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Attitudes Among Youngsters with Respect to Five Members of the European Union
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Citation

Meijerink, F. (1999). Attitudes Among Youngsters with Respect to Five Members of the European Union. *Acta Politica*, 34: 1999(1), 3-21. Retrieved from <https://hdl.handle.net/1887/3450639>

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Note: To cite this publication please use the final published version (if applicable).

J.H.H. Weiler,
*The Constitution of Europe. "Do the New Clothes Have an Emperor?"
and Other Essays on European Integration*
Reviewed by Emma Cohen de Lara 100

David Boucher and Paul Kelly (eds.),
Social Justice from Hume to Walzer
Reviewed by Margo Trappenburg 103

Contributors 107

Attitudes Among Youngsters with Respect to Five Members of the European Union

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Abstract

This research note is about the socialization of attitudes of adolescents towards the European Union. In particular the socialization of Dutch adolescents towards four neighbouring countries is considered. It is frequently thought that, due to experiences related to the Second World War, the socialization of the attitudes with respect to Germany differs from the socialization with respect to other countries of the EU. In this article it is shown, through a secondary analysis of longitudinally collected data, that there is no evidence of such a difference. It is found that Germany does not have a special position. Some alternative explanations are given for changing attitudes over time with respect to Germany.

1 Introduction

The socialization of attitudes of adolescents towards other (European) countries is a topic that receives a lot of attention (for example, Dekker, Aspeslagh and Winkel 1997; Dekker, Aspeslagh and Du Bois-Remond 1997; Poppe 1998). This is not so surprising, though, as we want to be aware of negative image formation among adolescents that might be hard to change in the future. Poppe (1998), for instance, has studied national and ethnic stereotypes in Central and Eastern Europe among adolescents in six countries. He found that various social psychological and sociological theories, such as social identity, self-categorization and scapegoat, are helpful in explaining and understanding the content of national and ethnic stereotypes and changes in these stereotypes over time.

Research on image formation has been carried out not only for Central and Eastern European countries, but also for countries within the European Union. In particular with respect to West European countries there is a growing body of research (Dekker, Aspeslagh and Winkel 1997; Dekker, Aspeslagh and Du Bois-Remond 1997; Van Oudenhoven 1997). The two publications by Dekker et al. conclude that the image Dutch youngsters have of Germany and its inhabitants is a major cause for concern.

These conclusions have caused an enormous upheaval in both Dutch and German media. The relations between Germany and the Netherlands are sensitive from a historical point of view: following the negative results of a large-scale survey interview held in 1993 among Dutch youngsters, there have been great (financial) efforts to improve the image these youngsters have of Germany and the Germans. Similar surveys in 1995 and 1997, however, seemed to indicate that matters had *not* improved. The notion that all efforts had been in vain, caused vigorous reactions. An impression of this can be found, for instance, in Verhey (1998) and Hoefnagel (1998). The reactions show that we are dealing with a politically-sensitive research area. In this article we re-analyse some of the data from which the negative conclusions were drawn. We show that, by using a more appropriate data analysis model, conclusions can be drawn that might have prevented a lot of the aforementioned commotion.

Our data analysis model explicitly takes account of time-related processes that are contained in research with respect to *image formation*. The investigations referred to above generally take a cross-sectional approach or an approach where data collected at several points in time are analysed in a 'cross-sectional fashion'. So, in this article we explicitly choose a longitudinal approach. We show that such an approach is more applicable to image formation among youngsters than the cross-sectional; it ultimately leads to a very simple psychological model for developments in image formation. An application of this model can also be found in Meijerink, Mudde and Van Holsteyn (1998). Applied to the research concerning image formation, this model implies a social psychological dimension that contrasts persons belonging to the so-called in-group with those of the out-group. In the research at hand the in-group seems to be defined as the inhabitants of the small countries and the out-group as the inhabitants of the larger countries.

We will first give a short outline of the context and process of data collection, followed by the presentation of the results of the longitudinal data analysis method. We end with some conclusions and a comparison of our conclusions with those of the primary researchers: this reveals some major differences.

