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Multilingual Europe: Attitudes and Motivation in Second Foreign Language Learning. A Study of Swedish University Students of German.

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MA Programme Euroculture declaration

I, Polina Kordik, hereby declare that this thesis, entitled "*Multilingual Europe: Attitudes and Motivation in Second Foreign Language Learning. A Study of Swedish University Students of German"* submitted as partial requirement for the MA Programme Euroculture, is my own original work and expressed in my own words. Any use made within it of works of other authors in any form (e.g. ideas, figures, texts, tables, etc.) are properly acknowledged in the text and as well as in the List of References.

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Abstract

This study is within the general area of Second Language Acquisition (SLA), focusing on the acquisition of German by university students living in Sweden in formal (class room) settings. The main aim of the study is, firstly, to find out what motivation and attitudes students in Sweden have towards learning German, and whether these attitudes change as students progress through different stages in their language learning process. Secondly, the study investigates what relevance the attitudes and motivation of students may have for the popularization of learning German and other foreign languages in Sweden besides English and, more generally, for the initiative of mother tongue plus two foreign languages proclaimed by the European Commission.

A questionnaire survey was carried out specifically for the present work, focusing on learners' motivation and language attitudes, as well as their awareness of projects initiated by the European Union (the "mother tongue plus two languages" initiative and the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages CEFR) . The survey was conducted at the universities of Uppsala and Stockholm. 99 students taking courses in German at various levels from beginners to advanced participated.

The results showed that the overwhelming majority of the students have pronounced positive attitudes towards the German language. These attitudes become more robust at higher proficiency levels. Their motivation has a solid integrative direction and is not immediately aimed at professional or career development but mainly at improved communication with Germans, travel and leisure, culture and literature.

At the same time, awareness of the language projects and initiatives by the European Union was extremely low.

All in all, the informants showed a high grade of openness and integrative abilities in the context of multilingualism and foreign language learning, which is in line with the EU policy on multilingualism. Yet to be more realistic, for the policy to be implemented, substantial measures would need to be taken, including a campaign to raise awareness about EU language initiatives.

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1. Introduction

Germany is the biggest export as well as import partner of Sweden (Statistiska centralbyrån, 2006a, 2006b). In Germany there are about 800 Swedish affiliated companies and representations with German as the main language of communication (Sveriges Radio, 2005). But despite the obvious strong economic ties between Germany and Sweden, the popularity of studying German as a foreign language at school, university and at various courses has experienced a dramatic decline in Sweden over the recent decades (Statistiska centralbyrån, 2006c, 2006d; Högskoleverket, 2010).

The overwhelming rise of English as an international and later also as a pan-European lingua franca has led to a misbalance among the foreign languages that Europeans decide to learn. Many people, and many Swedes in particular (Eurobarometer 243: 56), believe and experience that their knowledge of English is sufficient to communicate with other nationalities and to be successful in their careers.

The European Union does not share this opinion however and instead initiates a wide range of programs that actively promote multilingualism among its citizens. The most important and ambitious aim of the EU is to reach the state in which every EU citizen can speak at least two foreign languages in addition to their mother tongue (European Commission 2005, 2006).

It remains an open question whether the initiative of speaking a mother tongue plus two foreign languages is realistic or not, and if so, how and when Europe can reach this goal. According to the survey "Europeans and their Languages" conducted by Eurobarometer, a significant number of European citizens, especially in northern and central Europe, tend to disagree with the principle "mother tongue plus two" (Eurobarometer 243: 56). For instance, only 27% of survey participants in Sweden tend to agree with the statement that "everyone in the European Union should be able to speak two languages in addition to their mother tongue", and this is the lowest percentage among all EU countries (ibid.). So the starting point for the present study was the question what Europeans (in this case, those living in Sweden) themselves

think about the EU language initiative and what motivates adult Swedes to learn German, which becomes the second foreign language after English or even the third or fourth foreign language for them.

Recent statistical reports by Eurobarometer about foreign languages in Europe reveal an interesting paradox: on the one hand, Sweden is the country with the highest percentage of citizens speaking at least one foreign language (overall 90%; 89% out of which speak English) (Eurobarometer 243: 9), the country with the most active language learners as measured over the last two years (32%) (Eurobarometer 243: 25) and has 99% of its citizens recognizing the benefits of knowing languages other than their own mother tongues (Eurobarometer 243: 28). On the other hand, as already mentioned, Swedish citizens are also those who are least enthusiastic about the European Commission's objective of speaking at least two foreign languages (Eurobarometer 243: 56). This remarkable contradiction in the survey's data reveals a serious imbalance concerning the foreign language learning situation in Sweden, which is also relevant for many other European countries. The majority of the EU citizens, 68%, tend to think that English is the most useful language to know for personal development and career (Eurobarometer 243: 30) and, consequently, that it is enough for communication with other nationalities. In this sense, Sweden may be considered as an extreme example of the above-mentioned imbalance between the knowledge of English as a foreign language versus other foreign languages among people all over Europe.

Moreover, those involved in second foreign language teaching in Sweden have become deeply concerned about the future of foreign language education, terms such as "crisis", "alarming", "catastrophic situation" and even "language death" (Elfving, 2002: 5) constantly appear in the media and in scholarly articles on the present-day second foreign language teaching situation in Sweden (Cabau-Lampa 2007: 344; Hyltenstam and Österberg 2010: 85). However, Beatrice Cabau-Lampa in her research article "Mother Tongue Plus Two Languages in Sweden: Unrealistic Educational Goal?" (*Language Policy*: 2007, 6:333–358), after giving an overview of the history and the present state of foreign language teaching in Sweden, concludes that "the situation is not so worrying compared to the rest of Europe", but that it needs substantial reforms and changes (ibid. 354). A more detailed diachronic

description of the role of German as a foreign language in Sweden will follow in Chapter 3.

The present study considers the situation with learning a second foreign language in Sweden for the case of adult learners of German. It takes a closer look at their learning motivation, attitudes towards the German language, Germans and, broadly, German-speaking countries, attempts to reveal and analyse changes in motivation and attitudes in the process of learning and make suggestions about what can be improved in the area of learning German in Sweden and second foreign language learning in general.

2. Overview of the EU policy on multilingualism and language learning

To put the present study in context, a brief overview of the measures, initiatives and programs in the area of languages and language learning on the European level is given below.

2.1. Languages and language policy in the European Union. A brief description.

The European Community has an advisory role in the area of language policy towards the Member States. This is stated in the Consolidated Version of the Treaty Establishing the European Community: "The Community shall contribute to the development of quality education by encouraging cooperation between Member States and, if necessary, by supporting and supplementing their action, while fully respecting the responsibility of the Member States for the content of teaching and the organisation of education systems and their cultural and linguistic diversity", (European Union 2006: Article 149.1). Thus, the actual language policy is the responsibility of the member states and the EU does not have a common "language policy" as such. However, according to the principle of "subsidiarity", the EU does take a strong supporting role in this field, and promotes cooperation between member states as well as a wider, European, dimension in the member states' language policies (European Union 2006: Article 149.2[1]).

In the Charter of Fundamental Rights, legally binding since its inclusion in the Lisbon Treaty 2007, the EU declares that it respects linguistic diversity (European Union 2006: Article 22) and prohibits discrimination on grounds of language (European Union 2006: Article 21). Respect for linguistic diversity is a fundamental value of the European Union, in the same way as is respect for the person, openness towards other cultures, and tolerance and acceptance of other people.

All languages of the EU have equal legal status. Every citizen of the Union may write to any of the EU institutions or bodies in any one of the 23 official languages[2]

[1] http://eur-lex.europa.eu/en/treaties/dat/12002E/htm/C_2002325EN.003301.html#anArt150

[2] The official languages of the EU are: Bulgarian, Czech, Danish, Dutch, English, Estonian, Finnish, French, German, Greek, Hungarian, Irish, Italian, Latvian, Lithuanian, Maltese, Polish, Portuguese, Romanian, Slovak, Slovene, Spanish and Swedish (http://ec.europa.eu/languages/languages-of-europe/eu-languages_en.htm accessed 27 February 2012).

and receive an answer in the same language (European Union 2006: Article 314). The European Commission has its own in-house translation service, the Directorate-General for Translation (DG Translation). They work in all the official languages of the European Union and, as new countries join, their main languages are added (DG Translation, 2012). Other EU institutions and bodies (Council, Parliament, Court of Justice, Economic and Social Committee, Court of Auditors etc.) have their own translation departments, whereas the various agencies, spread around the EU, have a translation centre in Luxembourg to handle their translation work.

Generally the work at the Directorate-General for Translation is selective, which means that not everything is translated into every official language. At the Commission, the only documents produced in all 23 official languages are pieces of legislation and policy documents of major public importance. They account for about a third of DG's work. Other documents (e.g. correspondence with national authorities and individual citizens, reports, internal papers) are translated only into the languages needed in each case. Internal documents are written in (and sometimes translated into) English, French and German. Similarly, incoming documents — which may be drafted in any language — are translated into one of these three languages so they can be generally understood within the Commission (DG Translation, 2012).

Although the preservation of the large number of European languages costs effort and money, the actual expenditures on translators and interpreters for the EU bodies are often unduly dramatized. The costs are equivalent of 1.05% of the EU's total budget for 2004, or €2.28 per citizen per year (European Commission, 2005). The EU spends roughly the same amount on subsidies for dairy cows in the member states (Goethe Institute, 2006). The actual annual translation costs amount to about €300m, or some €0.60 for every EU citizen (DG Translation 2012: FAQ). It is also worth mentioning that in 2004–07, the number of official EU languages doubled from 11 to 23, but Commission translation costs increased by only 20% (DG Translation 2012: FAQ).

Whilst the EU does not legislate on language policies in individual member states, it does promote languages and language learning across the union, For instance, since the *Lingua* programme was implemented in 1990, the EU has invested more than €30 million a year (out of a €120 billion EU budget) into the promotion of foreign language learning through various programmes and initiatives (Bloomberg, 2005).

Prominent examples are the *Socrates* and *Leonardo da Vinci* programmes that enable language teachers to undergo training abroad, place native speakers as foreign language assistants in schools abroad, fund class exchanges to motivate students to learn languages, create new language courses, and finance projects that raise awareness of the benefits of language learning.

Youth exchanges, town twinning projects, and the European Voluntary Service also promote multilingualism. Since 1997, the EU Culture 2000 programme has financed the translation of around 2,000 literary works from and into European languages (Culture 2000, 2007).

Among the variety of projects supported by the EU there are some focused on young multilingual children, for instance, the COST Action IS0804, Language Impairment in a Multilingual Society: Linguistic Patterns and the Road to Assessment, which is a part of an intergovernmental framework for European Cooperation in Science and Technology (COST). The project develops diagnosis methods for bilingual children with language impairment and profiles bilingual specific language impairment by establishing a network that will coordinate research on the linguistic and cognitive abilities of bilingual children with such impairments across different migrant communities. The project started in February 2009 and runs until 2013 (COST 2012).

The programmes implemented for the financial years 2007-2013 (Culture 2007, Youth in Action, and Lifelong Learning) continue and develop this kind of support.

To encourage the member states to cooperate and to disseminate best practice, the EU Commission issued a Communication in July 2003 on Promoting Language Learning and Linguistic Diversity: an Action Plan for 2004-2006 (European Commission, 2003) and a Communication in November 2005 on A New Framework Strategy for Multilingualism (European Commission, 2005).

Although not an EU treaty, most EU member states have ratified the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages (Council of Europe, 1998). The Charter is an international treaty designed on the one hand to protect and promote regional and minority languages as a threatened aspect of Europe’s cultural heritage and on the other hand to enable speakers of a regional or a minority language to use the language in private and public life.

To encourage language learning, the EU also supports the Council of Europe initiatives for European Year of Languages 2001 and the annual celebration of European Day of Languages on September 26th.

Taking into consideration the wide variety of EU activities and projects within the area of language, I will here concentrate on those that are immediately relevant to the present study, namely the Mercator European Network of Language Diversity Centres, the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) and the initiative "mother tongue plus two languages". These three initiatives are briefly described in the following sections.

2.2. The Mercator European Network of Language Diversity Centres.

The EU provides the main financial support to the European Bureau for Lesser-Used Languages, a non-governmental organization which represents the interests of the over 40 million citizens who belong to a regional and minority language community (European Commission, 2011). Following a request from the European Parliament, the Commission in 2004 launched a feasibility study on the possible creation of a new EU agency, the European Agency for Language Learning and Linguistic Diversity. This study concludes that there are unmet needs in this field, and proposes the creation of a European agency and a network of so-called Language Diversity Centres. Such an institution was established in 2009 and called The *Mercator European Network of Language Diversity Centres.*

The network is an EU funded project connecting multilingual communities across Europe, promoting knowledge sharing and facilitating structured exchange of best practice and cutting edge initiatives through its programme of activities. Its focus lies on multilingual regions dealing with regional or minority languages, but also immigrant languages and smaller state languages, with emphasis on language needs arising from migration and globalisation (Mercator, 2011).

The network consists of five partners: the Mercator European Research Centre on Multilingualism and Language Learning/Fryske Akademy in Ljouwert/ Leeuwarden (lead partner), Mercator Legislation/ Ciemen in Barcelona, Mercator Media/ Aberystwyth University in Wales, the Research Institute for Linguistics of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences in Budapest and the Centre for Finnish Studies at

Mälardalen University, Eskilstuna/Västerås, Sweden. The latter is a higher education and research centre, which deals with Sweden-Finnish culture, teacher training, bilingual education and issues related to minority language policies. The primary objective of the Centre, as stated on the website, is to study and inform about the linguistic, cultural, social and political conditions that influence the position of Sweden-Finnish. The Centre has arranged several international and national conferences. It also cooperates with Swedish authorities, NGO's and organizations in the field of minority policy, and with the Sweden-Finnish section of the Swedish Language Council (Mercator, 2011).

The specific topics of the Mercator Network are: the use of media and information technology, legal provisions with respect to minority language learning, and developments in language teaching and learning. The Mercator Network aims at contributing to improve language vitality by analysing language visibility as well as cultural, economic and social opportunities for language use (Mercator, 2011).

Especially relevant for the present study is that the Mercator Network works toward embracing positive attitudes towards multilingualism within minority and majority language communities. Their activities include disseminating information on language-related policies of the European Commission. But most importantly, it raises public awareness of language-related issues among speakers and non-speakers of minority and smaller state languages. The Mercator Network's approach is inclusive of immigrant minorities and deaf communities as well as regional and smaller state languages (Mercator, 2011).

2.3. Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment, abbreviated as CEFR, is a guideline for a detailed description of foreign language learners' achievements across Europe and, increasingly, in other countries. Although its origin and development has no immediate connection with EU language policy and projects, it is still considered as a pan-European framework of standardization of foreign language teaching and proficiency assessment.

CEFR was developed by the Council of Europe between 1989 and 1996 in the framework of the project "Language Learning for European Citizenship". Its main aim is to provide a method of language learning, teaching and assessment that may be applied to all languages in Europe. In November 2001, a European Union Council Resolution recommended to use the CEFR to set up systems of validation of language proficiency. Ten years later, the six CEFR reference levels (see below for details) are becoming widely accepted as the European standard for grading an individual's language proficiency.

The CEFR adopts an action oriented (“can do”) approach that regards language users as social agents who develop general and particular communicative competences while trying to achieve their everyday goals. The CEFR divides general competences in knowledge, skills, and existential competence and the particular communicative competences in linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, and pragmatic competence (Council of Europe, 2011).

General and particular communicative competences are developed by producing or processing texts in a variety of contexts under various conditions and constraints. These contexts correspond to various sectors of social life that the CEFR calls “domains”. Four broad domains are distinguished: educational, occupational, public, and personal (Council of Europe, 2011).

A language user can develop various degrees of competence in each of these domains and to help describe them, the CEFR has provided a set of Common Reference Levels.

The Common European Framework divides learners into three broad divisions (A, B and C) which can be divided into six levels, as shown in Table 1 below:

level	*description*
A1 Breakthrough/ Beginner	Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce him/herself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows and things he/she has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.
A2 Waystage/ Elementary	Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment). Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. Can describe in simple terms aspects of his/her background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate need.
B1 Threshold/ intermediate	Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. Can produce simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes & ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.
B2 Vantage/ Upper Intermediate	Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialization. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.
C1 Effective Operational Proficiency/ advanced	Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognize implicit meaning. Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organizational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.
C2 Mastery/ proficiency	Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read. Can summarize information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. Can express him/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in the most complex situations.

