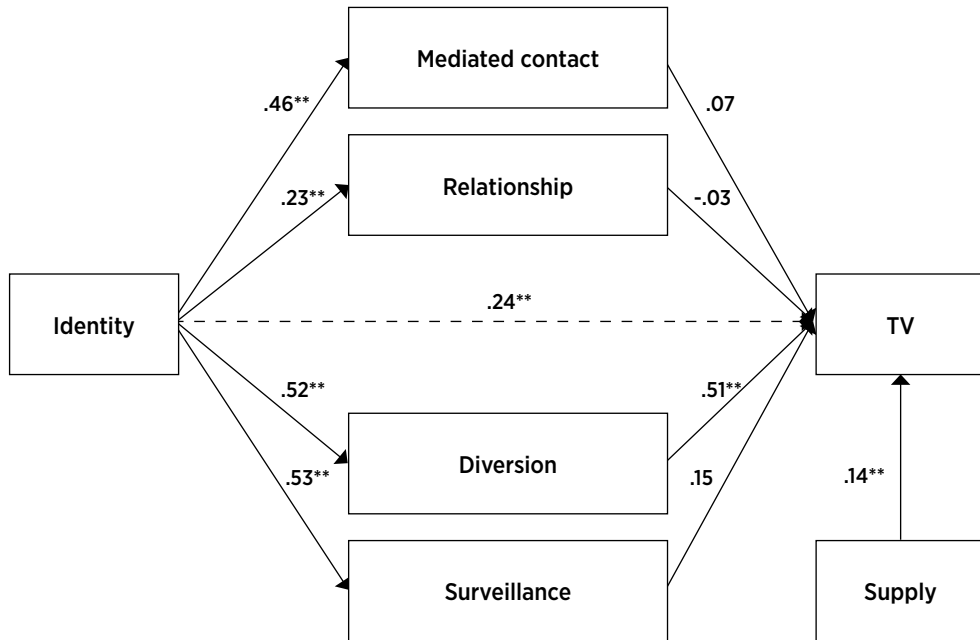


Figure 22. The figure shows a mediational analysis between ethnolinguistic identity and television use in Transylvania (N = 323). The proposed mediators are motives for television use with incorporated linguistic preferences.

The second part of the proposed model was examined with correlational analyses and parallel multiple mediation analyses. Means, standard deviations and bivariate correlations of the variables are listed in Table 11. As can be seen, exposure is dominated by the Hungarian language. The participants perceived the vitality of the Romanian language as higher than that of Hungarian, ethnolinguistic boundaries as less permeable and the stability of the intergroup status quo as moderate. The most characteristic identity management strategy was competition; the support for ethnolinguistic creativity was weaker, and the least typical was mobility. Except for vitality, which correlated only with permeability, all relationships were significant between the variables.

Hungarian language exposure was negatively related to mobility and creativity, and at the same time it was positively related to competition. Thus, hypotheses 4a and 4c were supported, but hypothesis 4b must be rejected as it anticipated a positive relationship between minority language exposure use and creativity.

Supporting hypotheses 5a, 5b and 5c, the results indicated that Hungarian language exposure was positively related to the relative vitality of Hungarian, and negatively to permeability and stability.

Hypotheses 6a, 6b and 6c must be rejected as perceived vitality correlated with none of the identity management strategies.

There was support for hypotheses 7a and 7c as permeability was positively related to ethnolinguistic mobility but negatively to ethnolinguistic competition. However, hypothesis 7b could not be upheld as the relationship between permeability and creativity was positive whilst it was expected to be negative.

Perceived stability was positively related to ethnolinguistic mobility and to ethnolinguistic creativity and negatively related to ethnolinguistic competition. Thus, hypotheses 8a, 8b and 8c were supported.

Table 11. Means, Standard Deviations and Intercorrelations among the Variables in Transylvania (N = 356–396).

	Vitality	Permeability	Stability	Mobility	Creativity	Competition	<i>M (SD)</i>
Language of exposure	.18**	-.19**	-.23**	-.47**	-.23**	.25**	3.45 (.93)
Vitality		-.14**	.03	-.09	-.01	.07	2.57 (.52)
Permeability			.14**	.31**	.11*	-.35**	1.92 (1.16)
Stability				.27**	.43**	-.20**	2.84 (1.04)
Mobility					.30**	-.38**	1.46 (.73)
Creativity						-.12*	3.32 (1.29)
Competition							4.22 (.78)

Note. The higher values indicate greater exposure in Hungarian.

* $p < .05$
 ** $p < .01$

The results of the multiple mediation analyses are summarized in Table 12. In the case of ethnolinguistic mobility, the model was significant, $B = -.05$, 95 % CI [-.10, -.02] and explained 35 % of the variance in the dependent variable, $R^2 = .35$, $F_{7, 330} = 25.92$, $p < .01$. The total effect of the language of exposure ($B_{\text{total effect}} = -.34$, $p < .01$) decreased significantly ($B_{\text{direct effect}} = -.29$, $p < .01$) as the mediators were included in the model, which indicated a partial mediation. Specific indirect effects through permeability and stability were significant; however, vitality was not a significant mediator. From the control variables local vitality was not significant ($B = .06$, $p > .10$); while gender ($B = -.19$, $p < .01$) and the linguistic composition of the family ($B = .79$, $p < .01$) were significantly associated with the dependent variable indicating that mobility is more typical among girls and students from bilingual homes.

In the case of ethnolinguistic creativity, the model was significant, $B = -.12$, 95 % CI [-.20, -.05] and explained 20 % of the variance in the dependent variable, $R^2 = .20$, $F_{7, 336} = 11.82$, $p < .01$. The total effect of the language of exposure ($B_{\text{total effect}} = -.23$, $p < .01$) became non-significant ($B_{\text{direct effect}} = -.11$, $p > .10$) after including the mediators in the model, which referred to a full mediation. The specific indirect effects through vitality and permeability were not significant; yet, stability was a significant mediator. None of the control variables had a significant effect (local vitality $B = -.12$, $p > .10$; gender $B =$

.05, $p > .10$; the linguistic composition of the family $B = .27$, $p > .10$).

Lastly, in the case of ethnolinguistic competition, the model was significant, $B = .07$, 95 % CI [.03, .12] and explained 18 % of the variance in the dependent variable, $R^2 = .18$, $F_{7, 334} = 10.59$, $p < .01$. The total effect of the language of exposure ($B_{\text{total effect}} = .20$, $p < .01$) decreased significantly ($B_{\text{direct effect}} = .12$, $p < .05$) after including the mediators in the model, which referred to a full mediation. The indirect effects through permeability and stability were significant; however, vitality proved not to be a significant mediator. From the control variables, local vitality ($B = -.04$, $p > .10$) and gender ($B = .04$, $p > .10$) were not significant; the linguistic composition of the family ($B = -.43$, $p < .05$) was, however, significant indicating that ethnolinguistic competition is more typical among participants who also have a Romanian-speaking parent.

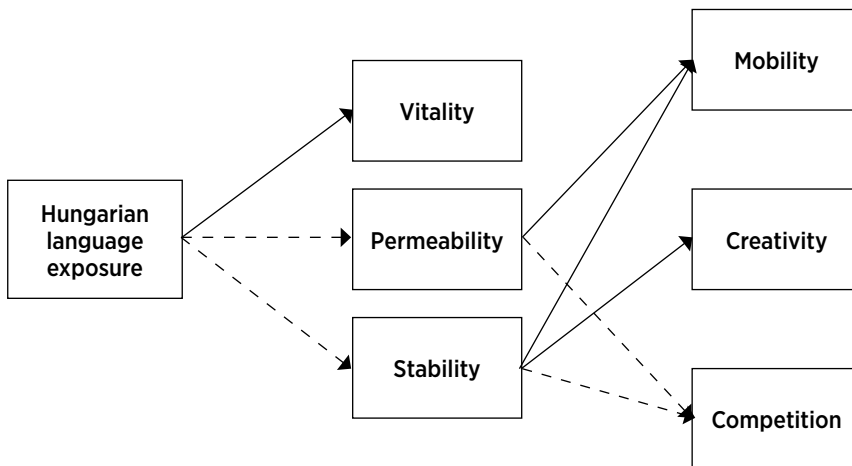


Figure 23. Schematic representation of the results of the multiple mediation for ethnolinguistic identity management strategies in Transylvania (N = 340–346). The solid arrows indicate positive relationships, whereas the dashed ones indicate negative relationships between the variables. All depicted mediated pathways are significant. Complete statistics are reported in Table 12.