2 Data collection and the primary analysis

In this article we re-analyse data on image formation with respect to clichés and stereotypes among youngsters that was collected in 1993 and 1995 by Dekker, Aspeslagh and Winkel (1997) and in 1997 by Dekker, Aspeslagh and Du Bois-Remond (1997). A cliché is defined as an image that is linked to an impersonal object such as a country. When an image is linked to a person, it is usually referred to as a stereotype (Dekker 1997: 31). The three studies were set up to find out more about the attitudes of young people in *the Netherlands* to a number of

their neighbouring countries: *Belgium, France, Great Britain and Germany*. The attitude of the Dutch youngsters with respect to their own country is also included. The reason for carrying out these studies was to collect "political psychological information" (Dekker, Aspeslagh and Du Bois-Reymond 1997: 11) concerning the relation between *Germany* and *the Netherlands*. This kind of information was considered necessary given that an investigation of the Netherlands Scientific Council for Government Policy, initiated to evaluate the Dutch-German relations, omitted such data. After the first two studies in 1993 and 1995, the investigation was repeated again in 1997.

Data collection started in 1993 when a sample of 1807 youngsters was taken from the population of pupils in secondary school education. The sample comprised 52 randomly chosen schools. For the investigations in 1995 and 1997 the investigators selected 1076 and 1211 youngsters, respectively, from secondary schools. In 1997 the sample comprised 13 schools.

Data over all three periods was collected through questionnaires. Information on the clichés and stereotypes was obtained by asking the respondents to mark on two forms which clichés and stereotypes they felt applied to the five specified countries and their inhabitants. The results of the data collection for both stereotypes and clichés in 1993, 1995 and 1997 can be found in Appendices

Table 1 Counts of stereotypes aggregated over three time periods: 1993, 1995 and 1997

	Bel	Ger	GB	Fr	Neth	Total
Friendly	2504	1047	1934	1548	2235	9268
Tolerant	1458	694	870	752	2231	6005
Sociable	2345	831	1110	1360	2454	8100
Businesslike	440	1643	1891	864	2092	6930
Down-to-earth	1016	715	1259	652	2462	6104
Pragmatic	794	980	958	751	2221	5704
Easy to get on with	2315	722	1179	1095	2256	7567
Sense of humour	2422	720	1812	833	2536	8323
Conscientious	446	913	1137	709	600	3805
Money-grubber	767	2231	1178	934	2595	7705
Loyal to authority	660	1586	1628	839	969	5682
Value old customs	533	638	2759	1205	683	5818
Proud of their country	1424	2457	2304	2387	2045	10617
Arrogant	234	2074	816	1262	564	4950
Dominant	108	2611	749	1032	507	5007
Total	17466	19862	21584	16223	26450	101585

1 and 2. Information on the criteria used for selecting the fifteen stereotypes and nine clichés can be found in Dekker, Aspeslagh and Winkel (1997).

In Tables 1 and 2, we have collapsed over the three time periods the two three-way tables of Appendices 1 and 2. This results in two-way tables of *stereotypes by country* and *clichés by country*. The results should be read in the following manner: in 1993 the stereotype *friendly* is attributed to *Belgians* by 1037 of the 1807 youngsters (Appendix 1a); in 1995 by 694 of the 1076 youngsters (Appendix 1b); and finally in 1997 by 773 of the 1211 youngsters (Appendix 1c). Over the three time periods this adds up to 2504 times. This figure is shown at the intersection of the first row and first column of table one. The row total for *friendly* thus shows that this stereotype has been attributed 9268 times to the various countries by the three samples of 1993, 1995 and 1997. And the total of the totals shows that 101,585 stereotypes have been attributed by the three samples to the five countries.

A quick first glance at the data shows that *proud of their country* and *friendly* are the most frequently attributed stereotypes (10,617 and 9,268, respectively), and that the *Netherlands* is the country that carries most stereotypes (26,450). The last finding is perhaps most easily explained by the fact that Dutch youngsters have been interviewed.

Table 2 can be read in exactly the same manner but now the stereotypes have been replaced with the clichés and thus relate to the tables presented in Appendix 2. A quick first glance at this table shows that *democratic* is the most frequently attributed cliché (12,117) and that *Germany* is the country that carries most clichés (13,267), followed at a short distance by the *Netherlands* with 13,133 clichés. The finding that *Germany* carries so many clichés is not so easy to explain.