Table 1. Common reference levels according to CEFR (Council of Europe, 1996)

The CEFR describes what a learner is supposed to be able to do in reading, listening, speaking and writing at each level. For example, an A1 user "can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type; can introduce him/herself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows and things he/she has; can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help" (Council of Europe, 2011). By contrast, a C2 user "can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read, can summarize information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation; can express him/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in the most complex situations" (Council of Europe, 2011). These descriptions are applicable to any of the languages spoken in Europe (and other languages, for that matter, as well), and the descriptions have been translated into many languages.

However, it is a matter of dispute how to determine the CEFR language levels of individual speakers. In many cases, language teachers assess their students impressionistically and holistically, only guided by the general outline of the 6 levels. In other cases, schools, language institutes or departments of education develop more detailed in-house or general instructions as to how to grade students according to CEFR. A number of language institutes (e.g. the German Test-DaF-Institut) employ tests that are then used to indirectly determine CEFR level. For instance, for German as a foreign language, the electronically administered on-DaF test measures a language learners' ability to complete five short text samples where parts of words have been blanked out, the so-called C-test. The learner's performance is scored and a particular cut-off score is equated with a certain CEFR level, though it remains relatively opaque how test scores on a fill-in-the-blanks online test can be translated into CEFR levels that are largely defined according to how well the language learner functions communicatively. At present, there is little agreement in the field of German as a foreign language as to how CEFR should be reliably determined. Similar issues arise for the other foreign languages within the EU.

Another debate in the field of foreign language has to do with the number of tuition hours that correspond to a particular CEFR level. Intuitively, the amount of tuition needed to reach a certain proficiency level will vary according to a number of

factors, one of them being how closely the two languages are related to each other. (When studying a very closely related language, the language learner often gets many things 'for free', such as easy comprehension of many vocabulary items which are similar in the L1 and L2). Official statements about the number of tuition hours necessary for reaching a specific CEFR level vary from language to language. For instance, the German state broadcasting company Deutsche Welle that offers online language courses suggests that A2 level is reached with about 225 hours of German tuition, B1 with about 400 hours and so on (Deutsche Welle, 2011). For English on the other hand, Cambridge ESOL (English for Speakers of Other Languages) states that each level is reached with the following guided learning hours: A2 180-200; B1 350-400, etc (Cambridge ESOL, 2011).

Many language schools and certificate bodies have adjusted their own proficiency scales and grading systems to be equivalences to the CEFR. For instance, IELTS (International English Language Testing System), one of the most popular tests of English as a foreign language for professionals and academics around the world, equivalents its grades 6.5-8 (out of maximum 9), which is most commonly required for university admission in the UK and in many other countries, to the C1 level of CEFR and means "Effective Operational Proficiency or advanced" (the table of all Cambridge ESOL exams including IELTS and their respective CEFR levels may be found at http://www.cambridgeesol.org/about/standards/cefr.html).

CEFR has become the most widespread and implemented standard of foreign language reference and proficiency measurement in Europe.

2.4 The "Mother tongue plus two languages" initiative and A New Framework Strategy for Multilingualism by the European Commission.

The idea that every European should speak two foreign languages in addition to their mother tongue was declared in a document that became almost a milestone in the European language policy: A New Framework Strategy for Multilingualism; Communication from the Commission to the Council, the European Parliament, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of the Regions (Brussels, 22.11.2005 COM(2005) 596 final). Together with the Action Plan on promoting language learning and linguistic diversity (Action Plan 2003), the Strategy

forms the main basis for actions and policies on multilingualism and language learning.

Beginning with a Slovak proverb "The more languages you know, the more of a person you are"[3], the new Framework Strategy for the first time explicitly includes responsibility for multilingualism. The document is "the first Commission Communication to explore this policy area. It complements the Commission's current initiative to improve communication between European citizens and the institutions that serve them. It also reaffirms the Commission's commitment to multilingualism in the European Union; sets out the Commission's strategy for promoting multilingualism in European society, in the economy and in the Commission itself; and proposes a number of specific actions stemming from this strategic framework" (European Commission, 2005: 2). The document also declares the Commission's three main aims of multilingualism policy to be the following:

- to encourage language learning and promoting linguistic diversity in society;
- to promote a healthy multilingual economy, and
- to give citizens access to European Union legislation, procedures and information in their own languages (European Commission 2005: 3).

The Strategy tackles three main spheres: political, economic and cultural/educational. In the political sphere the main aim of the Commission's multilingualism policy is defined: "to give citizens access to European Union legislation, procedures and information in their own languages" (European Commission: 2005: 3). The main means for achieving the aims in the political sphere are the products needed in translation services. The Strategy proposes standardized and interoperable language resources dictionaries, terminology, text corpora, etc. and applications for all languages, including so-called lesser-used languages[4] of the Union (European Commission 2005: 10).

[3] Koľko jazykov vieš, toľkokrát si človekom. (European Commission, 2005: 2)

[4] The term usually refers to regional and minority languages. The Commission provides financial support to the European Bureau for Lesser-Used Languages, a non-governmental organisation which represents the interests of more than 40 million citizens who belong to a regional and minority language community (European Commission, 2005: 5).

The second aim of the Strategy is to "promote a healthy multilingual economy" (European Commission 2005: 3), thus it relates to the economic sphere. In the chapter "The Multilingual Economy", the Commission highlights the importance of language knowledge for increasing the competitiveness of the EU economy, as well as the mobility of workers in the EU market, translation services, Web use and language industries (European Commission 2005: 9–12). Production of sub-titles in TV, language learning modules on the Web, tourism projects, cross-border projects and town twinning schemes are mentioned as the potential means and actions uniting the educational system with the language and cultural industries (Action Plan 2003:13).

Finally, and the most relevant for the present study, the cultural sphere, more precisely education, has the heaviest load to carry in attempting to achieve the first aim stated in the Strategy, "to encourage language learning and promote linguistic diversity in society" (European Commission, 2005: 3). Here the call for learning two foreign languages in addition to a mother tongue is stated explicitly: "In March 2002, the Heads of State or Government of the European Union meeting in Barcelona[5] called for at least two foreign languages to be taught from a very early age. The Commission's long-term objective is to increase individual multilingualism until every citizen has practical skills in at least two languages in addition to his or her mother tongue" (European Commission, 2005: 4). Additionally, the Strategy pointed out that although "the percentage of primary school pupils learning a foreign language is increasing (...) the average number of foreign languages taught in secondary schools is still some way from the target set in Barcelona" (European Commission, 2005: 4). Despite a growing tendency for 'foreign language learning', the Strategy is explicit in that this should not mean simply 'learning English'; "the Commission has already pointed out that 'English is not enough'" (European Commission, 2005: 4).

In calling for educational rearrangements for these ambitious purposes, the role of national authorities is stressed: "It is the authorities in Member States who bear the primary responsibility for implementing the new push for language learning in the light of local circumstances and policies, within overall European objectives" (Action Plan 2003:5). The role of the European Union is defined in helping to develop

[5] Barcelona European Council, 15 and 16 March 2002, Presidency Conclusions, part I, 43.1.

cooperation and exchange (Action Plan 2003:5). Also, the Committee of the Regions calls on "the Commission to intensify its awareness-building campaigns on the economic and cultural benefits of language learning" (Opinion of the Committee of the Regions 2006:8). The results of the Eurobarometer Survey (European Commission, 2006) confirm that need. The majority – 84 per cent – of EU citizens agree that everyone in the European Union should be able to speak one language in addition to the mother tongue, but only 50 per cent agree that everyone should be able to speak two foreign languages (European Commission, 2006).

Despite a generally positive message of promoting multilingualism, language diversity and language learning, the Framework Strategy received extensive and sometimes rather harsh critique from other political bodies of the EU, first of all from the European Parliament, as well as from academia. One of the most notable articles on the topic is written by Tender and Vihalemm, "Two Languages in Addition to Mother Tongue' – Will this Policy Preserve Linguistic Diversity in Europe?" published in *TRAMES: A Journal of the Humanities & Social Sciences* in 2009. Some of their criticisms are discussed below.

In general, the Framework Strategy may be criticized for its overall vagueness and ambiguity. First of all, there is controversy regarding the general aim, which states that citizens of the European Union should have access to legislation, procedures and information in their own languages. Later in the text, the access is limited to "national languages" and does not touch regional and minority languages: "(...) Translation and interpretation services ensure that the European and national institutions can effectively exercise their right of democratic scrutiny. Translators and interpreters guarantee that citizens can communicate with the Institutions and have access to decisions in their national language(s). Criticism has been expressed regarding this ambiguity by the European Parliament, who point out in a report from October 2006 that "It is a mistake when they say that all citizens have universal access to the EU project when stateless and regional languages, some of which have more speakers than member state languages, are in fact excluded. It is incredible that when the EU is seeking to get closer to its citizens it excludes 10% of them at the outset because of the lack of an inclusive language policy." (European Parliament Report 2006: 5).

Another critique concerns the economic part of the Strategy, i.e. the development of the language industry and other economic mechanisms for creating and maintaining a multilingual environment. Here, the relevant means and actions are only mentioned in an indefinite way and don't suggest to whom they should be addressed (Tender & Vihalemm, 2009: 46).

Finally, the language learning and language diversity part has received probably the strongest criticism for not specifying which languages should be learned and for not considering the issue of regional and minority languages. Since direct investments in educational infrastructure (especially in appropriate class sizes and in the training of teachers) by the Member States are expected (Action Plan, 2003:6), it is inevitable that widely spoken languages which have greater market demand (and sometimes also support from the relevant countries) will be preferred in curriculae. Regional and minority languages have little potential to compete with these languages (Tender & Vihalemm, 2009: 47). The European Commission is rather unclear regarding how language choices should be made. The European Parliament criticizes the Strategy for its vague statements about the teaching of regional or minority languages, saying that "Amongst the proposals they outline that (...) rather half-heartedly that 'the teaching of regional or minority languages should also be taken into account as appropriate'" (European Parliament Report 2006:4). The European Parliament asks, in a 2006 working document, for concrete proactive policies in favour of Europe's less widely used languages:

> "What it should be encouraging is more, as an example, Welsh-speaking Estonians or Lithuanian-speaking Catalans or people learning languages from outside their language group, e.g. Germanic speakers learning a Slavic language. English language learning is its own dynamic, profit-making industry, (...) it doesn't need further EU support" (Working Document 2006:8).

Thus the Parliament suggests subsidizing lesser-used languages (European Parliament Report 2006:5) to balance the market logic which favours the teaching and learning of English and other widely used languages.

As a long-term compromise, several scholars have suggested to introduce a planned or auxiliary language such as Esperanto as a European lingua franca

(Christiansen, 2006) to avoid elitism of English and other widely spoken languages. However, as a reply to such suggestions to use planned or auxiliary languages, in particular Esperanto, the Strategy notes that "the Commission does not promote the use of artificial languages which, by definition, have no cultural references" (European Commission, 2005: 3).

A clear summary and analysis of the Strategy and the Action Plan was presented in schematic form by Tender and Vihalemm (2009: 50) in their article on the issue. The language policy principles stated in the Strategy and Action Plan are projected in a triangular structure, where the political, cultural/educational and economic spheres form the imagined three corners which frame the actions and general guidelines proposed in the Strategy and Action Plan (see Figure 1).

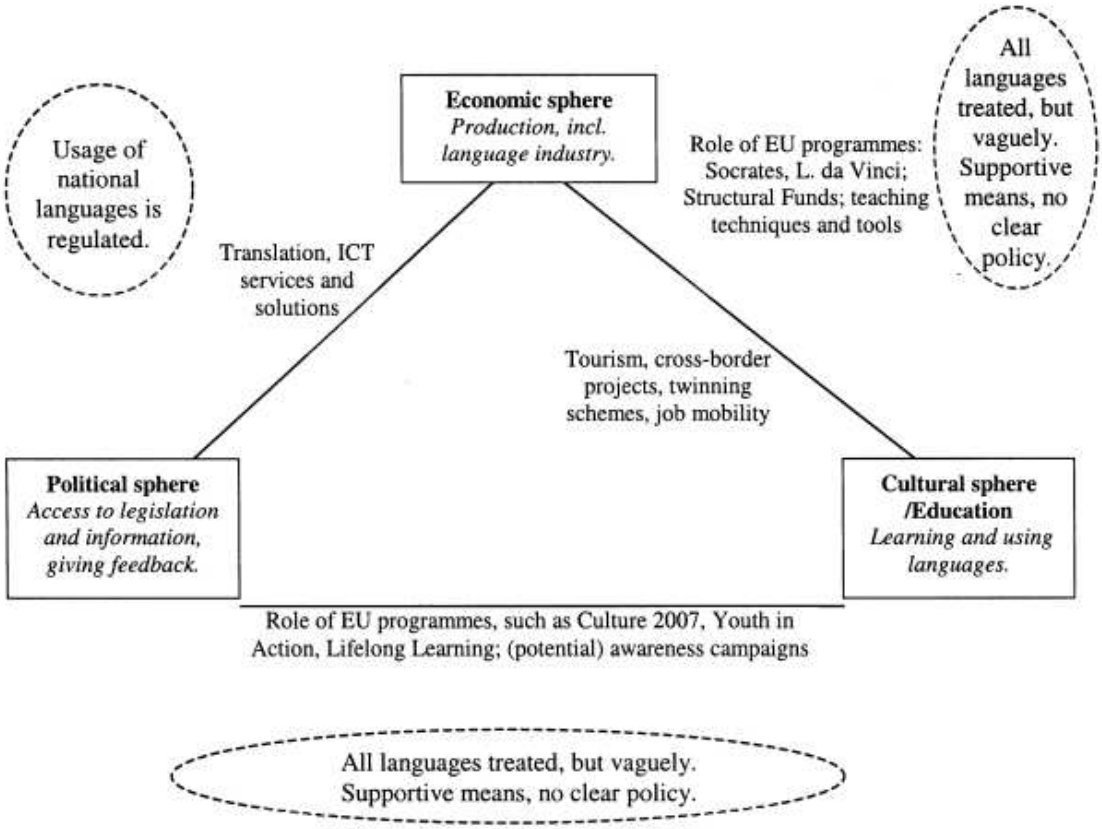


Figure 1. The framework of language policy principles, suggested by the European Commission: spheres, actions and treated languages. Authors' Figure.

Summing up, Tender and Vihalemm identify the main problem of the strategy as allowing "the language environment of Europe to be regulated by market logic"

(2009: 41) and that in this case “the Less Widely Used Languages are expected to take care of themselves” (2009: 41). In the conclusion of their analysis the authors also suggest that the European Commission’s policy “mother tongue plus two foreign languages” will “foster the formation of a ‘language market’ within Europe and a hegemony of widely used languages” (2009: 41). Tender and Vihalemm suggest that “groups who carry the cultural value of language, rather than single individuals, should be clearly addressed in the language strategy” (2009: 41) to preserve multilingualism and linguistic parity. Additionally, the regional and minority languages (or Less Widely Used Languages, LWUL in the terminology of the authors) “ought to be supported by language planning initiated partly by the Council of Europe and the central institutions of the European Union” (2009: 41).

All in all, despite the overall positive message of the initiative and the policy of the Commission, there is much left to question, discuss, clarify and improve.

3. German as a foreign language in Sweden: now and then

Germany, German language, culture and traditions has strongly influenced Sweden since the Early Middle Ages. With the rise of the Hanseatic League in the late 13th century, the influence of Middle Low German on Swedish became very strong (Goethe Institut Stockholm, 2012). Some scholars even compare the influence of German on the mainland Scandinavian languages, both at lexical and structural levels, to that of Norman French on late Old English following the *Norman Conquest.*

The Hanseatic union, the biggest and most influential trading alliance in Europe during the 13th-17th centuries, provided Swedish commerce and administration with a large number of German- and Dutch-speaking immigrants. For instance, the city laws of Visby, Gotland, were written in German (Goethe Institut Stockholm, 2012). Some parts of Sweden were bilingual. Many German immigrants became influential members of Swedish medieval society. They inevitably brought terms from their mother tongue into the Swedish vocabulary. Words in areas like warfare, trade and administration were affected by the German influence, for instance *handel* (trade), *köpman* (merchant), *mynt* (coin), *räkna* (calculate), *kosta* (cost), *rådhus* (town hall), (Goethe Institut Stockholm, 2012). These areas were newly developing areas at the time and so Swedish incorporated them. Together with the merchants, many German craftsmen also came to Sweden and opened up new trades and introduced such words like *hantverk* (handicraft), *gesäll* (apprentice), *skomakare* (shoemaker) and *snickare* (carver) (ibid.). Words like *riddare* (knight), *herre* (sir, master), *fru* (wife), *fröken* (Miss) and *jakt* (hunt) were directly loaned from German even earlier (ibid. 2012). Also some general grammatical suffixes and even conjunctions were imported. For example, the prefixes *be-*, *ge-* and *för-* that can be found in the beginning of modern Swedish verbs came from the Low German *be-*, *ge- and vor-* (Grünbaun, 2001). The influence of Low German was so strong that the inflectional system of Old Swedish was largely broken down (Hird et al., 1980).