Table 12. Multiple Mediation Analyses for Ethnolinguistic Identity Management Strategies in Transylvania (N = 340–346)

Dependent Variable	The Overall Model		Exposure on the Mediators			Mediators on the Dependent Variable			Individual Effect of the Mediators (95 % CI)		
	Total Effect	Direct Effect	Vitality	Permeability	Stability	Vitality	Permeability	Stability	Vitality	Permeability	Stability
Mobility	-.34**	-.29**	.09**	-.25**	-.23**	-.02	.12**	.10**	-.00 (-.01, .01)	-.03 (-.06, -.01)	-.02 (-.05, -.01)
Creativity	-.23**	-.12	.09**	-.24**	-.23**	.03	.05	.48**	-.00 (-.02, .03)	-.01 (-.04, .01)	-.11 (-.19, -.05)
Competition	.20**	.12*	.09**	-.24**	-.23**	.03	-.18**	-.11**	.00 (-.01, .02)	.04 (.02, .09)	.02 (.01, .05)

Note. Coefficients indicate unstandardized parameter estimates (*B*).

** $p < .01$

* $p < .05$

7.4. Southern Finland

As the descriptive results in section 7.1. demonstrated, the television viewing of the participants in Southern Finland is dominated clearly by the majority language, Finnish, due to the considerably more frequent use of the Finnish channels than the Swedish language regional as well as transfrontier channels.

A 4 X 2 within-subjects ANOVA with motives for television use (surveillance, diversion, personal relationship and mediated contact) and language (Swedish and Finnish) as factors was performed to reveal the linguistic preferences in the different motives. The analysis revealed significant main effect of both motives, $F(3, 927) = 189.57, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .38$, and language, $F(1, 309) = 60.76, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .16$, qualified by a significant interaction between them, $F(3, 927) = 72.55, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .19$.

The results are plotted in Figure 24. There were moderate linguistic differences incorporated in the needs for surveillance, diversion and personal relationships in favour of Finnish, and a slight difference in the need for mediated contact in favour of Swedish. Dependent sample *t* tests (see Table E3) were statistically significant with large effect sizes for the first named three motives and with a small effect size for mediated group contact. The most important motive for television use in both languages was diversion.

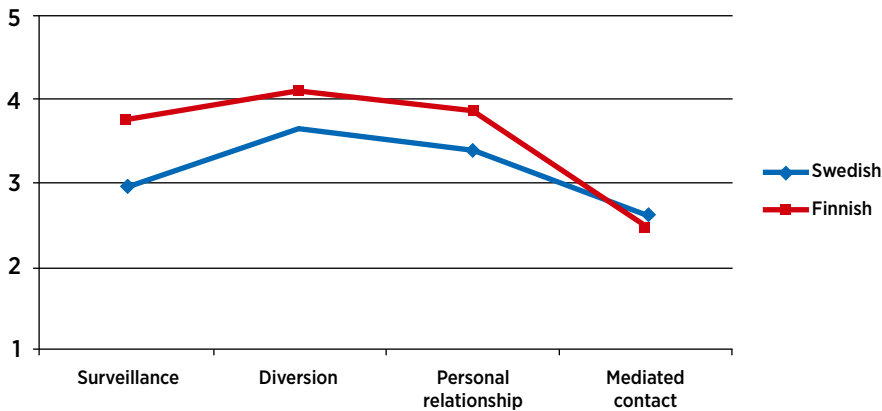


Figure 24. Motives for Swedish and Finnish language television viewing. The figure shows the mean values. The higher scores indicate higher motivation. N = 310

Next, in order to answer research question 1, OLS multiple regressions were conducted to inspect the relationships between the motives and the frequency of use of the Swedish regional channel, the Swedish transfrontier channels and the Finnish language channels, respectively. Perceived television supply in Swedish, the linguistic composition of the family, local vitality and gender were used as control variables. As shown in Table 13, all three models were significant.

The first regression accounted for 25 % of the variance in the frequency of use of the Finland Swedish Television. From the motives, need for surveillance, diversion and also for mediated contact had a significant effect. Besides, perception of a greater Swedish television supply was significantly related to a more frequent use of the Finland Swedish channel. Lastly, the channel is viewed more frequently by participants living in monolingual Swedish families, which was indicated by the significant effect of the parents' mother tongue.

The second regression accounted for 26 % of the variance in the frequency of use of the transfrontier Swedish channels. One motive explained significantly the dependent variable, the need for diversion. Again, perceived Swedish television supply and the parents' mother tongue were significant predictors. Perception of a greater Swedish supply was significantly related to a more frequent use of the Swedish transfrontier channels. And the channel is viewed more frequently by participants coming from monolingual Swedish families, than those coming from bilingual ones.

The third regression explained 21 % of the variance in the frequency of use of the Finnish language channels. Surveillance and diversion were significant predictors. Moreover, local vitality had a significant effect, too; surprisingly, this pointed out that participants in medium Swedish vitality environment view the Finnish channels more

often than those living in a low Swedish vitality environment.

Table 13. Multiple OLS Regression for the Frequency of Swedish and Finnish Television Use (N = 313-343).

	YLE Fem	Channels from Sweden	Finnish channels
Surveillance	.17**	.05	.13*
Diversion	.18*	.26**	.37**
Personal relationship	-.10	-.14	-.02
Mediated contact	.25**	.06	.08
Supply	.11*	.35**	-.06
Parents' mother tongue	-.17**	-.19**	.02
Local vitality	.04	-.04	.15**
Gender	.07	.00	.01
<i>R</i> ²	.25	.26	.21
<i>F</i>	14.23	15.07	12.30
<i>p</i>	< .01	< .01	< .01

Note. The table shows standardized regression coefficients (Betas)

** *p* < .01

* *p* < .05

The first part of the proposed model was examined with correlational analyses and a parallel multiple mediation analysis.

Table 14 includes means, standard deviations and correlations between ethnolinguistic identity, linguistic preferences in the different motives (surveillance, diversion, personal relationship, and mediated contact), perceived Swedish television supply and television language.

Hypothesis 1 was supported as ethnolinguistic identity was positively related to television use.

There was support also for hypothesis 2 as ethnolinguistic identity related positively to the linguistic preferences in the different motives.

Hypothesis 3 was substantiated as well, because linguistic preferences in all motives were positively related to television language.

Table 14. Intercorrelations between Identity, Motives for Television Use, Perceived Supply and Television Use in Southern Finland (N = 372–394).

	Surveil- lance	Diversion	Personal relation- ship	Mediated contact	Perceived supply	Televi- sion use	<i>M (SD)</i>
Identity	.30**	.33**	.13**	.36**	.08	.47**	3.77 (.75)
Surveillance		.46**	.35**	.42**	.30**	.46**	2.61 (.55)
Diversion			.65**	.44**	.26**	.53**	2.78 (.59)
Personal relationship				.28**	.27**	.31**	2.76 (.53)
Mediated contact					.11**	.33**	3.07 (.55)
Perceived supply						.35**	2.25 (.92)
Television use							2.14 (.71)

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Then, in order to answer research question 2, the study aimed at testing how the linguistic preferences appearing in the motives mediate the relationship between ethnolinguistic identity and the linguistic patterns of television use. A parallel multiple mediation analysis was performed, where the compound television language variable was used as the dependent variable, ethnolinguistic identity was entered as the independent variable, and the four motivational variables were proposed as mediators.

Results for the mediational model are plotted in Figure 25. The overall model was significant, $B = .09$, 95 % CI [.06, .13] and explained 51 % of the variance in the compound television language variable, $R^2 = .51$, $F_{9, 288} = 33.26$, $p < .01$. The total effect of ethnolinguistic identity ($B_{\text{total effect}} = .19$, $p < .01$) decreased considerably ($B_{\text{direct effect}} = .10$, $p < .01$) when the proposed mediators were included in the model, but it remained significant thus indicating partial mediation. Diversion, $B = .07$; 95 % CI [.04, .10] and surveillance, $B = .03$; 95 % CI [.01, .06] were significant mediators, but personal relationship, $B = -.00$; 95 % CI [-.02, .00] and mediated group contact, $B = -.00$; 95 % CI [-.02, .02] were not.

Perception of a greater Swedish supply was significantly related to more viewing of Swedish programs. In addition, gender had a marginally significant effect on television language ($B = .12$, $p < .06$) showing that boys use the television more in Swedish than girls do. Local vitality ($B = -.10$, $p > .10$) and the parents' mother tongue ($B = -.11$, $p > .10$) were no significant control variables.