Table 2 Counts of clichés aggregated over three time periods: 1993, 1995 and 1997

	Bel	Ger	GB	Fr	Neth	Total
Democratic	2220	2343	2144	2116	3294	12117
Progressive	1181	2003	1279	1358	2797	8618
Peace-loving	2496	1354	1899	1663	3014	10426
Technologically developed	1375	2562	1806	1662	3270	10675
Difference rich-poor is large	386	1009	1446	1331	321	4493
Poor welfare provisions	680	487	923	1160	49	3299
Admits few refugees	771	1117	1541	1021	262	4712
Wants to dominate the world	25	1209	400	609	91	2334
Warlike	36	1183	184	396	35	1834
Total	9170	13267	11622	11316	13133	58508

3 Images of countries and their inhabitants

One of the purposes of the research on image formation is to find out if, and in what way, stereotypes and clichés are related to countries. In the previous section we started with a general analysis over all three time periods by simply looking at the counts presented in Tables 1 and 2. We will now elaborate somewhat more on this. Table 1, for instance, also shows that some stereotypes are *mainly* attributed to particular countries. For example, *Belgians* are stereotyped as *friendly*; *Germans* as *dominant*; *Britons* as *value old customs*; *French* as *proud of their country* and *Dutch* as *money-grubbers*. However, such an analysis is not satisfactory given that some counts are very similar. For example, the *Dutch* are classified as *money-grubbers*, which has a negative connotation, and yet *sense of humour*, which is a stereotype with a positive connotation, has nearly the same count.

So, describing countries and their inhabitants by means of just one stereotype seems unsatisfactory. The classical solution to this problem consists of calculating tables with column percentages. Subsequently we consider the highest percentages in each row (Healey 1996). The results of this method are given in Tables 3 and 4.

For the stereotypes we come to the following description: *Belgians* are connected with the terms *friendly*, *sociable*, *easy to get on with* and *sense of humour*. These are positive stereotypes. *Germans* are related to *money-grubber*, *loyal to authority*, *arrogant* and *dominant*, i.e. mostly negative stereotypes, although one might question this qualification for the stereotype *loyal to authority*. *Britons* are associated with *businesslike*, *conscientious* and *value old customs*. It seems that *Britons* are not so easily evaluated in terms of negative or positive stereotypes. The *French* are related to *proud of their country*, again not a stereotype that can be easily qualified as positive or negative. The *Dutch*, finally, are related to *tolerant*, *down-to-earth* and *pragmatic*.

From the description we have just given, some matters become clear. First, the *Belgians* are stereotyped in a positive way and the *Germans* in a negative way. The *Britons*, *French* and *Dutch* seem to occupy intermediate positions. Second, an important aspect about the *Britons* is that they *value old customs*. The position of the *Dutch* is not immediately clear: they are *tolerant*, which usually carries a positive denotation, but also *down-to-earth* and *pragmatic*, adjectives that do not have an explicitly positive or negative denotation.

We now come to the images of the countries; i.e. the clichés. Column percentages are calculated in Table 4. After selecting the highest percentages in a row we find a description in terms of clichés for the five countries: *Belgium* is related to *peace-loving* and *Germany* to *wants to dominate the world* and *warlike*. *Britain* is related to *difference rich-poor is large* and *admits few refugees*. *France* is related to *poor welfare provisions* and the *Netherlands* to *democratic*,

Table 3 Column proportions of stereotypes aggregated over 1993, 1995 and 1997

	Bel	Ger	GB	Fr	Neth
Friendly	14	5	9	10	8
Tolerant	8	3	4	5	8
Sociable	13	4	5	8	9
Businesslike	3	8	9	5	8
Down-to-earth	6	4	6	4	9
Pragmatic	5	5	4	5	8
Easy to get on with	13	4	5	7	9
Sense of humour	14	4	8	5	10
Conscientious	3	5	5	4	2
Money-grubber	4	11	5	6	10
Loyal to authority	4	8	8	5	4
Value old customs	3	3	13	7	3
Proud of their country	8	12	11	15	8
Arrogant	1	10	4	8	2
Dominant	1	13	3	6	2
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Table 4 Column proportions of clichés aggregated over 1993, 1995 and 1997

	Bel	Ger	GB	Fr	Neth
Democratic	24	18	18	19	25
Progressive	13	15	11	12	21
Peace-loving	27	10	16	15	23
Technologically developed	15	19	16	15	25
Difference rich-poor is large	4	8	12	12	2
Poor welfare provisions	7	4	8	10	0
Admits few refugees	8	8	13	9	2
Wants to dominate the world	0	9	3	5	1
Warlike	0	9	2	3	0
Total	100	100	100	100	100

progressive and *technologically developed*.

The general picture that emerges is comparable with that of the stereotypes: the interviewed youngsters apparently try to make a distinction between positive and negative clichés and countries. On this 'dimension' *Germany* and *France* seem to be located on the negative side and *Belgium* and the *Netherlands* on the positive. The two clichés that are associated with *Britain* are not so easy to evaluate on this dimension.