Later, with the decline of the Hanseatic League, the influence of German decreased and was outweighed by French, especially during the Age of the Enlightenment in the 18th century. The 1807 School Ordinance introduced French and German as official subjects in Swedish upper secondary schools (gymnasium). However, until the late 18th century, Latin, Ancient Greek and Hebrew continued to dominate as languages of learning in the educational system. Heated debates in

society led to the abolishment of the Latin teaching in schools in 1905, and German became the most powerful and widespread foreign language in Sweden again, leaving French far behind. In fact, German replaced Latin as the fundamental language ("grundlegende Sprache") (Cabau-Lampa, 1999a: 400). It is important to remember that, for centuries, in the eyes of educators, language learning was a means to mould thinking and intellect rather than a tool for communication. And after Latin, German was viewed as the most appropriate foreign language in this respect (Henriksson, 1960).

German teaching in the late 19th and early 20th century was conceived in a neo-humanistic perspective, impregnated with classicism and noble values. In 1895 German was made compulsory for pupils in all secondary school classes. In 1905, the number of German classes was equal to the number of Swedish classes (Cabau-Lampa, 1999a: 405). The importance given to German teaching was largely connected with an admiration of Swedish teachers for the German (or more precisely Prussian) school system. For one whole century, German was the first foreign language taught in Swedish schools, before English came to predominate. The privilege of studying at a secondary school at that time was available to the very few representatives of an upper class. The majority of population did not have the possibility to enter secondary schools. Therefore, taking into account the privileged position of Germans in Swedish society, the German language and culture incorporated a sense of elitism.

German culture began to lose its importance in Sweden during the first quarter of the 20th century because of the declining power of the Swedish elite and the loss of prestige that Germany experienced. English teaching was considered a tool for democratisation in the educational environment. Its implementation and development benefited from a social consensus and the principle of equal opportunity for all, the cornerstone of Swedish school policy. The fact that proficiency in German (and French as well) was perceived as an attribute of the privileged social class also helped compulsory English teaching to appear as an opposite, a more democratic educational instrument (Cabau-Lampa, 2007: 338). These changes marked an end of the superiority of German teaching. Both World War I and World War II and the rise of English as the language of international communication reinforced this tendency.

From 1946, while English was already taught as the first foreign language in most schools, German and French were however still compulsory for lower secondary ("grundskola") pupils looking to continue their studies at upper secondary school (Cabau-Lampa, 2007: 338). *With the Läroplan för grundskolan 1962* (National Curriculum for Elementary School), pupils had to choose between French and German as a second foreign language. According to the Curriculum, there were thirteen (5 + 4 + 4) or seven teaching hours a week (3 + 2 + 2) for the last three school years (i.e. 5 or 3 hours/week in Grade 7 and 4 or 2 hours/week in Grades 8 and 9) (ibid.).

The next Curriculum dated 1969 (Lgr 69) abolished this "language prerequisite" (i.e. knowledge of German or French on top of English) for admission into secondary education, and so in 1969, German became an optional subject in Swedish schools (ibid.).

The substantial reform of the Swedish school system in 1994, which introduced Spanish as an optional foreign language, and Sweden's preparation for joining the European Union in 1995 increased the number of pupils taking a second foreign language at school. Interest in German experienced an unprecedented growth: during the school year 1995/96 German was studied more than ever before (Pedersen, 2003). After peaking in 1997 when it was studied by more than 40% of grade 9 pupils (Skolverket, 1998), the popularity of German decreased again. Only 25% of 9th graders studied it in 2002-2006 (Cabau-Lampa, 2007: 341). The number of Swedish pupils choosing German as their second foreign language at school is now lower than ever before and lower than those who decide to study Spanish or French, the two other optional foreign languages commonly offered at Swedish schools (Johansson 2006: 13). According to the data from the Central Statistics Bureau of Sweden, in the 2003/2004 school year 20% of pupils in 6th grade and 28% in 9th grade chose German, whereas in 2009/2010 only 13% pupils in 6th grade and 18% in 9th grade chose German (Statistiska centralbyrån, 2011a) .

Despite the decline in the popularity of German, some scholars, among others Beatrice Cabau-Lampa, argue that the long-term perspectives of German are good in Sweden: Germany is still Sweden' s most important trade partner; the country has long been referred to as a model in the cultural and the political spheres; and last but not least, German benefits from its image: it is considered the language of technology

and trade, and some pupils think it is a language easy to learn, easier than French and similar to Swedish because of its close relation in the Germanic language family (Cabau-Lampa, 1999b).

Other researchers do not share Cabau-Lampa's view. They point out several reasons for a constantly declining popularity of German in Sweden, first of all negative attitudes towards German. Among these are the perceived "uselessness" of learning German, complicated grammar and, arguably, the unattractiveness of acoustic properties of the language, as documented in a recent small-scale survey of Swedish high school students (Johansson 2006: 20). The same study found that some teenagers studying in Swedish upper secondary schools associate German with World War II, Hitler, aggressive pronunciation style (Johansson 2006: 33) and so on, all carrying negative connotations.

Despite the dramatic decline of German as a foreign language in Sweden, German is widely offered in elementary and secondary schools as an optional subject. In tertiary education, German is offered at a number of colleges and universities around the country, even though a number of institutions have discontinued their degree courses in German during the past few years (e.g. Halmstad, Kristianstad, Borlänge-Falun). Not so many students take German as their main or only subject at Swedish universities any more, but may choose it as a minor or side subject, for instance in connection with business or law, not uncommonly as an evening class at beginner level (a level previously not commonly offered at university). At undergraduate level, it is possible to study German in Skövde College of higher education, Karlstad and Linköping, whilst both under- and postgraduate studies in German can be undertaken at the universities of Gothenburg, Lund, Stockholm, Umeå, Uppsala, Växjö, as well as at the university colleges of Mälardalen and Södertörn. (Högskoleverket, 2010: 84).

4. Theoretical background and framework

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) is one of the major areas of research in linguistics and related disciplines. It has been the focus of scientific interest of many linguists and psychologists around the world for decades.

Before providing a brief overview of the previous research in the area, it is important to give definitions of some basic terms.

4.1. First and Second Language

Every human learns their first language (or L1 in linguistic terms) from earliest childhood. The first language is also called mother tongue, however this term has become debatable in the scientific community and is often avoided by researchers. The reason for this is that a language spoken by the mother of a child does not always become the first (and only) language of the child. When an additional language is learned, this language is usually called L2, or a second language[6]. A second language can also be called a target language (TL), the language that is aimed to be learned. Once it is learned, it is no longer a target language (Saville-Troike, 2006: 3-4).

The term L2 is typically used about languages that are learned in a natural environment, i.e. in a country or region and/or community where the language is widely spoken by its inhabitants. It is usually learned for purposes of communication and integration of immigrants. Or, when there are more than one major language in a country (such as Canada, Belgium, Switzerland etc.), representatives of one language group may learn the language(s) of the other(s). In other words, a second language is typically an official or societally dominant language needed for education, employment and other basic purposes.

A language that is learned in instructed settings (in a classroom: at school, university, a language course) and is not a common language of communication in the country where it is learned, is often called a foreign language. However, both terms second language and foreign language may be used to refer to a language learned in classroom settings.

[6] According to Saville-Troike (2006:2) and many other language acquisition researchers, the term L2 is used for all additional languages that a person may learn, so it does not matter if it is the third or the fifth language learned. Certain other scholars however talk about L3, L4, etc.

4.2. Second Language Acquisition

Saville-Troike (2006: 2-3) states that SLA refers both to the scientific study of individuals and groups who are learning a language subsequent to learning their first one as young children, and to the process of learning that language.

Ellis (1997: 3) argues that "whether you are learning naturally as a result of living in a country where it is spoken, or learning it in a classroom through instruction; it is customary to speak generically of second language acquisition".

According to Ellis (1997: 4-5) SLA (i.e. the academic discipline) has two main goals, namely description of L2 acquisition and explanation of L2 acquisition. Explanation refers to the ability to identify the external and internal factors that show how students are learning and progressing in the way they do. Description of L2 acquisition refers to the ability to see how and when the students produce and comprehend a second language and to follow how learners' knowledge develops. For instance, one may observe how the learner's pronunciation develops or how they become more fluent in the language they are learning (Ellis 1997: 4-5).

There are two different types of factors that matter while learning an L2: external and internal. Ellis (1997: 4-5) argues that external factors may be the social milieu in which the learning takes place, for example, the opportunities learners may have to hear and speak the specific language they are trying to adopt. Furthermore, internal factors include the attitudes learners develop towards the language they are trying to learn (ibid 4-5). Stephen D. Krashen, a researcher from the University of Southern California, presents the idea that there is a difference between (second language) acquisition and (second language) learning. He developed the Acquisition-Learning hypothesis according to which "adults have two distinct and independent ways of developing competence in a second language" (Krashen, 1987: 10). The first way is language acquisition, "a process similar, if not identical, to the way children develop ability in their first language" (ibid.). It is a subconscious process, the acquirers are not usually aware of the fact that they are acquiring the language, but are only aware of the fact that they use the language for communication. There is no conscious awareness of the rules of the language(s) acquired; there is a "feel" for correctness instead: grammatical sentences "sound" or "feel" right, and errors feel wrong without explicit knowledge of which exactly rule was violated. The second way to develop competence in a second language is, according to Krashen, by language learning.

With “learning” Krashen means a “conscious knowledge of a second language”, knowledge and awareness of the rules, ability to talk about them, also called metalinguistic knowledge. “In non-technical terms, learning is “knowing about” a language, known to most people as “grammar”, or “rules”. Some synonyms include formal knowledge of a language, or explicit learning” (ibid.). Activities associated with learning typically take place in schools, while activities associated with acquisition occur when students interact with native speakers. Krashen’s hypothesis has been however disputed over the years. In the modern SLA research the line between acquisition and learning has been effaced, and both terms are used often interchangeably as synonyms. In this paper, SLA is used in a broader sense (following, among others, Saville-Troike, 2006), and this also includes what Krashen (1987) calls second language learning.

4.3 Individual differences in Second Language Acquisition

It is a common observation that some people seem to be better at learning and using second language than others. A contemporary perspective acknowledges the complexity of second language acquisition and uniqueness of every human. Although there is no clear and straightforward answer explaining the causes and effects of those individual differences, the question why they exist leads to the examination of differences in learners themselves. The factors that influence the differences in second language learning progress may be basically of two categories: social and individual. According to Ellis (1994: 201) there are four specific social factors that tend to be of importance for the degree of success in learning/acquiring a second language, namely age, gender, social class and ethnic identity. These four social factors interact with each other in many ways and influence the process of acquisition. However, they are not the focus of the present research project. The second category, however, presents another broad area of SLA research and is of immediate importance to the given study. Ellis (1994: 522-523) includes in the framework of individual differences such factors as learners beliefs, affective state, aptitude, learning style, personality, attitude and motivation. In a more recent study of individual differences, Dewaele (2009) also includes extraversion, introversion, emotional stability versus neuroticism, openness to experience, cultural and

intergroup empathy, communicative anxiety, age of onset of acquisition and some others. Two of the above named factors, *attitudes* and *motivation*, have been in the focus of many researchers since the beginning of the 1970s. A theoretical framework, description of the two factors and a brief overview of previous research on attitudes and motivation will be given in the following subsections.

4.3.1 Students motivation and attitudes in second language acquisition

The problems of defining attitudes and motivation are considerable. A common-sense view is that behaviour of a certain person is ruled by certain interests and needs which, in turn, influence how they actually perform. Generally, these interests and needs cannot be directly observed but have to be inferred from what they actually do (Ellis, 1985: 116). Therefore, the study of attitudes and motivation in SLA has involved the development of concepts specific to language learning which have been derived from the behaviours of language learners and have been only loosely related to general theories of motivation in psychology (ibid.).

The distinction between 'attitudes' and 'motivation' is not always clear in SLA. For instance, Gardner and Lambert (1972), who conducted the most extensive research into the role of attitudes and motivation in SLA, define 'motivation' in terms of the L2 learner's overall goal or orientation, and 'attitude' as the persistence shown by the learner in striving for a goal. They claim that there is no immediate relationship between the two: the type of motivation is distinct from the attitudes displayed to different tasks (cited in Ellis, 1985: 117). However, later Gardner (1979) suggests that attitudes are related to motivation by serving as supports of the leaner's overall orientation (ibid.). Brown (1973) uses the term 'attitudes' to refer to the set of beliefs that the learner holds towards members of the target language group (e.g. whether they are seen as "interesting" or "boring", "honest" or "dishonest" etc.) and also towards his or her own culture. These also figure in Gardner and Lambert's later use of the term 'attitudes', whose theoretical concepts influenced the present study the most.

4.3.1.1. Attitudes

Gardner (1985: 39) investigated a number of various attitudes which he considers relevant to L2 learning. He defines two different types of attitudes: attitudes towards learning the language, and attitudes towards the other-language community. He also claims that "whereas the first set of attitudes is fairly consistently related to achievement, the second shows a more variable set of relationships" (ibid.).

Gardner (1985: 40) also classifies attitudes along a dimension of specificity/generality. For instance, 'attitudes towards learning French' is relatively specific in that the attitude object (i.e. learning French) is fairly definite. On the contrary, a measure like 'interest in foreign languages' is considerably more general because the attitude object 'foreign languages' is a more general notion than a single specific language and because there is no particular activity directly associated with the languages (ibid.). In the case of attitudes towards learning French, a specific activity is described, whereas interest in foreign languages could involve many activities such as learning them, speaking or hearing them.

Another dimension of attitude classification by Gardner is educational versus social (1985: 41). Instances of educational attitudes would be attitudes towards the teacher, the course, learning the language, etc. In each case, the attitude is connected to various educational aspects of second language acquisition. On the other hand, social attitudes "involve attitudes which focus on the cultural implications of second language acquisition" (Gardner, 1985: 42). Attitudes towards the community of speakers of the target language, ethnocentrism, for instance, "gain their significance because they refer to the individual's attitudinal disposition towards social groups, in-group or out-group, which might influence second language acquisition" (ibid.). Gardner claims that both educational and social attitudes appear to play a role in the second language learning process. Two attitude variables which have received considerable attention by a number of researchers are attitudes towards learning the second language and attitudes towards the second language community. The first is, according to Gardner, clearly an educationally relevant attitude, while the second is primarily a social one. These two variables were also considered to be measured in the questionnaire for the present study.

Ellis (1994: 197-201) claims that learners' attitudes have been identified as one set of variables of major importance. Attitudes are shaped by the social factors mentioned (such as age, gender, social class, ethnic identity) which, in turn, influence learner outcome. There are both negative and positive attitudes towards the L2 being learnt. Positive attitudes are typically connected to the speakers of the language in question and the culture represented by its speakers. Such positive attitudes can be expected to enhance learning, since learners can be expected to want to be able to communicate with native speakers of the language they are learning. In other words, if students are interested in the countries where the languages are spoken, they may be more motivated to learn the language (Noels et. al. 2003: 36).

Negative attitudes, on the other hand, can impede language learning, since you usually get those attitudes when you are not interested or have difficulties with the teacher (Ellis 1994: 197-201). Those attitudes usually have a negative effect on learners, but this is not always the case. Negative attitudes may also have a positive effect on L2 learning, if the learners have a strong will to learn a language (ibid. 200). Sometimes students who are struggling with their attitudes are true fighters. They work so hard in the end because they want a good grade or pass an exam and they have a strong will to learn.

Furthermore, students' attitudes can change. They may have negative attitudes at the beginning of learning a language but then they realize what a good advantage it is to know this language and their attitudes improve. It may be also vice versa: the attitudes at the beginning may be very positive, but during the learning process students may face unexpected difficulties (for instance, with challenging grammar or pronunciation, or the atmosphere in the study group, relations to the teacher etc.) that impair their positive attitudes.

One of the main tasks of the questionnaire survey conducted for the present work is to find out whether there are any changes in attitudes among beginners versus advanced students of German at universities in Sweden during the learning process, and if so how attitudes change and what may cause such changes. But first of all, the focus of the study is to identify language attitudes among the students as such.

4.3.1.2. Motivation

Language teachers readily acknowledge the importance of learners' motivation. SLA researchers also view motivation as a key factor in L2 learning. Saville-Troike (2006:85-86) claims that individual motivation is another factor that is used to explain why some L2 learners are more successful than others. The level of effort that learners expend at various stages in their L2 development depends on how motivated they are to learn. The more motivated students are, the easier they will learn a new language. Motivation is often one of the keys to the ultimate level of proficiency (ibid. 85-86).