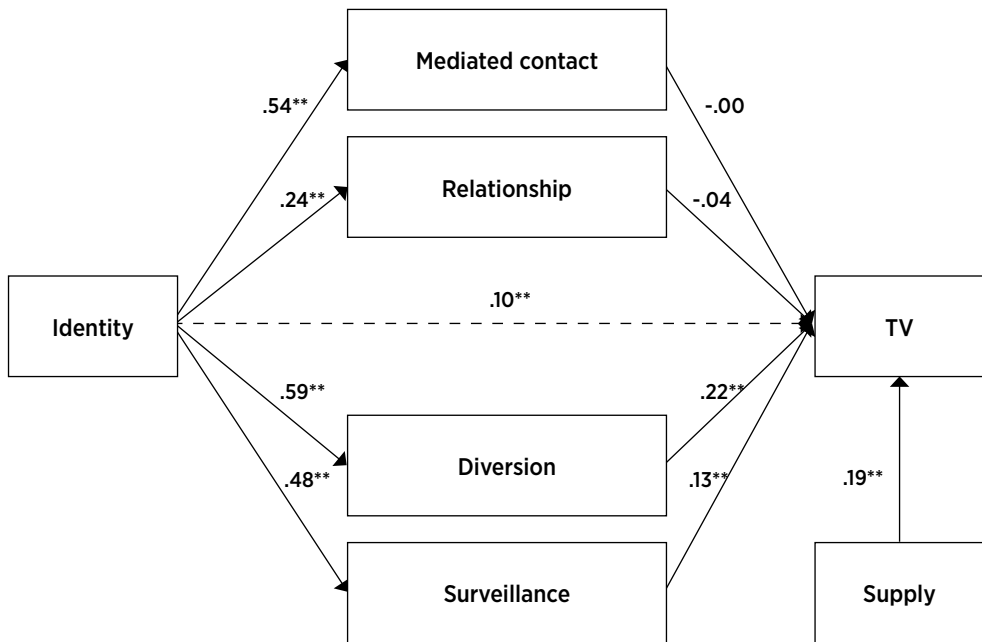


Figure 25. The figure shows a mediational analysis between ethnolinguistic identity and television use in Southern Finland (N = 298). The proposed mediators are motives for television use with incorporated linguistic preferences.

The second part of the model was examined with correlational analyses and parallel multiple mediation analyses.

Means, standard deviations and bivariate correlations of the variables are listed in Table 15. As can be seen, exposure is dominated by the Finnish language. The participants perceived the vitality of the Finnish language as higher than that of Swedish, ethnolinguistic boundaries as moderately permeable and the stability of the intergroup status quo as moderate. The most characteristic identity management strategy was creativity; the support for ethnolinguistic competition was weaker, and the least typical was mobility.

Hypotheses 4a and 4c were supported as Swedish language exposure was negatively related to mobility and positively related to competition. However, there was no support for hypothesis 4b as the language of exposure was negatively associated with creativity.

The results indicated that Swedish language exposure was not associated with vitality, but it was negatively related to permeability and stability. Thus, hypothesis 5a was not supported but there was support for hypotheses 5b and 5c.

Hypothesis 6c was not supported as vitality was negatively related to competition. Besides hypothesis 6a and hypothesis 6b must also be rejected as vitality was signifi-

cantly related to neither mobility nor creativity.

Hypothesis 7c was supported as permeability was negatively related to ethnolinguistic competition. However, hypotheses 7a and 7b must be rejected because there was no significant relationship between permeability and ethnolinguistic mobility and creativity either.

Perceived stability was positively related to ethnolinguistic mobility and negatively related to ethnolinguistic competition; thus hypotheses 8a and 8c were supported. But stability did not correlate with creativity, so hypothesis 8b could not be upheld.

Table 15. Means, Standard Deviations and Intercorrelations among the Variables in Southern Finland (N = 335-363).

	Vitality	Permeability	Stability	Mobility	Creativity	Competition	M (SD)
Language of exposure	.05	-.20**	-.12*	-.11*	-.11*	.23**	2.14 (.71)
Vitality		.10	.21**	.05	-.04	-.16**	2.29 (.30)
Permeability			.13**	.06	.05	-.24**	3.06 (1.23)
Stability				.13*	.09	-.18**	3.10 (1.06)
Mobility					-.17**	-.18**	1.98 (.87)
Creativity						.04	4.80 (1.22)
Competition							3.91 (.79)

Note. The higher values indicate greater exposure in Swedish.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

The results of the multiple mediation analyses are summarized in Table 16. In the case of ethnolinguistic mobility, $B = -.02$; 95 % CI [-.07, .01] and ethnolinguistic creativity the model was not significant, $B = -.02$; 95 % CI [-.06, .01], i.e. none of the intervening variables (vitality, permeability and stability) was a significant mediator.

In the case of ethnolinguistic competition, the model was significant, $B = .05$, 95 % CI [.02, .10] and explained 15 % of the variance in the dependent variable, $R^2 = .15$, $F_{7,313} = 7.85$, $p < .01$. The total effect of the language of exposure ($B_{\text{total effect}} = .23$, $p < .01$) diminished ($B_{\text{direct effect}} = .19$, $p < .01$) after including the mediators in the model, which referred to a partial mediation. The indirect effects through vitality were not significant; however, stability and permeability proved to be a significant mediator. None of the control variables was significant (local vitality $B = .14$, $p > .10$; gender $B = -.04$, $p > .10$; the linguistic composition of the family $B = -.12$, $p > .10$).

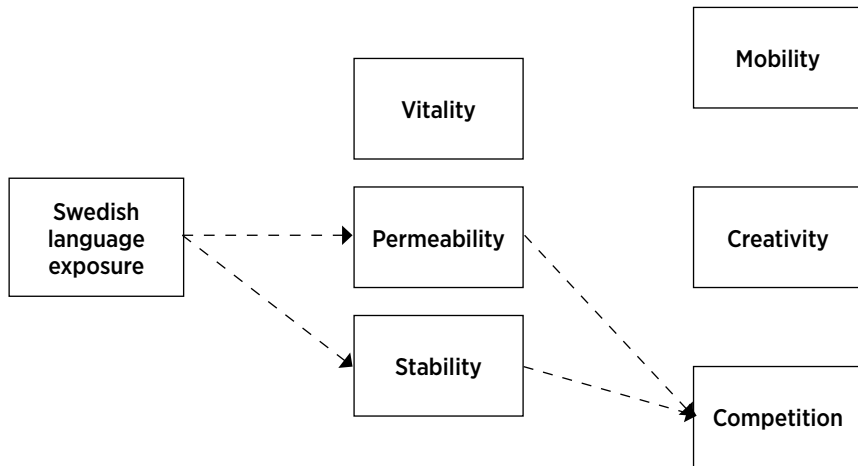


Figure 26. Schematic representation of the results of the multiple mediation for ethnolinguistic identity management strategies in Southern Finland (N = 318–321). The solid arrows indicate positive relationships, whereas the dashed ones indicate negative relationships between the variables. All depicted mediated pathways are significant. Complete statistics are reported in Table 16.

Table 16. Multiple Mediation Analyses for Ethnolinguistic Identity Management Strategies in Southern Finland (N = 318–321).

Dependent Variable	The Overall Model			Exposure on the Mediators			Mediators on the Dependent Variable			Individual Effect of the Mediators (95 % CI)		
	Total Effect	Direct Effect		Vitality	Permeability	Stability	Vitality	Permeability	Stability	Vitality	Permeability	Stability
Mobility	-.10	-.08	.02	-.36**	-.18*	.06	.02	.09*	.00 (-.01, .02)	-.01 (-.04, .02)	-.02 (-.05, .00)	
Creativity	-.09	-.07	.02	-.35**	-.19*	-.14	.00	.07	-.00 (-.02, .00)	-.00 (-.02, .02)	-.01 (-.04, .00)	
Competition	.23**	.19**	.02	-.35**	-.17*	-.23	-.12**	-.10**	-.00 (-.03, .00)	.04 (.01, .08)	.02 (.00, .05)	

Note. Coefficients indicate unstandardized parameter estimates (B).

** $p < .01$

* $p < .05$

8. DISCUSSION

The aim of the present doctoral dissertation was to explore the associations between ethnolinguistic identity and television viewing among minority language speakers. Based on the integration of uses and gratifications theory, cultivation theory and ethnolinguistic identity theory, a causal model was proposed to cover both the antecedents and the consequences of minority language television use, and to suggest a possible logic of the underlying mechanisms. This model formed the axes of the dissertation research.

The first part of the model reflected the idea of *ethnolinguistic identity gratifications*, and contained predictions formulated under the aegis of ethnolinguistic identity theory and the uses and gratifications approach. The second part of the model reflected the idea of *ethnolinguistic cultivation*, and it was built on predictions derived from cultivation theory and ethnolinguistic identity theory. The direct tests of the hypotheses occurred by the means of correlational analyses, whilst the model itself was examined with parallel multiple mediations in two steps.