4 Correspondence analysis

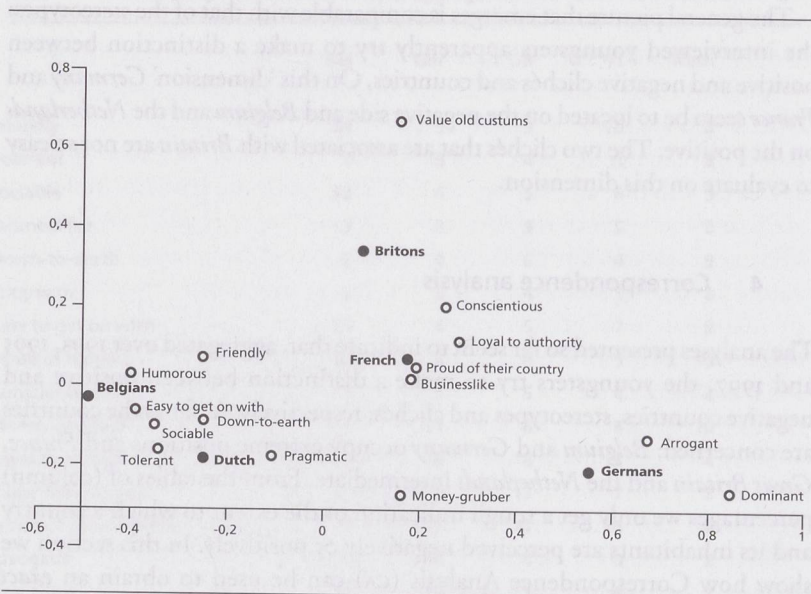
The analyses presented so far seem to indicate that, aggregated over 1993, 1995 and 1997, the youngsters try to make a distinction between positive and negative countries, stereotypes and clichés, respectively. As far as the countries are concerned: *Belgium* and *Germany* occupy extreme positions and *France*, *Great Britain* and the *Netherlands* intermediate. From the tables of (column) percentages we only get a rough indication of the extent to which a country and its inhabitants are perceived negatively or positively. In this section we show how Correspondence Analysis (CA) can be used to obtain an *exact* ordering on this presumed positive-negative dimension of the stereotypes and clichés on the one hand, and the countries on the other. After explaining the technique, the results of the analyses will be presented.

Let us consider Table 3 again, with the column percentages of stereotypes. So far, we have only used a limited amount of information in our analyses, i.e. we only used the highest numbers in the rows of the table. In CA the whole row of percentages from the table with column percentages is used and thus more information is included in the analysis. This is done in the following manner: if, for instance, two stereotypes show a close resemblance, this would mean that, across the countries, the percentages in the two corresponding rows of the table with column percentages are similar (cf. Healey 1996). We can also say that the *profiles* (across the countries) of two stereotypes are similar. Consider for instance the profiles of *friendly* (14-5-9-10-8) and *sociable* (13-4-5-8-9). Their profiles show a close resemblance, compared with those of the other stereotypes.

In CA these profiles are used to compute dissimilarities between the stereotypes (cf. Greenacre 1984 for the mathematics). With 15 stereotypes, 105 dissimilarities can be calculated. They are collected in a (15 x 15) symmetrical table showing dissimilarities between stereotypes. Using this table, a map is constructed of the corresponding 15 stereotypes in much the same manner as though we are constructing a road map from a table of distances between cities.

The result of this is that when two stereotypes have similar profiles and thus small dissimilarities they will occupy positions on this map at a small distance

Figure 1 Quantification first and second dimension stereotypes



from each other. Conversely, two stereotypes with different profiles and thus large dissimilarities, are plotted farther apart.

Figure 1 is a map of the stereotypes using CA. This map clarifies a number of things. First, the stereotypes that were attributed to the Belgians, i.e. *friendly*, *sociable*, *easy to get on with* and *sense of humour* are plotted close together. This is also true of the Germans: *arrogant* and *dominant* are plotted close together, although *loyal to authority* and *money grubber* are plotted farther away. Second, the figure shows that countries and stereotypes are mostly spread along the horizontal axis and less on the vertical axis. The term that is used in CA for this spread is 'inertia'. The explained proportion of the total inertia in the data can be calculated for each dimension (Greenacre 1984).

In the CA solution of the stereotypes, the first axis explains 64 per cent and the second axis 21 per cent of the total inertia in the data. This means that the first axis is by far the most important. On the left-hand side of this axis we find, as expected, the positive stereotypes and on the right-hand side the negative stereotypes. In between we find an ordering of the other stereotypes. The second, relatively unimportant dimension, contrasts *value old customs* with the rest.