Gardner and Lambert draw a basic distinction between an integrative and instrumental orientation to L2 learning. According to Gardner's socio-educational model, an integrative orientation involves an interest in learning an L2 because of a "sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other language group" (Lambert 1974: 98). It occurs when the learner wishes to identify with the culture of the L2 group. It is based on learner interest, i.e. to what extent the learner is interested in the country or the culture represented by the target language group. To be interested in learning and an L2 and to have a desire to learn about, or associate with, the people who use the language you are learning could be an example of integrative motivation (Gardner and Lambert cited in Saville-Troike (2006: 86).

Instrumental motivation is connected to the desire to learn a language to increase occupational or business opportunities, but also to get prestige or power (ibid. 87). It occurs when the learner's goals for learning the L2 are functional. For instance, learning directed at passing an examination, furthering career opportunities, or facilitating the study of other subjects through the medium of the L2 are all examples of instrumentally motivated learning. The potential power of motivation can be seen in some cases where even older learners may overcome the "odds" of not acquiring native-like pronunciation, if it is important enough to sound native (ibid. 87).

In earlier research (for example, Gardner and Lambert 1972), integrative motivation was seen as a more powerful predictor of achievement in formal learning situations than instrumental motivation. In later research, Gardner (1985) has continued to assert the importance of integrative motivation, although he

acknowledges that instrumental motivation can also lead to successful learning. However, Gardner argues that whereas instrumental motivation emerges as a significant factor only in some studies, integrative motivation has been found to be invariably related to L2 achievement (cited in Ellis, 1985: 117).

Gardner and Lambert, however, point out that the integrative/instrumental distinction reflects a continuum, rather than alternatives (cited in Ellis, 1985: 117). For instance, learners of a second language often have a number of reasons for studying a language and therefore possess both types of motivation which are not always clearly distinguishable.

Ellis (1997: 76) claims that motivation is not something that a learner has, or does not have, but rather something that varies from one moment to the next, depending on the learning context or task. The above mentioned types of motivation should be seen as complementary to each other, rather than oppositional or distinct, since learners can be both instrumentally and integratively motivated at one and the same time (ibid. 76).

In certain situations an integrative motivation may be more powerful in facilitating successful L2 learning, but in other situations instrumental motivation may count far more. For example, Gardner and Lambert (1972) found that an integrative orientation was related to successful learning of French in schools in both Canada and USA, but that instrumental motivation was more important in the Philippines. They explained this in terms of the role the L2 plays in the learner's community. Where the L2 functions as a 'foreign language' (i.e. is not important outside the classroom for the learners), an integrative motivation helps; but where the L2 functions as a 'second language' (i.e. is used as means of wider communication outside the classroom), an instrumental motivation is more effective. It is pointed out that the two types of motivation are not mutually exclusive. SLA rarely involves just an integrative or just an instrumental motivation (cited in Ellis, 1985: 118).

To demonstrate the overall effect of motivation on L2 achievement, Gardner (1985) reports the effects of a general measure of motivation (based on the Attitude Motivation Index (AMI), see chapter 6, Research methodology and testing process, for more information). A survey of seven different geographical areas in Canada

revealed a median correlation of 0.37 between the AMI scores and French grades. Thus, general motivation (comprised primarily of a measure of integrative motivation) accounts for approximately 14 per cent of the variance in achievement scores. Gardner considers this a “remarkably strong” relationship.

Motivation and attitudes are important factors which help to determine the level of proficiency achieved by different learners. For instance, Gardner (1980) reports that a single index of attitude/motivation derived from various measures of affective responses to L2 learning is strongly related to measures of French proficiency in Canadian school leavers.

4.4 Conclusion

Motivation and attitudes in L2 learning constitutes one of the most well researched areas of individual differences. Still, as Skehan (1991) has pointed out, there is no comprehensive theory of individual differences in Second Language Acquisition. A full theory will need to identify those individual differences that are important for successful learning, account for the effect that learning outcomes can have on individual differences etc. Ellis (1985: 123) concludes that some concepts are quite vague and the study of individual learner variables is overall not easy, but quantitative studies are needed to test hypotheses on large samples of learners and a more qualitative approach based on interviews and introspection may first be necessary in order to identify the relevant hypotheses. In this way some of the problems of the vagueness of the concepts may be overcome.

In the following two chapters research aim, questions and methodology of the study will be described and discussed with regards to the theoretical framework given above.

5. Aim and Research Questions

Considering this misbalanced situation with foreign languages and the low popularity of German in Sweden, it is all the more interesting to understand the motivation of those who still opt for learning German and, at the same time, for a second foreign language. Finding out the nature of their motivations and attitudes towards the language may provide us with useful insights for a better understanding of the low popularity of a language and suggest ideas on how to change the situation.

The survey specifically designed and carried out for the present work considers motivation and attitudes towards German, as well as awareness about and attitudes towards the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) and the EU initiative "mother tongue plus two languages". The latter is relatively new and probably not that well-known yet. The CEFR, on the contrary, was established in 2001 (Council of Europe, 2005: 2) and has been already integrated into a large number of language assessments, examinations and study materials in Europe.

99 adult students of German at the universities of Uppsala and Stockholm from various groups from absolute beginners to advanced participated in the questionnaire survey. The primary aim was to find out whether there any changing patterns in the attitudes with increased language proficiency. Secondly, what relevance may the attitudes and motivation of students have for the popularization of learning German and other foreign languages besides English in Sweden and, more generally, for the EU principle of mother tongue plus two foreign languages.

University students were chosen as the subjects of the study for two reasons. Firstly, their choice of studying a foreign language is a more conscious and self-determined one and less influenced by parents or classmates than is the case for younger, high school learners in the compulsory schooling system (Johansson 2006: 26). Secondly, attitudes of Swedish university students towards foreign languages is an underresearched area. A search in the Linguistics and Language Behavior Database (LLBA) revealed no similar studies conducted with this target group and this combination of L1 and L2.

Summing up, the research questions of the present work are:

- What are the attitudes towards German among Swedish adults (university students) who
  a) are beginners in German,
  b) have already learned German for at least one academic term (corresponding to 30 ECTS)?
- Are there any changing patterns in the attitudes with increased proficiency?
- What relevance may the attitudes of students have for the popularization of learning German and other foreign languages besides English in Sweden and, more generally, for the EU principle of mother tongue plus two foreign languages?

The study reflects upon learning a second foreign language in Europe also in a broader context and speculate on how and what could bring people “back to school” and learn another foreign language, as well as which role the EU language policy and other institutions on country level may play in this process.

6. Research methodology and testing process

This chapter provides a detailed description of questionnaire composition and testing of participants.

Generally, the research method is a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches, but with a quantitative focus, as the questionnaire for the study was primarily aimed at collecting quantitative data., However, interviews with two target groups and several open questions throughout the questionnaire provided some valuable qualitative data as well.

6.1 Initial stage of questionnaire composition. Informal interviews with students and pilot testing.

The initial stage of the questionnaire composition should "focus on clarifying the research problem and identifying what critical concepts need to be addressed by the questionnaire" (Dörnyei, 2002: 16). To facilitate this, it is often recommended that the questionnaire design phase be preceded by "a small-scale qualitative study (e.g. focus group interviews) to provide information on the relevant points and issues" (ibid.). Taking this into consideration, the research started with a series of informal semi-structured interviews with four participants of the beginners course in German (Tyska A) at Stockholm University in September 2011. The questions comprised three main parts, on which the actual questionnaire was based:

- integrative and instrumental motivation (why do you learn German? For what purpose do you study it? Up to which level you plan to learn it? Is your learning connected with professional needs or your own interests? etc);
- attitudes towards the German language (do you like the language in general? What do you like more, what is rather puzzling or hard to understand and learn? What is most challenging in learning? Which expectations did you have before you started to learn German? Did they change after the beginning of the course?);
- attitudes towards Germans in general and Germany (What experience do you have in contacting Germans? Generally, do you like Germans, German culture

and mentality? What do you think about "traditional" stereotypes of Germans?).

As expected, the focus group interviews indicated that the overall response about motivation for learning German was quite high and included both integrative and instrumental elements: the decision to begin the language course was voluntary, thought-out and conscious. The reasons behind the decision were complex: because of a generally positive attitude towards German; for enhancing career opportunities (e.g. a Swedish-English translator wants to widen the scope of her expertise and linguistic competence); to communicate with German relatives and friends. One of the participants started to learn German because of his fascination with German philosophy and his willingness to be able to read the original texts of Kant and Hegel classic works, which was quite surprising and rather unconventional.

The attitude towards German was also very positive. All participants pointed out the strictness and elaboration of grammatical structures in German, mentioned that German grammar is more complicated than the Swedish and English ones. Interestingly, all interviewees agreed that German sounds quite aggressive and "strict" but they said they like it and that it doesn't frighten them. Moreover, they would like to acquire German phonology well to be able to sound as close to native speakers as possible. Grammar and pronunciation are reputedly the most challenging parts especially at the initial stage of learning German, and this was also confirmed by the interviewees.

There was however no homogeneity in the attitudes towards Germans in general. Some spoke about their overall positive impressions about Germany and German, some were rather reluctant to answer in a definite manner.

After the interviews were conducted and processed, several parts were integrated into the questionnaire draft: statements 4, 5, 7, 9 from part I; statements 1, 3 from part II; statements 2, 5, 7 from part III[7].

[7] See the full questionnaire in the Appendix I, page 87.

6.2 Main parts of the questionnaire

The initial sources for the theoretical background and a guide for the construction of the questionnaire were the *Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMBT): Technical Report* (Gardner, 1985) and *Questionnaires in Second Language Research: Construction, Administration and Processing* (Dörnyei, 2002). The first source mostly influenced the elaboration of the main parts and the content of the questionnaire, whereas the second was mostly used as a guide for scheduling the work plan, stages of questionnaire development, work progress log and questionnaire design.

The original AMBT targets L1 English high school students in Canada learning L2 French and contains 19 parts that deal with different aspects of attitudes and motivation in learning a foreign language. However, some of these parts are not relevant for adult university students (such as Parental Encouragement), and some are irrelevant for learners of languages other than French (e.g. Attitudes toward European French People/French Canadians). Also, the AMBT contains some rather simplistically formulated statements, and the wording is exclusively positive, points that needed modification. In the technical report, Gardner himself (1985: 2) mentions the need for adjustments for using AMBT as a test for learners of other languages who represent other social groups and nationalities. Still, the AMBT proved a valuable principal source for defining the four main parts of the present questionnaire:

- Attitudes towards the German language; its (expected or experienced) overall complexity, phonological features (melody, intonation, particular sounds), the graphics of writing, grammar features, expressive tools of the language;
- Attitudes towards the speakers of German; probable stereotypes, sounds, intonation and manner of speaking, personal impressions;
- Motivation (Integrative orientation);
- Motivation (Instrumental orientation);
- Overall interest in foreign languages, attitudes towards learning a second foreign language, its usefulness for personal life and career.

These parts assess the major affective components shown to be involved in second language learning (Gardner, 1985) and also suit the aims of the present study.

The last part of the questionnaire deals with the language learners' awareness of European Union projects in the area of foreign language learning. This part was developed specifically for the present survey and included questions about degrees of awareness and attitudes towards foreign language projects of the EU, the "mother tongue plus two languages" initiative and the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR).

6.3 Question types, layout and design

Multi-item scales are the key components of scientific questionnaire design. However, the most important issue is, when it comes to assessing attitudes, opinions, values, expectations and other personal variables, "the actual wording of the questions assumes an unexpected importance: minor differences in how the question is formulated and framed can produce radically different levels of agreement or disagreement" (Gillham, 2000). Dörnyei (2002) lists some cases where simply changing "forbid" to "not allow" in the wording of a question produced significantly different responses.

One of the most widespread solutions for avoiding such bias was provided by Rensis Likert in the 1930s and is known as Likert scale. It refers to a cluster of several differently worded items that focus on the same target, so that "no individual item carries an excessive load, and an inconsistent response to one item would cause limited damage" (Skehan, 1989: 11). It is a popular tool for rating "almost anything" (Dörnyei, 2002: 36) in the social sciences.

An important concern of questionnaire design is the number of steps or response options each scale contains. Original Likert scales contained five response options (i.e. strongly agree/agree/neither agree nor disagree/disagree/strongly disagree), but later different extensions (with up to seven response options) were also successfully used by researchers. There is however a concern that certain respondents may use the middle category ("not

sure", "don't know", "neutral" etc.) "to avoid making a real choice, that is, to take the easy way out" (Dörnyei, 2002: 37). Considering this, the "undecided" category was excluded from the present questionnaire and the final scale design contained six response options: Strongly disagree/ Moderately disagree/ Slightly disagree/ Slightly agree/ Moderately agree/ Strongly agree.

Other variations of Likert scales, such as semantic differential scales, true/false items and numerical rating scales were also taken into consideration, but were excluded from the final version of the questionnaire because their scope is more limited (Dörnyei, 2002: 40) and because different types of scales need separate instructions and examples, which complicates the process of filling in, prolongs the time and extends the length of the questionnaire.

Multiple-choice items are used in section V ("Background information"; see below for a detailed discussion of the sections and their content) and in the questions about the awareness of EU projects. They are relatively straightforward, reader-friendly and appropriate to the nature of these questions: to collect precise information and unambiguous answers, rather than to measure attitudes and opinions, as the questions in previous sections do.

Finally, some open-ended questions were also included into the questionnaire. Although questionnaires are not particularly suited for truly qualitative, exploratory research, it is still recommended by many researchers to include some open-ended questions because they permit "greater freedom of expression, (..) a far greater "richness" than fully quantitative data; (…) [they] can also lead to us to identify issues not previously anticipated" (Dörnyei, 2002: 47). Additionally, "sometimes we need open-ended items for the simple reason that we do not know the range of possible answers and therefore cannot provide pre-prepared response categories" (ibid.). There are examples of studies where the most interesting and valuable data was found exactly in this type of questions. Considering these factors, one open-ended question was added to every section I-IV.

As for the layout, Dörnyei (2002) argues that in surveys "employing self-completed questionnaires the main interface between the researcher and the respondent is the hard copy of the questionnaire; the format and the graphic layout

carry a special significance and have an important impact on the responses". After piloting several different layouts of Likert scales with a small focus group, two of the graphic layouts were included in the final version of the questionnaire. The first one (presented in the first and third parts) has an appropriate density, easy-to-fill tick off boxes and horizontal captions of the scale ratings, however it occupies quite a lot of space. The second layout (presented in the second and fourth parts) was taken from Dörnyei (2002) and, although having a somewhat less comfortable overview due to vertical captions, presents a good compromise between space economy and user-friendliness. The multiple-choice items in consistent order with tick off boxes and substantial white space look easier, had positive feedback from the focus group and also "generally results in higher cooperation and fewer errors" (Sudman & Bradburn, 1983: 244).

6.4 Item pool, selecting and sequencing

The next stage of the questionnaire development was to collect an item pool for each of the sections, as well as to adjust theoretically composed main thematic parts to the practical convenience of the questionnaire.

First, the parts on integrative and instrumental motivation were united into a single section, since there is no practical use in dividing questions concerning motivation into different parts in the questionnaire body: such division is actually irrelevant for the informants. Secondly, a section with questions on background information of the participants was added at the end of the questionnaire. People are often reluctant to give away their personal information, so the questionnaire is still anonymous, but the data on linguistic (mother tongue, other foreign language knowledge, child bilingualism) and social (approximate age, level of education, long-term residence in other countries than Sweden) background is necessary for appropriate interpretation of survey results. That was the reason for adding this section.

The two attitudinal sections were split by the motivation section to diversify the order and make it less monotonous.

All in all, the final version of the questionnaire included the following parts:

1) Attitudes towards the German language;
2) Motivation, Attitudes toward Germans;
3) Foreign language learning and the European Union;
4) Background information.

The basic sources for the item pool were the qualitative, exploratory data gathered from the focus group interviews and questions borrowed from the AMBT, appropriately reworked and adjusted for the needs of the present survey. Dörnyei (2002: 52) also points out the usefulness of borrowing questions from established questionnaires, because they have been used frequently before and "the chances are that most of the bugs will have been ironed out of them" (Sudman & Bradburn, 1983: 120 cited in Dörnyei, 2002: 52).

The recommendation for including both positively and negatively worded items with 40% to 60% true- or agree-keyed items put randomly (Dörnyei, 2002: 55; Ellard & Rogers, 1993: 17) was met in all sections dealing with attitude and motivation measurement (I-IV).