The model and the related hypotheses were tested empirically among young media users in the German minority in South-Tyrol, Italy; the Hungarian minority in Transylvania, Romania; and the Swedish minority in Southern Finland. As presented in Chapter 3, the three settings differ considerably with respect to objective ethnolinguistic vitality, that is, the relative status, institutional support and demographic strength of the minority languages, as well as in terms of the accessible television supply in the minority languages. Specifically, German in South-Tyrol can be seen as very strong regarding all three dimensions of vitality and it is equipped with a broad German language television supply, including both German language transfrontier television channels and also a regional German television channel. Hungarian in Transylvania presents a case in which low status and weak institutional support is accompanied by a moderately good demographic capital; there is no regional Hungarian language television channel, however Hungarian speakers have access to a relatively broad television supply from Hungary. Finally, the situation of Swedish in Southern Finland may be seen as a case in which high status and institutional support is accompanied with a weaker demographic position; there is a Finland-Swedish television channel but no free access to transfrontier channels from Sweden. As summarized in Chapter 7.1., the divergence between the three settings in ethnolinguistic profile and minority language television supply resulted in considerable differences in the ethnolinguistic identification as well as the dynamics of the television viewing across the regions.

In the following, three key points frame this discussion. First, the interpretation of the empirical findings is warranted separately centred on the two parts of the model. Next, limitations and shortcomings of the research are considered, and theoretical and methodological caveats are discussed. Finally, implications and prospects for future research are outlined.

8.1. Ethnolinguistic identity gratifications

The first part of the model explored how ethnolinguistic identity drives television viewing. The complexity of relationships between ethnolinguistic identity, television viewing motives and actual television viewing was examined in three steps.

8.1.1. The functions of minority language and majority language television viewing

At the outset an exploratory research question was proposed to investigate what motives guide television viewing in the minority and the majority language. The results showed that the use of the regional minority language channels was motivated by surveillance and a need for mediated contact with the minority language group in both regions where a regional minority language channel exists, i.e. South-Tyrol and Southern Finland; however in Southern Finland diversion was a motivating factor, too. This outcome can apparently be explained by the functional structure of the program of these channels as both RAI Bozen and YLE Fem broadcast primarily news and cultural programs with special focus on the minority language group, whereas YLE Fem also airs entertainment programs.

The viewing of transfrontier minority language channels is steered by diversional needs in all three regions. Interestingly, the need for mediated contact with a larger language community (such as Germany/Austria, Hungary or Sweden) is not a motivating factor in any region. However, among the participants in Transylvania the use of television channels from Hungary was motivated even by surveillance. Unlike the other two settings, there is no regional minority language television channel in Transylvania, therefore the use of Hungarian transfrontier television channels for surveillance needs can most probably be attributed to Transylvanian participants wanting to obtain information in their mother tongue.

The use of majority language television channels is motivated by surveillance and diversion in each region alike; this is a common pattern in television viewing across the regions, independent of the various differences between them.

To sum up, the need for mediated contact induces only the use of regional minority language television channels. A need for diversion stimulates the use of each channel type aside from language, which offers entertainment programming. Surveillance guides television viewing both in the minority and the majority language; however, when it comes to minority language television use, an important difference between the three settings is that transfrontier minority language television channels are used for surveillance only in one case, i.e. in Transylvania, where there is no regional minority

language television channel. Finally, need for personal relationship was not a predictor of television use. That said, the overall picture painted here points toward a clear functional differentiation between the various channel types in South-Tyrol and Southern Finland; at the same time, in Transylvania there seems to be no functional polarization between the languages as both minority and majority languages television channels are used for the same purposes.

8.1.2. Ethnolinguistic identity, linguistic preferences and exposure

Next, a set of hypotheses was tested addressing language-based media preferences and choices. Based on predictions derived from social identity gratifications literature (Harwood, 1997, 1999a, 1999b; Harwood & Roy, 2005; Reid et al., 2004), it was expected that ethnolinguistic identity would affect both linguistic preferences in the different motives for television use (surveillance, diversion, personal relationship, need for mediated contact), and the overall language of exposure; further, it was anticipated that greater preferences for the minority language would be associated with more exposure to television in the minority language.

The hypotheses were invariably substantiated across the regions supporting the notion that ethnolinguistic identity is an important compass in television use among minority language speakers. In other words, individuals choose to view television in languages that bolster their identification with the ethnolinguistic group that are important to them. Participants, who expressed a stronger identification with the minority language group, also tended to express greater preferences for the minority language and used the television more in the minority language. Furthermore, as television viewing choices may serve as identity reinforcement functions (Harwood, 1999a), these results also suggest that the more strongly viewers identify with their ethnolinguistic group, the more they seek ethnolinguistic identity reinforcement.

In many ways, this pattern of findings is congruous with previous research conducted within the social identity gratifications framework. Studies have displayed distinct individual preferences for media featuring characters of the viewer's age (Harwood, 1997, 1999a, 1999b; Knobloch-Westerwick & Hastall, 2006, 2010), gender (Knobloch-Westerwick & Hastall, 2006; Trepte, 2004), ethnic group (Abrams & Giles, 2007, 2009) and race (Knobloch-Westerwick et al., 2008). Expanding this perspective, the present research demonstrated that ethnolinguistic identity gratifications are an important determinant of media choices among minority language speakers, not only through watching minority language speaking media figures on the screen but also selecting programs in the language of the minority group.

8.1.3. The mediational model

Finally, in order to further elaborate on the relationship between identity, motives and exposure, a second analysis was done, to examine how linguistic preferences in the different viewing motives would mediate the effect of ethnolinguistic identity on the language of exposure. The findings indicated that among participants in South-Tyrol and Transylvania diversion was a significant mediator. Similarly, in Southern Finland diversion and surveillance were significant mediators. In other words, all things considered these functions appear to be the most important motives for engaging in minority language television viewing, and linguistic preferences within these motives account, to a greater degree, for the linguistic variation in exposure as a whole. At the same time, the results indicated a partial mediation in all three regions suggesting that there are further factors that transfer the relationship between ethnolinguistic identity and the language of exposure. For instance, the level of adaptation to the majority language culture (e.g. Hyung-Jin & Dominick, 2003; Raman & Harwood, 2008; Stilling, 1997) or the cultural closeness of the kin-state can lead to changes in taste and preference, and moderate the relationship between ethnolinguistic identity and television viewing.

In addition, the results of the mediational analyses indicated remarkably that with all things considered, the subjective perception of television supply was a significant covariate in Transylvania and Southern Finland but it was not in South-Tyrol. This finding suggests that there is only one setting out of the three, where gratifying ethnolinguistic needs is unproblematic, whereas in the other two settings it appears to be influenced by the linguistic structure of the television landscape. Webster (2009) notes that media choice theories tend to overestimate the role of psychological predispositions of media users to account for the patterns of audience behaviour. Here, this finding suggests that an institutionally and functionally incomplete minority language television supply may foster the patterns of incomplete media use in the minority language, and simultaneously urge minority language speakers towards television channels offered in the majority language (see Moring, 2007).

Additionally, in consistence with the existing literature (Moring et al., 2011; Nordqvist, 2002a, 2002b; Vincze & Moring, 2012) it was shown that the use of minority language television is more frequent among students coming from monolingual minority language families than among students, who live in bilingual families. Similarly, in accordance with previous findings (Clément et al., 2005; Landry & Allard, 1994) it was also demonstrated that the higher the objective local vitality of the minority language in an environment, the more minority language television channels are viewed.

8.1.4. Conclusions

As reviewed in Chapter 1.2. several studies (e.g. Brady & Kaplan, 2000; Clément et al., 2005; Gaudet & Clément, 2005; Sundback, 1994; Vincze & Harwood, 2012; Vincze & Moring, 2012) have demonstrated a substantial connection between ethnolinguistic identity and the language of television use. Extending this scope, the present study is the first, which addressed the processes underlying this relationship, and revealed what motives lead to the use of television in the minority and the majority languages, and how linguistic preferences in the different motives contribute to the linguistic variation in exposure to television in different regions. By doing so, the dissertation study was innovative also in expanding the uses and gratifications approach (e.g. Rayburn, 2009; Ruggiero, 2000) in the direction of language, as it was shown that different motives guide the use of minority language and majority language channels, which contribute in different ways to the linguistic patterns of the exposure.

8.2. Ethnolinguistic cultivation

The second part of the model explored the relationships between the language of exposure, sociostructural variables (ethnolinguistic vitality, permeability of the ethnolinguistic boundaries, and stability of the power relations between the minority and the majority language group) and identity management strategies (ethnolinguistic mobility, ethnolinguistic creativity and ethnolinguistic competition). The assumptions of ethnolinguistic identity theory and cultivation literature informed the expectations that greater exposure to minority language television viewing will positively relate to perceived ethnolinguistic vitality, but negatively to the permeability of ethnolinguistic boundaries and to the stability of power relations between the minority and the majority language groups. In a similar fashion, it was also anticipated that more exposure to minority language television viewing will negatively relate to ethnolinguistic mobility (moving towards the majority language group), but positively to ethnolinguistic creativity (maintaining ethnolinguistic identity without confrontation with the majority language group) and competition (fighting for the rights and respect of the minority language group). In addition, considering that the identity management strategies are noted correlates of the sociostructural conditions, a further set of hypotheses was put forth to predict how various combinations of the sociostructural variables would influence the choice of the different identity management strategies (see, Figure 12).

8.2.1. The language of exposure and the sociostructural variables

Supporting the idea of ethnolinguistic cultivation, and in line with the previous observations (Vincze & Harwood, 2012), the empirical results indicated significant relationships between the language of exposure and the sociostructural variables in the predicted directions across the regions albeit with one exception: in Southern Finland no meaningful relationship was observed between the language of exposure and perceived ethnolinguistic vitality.

The absence of the significant relationship between the language of exposure and vitality among the Swedish speaking participants can be attributed to several reasons. First, unlike the other two regions, the exposure among the participants in Southern Finland is dominated by the majority language (see Chapter 7.1.). Obviously, majority language television channels provide less information about the status, institutional support and demographic patterns of the Swedish language in Finland, and television is subsequently less formative in these respects. In other words, it is possible that there is a threshold in the amount of minority language television viewing above which television can directly influence the formation of vitality perceptions and under which it cannot.

Second, participants in Southern Finland use television more for diversion needs. As both the Finnish and Swedish television channels air foreign films and television series with original voice and subtitles, it may be that participants in Southern Finland encounter mostly English as the primary language of exposure when watching entertainment. Hence, television cannot, for the most part, provide ethnolinguistic experiences and shape the perceptions about the vitality of the local languages.

Third, another element that may explain why, compared to the other regions vitality was not significantly related to the language of exposure in Southern Finland, lies in the objective ethnolinguistic circumstances, specifically in the linguistic composition of the region. Swedish speakers make up just a small minority in Southern Finland; in addition, the data was collected in low and medium vitality municipalities (while in the other two settings in low and high vitality municipalities were chosen). The perceptions of ethnolinguistic vitality are socially learned, and in this respect the potential impact of the larger ethnolinguistic environment should be considered. It is probable that television is more formative in contexts where participants have less contact with the majority language and majority language speakers, and therefore are less under the influence of the majority group and the majority language (c.f. Fujioka, 1999; Schiappa, Gregg & Hewes, 2005).

Finally, another explanation for the lack of effects could be due to inherent problems with the measures as well as problems with the articulation of the constructs themselves. More particularly, in its original form the subjective ethnolinguistic vitality questionnaire (Bourhis et al., 1981) comprised 22 items, but the present study selected

only twelve from these to measure perceived vitality. At the same time, the construction of subjective vitality questionnaire was criticised on different counts (see Abrams et al., 2009) and alternative measures were also developed (e.g. Ehala, 2010, 2011). Hence, it is possible that the items used to assess ethnolinguistic vitality in this study might not have been viewed by the respondents in Southern Finland as accurate representations of their perceptions. All in all, either one of these explanations, or their combination may account for the lack of a significant relationship between the language of exposure and perceived ethnolinguistic vitality in Southern Finland.

8.2.2. The language of exposure and identity management

Supporting the idea of ethnolinguistic cultivation, the empirical results showed significant relationships also between the language of exposure and the identity management strategies. Regarding competition and mobility, these relationships were in the predicted directions across the regions. These results partly contradict the findings made by Viladot and her colleagues (2013), who observed among Chiapas that minority language television viewing was positively related to ethnolinguistic mobility.

However, the language of exposure was negatively related to creativity in all three regions, which was against the hypothesis. The reason for this phenomenon can be that although creativity has several dimensions (such as making comparisons with other low status groups, redefining the value associated with low status criterion and others), the study focused only on one aspect of creativity: superordinate recategorization. This recategorization involved grouping minority and majority language speakers into single categories based on resemblance to a common regional identity: South-Tyrolese, Transylvanian and “Finlandish” (*Finländare*). It is probable that a union with majority language speakers into a single, linguistically neutral group appears to be closer to ethnolinguistic mobility than a really creative solution that would maintain the minority language identity while avoiding conflicts with the majority group.

8.2.3. Sociostructural variables and identity management

The empirical findings regarding the predictions based on ethnolinguistic identity theory (see Abrams et al., 2003; Reid et al., 2004) were less supportive and consistent across the regions.

When it comes to *ethnolinguistic creativity*, the idea, that the specific choice of superordinate recategorization as creativity strategy was closer to a mobility-style approach is also supported by the unexpected associations of creativity with the sociostructural

variables. In South-Tyrol and Transylvania, in opposition to what was predicted, creativity was significantly and positively related to the permeability of the ethnolinguistic boundaries, and in addition in South-Tyrol perceived vitality was negatively, that is inversely as predicted, related to creativity (in Transylvania creativity was not significantly related to vitality at all). At the same time, in Southern Finland creativity was not significantly related to any of the sociostructural variables. Based on the bilingual character of the Finnish national identity, that is, that both Finnish speakers and Swedish speakers share a common Finnish national identity, this recategorization may be too general and too broad to be related to the sociostructural conditions. However, neither of the other two identity management strategies was consistently associated with the sociostructural variables across the three regions in a theoretically predictable fashion.

While, supporting the hypotheses, *ethnolinguistic mobility* was significantly related to all three sociostructural variables in South-Tyrol, in Transylvania mobility was not related to ethnolinguistic vitality, and in Southern Finland creativity was related to neither vitality nor permeability. As for Transylvania, this finding will be explored below when discussing competition. Concerning Southern Finland, extensive research demonstrated (e.g. Henning-Lindblom, 2012; Liebkind, 1996; Lojander-Visapää, 1996, 2008) the additive nature of bilingualism in Finland. Among Swedish speakers living in Finland – even for those born into mixed families or living in a predominantly Finnish majority environment – mobility, that is striving to assimilate is rare (c.f. Finnäs, 2010). Since society, mainly through education, supports the formation of a dual language identity in people with bilingual background, the perception of sociostructural conditions is not in the forefront in the endorsement of ethnolinguistic mobility. Notably, 57 % of the participants in Southern Finland came from a bilingual family (in South-Tyrol 10 % and in Transylvania 6 %). In this sense, the cognitive alternative for Swedish-speaking identity is not a Finnish-speaking identity, but a bilingual identity encompassing both.

The third identity management strategy, *ethnolinguistic competition* was significantly and consistently related to both permeability and stability across the regions in the predicted direction. However, the regions differed considerably regarding the relationship between competition and perceived vitality. Specifically, as anticipated, in South-Tyrol vitality was positively related to competition; in contrast, in Southern Finland vitality was negatively related to competition, while in Transylvania, there was no significant relationship between vitality and competition.

A preferable interpretation for the negative relationship between vitality and competition in Southern Finland may be offered by considering the concept of ideal vitality, that is, vitality a group ideally possesses (Ytsma et al., 1994). Ytsma and his colleagues argue that among low or medium vitality groups, perceived ethnolinguistic vitality may negatively relate to identification because “high identifiers tend to feel a large discrep-

ancy between objective vitality and ideal vitality” (Ytsma et al., 1994, p. 76), while low identifiers’ vitality perceptions are not influenced by ideal vitality. Following from this, it is probable that among the Swedish-speaking participants in Southern Finland, ethnolinguistic competition is a “vitality enhancing” strategy.

With respect to Transylvania, the absence of a significant relationship between the three identity management strategies and vitality suggests that in that context the social strength of the languages is not a reason for endorsing any of the three strategies. Among the three groups, the ethnolinguistic profile of participants in Transylvania was characterized by the strongest identity, the least permeable boundaries and the least stable intergroup hierarchy, the smallest engagement in ethnolinguistic mobility and the greatest engagement in ethnolinguistic competition with the smallest within group variation regarding each variable. Research has shown that an ethnolinguistic group may have strong identity not only when having high vitality but also when having *low* vitality (see, Giles & Johnson, 1987). Specifically, Henning-Lindblom (2012) discusses the role of low vitality in developing the sense of identity threat, which may lead to identity enhancing strategies (see also Ellemers, Spears & Doosje, 1997). It is possible then that the low vitality of Hungarian in Transylvania (e.g. large drop in population due to assimilation and emigration, and having notably weaker minority rights than the other two minorities in their country), creates a sense of threat in the Transylvanian participants, which, as an emotional/affective factor, mediates the effect of vitality on the different strategies of identity management.

8.2.4. The mediational model

The observations above were also supported by the mediational analyses, which explicated television viewing’s indirect influences on identity management mediated by perceptions of sociostructural variables. Taking the three sociostructural variables and the three identity management strategies, altogether nine mediated paths were proposed between the language of exposure and identity management per region. From these nine possible paths, in South-Tyrol eight, in Transylvania five, whilst in Southern Finland merely two were significant. In other words, whilst in South-Tyrol most hypotheses were substantiated, in Transylvania the findings lend only limited support to the proposed model and in Southern Finland only scant support was found for the predicted mediated relationships. Importantly, as noted earlier, it is mostly hypotheses derived from ethnolinguistic identity theory and not from cultivation that account for the lack of significant mediated relationships; of note, the least powerful mediator was ethnolinguistic vitality.