Dörnyei (2002: 61) argues that the initial section of a questionnaire "is particularly important in that it sets the tone, (…) the starter questions need to be interesting, relatively simple yet at the same time focused on some important and salient aspect". That is why the section on attitudes towards the German language with rather short and easy-to-understand statements but dealing with actually the most important topic of the research opens the questionnaire. The first two questions were taken from the AMBT and adjusted accordingly. Questions 4, 5, 7, 9 were developed from the focus group interviews. All ten Likert scale questions were put randomly. The two closing questions (a multiple-choice and an open-ended one) allow for a more elaborated reply on the overall experience with learning German.

The second battery of eight Likert scale questions was taken and adjusted from the AMBT. The items dealing with integrative and instrumental motivation were mixed up randomly (Dörnyei, 2002: 60). The section also finishes with an open-ended question.

The third part, Attitudes towards Germans, may potentially provide the most controversial data as it contains statements about national stereotypes which may sound quite provoking, however, the sentences are generalized and approximate. The statements 3, 4, 8 were taken and adjusted from the AMBT and the statements 2, 5, 7 were developed from the focus group interviews.

The next part, Foreign language learning and the European Union, is a combination of Likert scale statements interpreted from the AMBT (points 1-9) and multiple-choice questions 10-14 dealing with the awareness of the participants about the EU projects in the area of language learning and their opinion about these initiatives.

The final part of the survey, Background information, consists of multiple choice questions to collect factual information on the participants. This follows common procedure, as the general recommendation is to put all factual and personal questions at the end of the questionnaire (Dörnyei, 2002: 60).

6.5 The testing process: groups, participants. Questionnaire processing.

The subjects for the present survey were students of German at the universities of Uppsala and Stockholm. In Sweden, everyone can take a university course as a separate course, without studying a whole programme that leads to a degree. This means that everyone living in Sweden and holding a Swedish or another EU citizenship, or holding a Swedish residence permit may be accepted to a university course free of charge (except for non-EU students admitted to Swedish universities after the autumn term 2011, who are now charged tuition fees). The only formal prerequisite for university studies is to have a high school certificate (i.e. to finish upper secondary school with pass grades in a certain number of courses). There is no age limit for being admitted to university (however, high school graduates are normally older than 18). Thus, potential participants of the survey were expected to be of different age, educational background, nationality and L1.

A total of 140 participants received questionnaires, and 99 of them returned completed questionnaires. The group and study level division was maximally balanced between participants in Stockholm and in Uppsala, as well as between

beginners and intermediate/advanced students: there were four groups for each university. The number of students in each group varied from 5 to 20. The three beginners groups (two in Uppsala and one in Stockholm), who had started to learn German in September 2011, were the largest with 19-20 participants in each. Intermediate students were represented by the groups Praktisk Tyska ("practical German", a course aiming at improving speaking skills for those with some knowledge of German) and Tyska I ("German I", an intermediate course in German at A2-B1 level of CEFR) in Uppsala, as well as two groups of Tyska I in Stockholm. Advanced students were represented by two groups of Tyska II ("German II", an advanced course in German at B2-C1 level of CEFR, which usually contains various modules such as history, culture and literature of German-speaking countries) at Stockholm University.

Initially, 58 beginners and 82 intermediate and advanced students received the questionnaires, of which 45 beginners and 53 intermediate/advanced filled in and returned questionnaires, making a total of 99 questionnaires that were processed and analyzed. However, one of the questionnaires was not included in the analysis, as the data provided in it were extremely inconsistent[8].

All the students in the various intermediate-level and advanced-level classes were advanced in their proficiency of German when compared to the beginners. Since class sizes in the beginners groups were generally much larger than in the other groups, it was decided to combine the intermediate-level and advanced-level participants in the survey into one 'advanced group'. This was done for logistic reasons, so as to arrive at two roughly comparable group sizes: 45 beginners and 53 'intermediate/advanced'.

Testing was conducted in November 2011. All participants received the same oral instructions that were also written at the beginning of the questionnaire:

> We would like to ask you to help us by answering the following questions concerning your learning of German. This survey is conducted by Master student Polina Kordik at Uppsala University to better understand motivation and attitudes towards German among learners of German in Sweden. This is not a test so there are no "right" or "wrong" answers and you don't even have to write your name on it. We are

[8] For instance, the student answers with "completely disagree" to the statement "I really enjoy learning German", but ranks his overall experience with learning German as "very positive".

interested in your personal opinion. Please give your answers sincerely as only this will guarantee the success of the investigation.

The language of oral instruction in the beginners groups was Swedish, while intermediate and advanced groups received the instructions in German, in accordance with the language choice of the teacher of the respective group. Additionally, the students were informed that they could answer all open questions in the questionnaires in any language most comfortable to them: Swedish, English or German. It was noteworthy that most of the students who received their instructions in Swedish wrote their answers in Swedish as well, while those instructed in German wrote down their points and thoughts in English.

Most of the groups were asked to fill in the survey immediately after they had received the questionnaires and oral instructions before the start of their German class or right after it. Some other groups were asked to return the questionnaires later to the teacher or to the instructor during the next class. This latter procedure was necessitated by the preferences of the teachers and the time available for testing. Unfortunately, this "extended" testing resulted in the loss of almost one-third of questionnaires as many participants forgot to fill in and return them.

The overall testing procedure revealed no problems or obstacles, the questionnaire was clear to the participants and took 10 to maximum 15 minutes to fill in. The only concern participants had was to count the number of months of studying German. Many intermediate and advanced participants studied German before at school or in other courses, so they were asked to write an approximate number of years and/or months, as far as they could remember. A few participants were eager to know in which way the survey was connected to the EU and European language policy.

When the questionnaires were collected, each was given a unique code which identified the university, group, teacher, level and date of testing. For the sake of processing, each questionnaire item was converted into a numerical score with the help of a coding frame which is a "classification scheme that offers a numerical score for every possible answer to an item" (Dörnyei, 2002: 99). Thus, "yes/no" questions are encoded as yes=1, no=2, while Likert scale questions are encoded as 1=strongly disagree, 2=moderately disagree, 3=slightly disagree, 4=slightly agree, 5=moderately

agree, 6=strongly agree. A codebook that contains an organized summary of all the coding frames was also developed. The results were entered into an Excel file manually. The answers to the open-ended questions were entered as comments.

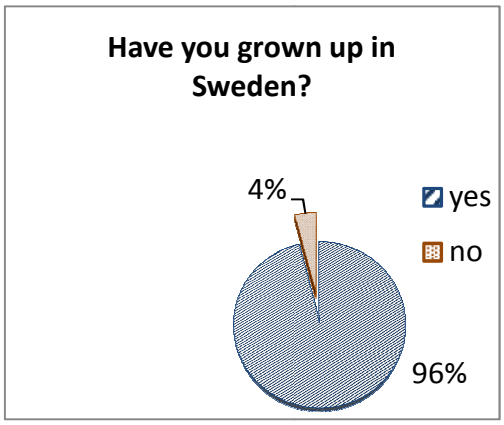
7. Results and analysis

7.1 Participants' backgrounds

First of all, it is important to understand who the participants of the survey are and what educational and language backgrounds they have.

As expected, all age groups were represented; however 48% of participants indicated that they were between 20 and 25 years old. This means that almost half of all survey participants are of the age of typical university students in Sweden and the EU. 21% were younger than 20 and 12% of participants were older than 45. Interestingly, the percentage of mature students was higher in the advanced groups in Stockholm. Many of them indicated that they had studied German before some years ago and decided to refresh their knowledge. The overwhelming majority of participants have a primarily Swedish monolingual background: Swedish was the mother tongue of 83% participants (93% among the beginners and 77% among intermediate and advanced students)[9]. Among those who belong to the 17% with a mother tongue other than Swedish, 88% had grown up in Sweden, 78% had spoken only one language during their childhood and adolescence, and 79% had never lived abroad for more than a year. Considering this, the data collected from the questionnaires may be primarily identified as representing the attitudes and learning motivation of Swedish monolingual or late bilingual speakers that acquired their other languages in classroom settings in adolescence and/or in adulthood.

[9] Among those who belong to the 17% with a mother tongue other than Swedish, the range and variety of languages is quite wide: from other Scandinavian languages and Finnish to Russian and Chinese. Most of the non-Swedish participants were exchange students who had been to Sweden only for half a year or so.



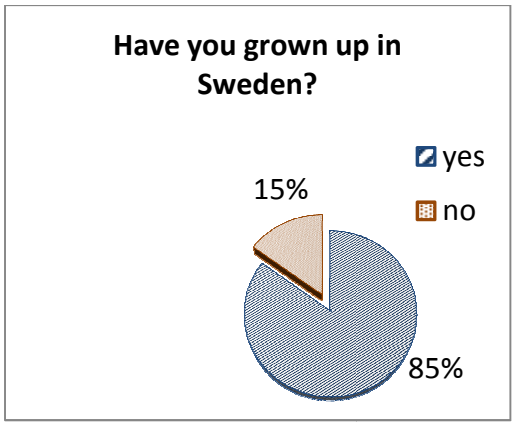


Figure 2. Beginners' background **Figure 3. Intermediate/advanced background**

At the same time, the number and variety of other foreign languages that the participants indicated is quite impressive. All combined, students said to have at least some knowledge of 24 languages apart from their mother tongue and German. The most popular answers were predictably English, French and Spanish, which are the major foreign languages taught in Swedish schools apart from German, as well as Finnish as a second language. Yet the span was as wide as from Latin to Tagalog (an Austronesian language spoken in the Philippines), including languages from Eastern Europe (Russian, Czech, Slovenian, Bosnian, Bulgarian, Polish) and some Indo-Iranian languages as well (Farsi, Kurdish). 20% of the participants indicated to have knowledge of three and more languages besides their mother tongue.

Precisely half of the participants indicated that they had a higher education degree (Bachelor or Master), equally in both groups, whereas 41% had a high school certificate or lower. 8% of all participants had completed professional training. The only difference between the advanced and beginners groups was that the advanced group was more homogeneous with 51% of high school certificate holders and 49% higher education degree. The beginners, in turn, were 31% high school graduates, 18% finished professional training and 1% held a PhD.

More than half of the participants (57%) stated that they had friends and/or relatives in Germany, and many of them connected their interest in German with eagerness to communicate with their friends and relatives in their mother tongue.

Concerning their background, beginners and intermediate/advanced students groups were quite similar. Only on very few measures was there a slight difference

between the groups, for instance, concerning the percentage of the native Swedes (93% among the beginners and 77% among the intermediate/advanced); the number of younger students (20 years old or below) was higher in advanced groups (27% against 18% among beginners), whilst by contrast, there were more students of the age 20-25 in beginners groups (56% against 43% among advanced).

In the following sections, I first make an overview and analysis of the beginners' data, considering each of the different parts of the questionnaire step by step. Then I will deal with the results of the advanced groups the same way and compare them with the data of the beginners (for the sake of clarity, both intermediate and advanced groups will be considered jointly as advanced groups.

7.2 Data on the Beginners groups

As already mentioned, 45 questionnaires from the beginners that started studying German two months prior to testing were collected and considered for further calculations and analysis. The results from the questions in the first four parts of the questionnaire containing Likert scales are represented in mean figures and analyzed for variation. As the Likert scales in all questions contain six alternatives, it is logical to suggest that 1 to 2 ("strongly" and "moderately disagree") may be considered as negative, 3 to 4 ("slightly agree" and "slightly disagree") may be considered as relatively neutral, and 5 to 6 ("moderately" and "strongly agree") as positive.

No statistical significance tests were conducted for this study because this research is considered to be initial and aims at identifying the main tendencies only. For a larger research, however, statistical significance tests will be desirable.

7.2.1. Section "Attitudes towards the German language" in the beginners groups

The majority of answers in the first section "Attitudes towards the German language" are clearly positive. Most of the participants state that they "really enjoy learning German" (a mean rate 5,2 on a scale from 1 to 6), that they plan to learn German as much as possible (rate 5,0) and think that German is similar to Swedish (rate 4,7).

As for the complexity of the language and problems with German grammar, the overall rate for both questions is 4,2 (“slightly agree”), but the answers are far less homogeneous. This shows that German language is perceived very differently by students despite an absolutely identical study environment, learning materials and even the same teacher.

Two negatively worded items (“German spelling is complicated”, “German sounds aggressive”) were rated with means of 2,8 and 3,0 (“slightly disagree”), but also exhibited some variations from “strongly disagree” to “moderately agree” (some 7-8% of the answers). German words that are similar to Swedish ones are not very puzzling for students, almost all of them disagreed moderately or slightly with the statement (“German words that are similar to Swedish are puzzling because they have another meaning”).

Finally, strong variations were found concerning the question about German music (“I like German songs/music”) with a mean rate of 4,0, however it is obvious that this question does not deal with the learning experience but rather with attitudes and tastes of participants that go beyond purely linguistic scope.

The students describe their overall experience with learning German as very or rather positive, only four participants are neutral, and none negative towards it. In the open-ended comments, many students note the difficulty of German grammar, which some of them didn’t expect before the start and that it may be quite frustrating from time to time. About half of the learners agree that their learning experience meets their expectations and about a third gladly discover the lexical similarities between German and Swedish words. One of the students confesses: “I was surprised of how similar German was to Swedish, both vocabulary and grammar, so learning German for me becomes a way of getting to know Swedish better as well”.

7.2.2. Section “Motivation” in the beginners groups

The analysis of the second section/part of the questionnaire, “Motivation”, among the beginner students reveals a pronounced tendency to integrative motivation, whereas instrumental motivation is rather modest. The four questions focused on integrative motivation received the highest ratings: “studying German is important to

me because it will allow me to be more at ease with German speakers (4,7); to meet and converse with more and varied people (4,8); to better understand and appreciate German art and literature (4,5); it will make me a more knowledgeable person" (4,5). These four statements received ratings above average (up to "moderately agree"). Answers were homogeneous except for the statement about German art and literature, where there was much variation. The least popular statement from the integrative motivation part, "Studying German is important to me because I will be able to participate more freely in the activities of other cultural groups", still received a solid "slightly agree" mean score of 4,0.

Many participants doubt that they will need German for their future career, this statement was rated lowest (3,2, "slightly disagree"), but at the same time they admit that knowledge of German may be useful in getting a better job (mean 4,0, "slightly agree"). This may be interpreted as knowledge of an additional foreign language improves one's CV and makes one a more qualified job candidate.

The statement "Studying German is important to me because other people will respect me more if I have knowledge of a foreign language" was also not very popular and was rated second lowest with 3,4 ("slightly disagree").

More than half of the beginners wrote some comments explaining their motivation for studying German. Their reasons and explanations for learning German can be divided in three types: personal ties with Germany and/or Germans; professional development, career, economics; and various integrative motivated reasons such as love for the language, desire to read German literature, fun with learning a foreign language etc. All three reasons are quite equally represented, however may be ranked for their popularity in the order I mentioned them above.

Different personal ties with Germany and Germans, such as relatives living there, a girlfriend or a boyfriend, friends from Germany are definitely the most popular reasons for learning the language among the beginners. The students emphasize their desire to be able to communicate with their relatives and loved ones in their native language, i.e. in German. Another popular reason is closely related to the previous one: to be able to communicate with Germans while travelling in Germany for

vacation and leisure. Often those two motivation factors overlap for many participants in their comments.

A somewhat less popular but still pronounced reason for learning German is professional development, career and a wish to move to Germany for work one day: “In international workplaces with colleagues from other countries you meet a lot of Germans which might not always communicate well in English. This is useful to be able to talk to them in their own language” (participant UNL-8); “I want to work as a translator, I already know French and I want to work with languages. Sweden has so many contacts with Germany, it's good to know German as a Swede” (participant UNL-11). Many students emphasize strong economic ties between Germany and Sweden as an important reason for learning German as a Swede. One of the participants wrote convincingly about it: “I NEED to learn German because it is the largest language in the European Union with 100 million native speakers. German speaking countries are the MOST important part and a real financial muscle of Europe, core of our economy” (participant SNF-6).

And the third type, a more heterogeneous but generally integrative motivated, is connected with the passion for the language itself, interest in German culture, literature and just love for learning foreign languages: “The reason is to get more familiar with German literature, both fiction and more philosophical texts. Being able to speak adds up, though” (UNL-13); some state their need for studying German very specific, brief and straightforward: “To read academic literature (about Indology and Sanskrit)” (UNL-16), “Goethe, Novalis, Hoelderlin” (UNL-33), and finally, just “WAGNER” (UNL-28). And this third type of students states their passion for learning languages: “I want to communicate with Germans in their mother tongue. And also I want to understand the lyrics in German songs. The ultimate reason is of course my love of language” (UNL-14); “To be more free to live, work, travel in Europe!” (UNL-35); “Languages make your life richer!” (UNL-39).