Still, on the whole, two mediations emerged, which were significant and consistent across the regions: perceived stability and permeability mediated the relationship

between the language of exposure and ethnolinguistic competition. This finding is especially notable and deserves further exploration. As predicted, the greater exposure to the minority language was negatively related to stability and permeability, which were also negatively related to competition. As the model indicated a partial mediation in all three regions, these results tell us that, everything else set aside, the relationship between television viewing and ethnolinguistic competition is partly mediated by stability and permeability.

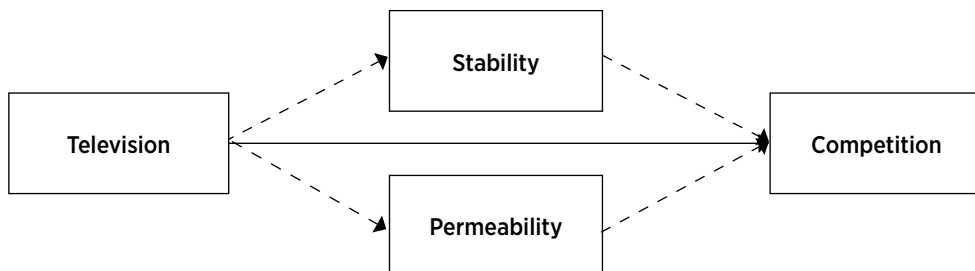


Figure 27. Perceived stability and permeability mediates the effect of minority language exposure on ethnolinguistic competition. The solid arrows indicate positive relationships, whereas the dashed ones indicate negative relationships between the variables.

8.2.5. Conclusions

The predictions tested in the second part of the model reflected the idea of ethnolinguistic cultivation. Extending the scope of the identity models of media usage proposed by Abrams et al. (2003) and Reid et al. (2004) in the direction of language, the present study is the first, which addressed and examined the contribution of television viewing to the perception of sociostructural conditions and identity management strategies. Taken together, the hypothesis testing provided ample support to the predictions made for cultivation effects demonstrating that viewing minority language and majority language television channels contribute differently to the perception of sociostructural conditions of the ethnolinguistic setting as well as the identity management strategies. However, regarding the predictions led by ethnolinguistic identity theory (i.e. the relationships between the sociostructural conditions and identity management strategies), the results were less supportive and less consistent across the regions. This part of the dissertation study was innovative in expanding the assumptions of cultivation theory (e.g. Morgan & Shanahan, 2010; Signorelli, 2008) in the direction of language showing that television use in different languages contributes to the perceptions of social reality and the engagement in identity management strategies in different ways.

8.3. Limitations and shortcomings of the study

Despite its theoretical contributions, the present study is not without its methodological limitations. The most important ones among these are the nature of the samples used in the studies and the cross-sectional nature of the research design.

Although the research design was tailored not to population inferences but theory based process inferences (Hayes, 2005, p. 41-44; Raithel, 2008, p. 57), it must be acknowledged that the study employed convenience samples, neither of which was representative of the greater population, and a direct comparison between sample characteristics and the target population was not available. Furthermore, while the data at hand are informative, another drawback of the sample is that it was collected among secondary school students, and therefore the potentially homogenous nature of the sample characteristics should be considered. Undoubtedly, both television viewing habits and identifications can vary across a lifetime.

Another set of caveats are due to the correlational design of the study. It should be asserted that the present study is based on cross-sectional data, which does not allow for the ascertainment of causality or its direction. Hence, one cannot suggest that the models tested here provide definitive evidence regarding the causal or mediating role of specific variables. There are no exclusive either/or processes; it is possible that alternative relations among the variables could be specified.

However, it should also be pointed out that from a cultivation perspective the cross-sectional design is not as problematic as it is usually regarded to be. Cultivation theorists usually argue for the importance of different, coexisting television related and real life related attitudinal or behavioural patterns, and less for a cause-effect relationship. Specifically, as Shanahan and Morgan (1999, p. 35) explain “The question of ‘which comes first’ is misleading, since cultivation means long-term patterns”, further they argue that cultivation is “not a unidirectional but rather more like a gravitational process”. In a similar fashion, from the perspective of ethnolinguistic identity, several authors (e.g. Abrams, O’Connor, & Giles, 2002; Gandy & Matabane, 1989; Sachdev & Bourhis, 1990) pointed out the processual and reciprocal nature of the relationship between identity and communication, declaring that identity can influence communication at the same time as communication can influence identification.

8.4. Directions for future research

The scope of the present study opens several paths for further research. An obvious goal would be the empirical investigation of the model among other minority language groups such as the Basques, the Welsh, and further Hungarian and German minorities.

Similarly, studying other media types, especially for new media, could offer considerable potential for future research. Continued research could also explore English language media use, and its relation to the minority language and majority language media use in the light of ethnolinguistic identification; it is possible that English language media use moderates the effect of media use in the local languages.

From a methodological point of view, longitudinal research would be fundamental to expanding our knowledge about language, identity and media use. Clearly, the language of exposure is meant to have long-term effects, therefore delineating the relationship between media language and identification at different points of time, preferably on a broader time scale, may offer a deeper understanding of how identification develops in the light of the development of media use (Clément et al., 2005).

From a theoretical point of view, future studies could extend the scope of the present investigation in several respects. Ethnolinguistic identity gratifications could be examined in combination with the gratification of other social identities such as age, gender and others. Research has already established certain relationships of television viewing preferences in regard to age identity (Harwood, 1997, 1999a, 1999b; Knobloch-Westerwick & Hastall, 2010) and to gender identity (Knobloch-Westerwick & Hastall, 2006; Trepte, 2004). For instance, examining the variation of gender or age identity in connection with ethnolinguistic identity might lead us toward more profound understanding of how multiple social identities interact when using mass media (see Harwood, 1999a). Personal identities could be also integrated into the investigation of ethnolinguistic identity gratifications. Consideration of the personality characteristics of media audiences has long been recognized as a key component of media use, and a great body of empirical works demonstrated correspondence between the personality types of audience members and their motives for watching television (e.g. Finn & Gorr, 1988; Weaver, 1991, 2003; Weaver, Brosius, & Mundorf, 1993). It may then be possible to uncover particular personality characteristics that moderate the relationship between ethnolinguistic identification and media use.

From the perspective of ethnolinguistic cultivation, future research might examine the program level and genre level of ethnolinguistic television viewing, and its connections to the perception of sociostructural conditions and identity management strategies. A literature review conducted by Bilandzic and Rössler (2004) indicated considerable differences in cultivation effects of the different genres such as crime, soap opera and talk shows; what is more, some of them were inconsistent with the basic cultivation hypothesis. Thus, it is possible that the effect of ethnolinguistic television use varies across different genres. Besides, in different contexts, especially in North America, where the amount of exposure makes it possible to draw a distinction between light, medium and heavy television viewing, the variation of viewing time could be combined with the variation of language of exposure in predicting identity management.

From the angle of ethnolinguistic identity theory, research should examine other forms of identity management strategies as well (see, Blanz, Mummendey, Mielke, & Klink, 1998). With respect to creativity strategies such as making comparisons with other low status groups, redefining the value associated with low status criterion, and making intragroup comparisons could then be taken into account. Regarding competition, studies could examine realistic competition (i.e. improving the status of the ethnolinguistic group through competing for allocations of resources which support it) and temporal competition (i.e. comparing the present situation of the group with its past/future situation).

Although exploration of these methodological and theoretical considerations may provide informative and insightful areas for future research, a particularly fruitful avenue could be studying ethnolinguistic media use as reinforcing spirals (Slater, 2007). The idea of reinforcing spirals contends that audience selectivity and media effects, as two intertwined and mutually reinforcing processes, “may result in both increased use of the selected media content and the maintenance or strengthening of the attitude or behaviour in question” (Zhao, 2009, p. 698). As these mutual influences can produce cumulative effects over time, an obvious way to test the propositions of the model demands longitudinal data. Empirical studies based on panel surveys have provided considerable support to the notion of reinforcing spiral examining global warming perceptions (Zhao, 2009), social risk judgments (Slater & Rasinski, 2005), and aggressiveness (Slater, Henry, Swaim, & Anderson, 2003). In a similar fashion, this model could be tailored to ethnolinguistic contexts, to inspect the possible effects of the language of exposure on perception about the sociostructural conditions and identity management strategies.

9. GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

The overall aim of the dissertation was to examine the relationship between language and television use in minority language settings. The research agenda was ambitious in its scope, and the empirical investigation of the proposed hypotheses can be considered as expanding and adding to a growing body of work on the media use of language minorities in both theoretical and methodological aspects.