Summing up, the prevalent motivation for studying German among beginners is integrative, according to both Likert scale rankings and comments. Instrumental motivation, such as hoping to win respect for knowing a foreign language or definite career goals and/or professional advantages for speaking German is far behind

integrative motivation, namely the desire for informal communication with relatives and friends in/from Germany and passion for literature, culture and the language itself.

7.2.3. Section "Attitudes towards Germans" in the beginners groups

The third part of the questionnaire is definitely the most controversial and its statements may sometimes come across as ambiguous and even provoking. This was however done deliberately to see and analyze the reactions of the participants to common and sometimes even narrow-minded stereotypes about Germans that are quite old and widespread in neighboring countries. There was a risk that the participants would refuse to answer these questions or give "average" or middling answers in attempt to avoid straightforward answers. This was actually the case, but only for a few of the beginner students. 4 out of 45 questionnaires from the beginners were returned with some blank parts of this section, stating explicitly in the comments that they are unwilling to answer such questions because they are too simplified, straightforward, stereotyped or because the participant doesn't have enough experience to answer them meaningfully. All in all, the risk was worth it, and 90% of participants provided their answers in this section.

The first three statements ("I like Germans in general", "In general, Germans are nice and friendly people", "I would like to get to know Germans better") were ranked with 5.0 ("moderately agree") with low variation and many participants who ranked all three with 6.0 ("strongly agree").

Another two positively worded items ("The more I learn about Germans, the more I like them"; "In general, Germans are trustworthy and dependable") were equally ranked with quite high mean score of 4,7, and, interestingly enough, no one gave a lower score than 4.0 ("slightly agree") in the second statement and only two persons ranked the first one with 3.0 ("slightly disagree"). This indicates a very homogeneous and rather positive attitude towards Germans in general and the given (still quite stereotypical) statements.

By contrast, the next two positively worded statements, "Germans are in general punctual and meticulous" and "Generally, Germans are hard-working", although also

equally ranked with a mean of 4,5 (“slightly to moderately agree”), were very heterogeneously ranked across all questionnaires with quite strong variations from one participant to another. The explanation for this may be the following: the previous statements were more related to the wish for communication with Germans and their communicative abilities (“nice and friendly people”, “trustworthy”, “I like” and “I want to learn better” Germans), so the participants ranked these abilities in accordance with their *own* experience of contacting and communicating with Germans, whereas the latter two statements deal more with personal and professional abilities of Germans (“punctual, meticulous, hard-working”) which are more difficult to judge in a straightforward way. It presupposes an experience of working with Germans (in an international company, for instance) or in Germany, to make such an assertion. Or, alternatively, to be guided by stereotypes only, may be unacceptable for many of the participants, as they also mentioned in comments to this section.

The only negatively worded item, “Some Germans may be rude and bad-mannered”, was ranked with overall 3,8 (from “slightly disagree” to “slightly agree”). Interestingly, the variation and the span of ranking for this statement is the highest of the whole questionnaire: the extreme poles “1,0” and “6.0” are not rare and occur just as much as the other values. Some of the students stated in their comments that this is true not only (and not as much) for a single nationality, but for all people in general, meaning that there are rude and bad-mannered persons everywhere despite of their nationality and language.

In the comments to this section most participants wrote that they have not enough experience with Germans to make such judgments, that they don’t want to generalize specific personal features to the whole nation and even several nations (meaning additionally Austrians and Swiss), that they don’t like stereotypes at all and that people are just people everywhere despite their nationality.

All in all, the results of this section showed that the beginner students have pronounced positive attitudes towards Germans in general and wish to communicate with them and to get to learn them more, but are rather reluctant to make general judgments about popular stereotypes or kinds of “national character”. Here they

mention lack of experience or just unwillingness to agree or disagree with such rather simplified and stereotypical statements.

7.2.4. Section "Foreign language learning and the EU" in the beginners groups

The fourth part of the questionnaire is the most homogeneous and highly ranked of all. The positively worded statements concerning the learning of foreign languages in general evoked a keen response by the participants. The statement "I wish I could speak another language perfectly" got the absolutely highest rank of 6,0 ("strongly agree") among all beginners. It supports a pronounced tendency towards a high integrative motivation by learners, which was already evident in the section 7.2.2 "Motivation in the beginners groups". The beginners strive to learn as much of their target language as possible and reach the highest possible level of proficiency.

The second-highest ranked statement, "If I planned to stay in another country, I would make a great effort to learn the language even though I could get along in English", got mean score of 5,7 and shows a high flexibility of the participants in learning foreign languages and, most importantly, a high integrative potential of the students. Again, this may be related to the high overall integrative motivation of beginners. Another very closely related statement "If I were visiting a foreign country I would like to be able to speak the language of the local people" received almost the same high score of 5,6 with almost no variation and only five scores of 4,0 ("slightly agree").

The statement immediately related to the EU initiative of "mother tongue plus two languages" aiming at indicating the attitude towards it among the participants, "Even though most Swedes speak English, it is important for them to learn other foreign languages", was also ranked very high, with 5,5 and minimal variation.

Another three statements, "I often wish I could read newspapers and magazines in another language", "I enjoy meeting and listening to people who speak other languages" and "Studying a foreign language is an enjoyable experience" related to a general openness to other foreign languages and studying and were all ranked with 5,4 and with minimal variations.

The desire to read authentic texts ("I want to read the literature of a foreign language in the original language rather than a translation") is a bit lower, 5,3, but still definitely above average.

And the lowest ranked statement, "I would really like to learn a lot of foreign languages", got a mean of 5,2. The reason for this may be quite straightforward: the overwhelming majority of the participants, 76%, had stated that they speak and/or have some knowledge of more than one foreign language besides German. It means that most of the students in fact speak at least two or three foreign languages and, keeping in mind that they recently began to learn German, they are not planning to take another foreign language in the near future. So they are already in fact multilingual.

The last four questions dealt with the awareness of the students about two big European projects immediately related to foreign language learning: the initiative "mother tongue plus two languages" and the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). The results are very straightforward here: only 18% of the participants have heard anything about the initiative "mother tongue plus two languages" and only 22% have heard or read anything about CEFR.

Those who knew or heard anything about it, and even some of those who did not, mentioned that they find the initiative good, useful and realistic. As for the CEFR, some of the students mentioned that they find it useful, agree that this is a recognized standard of foreign language proficiency, however some of them find it vague and unclear.

7.3 Data on the advanced groups

53 students from intermediate and advanced groups participated in the survey and returned filled-in questionnaires. The level of language proficiency in German varied considerably from group to group: the lowest "Praktisk Tyska" ("practical German") group from Uppsala University consisted of students who had finished any beginners' courses at a university or at school and wanted to train specifically their oral communicative abilities. Three groups of "Tyska I" ("German I"), two of them in Uppsala and one in Stockholm, correspond to the B1-B2 levels of CEFR and may be

considered intermediate learners who already passed extended grammatical and phonological training and often take additional courses in history and culture of German-speaking countries. Finally, the two last and most advanced groups of "Tyska II" at Stockholm University are considered to be on C1 level of CEFR and focus on extending their vocabulary, studying German literature and German-Swedish translation, and normally also take additional modules in history and culture besides the language training.

Compared to the beginners, there is a difference in group size which is much smaller: 5 to 15 students in intermediate/advanced groups against 20 and more in beginners. Groups are also generally much more heterogeneous with respect to age, language background and length of exposure German. About half of the intermediate/advanced students had studied German somewhere before (at high school, university, language course, in Germany etc.), often had a break and later decided to refresh their knowledge and/or study further.

Even though the actual level of proficiency in German varied from one study group to another, it was decided to combine all intermediate-level and advanced-level participants into one 'advanced group' for the purpose of the present study firstly because they were in fact advanced when compared to the beginners group, and secondly because they form another large study group which makes a comparison between them two more balanced.

In the following sections, I will go through the data provided by the participants in the same order as the beginners and at the same time will highlight the differences between those two groups.

7.3.1. Section "Attitudes towards the German language" in the advanced groups

The results of the first section of the questionnaire are in fact very similar to those of the beginners, with only some minor distinctions. The majority of answers show a pronounced positive attitude towards the German language. The students still "really enjoy learning German" (mean 5,2, equal to the beginners) and plan to learn it as much as possible (again equal to the beginners rate of 5,0). There is almost no variation for these two questions, only 3 participants out of 53 rate them with

"strongly" or "moderately disagree", but from other answers in their questionnaires it may be concluded that these 3 participants do not intend to continue studying German and are pronouncedly unmotivated in their current studies.

Interestingly, fewer of the advanced students agree that German is similar to Swedish – only 4,4 (slightly to moderately agree) against 4,7 by the beginners. Additionally, the variation in their answers is also much more noticeable than in the beginners groups, with a full range from strongly disagree to strongly agree. This may be related to the fact that students with some extended experience of studying German make their judgments according to a deeper and more detailed knowledge of the language they have already gained during the learning process, and not according to the first impressions from studying or some overall anecdotal knowledge that may guide beginners. It is also worth mentioning that advanced students tend to be less categorical about the statement that German words that are similar to Swedish are puzzling because they have another meaning: the mean of 3,3 (slightly disagree to agree) against 3,0 by the beginners. Again, this may be related to the broadening of vocabulary by advanced students and their experience with such words that still can appear puzzling because of their formal similarities but different semantics.

The advanced learners also rate the complexity of the German language higher than the beginners: a mean of 4,6 against 4,2, however, with some noticeable variations as well. The difficulty of German grammar was rated almost equally: 4,1 by the advanced and 4,2 by the beginners. The span of variation is really dramatic here, including the whole grading scale distributed quite evenly among all advanced groups.

Two negatively worded items ("German spelling is complicated", "German sounds aggressive") were rated with means of 2,5 and 3,0 ("slightly disagree"), almost identical with the beginners, and also exhibited some variation from "strongly disagree" to some rare "strongly agree" (some 5-6% of the answers).

Finally, the acoustic and phonological side of German ("I like German songs/music" and "I like the way German sounds") were rated higher than in the first group: 4,1 against 4,0 and 4,8 against 4,5 respectively. Here, too, the variations were noticeable, however there was more unity in positive assertions about the way

German sounds, whereas attitudes towards German music were far less homogeneous.

Their overall experience with learning German the students describe as very or rather positive (with a mean of 1,6 (where 1 = “very positive”), only 0,1 points lower than the beginners), with four neutral participants and only one rather negative towards it.

The most interesting part of this section is however found in the open-ended comments that were provided by almost all participants. Nearly everyone mentions the complexity of the German grammar: some expected it to be as difficult as it turned out to be, some did not and have had to struggle with it, but interestingly, the overwhelming majority of students write that their attitudes towards German have improved with learning: “It gets more and more interesting with time. Grammar becomes also easier” (UPE-1); “At the beginning I didn’t like it very much, but now I’ve started to appreciate the language more and more” (UIE-4); “I've always loved German, but my interest has grown since I've started studying it at the university, mainly because of our teachers that are really good” (SIC-4); “It turned out to be more fun and interesting than I expected” (SIC-9); “I've liked it more and more while learning” (SIC-10), and so on. Many students mention their fascination with the language when they found out that they can read newspapers and literature, are able to communicate with Germans and understand the language with less effort. Many admit that it raised their motivation, and mention the high quality of education at the universities that they experience and good teachers.

A small number of informants mention that the language and grammar are as complicated as they expected so they haven’t experienced any dramatic changes in their attitudes, or that they still expected German to be easier and more similar to Swedish but this challenge didn’t prevent them from a positive learning experience.

It is obvious that students continue their study at such advanced levels because of their motivation, otherwise they would have had dropped the course before. Sadly it was not possible to receive information about the group size on various teaching levels because the groups reassemble differently every term and consist of new and “old” students who apply for courses. Therefore, it was not possible to calculate the

percentage of drop-outs from courses. Still, repeated statements about growing motivation and improved attitudes towards German allow us to conclude that there is a generally positive relation between the learning experience and a growing or stable motivation.

7.3.2. Section "Motivation" in the advanced groups

The very first and probably most important observation concerning motivation is that the ratings by the advanced students are much higher or at least somewhat higher than those by the beginners in each and every statement of the section (see Figure 4 below).

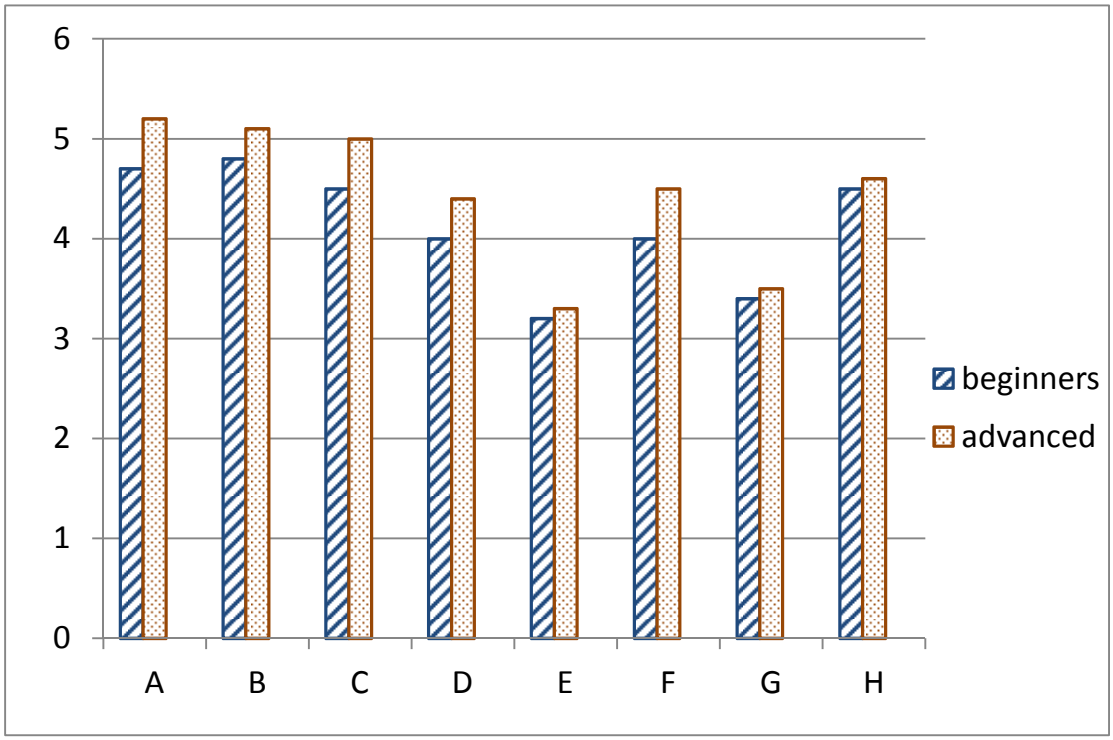


Figure 4. Motivation. *"Studying German is important to me because it will allow me..."*

A) to be more at ease with German speakers.
B) to meet and converse with more and varied people.
C) to better understand and appreciate German art and literature.
D) to participate more freely in the activities of other cultural groups.
E) I'll need it for my future career.
F) it will someday be useful in getting a good job.
G) other people will respect me more if I have knowledge of a foreign language.
H) it will make me a more knowledgeable person.

The already revealed tendency towards integrative motivation by the beginners is even stronger and pronounced in the advanced learners. The statements focused on integrative motivation (the four leftmost ones on the chart) received the highest ratings: “studying German is important to me because it will allow me to be more at ease with German speakers (5,2 against 4,7 by the beginners); to meet and converse with more and varied people (5,1 against 4,8); to better understand and appreciate German art and literature (5,0 against 4,5); it will make me a more knowledgeable person” (4,6 against 4,5). These four statements were rated clearly above average (“moderately agree” and above with the only exception of the last question). Answers are however more heterogeneous in comparison with the beginners. The least popular statement from the integrative motivation part among the advanced groups is here the same: “Studying German is important to me because I will be able to participate more freely in the activities of other cultural groups”, but it was still rated with the score 4,4 (against 4,0 among beginners).

As for instrumental motivation, the ratings by the advanced students are observably higher than by the beginners, but the tendency is the same: the students doubt that they will need German for their future career, however they still admit that their language knowledge may be useful in getting a better job (see the fifth and the sixth pile on the chart above).

In contrast to the beginners, only 15 out of 53 advanced participants wrote any comments about their motivation for studying. And their reasons were diverse, so it was quite hard to make any generalizations: some continue to study German because they like the language and enjoy the learning, some others because they would like to move to Germany and probably to work there, or because of personal ties.