Regarding theoretical contributions, the primary goal of the research was to embed the research problem into a sound theoretical framework, and propose an extensive and comprehensive model of minority language television use. The study introduced the concept of *ethnolinguistic identity gratifications* to address how ethnolinguistic identity guides television viewing, what motives lead to the use of television in the minority and the majority languages, and how linguistic preferences contribute to the linguistic variation in television use. Similarly, the study also introduced the concept of *ethnolinguistic cultivation* to address how television viewing contributes to the perception of sociostructural conditions and identity management strategies. In this way, integrating the tenets of uses and gratifications and cultivation theory, with ethnolinguistic identity theory, two traditional and long-established media effects theories were replenished with new content and developed in a new direction – the direction of language.

The hypotheses were tested empirically in the German minority community in South-Tyrol, Italy; the Hungarian minority in Transylvania, Romania; and the Swedish minority in Southern Finland. The results provided ample support to the predictions made for ethnolinguistic identity gratifications as well as ethnolinguistic cultivation across the regions. It was demonstrated that different motives guide television use in minority and majority languages: specifically, in South-Tyrol and Southern Finland a clear functional differentiation was detectable between the various channel types; while in Transylvania there was no functional polarization between the languages as both minority and majority languages television channels are used for the same purposes. Besides, it was shown that the linguistic patterns of exposure clearly contribute to the perception of sociostructural conditions of the ethnolinguistic settings as well as to the utilization of the different identity management strategies in all regions. In addition, the study painted a rich picture about the linguistic patterns of television use among the language minorities in Europe.

From a methodological point of view, the major contribution of the study comes from its comparative perspective and the use of mediational analyses. Indeed, very few comparative studies are available in regard to the media use of language minorities. Besides, both the uses and gratifications and cultivation literature as well as research based on ethnolinguistic identity theory include considerably few empirical works, which utilized mediational analyses; here multiple mediational models were major tools when

examining the predictions of the theories.

On the basis of the findings of the present study, two important suggestions for media policy can be made. First, countries whose language is a minority language in a neighbouring country, could offer free transfrontier access to their television channels; this could enhance minority language television use primarily for entertainment. Second, in cases where language minorities are populous enough to produce high quality television programming on their own, the establishment of a regional minority language television channel could be a vital advancement; this could enhance minority language television use primarily for obtaining information, first and foremost with respect to regional and community news. Importantly, both of these suggestions are in accordance with the recommendations of European treaties (the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages, ETS 148, Article 11; and the Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities, ETS 157, Article 9) regarding the role of media in protecting minority languages. After all, a linguistically rich media landscape seems to be an essential condition in Europe to preserve the diverse linguistic landscape of the continent.

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APPENDIX A

Below, indicators for all variables are presented. Except for background variables, the response format was always a 5-point scale, on which participants indicated how much they agreed or disagreed with the statements presented (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree).

Background variables

Gender

Mother tongue of the mother

Mother tongue of the father

Level of education of the mother

Level of education of the father

Television use

Relative TV language

Frequency of TV use in the majority language

Frequency of use of the local TV channel in the minority language

Frequency of use of transfrontier TV channels in the minority language

Amount of television use on an average day

Amount of television use on a weekend day

Amount of television use yesterday

Motives for TV use in the minority language and in the majority language

To obtain information

To keep up with current issues and events

To be well-informed

To be entertained

For fun

To relax

Not to be alone

Not to be bored

When I have nothing better to do.

Because I like the language.
Because I like the language group.
To have contact with the language group.

Perceived supply in the minority language

Usually I find appropriate TV programs in the minority language.
One can always catch something interesting in the minority language TV channels.
I often have difficulties in finding interesting TV programs in the minority language.

Identity

I consider myself as belonging to the minority language group.
I identify myself with the minority language speakers.
I feel the minority language as my mother tongue.

I consider myself as belonging to the majority language group.
I identify myself with the majority language speakers.
I feel the majority language as my mother tongue.

Permeability

No matter what s/he does, a minority language speaker will never become a majority language speaker.
For a minority language speaker it is nearly impossible to be regarded as a majority language speaker.

Stability

I think the relationship between minority language speakers and majority language speakers will remain stable for the future.

Mobility

I make any effort to be considered as a majority language speaker.
It is my very wish to belong to the majority language group.
In the future I would like to regard myself as a majority language speaker.

Creativity

Minority language speakers and majority language speakers are all South-Tyrolese/ Transylvanian / Finns (Finländare).

Competition

Minority language speakers should do much more for the vitality of the minority language.

Minority language speakers should fight for the rights of their language.

Ethnolinguistic vitality

Proportion

Birth rate

Concentration

Language status

Social status

Sociohistorical status

Economic status

Government services (public administration)

Culture

Politics

Mass media

General vitality

APPENDIX B

Table B1. Missing Cases across the Examined Variables in the Different Regions.

	South-Tyrol	Transylvania	Southern Finland
Surveillance in minority language	16	13	15
Diversion in minority language	18	13	22
Personal relationship in minority language	7	17	19
Mediated contact in minority language	21	11	26
Surveillance in majority language	21	7	4
Diversion in majority language	22	19	6
Personal relationship in majority language	26	13	10
Mediated contact in majority language	25	12	5
Relative TV language	4	6	10
Majority language TV use	2	2	0
Transfrontier minority language TV use	1	4	2
Regional minority language TV use	0	-	2
Perceived minority language TV supply	6	7	2
Identity	19	11	2
Vitality	45	41	27
Permeability	9	3	0
Stability	8	6	0
Mobility	11	9	3
Creativity	8	3	1
Competition	8	5	1

Note. South-Tyrol N = 415; Transylvania N = 401; Southern Finland N = 363.

APPENDIX C

Table C1. The Level of Education of the Parents (%).

		Elementary school	Vocational school	Secondary school	Higher
South-Tyrol	Mother's education	6	55	27	12
	Father's education	7	54	21	17
Transylvania	Mother's education	3	12	42	43
	Father's education	2	25	41	32
Southern Finland	Mother's education	4	14	13	69
	Father's education	5	21	10	64

Note. South-Tyrol N = 415; Transylvania N = 401; Southern Finland N = 363.

Table C2. Multivariate Analysis of Variance for the Level of Education of the Parents

		Wilks' λ	F(df)	p	η^2
South-Tyrol	Mother's education	.92	.76(30,799)	.82	.03
	Father's education	.87	1.31(30,799)	.13	.05
	Mother's education x Father's education	.76	.95(80, 1734)	.60	.03
Transylvania	Mother's education	.87	1.25 (30, 793)	.17	.04
	Father's education	.88	1.19 (30, 793)	.22	.04
	Mother's education x Father's education	.69	1.30 (80, 1721)	.04*	.04
Southern Finland	Mother's education	.92	.68 (30, 731)	.76	.03
	Father's education	.91	.80 (30, 731)	.40	.04
	Mother's education x Father's education	.70	1.03 (90, 1699)	.40	.04

Note. South-Tyrol N = 415; Transylvania N = 401; Southern Finland N = 363.

* $p < .05$

APPENDIX D

Table D1. Results of one-way ANOVAs for Variables Related to Ethnolinguistic Profile of the Regions.

	<i>M(SD)</i>			<i>F(df)</i>	η^2
	South-Tyrol	Transylvania	Southern Finland		
Identity	4.24 (.71)	4.49 (.64)	3.77 (.75)	102.22 (2,1144)	.15
Vitality	3.35 (.36)	2.57 (.52)	2.29 (.31)	647.19 (2,1066)	.55
Permeability	3.18 (1.14)	1.92 (1.16)	3.06 (1.23)	138.09 (2,1164)	.19
Stability	3.83 (1.07)	2.84 (1.04)	3.10 (1.06)	94.20 (2,1162)	.14
Mobility	2.24 (1.01)	1.46 (.73)	1.97 (.87)	81.06 (2,1153)	.12
Creativity	4.26 (1.18)	3.32 (1.29)	4.74 (.75)	162.88 (2,1164)	.22
Competition	3.42 (.98)	4.22 (.78)	3.91 (.79)	87.59 (2,1163)	.13

Note. South-Tyrol N = 415; Transylvania N = 401; Southern Finland N = 363. All scales are ranging from 1 to 5. All p-values < .0001

Table D2. Bonferroni Post-hoc Tests for Multiple Comparisons of Sociostructural Variables.

Dependent variable	Region (I)	Region (J)	Mean difference (I-J)	<i>p</i>
Vitality	South-Tyrol	Transylvania	.78	< .001
	South-Tyrol	Southern Finland	1.06	< .001
	Transylvania	Southern Finland	.27	< .001
Permeability	South-Tyrol	Transylvania	1.26	< .001
	South-Tyrol	Southern Finland	.13	.42
	Transylvania	Southern Finland	-1.14	< .001
Stability	South-Tyrol	Transylvania	.99	< .001
	South-Tyrol	Southern Finland	.73	< .001
	Transylvania	Southern Finland	-.26	< .001

Note. South-Tyrol N = 415; Transylvania N = 401; Southern Finland N = 363.