Summing up, the motivation pattern for studying German among advanced students is very similar to the beginners, in that it is also pronouncedly integrative. At the same time, all motivational statements were ranked somewhat higher.

7.3.3. Section “Attitudes towards Germans” in the advanced groups

The reaction to the most controversial and uneven part of the questionnaire was generally not as dramatic to the advanced group as for the beginners. Only 3 students left some blank questions, the comments over the section were also somewhat calmer.

The first three statements ("I like Germans in general", "In general, Germans are nice and friendly people", "I would like to get to know Germans better") were ranked with 5.2-5.3 (against 5,0 by the beginners), with not much variation and not a single rate of 3,0 or lower.

Another two positively worded items ("The more I learn about Germans, the more I like them"; "In general, Germans are trustworthy and dependable") were ranked almost equally to the beginners, 4,8 and 4,7 respectively (both 4,7 in the previous group), although somewhat less homogeneously. Again, the overall tendency is a positive attitude towards Germans with statements ranked even a bit higher than by the beginners.

Two further positively worded statements, "Germans are in general punctual and meticulous" and "Generally, Germans are hard-working", were ranked with 4,6 and 4,4 respectively, in comparison to 4,5 for both in the previous group. Interestingly, all of the participants in both groups who refused to answer some questions in this section left exactly these two statements blank. The reason for such a decision may be the fact that these two points, along with the only negative worded item "Some Germans may be rude and bad-mannered" (ranked 4,1 against 3,8) are the most stereotypical and in certain sense simplified ones, which causes negative reaction and refusal to provide an opinion on them. As some of the participants mentioned in the comments, they don't want to be guided by stereotypes of any kind.

Again, the overall ranking for the section was somewhat higher than by the beginners. Here, the comments provided also some valuable information. Generally, people reacted calmer to the statements, and many explained that they don't have enough experience to agree or disagree with them, that their judgments are based only on those Germans who they met and/or know personally, and finally, that they missed a "don't know" option here. Such answers and comments were found in about one-third of the questionnaires.

Some of the students, however, dared to make their own judgments and conclusions based on their experience and overall knowledge: “I find Germany quite dynamic and well organized country, which seems also to apply to the citizens. These are characteristics that I highly appreciate” (UPE-10). Someone admits the existing stereotype: “Swedes generally think of Germans as punctual and meticulous” (UIE-5); someone, on the contrary, experienced Germans to be stereotypical: “When I lived in Germany, I experienced Germans to be prejudiced, because I'm Swede and not blonde!” (SIIC-1).

All in all, the results of this section showed that the advanced students also have pronounced positive attitudes towards Germans in general and wish to communicate with them more, but are cautious with making generalizations and refer to a lack of sufficient experience with Germans to be able to agree or disagree with given statements.

7.3.4. Section “Foreign language learning and the EU” in the advanced groups

The final ranking section of the questionnaire revealed the biggest similarities between the two groups of participants. Although there are some small differences in ranking, the scores don’t vary more than 0,1 points. An overview of the section is provided in the chart below.

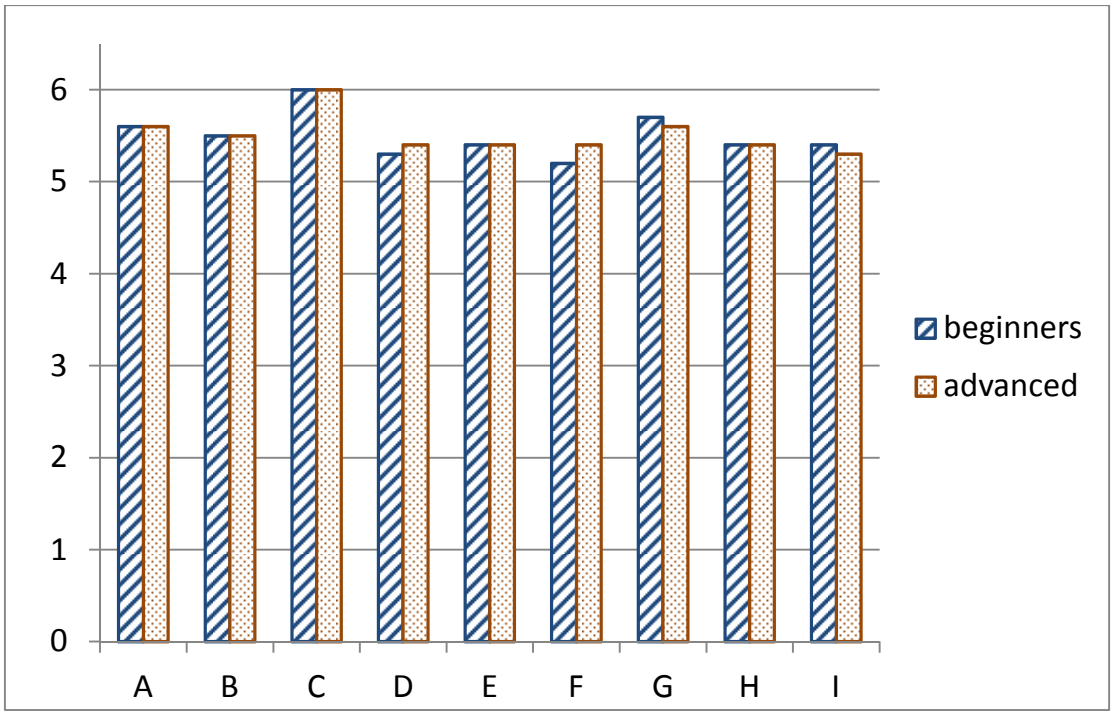


Figure 5. Foreign language learning motivation

A) If I were visiting a foreign country I would like to be able to speak the language of the local people.
B) Even though most Swedes speak English, it is important for them to learn other foreign languages.
C) I wish I could speak another language perfectly.
D) I want to read the literature of a foreign language in the original language rather than a translation.
E) I often wish I could read newspapers and magazines in another language.
F) I would really like to learn a lot of foreign languages.
G) If I planned to stay in another country, I would make a great effort to learn the language even though I could get along in English.
H) I enjoy meeting and listening to people who speak other languages.
I) Studying a foreign language is an enjoyable experience.

On the scale from 0 to 6 the similarities in the rankings of both groups is clearly visible. The statement “I wish I could speak another language perfectly” got the maximal rating in both groups (6.0), “strongly agree”. It shows that all participants of the survey are striving to reach a highest possible proficiency in a foreign language. It is questionable how realistic it is for a person or how much effort they want and are able to invest into this goal. Still, the result expresses a high learning and integrative motivation of all students. A high ranking of the statement “If I planned to stay in another country, I would make a great effort to learn the language even though I could get along in English” also supports this statement, as well as the third one in the

set of statements about the general willingness to integrate into a foreign language environment, “If I were visiting a foreign country I would like to be able to speak the language of the local people”. Those three questions received the highest rankings. The second group of statements dealing with ability to read literature and newspapers in foreign languages and overall interest in foreign language learning was ranked lower, with 5,4 or somewhat below, “moderately agree” (see the Figure 5 above).

Turning to the last part of the fourth section dealing with the EU initiatives, the advanced students showed also a very low awareness about them.

Only 13% of the advanced participants (in comparison to 18% in the beginners group) had heard about the initiative “mother tongue plus two languages”. However, awareness about the CEFR is notably higher in the advanced group, 38% (against 22% among the beginners).

Although only one-third of all students shared their opinion about both EU language projects, it is worth mentioning that the overwhelming majority is positive about them. Two charts below represent the detailed results of the survey.

Figure 6. Opinions about the initiative “mother tongue plus two languages” (please chose maximum three options out of four). *Do you think the initiative is...* (Percentage of all students in each group who shared this opinion).

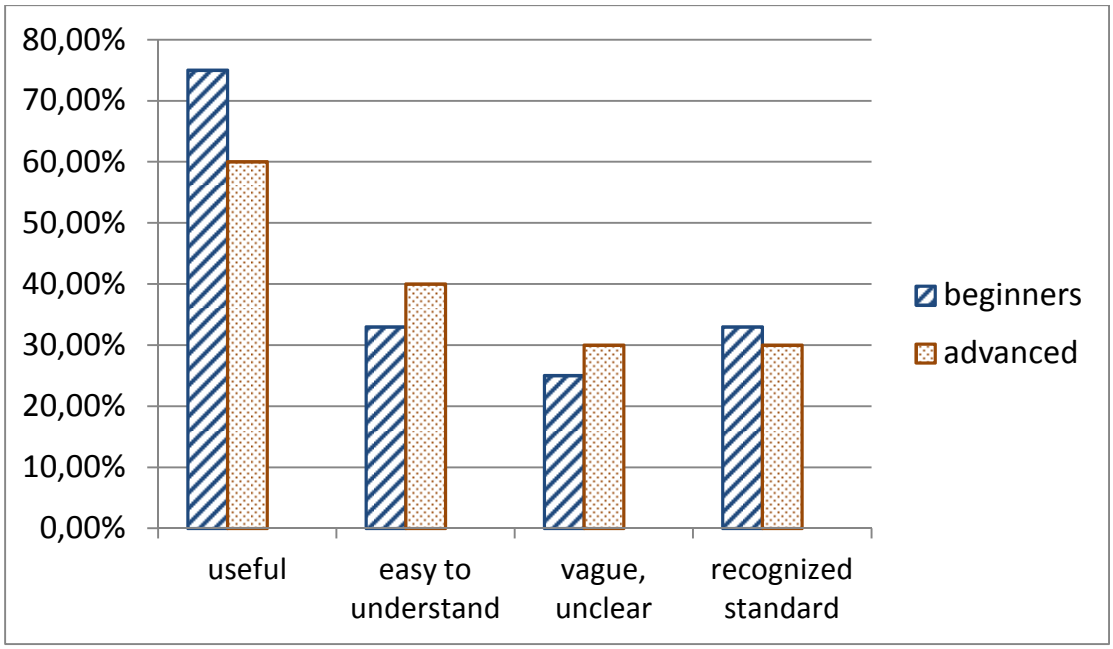


Figure 7. Opinions about the CEFR *(please chose maximum three options out of four). Do you think the initiative is...* (in % from all students of each groups who shared their opinion).

Two points are important here. First, the awareness about CEFR is among advanced groups is almost twice as high as in the beginners (38% against 22%). This may be explained in the following way: those who study German longer are also more familiar with learning materials, examinations, learning modules, i.e. with the "industry" of foreign language learning and teaching in Europe, which has a solid anchor in CEFR. Especially German teaching materials, books and, among others, DaF (Deutsch als Fremdsprache, German as foreign language) projects and activities of the Goethe Institut[10] normally make reference to CEFR. Therefore, those who are longer involved in language learning, know more about CEFR and possibly other related EU projects. This will be discussed in more detail in the following chapter (see "Discussion" part).

Secondly, the overwhelming majority of participants who filled in this part note that CEFR is useful, so they think that there is a need of a common European framework that clearly sets out the levels of teaching foreign languages and progress

[10] Goethe Institut is an organization that stands for German language and culture abroad (i.e. outside Germany). It promotes various cultural events and projects and is a recognized authority in the area of teaching German as foreign language. www.goethe.de

and proficiency tracking of students. And last but not least, 70% to 75% of participants think that the initiative “mother tongue plus two languages” is good, so the attitude towards this aim is pronouncedly positive.

A summary of the results, their significance, research limitations and possible applications will be provided in the next chapter.

8. Discussion and conclusion

In this final chapter I will first summarize the most important findings of the present study and then discuss the research limitations and analyze the results in a broader context in relation to other studies. Finally, the EU language initiatives in connection with the study results will be discussed.

Concerning the informants' background, one of the most striking observations is a great number and variety of foreign languages they speak. Not counting German and Swedish, the 99 students speak 24 different languages, and 2 to 4 foreign languages per person. These facts describe the participants as a truly multilingual public. We may speculate that such students are highly intelligent, are used to foreign language learning routines, have experience in multilingual communication and in being in an international environment. The fact that these participants of the study are not only regular university students but representatives of various social strata with various educational and occupational backgrounds raises the scientific value of the findings.

Another important finding is that German as a foreign language is perceived quite differently by students despite an absolutely identical study environment, learning materials and even the same teacher. It means that language attitudes are shaped and possibly changed by inner, personal factors and reasons. This supports the theoretical claim that individual differences make a difference for the success in language learning.

Further, even though few participants see an immediate use of their study of German for their career, the majority of them admit that knowledge of an additional foreign language improves one's CV and makes one a more qualified job candidate. This supports the claim that individual multilingualism and, consequently, ability to work in an international environment is a valuable factor of a successful career.

Moving forward to the core aim of the research, attitudes and motivation of learners, let us first sum up the reasons the students have for learning German Three main types of reasons are given: personal ties with Germany and/or Germans; professional development, career, economics; and various integrative motivated reasons such as love for the language, desire to read German literature, fun with

learning a foreign language etc, where the latter reasons prevail in the answers of participants.

The prevalent motivation for studying German among both beginners and advanced groups is integrative, according to both quantitative and qualitative data collected. This integrative motivation is a desire for informal communication with relatives and friends in/from Germany and a passion for German literature, culture and the language itself. By contrast, instrumental motivation, such as hoping to win respect for knowing a foreign language or definite career goals and/or professional advantages for speaking German lags far behind integrative motivation The only difference revealed between the two learner groups was that all integrative oriented statements of motivation were ranked somewhat higher among advanced students. However it would be not fair to conclude that advanced students have a higher integrative motivation. The difference is slight, and a statistical significance test would be desirable to make a more pronounced statement about this. But so far, one can suggest that advanced groups have more confidence in their rankings of own motivation due to their language learning experience and commitment to study German.

As for the attitudes towards German language, they are also pronouncedly positive in both groups. Even though almost everyone mentioned the complexity of the German grammar, the overwhelming majority of students wrote that their attitudes towards German had improved with learning. The fact is that the two features of German language, namely complexity of grammar and acoustic properties of the language that are traditionally connected with negative attitudes towards German, didn't frighten the students off. On the contrary, many noted that they like the somewhat "aggressiveness" of German and that the grammar made them take their study of German more serious and gave them more learning discipline.

The investigation of attitudes towards Germans gave generally very similar results. Even though many participants were cautious with making generalizations on the level of the whole nation and referred to a lack of sufficient experience with Germans, more than 90% of students did provide an opinion and they were also

pronouncedly positive and demonstrated openness, wish and willingness to communicate more with the native speakers of German and to learn them more.

Finally, no clear attitudinal changes were found between the two participant groups. This could be due to a number of reasons. First, the design of the study was semi-longitudinal, where two groups of *different* individuals were observed: beginners and intermediate/advanced, and not the same group of learners in progress. If one and the same group of learners had been observed in progress, with several testing sessions over a year or two of study, or if individual learners had been followed, e.g. via interviews, over an extended stretch of time, other results may have been reached This was however not feasible due to the time limits for this MA thesis, and may be considered a research limitation.

Secondly, it was not possible to track the percentage of students who had dropped out from a German course due to lack of motivation and/or negative attitudes towards the language and its teaching. Therefore, the results of this study are based on participants who are motivated enough to continue their language course beyond the first few months (in the case of beginners), and who, in the case of the more advanced students, are motivated enough to enroll in and continue an intermediate/advanced course. It is thus not surprising to see high levels of motivation and pronounced positive attitudes towards German in these learners. Still, repeated statements in the participants' comments about growing motivation and improved attitudes towards German allow us to conclude that there is a generally positive relation between the learning experience and a growing or stable motivation.

A study of attitudes and motivation among students of German at National Chenghchi University in Taipei, Taiwan, by Tristan Lay (2008) revealed similar patterns. Even though the cultural and linguistic differences between Taiwanese and Swedish student are large (for instance, a traditionally instrumental approach towards learning in general shaped by Chinese culture and Confucian philosophy (Lay, 2008: 3), typological differences between Chinese and Germanic languages, etc.), a positive experience of foreign language learning, and positive attitudes towards German result in a greater learning motivation which is pronouncedly integrative (Lay, 2008: 6). Also the study by Schlak et. al. (2002) of international university students of German

in Germany revealed that integrative factors are ranked highest among reasons for learning German; however, instrumental motivation lagged not far behind.

Finally, the present study showed that attitudes towards EU projects in the area of foreign language learning and assessment are generally very positive and favourable amongst those students who are aware of them. Even though awareness of these projects is still very low, awareness increases as the learners advance in their language studies. As was already mentioned in the previous chapter, this may be explained with the fact that those students who have a longer experience of the foreign language industry are more familiar with CEFR because teaching materials in German are normally adjusted to a certain CEFR level. However, there are also big differences in how CEFR levels are implemented into language teaching design, materials and exams in Germany and Sweden.