Table D3. Bonferroni Post-hoc Tests for Multiple Comparisons of Identity and Identity Management Strategies.

Dependent variable	Region (I)	Region (J)	Mean difference (I-J)	p
Identity	South-Tyrol	Transylvania	-.25	< .001
	South-Tyrol	Southern Finland	.47	< .001
	Transylvania	Southern Finland	.72	< .001
Mobility	South-Tyrol	Transylvania	.78	< .001
	South-Tyrol	Southern Finland	.27	< .001
	Transylvania	Southern Finland	-.51	< .001
Creativity	South-Tyrol	Transylvania	.94	< .001
	South-Tyrol	Southern Finland	.48	< .001
	Transylvania	Southern Finland	-1.42	< .001
Competition	South-Tyrol	Transylvania	-.80	< .001
	South-Tyrol	Southern Finland	-.48	< .001
	Transylvania	Southern Finland	.31	< .001

Note. South-Tyrol N = 415; Transylvania N = 401; Southern Finland N = 363.

Table D4. Results of one-way ANOVAs for Variables Related to Television Use.

	<i>M(SD)</i>			<i>F (df)</i>	η^2
	South-Tyrol	Transylvania	Southern Finland		
Supply	3.94 (.88)	3.35 (.95)	2.25 (.92)	330.55 (2, 1661)	.36
TV language	4.49 (.81)	3.56 (1.10)	2.33 (.93)	484.86 (2,1156)	.46
Majority language TV	1.91 (1.18)	2.91 (1.49)	4.08 (1.07)	284.38 (2,1172)	.33
Transfrontier TV	4.63 (.81)	3.60 (1.38)	2.05 (1.26)	475.77 (2,1169)	.45
Regional TVa	2.71 (1.32)	-	1.96 (1.00)	77.15 (1, 774)	.09

Note. South-Tyrol N = 415; Transylvania N = 401; Southern Finland N = 363.

All scales are ranging from 1 to 5. All p-values < .0001

a This variable was measured only in South-Tyrol and Southern Finland.

Table D5. Bonferroni Post-hoc Tests for Multiple Comparisons of Variables Related to Television Use.

Dependent variable	Region (I)	Region (J)	Mean difference (I-J)	<i>p</i>
Relative TV language	South-Tyrol	Transylvania	.92	< .001
	South-Tyrol	Southern Finland	2.15	< .001
	Transylvania	Southern Finland	1.23	< .001
Transfrontier minority language channels	South-Tyrol	Transylvania	1.04	< .001
	South-Tyrol	Southern Finland	2.58	< .001
	Transylvania	Southern Finland	1.55	< .001
Majority language channels	South-Tyrol	Transylvania	-1.00	< .001
	South-Tyrol	Southern Finland	-2.17	< .001
	Transylvania	Southern Finland	-1.17	< .001

Note. South-Tyrol N = 415; Transylvania N = 401; Southern Finland N = 363.

Table D6. Results of one-way ANOVAs for Motives for Minority Language Television Use.

	<i>M(SD)</i>			<i>F</i>	η^2
	South-Tyrol	Transylvania	Southern Finland		
Surveillance	4.13 (.94)	3.81 (.85)	2.94 (1.07)	152.77 (2,1132)	.21
Diversion	4.32 (.75)	3.94 (.89)	3.65 (1.02)	52.99 (2,1126)	.09
Personal relationship	3.80 (1.15)	3.12 (1.06)	3.38 (1.11)	37.42 (2, 1135)	.06
Mediated contact	1.96 (.99)	2.86 (1.08)	2.62 (1.11)	75.09 (2, 1118)	.12

Note. South-Tyrol N = 415; Transylvania N = 401; Southern Finland N = 363.
All scales are ranging from 1 to 5. All p-values < .0001

Table D7. Bonferroni Post-hoc Tests for Multiple Comparisons of Motives for Minority Language Television Use.

Dependent variable	Region (I)	Region (J)	Mean difference (I-J)	<i>p</i>
Surveillance	South-Tyrol	Transylvania	.32	< .001
	South-Tyrol	Southern Finland	1.20	< .001
	Transylvania	Southern Finland	-.87	< .001
Diversion	South-Tyrol	Transylvania	.37	< .001
	South-Tyrol	Southern Finland	.67	< .001
	Transylvania	Southern Finland	.30	< .001
Personal relationship	South-Tyrol	Transylvania	.67	< .001
	South-Tyrol	Southern Finland	.42	< .001
	Transylvania	Southern Finland	-.25	< .01
Mediated contact	South-Tyrol	Transylvania	-.90	< .001
	South-Tyrol	Southern Finland	-.66	< .001
	Transylvania	Southern Finland	.23	< .01

Note. South-Tyrol N = 415; Transylvania N = 401; Southern Finland N = 363.

Table D8. Results of one-way ANOVAs for Motives for Majority Language Television Use.

	<i>M(SD)</i>			<i>F</i>	η^2
	South-Tyrol	Transylvania	Southern Finland		
Surveillance	2.71 (1.42)	3.73 (1.08)	3.69 (1.03)	91.17 (2, 1144)	.14
Diversion	2.51 (1.33)	3.02 (1.18)	4.08 (.86)	178.37 (2, 1129)	.24
Personal relationship	2.34 (1.32)	2.45 (1.03)	3.84 (1.03)	234.18 (2, 1129)	.26
Mediated contact	2.26 (1.09)	2.29 (.95)	2.48 (.98)	5.12 (2, 1134)	.01

Note. South-Tyrol N = 415; Transylvania N = 401; Southern Finland N = 363. All scales are ranging from 1 to 5. All p-values < .0001

Table D9. Bonferroni Post-hoc Tests for Multiple Comparisons of Motives for Majority Language Television Use.

Dependent variable	Region (I)	Region (J)	Mean difference (I-J)	<i>p</i>
Surveillance	South-Tyrol	Transylvania	1.02	< .001
	South-Tyrol	Southern Finland	-.98	< .001
	Transylvania	Southern Finland	.04	1.00
Diversion	South-Tyrol	Transylvania	-.50	< .001
	South-Tyrol	Southern Finland	-1.56	< .001
	Transylvania	Southern Finland	-1.06	< .001
Personal relationship	South-Tyrol	Transylvania	-.11	.48
	South-Tyrol	Southern Finland	-1.50	< .001
	Transylvania	Southern Finland	-1.38	< .001
Mediated contact	South-Tyrol	Transylvania	-.03	1.00
	South-Tyrol	Southern Finland	-.22	< .01
	Transylvania	Southern Finland	-.19	< .05

Note. South-Tyrol N = 415; Transylvania N = 401; Southern Finland N = 363.

APPENDIX E

Table E1. Motives for Using Television in German and in Italian. Means, Standard Deviations, *t*-values for Paired Samples and Effect Sizes (N = 375-382).

	German	Italian	<i>t</i> (<i>df</i>)	η^2
Surveillance	4.14 (.94)	2.70 (1.41)	18.09 (381)**	.46
Diversion	4.32 (.76)	2.52 (1.33)	23.54 (377)**	.59
Relationship	3.79 (1.15)	2.35 (1.32)	18.30 (384)**	.46
Mediated contact	1.97 (.99)	2.25 (1.07)	-3.68 (374)**	.03

Table E2. Motives for Using Television in Hungarian and in Romanian. Means, Standard Deviations, *t*-values for Paired Samples and Effect Sizes (N = 372-383).

	Hungarian	Romanian	<i>t</i> (<i>df</i>)	η^2
Surveillance	3.81 (.86)	3.74 (1.08)	1.43 (382)	.00
Diversion	3.93 (.89)	3.02 (1.17)	13.68 (371)**	.33
Relationship	3.13 (1.06)	2.45 (1.03)	12.28 (373)**	.29
Mediated contact	2.85 (1.08)	2.30 (.95)	8.10 (381)**	.15

Table E3. Motives for Using Television in Swedish and in Finnish. Means, Standard Deviations, *t*-values for Paired Samples and Effect Sizes (N = 334-347).

	Swedish	Finnish	<i>t</i> (<i>df</i>)	η^2
Surveillance	2.94 (1.08)	3.71 (1.02)	-13.15 (346)**	.32
Diversion	3.64 (1.03)	4.08 (.87)	-6.76 (337)**	.12
Personal relationship	3.37 (1.11)	3.84 (1.03)	-8.15 (337)**	.16
Mediated contact	2.62 (1.12)	2.49 (.97)	2.21 (333)*	.02

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$