The industry of Swedish as second language (svenska som andraspråk, SAS) makes very few if any references to CEFR. The governmental authority Skolverket that develops curricula and standards for the entire educational system from preschool up to high school and is also responsible for SAS. Skolverket however uses its own system of courses and levels: beginners courses sfi (svenska för invandrare, Swedish for immigrants) which roughly correspond to A1-A2 CEFR levels, basic course SAS (approximately B1 level), and finally more advanced courses SAS A, B and C that roughly corresponds to CEFR levels B2-C2. A SAS B certificate is required to be admitted to a Swedish university and in most cases it is essential for highly skilled job searchers.

Moreover, foreign language courses at Swedish municipal schools for adult learners and high school students (kommunalvuxenutbildning, KomVux) make almost no references to CEFR either. Usually there are 4-5 modules (for instance, Tyska 1, 2 etc.), and each lasts approximately one term. A detailed qualitative description of every module, including study aim and grading criteria, may be found on the Skolverket website (www.skolverket.se).

During the year 2012, a major school reform in Sweden is underway, and, the area of Swedish as second language is due to be changed as well: a new curriculum, a new, more developed grading system and some other changes will be introduced.

However, it is highly uncertain whether CEFR will become more influential in this area and whether Skolverket, the governmental authority, will use it for developing new curricula and routines for SAS, teaching and learning Swedish as second language.

By contrast, the rather small industry of Swedish as a foreign language (small at least in comparison to SAS and German as foreign language) refers to CEFR more often. Swedish as foreign language covers teaching Swedish to non-immigrants (e.g. short summer courses in Swedish, Swedish for international students at universities and teaching Swedish abroad), and here one of the summer schools in Swedish, Uppsala International Summer School (UISS, www.uiss.org) for instance, clearly relates placement tests and proficiency levels to CEFR.

All in all, the "inner" language learning industries and policies in Sweden appear to have their own routines with almost no connection to CEFR, whilst "outer" practices for international learners of Swedish have incorporated the standards of CEFR to some degree.

The situation in Germany differs from Sweden considerably. As already mentioned, almost all teaching materials and study levels of the Goethe Institut are anchored in CEFR, both for international learners and immigrants. Study materials and textbooks for foreign languages published in Germany usually mention the CEFR level they are designed for. Moreover, the learning modules of foreign languages at municipal schools for adult learners (Volkshochschule, VHS) also build on CEFR levels. Thus, CEFR is strongly incorporated into all areas of the foreign language and German language learning industries in Germany.

The above described situation of language learning industries in Sweden vis-à-vis Germany may in fact be responsible for the low awareness levels of CEFR among students in Sweden. It leads us to further discussion of why some EU countries implement European initiatives such as CEFR actively (e.g. Germany), whilst others keep clear of them and continue to use their own teaching standards and systems (e.g. Sweden). Here it is worth mentioning that Sweden joined the EU in 1995, and CEFR

was introduced in 1996, so both Germany and Sweden had the same starting point for using and implementing it.

Turning to the initiative of "mother tongue plus two languages", there appears to be a certain discrepancy between the project initiated by the EU and the general idea a mother tongue plus two languages. Even though very few participants in the study had heard anything about the actual EU project, many stated that they find the idea as such good and useful. The reason for such a low awareness about the EU initiative may be due to the near-complete lack of any advertising for it at institutes of education in Sweden, at least in Stockholm and Uppsala regions. One of the target audiences of the initiative, students, receives almost no information about it at their institutes of education. The sense of a 'student' in Sweden is much wider than in many other countries that traditionally consider students as mostly young people up the age of 23-25. Students in Sweden may be of very different ages and walks of life: many people decide to pursue a degree after gaining an extensive working experience, or to change their specialization, or study some separate courses without pursuing a degree programme and so on. The same is true to the high school education for adults (gymnasial utbildning/vuxenutbildning). The education in Sweden is free of charge, many people take the opportunity and study something for their own interest and pleasure. That is why university/high school students may be considered as target audience for the initiative: there are people who are eager to study. And so, the educational institutions are ideal places to learn about the EU initiatives on language learning.

Additionally, the low awareness of the EU language projects may be related to a more general, traditionally low interest in the issues of the "big and distant" work in Brussels. For instance, the EU Parliament elections turnout in European countries is usually lower than the turnout in elections on a local, country level. For instance, in Sweden the turnout at the general elections in 2010 was 84.6 per cent, whether at the EU Parliament elections in 2009 – only 45.53 per cent (Statistiska centralbyrån, 2011b; UK Political Info, 2009). This may be related to the idea that citizens take the national elections more serious, perceive them as more important and decisive for themselves, whilst the EU Parliament elections may be seen as too far removed from their own lives and interests. EU Parliament election turnout has also been falling

steadily across all EU countries since the first elections in 1979 indicating increased apathy about the Parliament despite its increase in power over that period[11]. So, for instance, when students of German hear about the EU-driven ambitious aim of having two foreign languages in addition to their mother tongue for every European citizen, many of them think that this is a good and useful idea, but have a very slight if any idea about how the project should be implemented, what measures will be taken and when this goal may be reached. On their own, personal, level however, they have practically already reached this goal without being aware that this is what 'Brussels' tries to encourage for the whole European Union.

Coming back to the results of the Eurobarometer survey «Europeans and their languages", there is a big discrepancy between the opinions of the subjects of the given study and the participants of the Eurobarometer survey. The latter covered 29 European countries (EU members plus Croatia and Turkey), and more than 28 000 people from various segments of population participated. At the present survey 99 people living Sweden participated, and even though they are also of different age and professional occupation, they are all active learners of at least a second foreign language, and this is a fundamental difference between the respondents of these two surveys. Predictably, the latter public is much more eager and optimistic about the idea of mother tongue plus two languages: more than 70 % of them think that the idea is good and useful. On the contrary, only 27% of the Eurobarometer survey participants in Sweden tend to agree with the statement that "everyone in the European Union should be able to speak two languages in addition to their mother tongue", and this is the lowest percentage among all EU countries (Eurobarometer 243: 56). One of probable explanations for such a low figure is that Eurobarometer respondents don't feel and experience the need to learn another foreign language: they cope with their communicative necessities and challenges with the help of their mother tongue and English only (remembering that according to the same Eurobarometer survey, 90% of Swedes claim ability to hold a conversation in English (Eurobarometer 243: 9). Hence, there is no external input for learning a second

[11] Turnout figures for every EU country and a graph can be found here: http://www.ukpolitical.info/european-parliament-election-turnout.htm

foreign language and no inner interest to do so, therefore, both instrumental and integrative motivation are lacking.

The participants of the present survey may be considered as a minority with regards to their positive attitudes and motivation to learn a second foreign language. They have already incarnated the ambitious EU idea and may be considered sooner as a positive example than a target audience for the EU initiative. The actual target audience is rather the respondents of the Eurobarometer survey, "average" Europeans, who are not active language learners and who don't see the immediate sense and use of this initiative. To reach the goal, the EU and its members should think about how to involve this audience in the language learning. There may be several approaches how to reach this public. Both instrumental and integrative motivation should be affected, as well as the awareness of the policy, initiative and the European idea behind it should be raised: people should have external need, internal wish and a general understanding of why to learn another foreign language. If at least two of these three factors will be targeted, it may let people be "back to school" and start to learn a new foreign language. An external need to communicate in a foreign language depends very much on the life situation of every individual and can be hardly stimulated with a policy, whether to arouse an internal wish to know and learn a foreign language and to stimulate an integrative motivation may be quite universal. First of all it's about to arouse curiosity and interest of individuals for other countries, cultures and languages. And probably one of the most effective strategies to stimulate one's curiosity is to target individuals of the most receptive age, i.e. to approach children and teenagers. Interests and learning habits arising at childhood and adolescence are often influence the whole adult life. To arouse interest of an individual in other languages, cultures and countries is the task of educational institutions, kindergartens and schools, but not only of them. It's the task of the family and the society in general. So to reach a positive effect, a sum of efforts and measures on all societal levels should be achieved.

Concerning a general awareness about multilingualism in Europe, the wide range of languages spoken in Europe and importance of knowing and speaking many languages, one of the important contributors in this area is the Mercator European Network of Language Diversity Centres (see chapter 2 for more details). Even though

those centres are first of all oriented towards minority languages and are located in respective regions where minority languages are represented (for instance, in the region of Friesland; in Sweden, where Finnish and Sami population is represented and some others), Mercator works toward embracing positive attitudes towards multilingualism within minority and majority language communities. Their activities include disseminating information on language-related policies of the European Commission which makes an important contribution to multilingual awareness rising.

In a perfect world, one can imagine that all learning materials and examinations in all EU countries will have a clear reference and adjustment to CEFR, so that every person from an early school age will be familiar with it and may easy understand what the levels mean, and even may be able to place their own language knowledge on the scale. And of course, there will be at least two foreign languages by every individual that would correspond B1 to C2 level of CEFR. It is however most questionable whether this perfect state of language knowledge constellations may ever be reached, and if so, then when. But to start with, it might be useful if the information about EU initiatives in the area of language learning will be easily accessible for current and future learners, and would be clearer, more structured and practically oriented. Secondly, common, integrated European standards of language proficiency, teaching materials and examinations would make the whole system of language education more transparent, clear and "user-friendly" for those who wish to learn a foreign language.

All in all, the present small-scale research is an attempt to indicate attitudes and motivation of second foreign language learners and to look at a specific case of some individuals learning German at two Swedish universities with regards to a more "global" EU language learning policy. A certain specificity of the chosen audience (the tested learners are rather exceptional positive examples of motivated and already multilingual learners) doesn't allow call such audience a representative sample and has no claim for any generalizations. This limitation is due to a limited scope and research design of a Master thesis. A sample including students of other second foreign languages in other educational institutions and especially in other European countries may give different results and give more information on foreign language learning in the EU.

Additionally, the research aim to find any patterns of attitudinal changes was also not reached because no evident changes were detected in the process of questionnaire testing. This may be due to already mentioned limitation of a semi-longitudinal study (the tested subjects are not the same persons who were tested several times over a certain period but different people), but also due to questionnaire design, sentence wording and sequences. A so-called social desirability effect may also play its role in the answers of participants and, consequently, in the research outcome: people sometimes tend to give answers that are regarded as positive and good in the society but not the honest answers of what they really think and do. That is why bias of such questionnaires may lower the value of the data and research outcome: the answers of participants may be overrated and more positive than they really are. This seems to be the case in some parts of the results where answers are close to their highest possible rates. A different approach with more qualitative elements in the research, semi-structured interviews with participants could provide a more precise and relevant data.

Moreover, another important aspect that could provide new and valuable insights into the problem but was beyond the scope of the present study is the actual use of the language after finishing the language course: which level of proficiency students have reached? How actively and in which contexts they use the knowledge they obtained? Whether they still find it useful and important to learn a second foreign language? Was it worth it to invest time and efforts into language learning?

All these questions are also of immediate relevance to the topic of language learning and use in Europe, so a new study with more representative research sample, a wider range of languages and a survey on “alumni” of language courses could be a next step in this research area.

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Appendix 1. Questionnaire

Learning German in Sweden

We would like to ask you to help us by answering the following questions concerning your learning of German. This survey is conducted by Master student Polina Kordik at Uppsala University to better understand motivation and attitudes towards German among learners of German in Sweden. This is not a test so there are no “right” or “wrong” answers and you don’t even have to write your name on it. We are interested in your *personal opinion*. Please give your answers sincerely as only this will guarantee the success of the investigation.

Your answers to all questions will be treated with the strictest confidence.

Thank you very much for your help! ☺

I. Attitudes towards the German language

The following are a number of statements with which some people agree and others disagree. We would like you to indicate your opinion after each statement by ticking the box that best indicates the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement.

Statement	Strongly disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree
1. I really enjoy learning German.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
2. I plan to learn as much German as possible.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
3. German is a very complex language.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
4. I like the way German sounds.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

Statement	Strongly disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree
5. I have difficulties with German grammar.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
6. German spelling is complicated.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
7. German sounds aggressive.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
8. I like songs/music in German.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
9. German is similar to Swedish.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
10. German words that are similar to Swedish are puzzling because they have another meaning.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

11. Overall my experience with learning German is… (choose one option)

a) very positive

b) rather positive

c) neither positive nor negative

d) rather negative

e) very negative

Please write a few words to describe your experience with learning German (for example, how your expectations of German differ before you started to learn and afterwards? Were they (dis)proven? Was it more/less complicated than you expected? Has anything changed in your attitudes during the time you learn German?)

_____
_____
_____
___

II. Motivation

Please indicate your opinion by ticking the box that best indicates the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement.

Statement	Strongly **disagree**	Moderately **disagree**	Slightly **disagree**	Slightly **agree**	Moderately **agree**	Strongly **agree**
1. Studying German is important to me because it will allow me to be more at ease with German speakers.						
2. Studying German is important to me because it will allow me to meet and converse with more and varied people.						
3. Studying German is important to me because it will enable me to better understand and appreciate German art and literature.						
4. Studying German is important to me because I will be able to participate more freely in the activities of other cultural groups.						
5. Studying German is important to me only because I'll need it for my future career.						
6. Studying German is important to me because I think it will someday be useful in getting a good job.						

7. Studying German is important to me because other people will respect me more if I have knowledge of a foreign language.						
8. Studying German is important to me because it will make me a more knowledgeable person.						

Maybe you have any other reasons for learning German? Please share them with us!_____
_____
_____
_____
___

III. Attitudes toward Germans

Please indicate your opinion by ticking the box that best indicates the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement.

Statement	Strongly disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree
1. I like Germans in general.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
2. In general, Germans are nice and friendly people.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
3. I would like to get to know Germans better.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
4. The more I learn about Germans, the more I like them.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

Statement	Strongly disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree
5. Germans are in general punctual and meticulous (*punktliga och noggranna*).	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
6. Generally, Germans are hard-working.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
7. Some Germans may be rude and bad-mannered.	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑
8. In general, Germans are trustworthy and dependable (*trovärdiga och pålitliga*).	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑	❑

9. In case you would like to comment on these questions or expand on your choice, you can do so here

_____

_____

_____

___

IV. Foreign language learning and the European Union.

Please indicate your opinion by ticking the box that best indicates the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement.

Statement	Strongly **disagree**	Moderately **disagree**	Slightly **disagree**	Slightly **agree**	Moderately **agree**	Strongly **agree**
1. If I were visiting a foreign country I would like to be able to						

speak the language of the local people.						
2. Even though most Swedes speak English, it is important for them to learn other foreign languages.						
3. I wish I could speak another language perfectly.						
4. I want to read the literature of a foreign language in the original language rather than a translation.						
5. I often wish I could read newspapers and magazines in another language.						
6. I would really like to learn a lot of foreign languages.						
7. If I planned to stay in another country, I would make a great effort to learn the language even though I could get along in English.						
8. I enjoy meeting and listening to people who speak other languages.						
9. Studying a foreign language is an enjoyable experience.						

10. I have heard/read about the European Union initiative “mother tongue plus two languages”.

Yes ❑ No ❑

11. If yes, do you think the initiative is… (choose a maximum of three options)

a) good

b) useful

c) realistic

d) unnecessary

13. I have heard/read about Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), which introduced the scale of foreign language knowledge A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, C2.

Yes ❑ No ❑

14. If yes, do you think the Framework is… (choose a maximum of three options)

a) useful

b) easy to understand

c) vague, unclear

d) is a recognized standard of foreign language proficiency

15. If you have any further thoughts, comments or suggestions concerning the learning of German and other foreign languages, please write them down here.

_____

_____

V. Background information

To have a clearer picture of survey participants and to interpret its results correctly, please answer some questions about your background.

1. Your age:
   a) 20 or younger
   b) 20-25
   c) 25-35
   d) 35-45
   e) 45 or older

2. Your mother tongue
   a) Swedish
   b) Other (please specify)_____
3. Have you grown up in Sweden?
   Yes ❑ No ❑
4. Have you grown up monolingual ❑ bi/multilingual ❑ ?
5. Have you lived in other countries than Sweden for a year or more?
   Yes ❑ No ❑
6. Which other foreign languages you have learned? (please specify)_____
7. Your education level is
   Gymnasium or lower ❑
   Professional education ❑
   University degree (Bachelor, Master, Diploma) ❑
   Doctoral Degree ❑
8. Do you have any relatives or friends in Germany? Yes ❑ No ❑
9. How long have you learned German? (please specify the number of months)_____

If you would like to participate in further research on this topic and be interviewed, please write down your e-mail or telephone number (and your first name to address you correctly)._____
_____

If you would like to receive the results of the study, please write down your e-mail_____

Thank you very much for your time and effort! ☺