In the previous paragraph we considered CA of the table with column percentages. CA can also be applied to the table with row percentages. This leads to a (5 x 5) table with dissimilarities between countries and ultimately to a map for these five countries. In Figure 1, stereotypes are plotted together with

countries. One of the attractive features of such figures in CA is that there is a clear interpretation of the distances between the stereotypes and the countries; i.e. if a country and a stereotype are close in distance this means that they occur together more often than would if they were independent in a statistical sense (cf. Healey 1996: 252).

The figure shows that over the three periods the *Germans* are most strongly associated with the negative stereotypes, followed by the *French*. The *Britons* are located near the centre of the first dimension, meaning that they are evaluated to be neither negative nor positive. On the left-hand side we find the *Dutch* and the *Belgians*, with the *Belgians* being evaluated the most positively. The second dimension shows that the *Britons* are located in the vicinity of *value old customs*. This stereotype apparently explains the inertia of the second axis. Finally, looking at some distances between countries and stereotypes we come to familiar conclusions: small distances exist between *Germans* and *arrogant*, *dominant* and between *Belgians* and the four stereotypes that were italicized in Table 4.

CA on the table with the clichés also shows one clear-cut, i.e. interpretable axis on which the countries and the clichés can be separated. This axis explains 60 per cent of the inertia. The axis has on the one side the positive cliché *peace-loving* and on the other side negative clichés such as *wants to dominate the world* and *warlike*. Belgium and Germany make up the extremes of this axis. In the description of Table 4 with column percentages we found that France also has comparably high percentages on *wants to dominate the world* and *warlike*, i.e. the stereotypes which make up for the negative position of Germany in the analysis. In the next section we discuss the development over the three time periods. It is shown that France occupies a special position in the analysis.

5 CA and the analysis of longitudinal data

In the previous section we showed that by using CA we obtain a 'double' ordering of countries on the one hand, and stereotypes and clichés on the other. The ordering appears to be related to a positive-negative dimension. Up to this point, we have analysed the data as though it had been collected at one point in time, i.e. aggregated over the three time periods. In the introduction we described that it is the *development over time* of the stereotypes and the clichés, i.e. the process of image formation that is of particular interest to researchers.

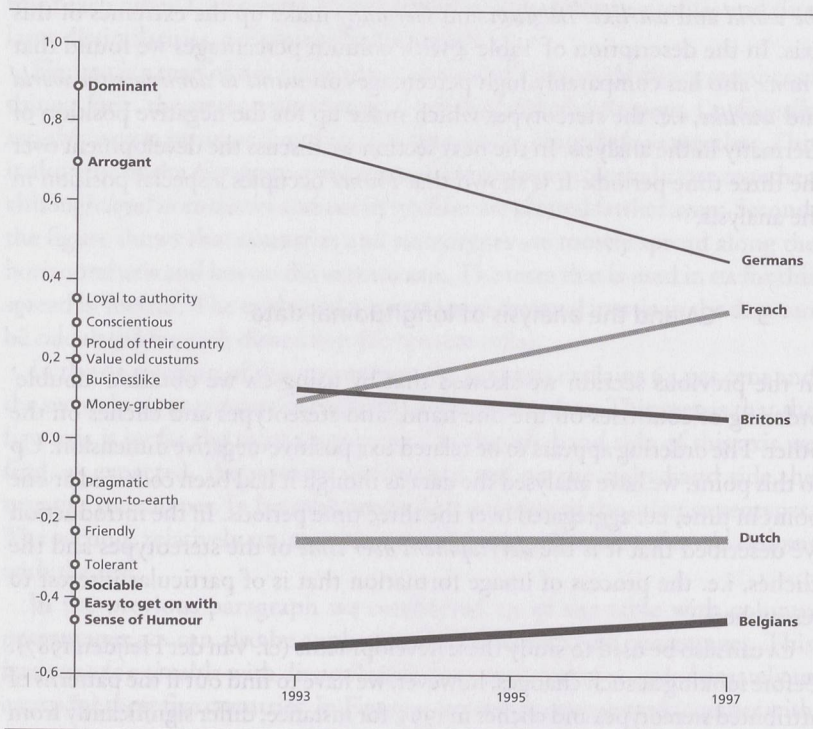
CA can also be used to study these developments (cf. Van der Heijden 1987). Before looking at such changes, however, we have to find out if the patterns of attributed stereotypes and clichés in 1995, for instance, differ significantly from

those in 1993: chi-squared values are calculated using the expected frequencies of the observed numbers of 1995 and observed frequencies of the observed numbers of 1993. Calculations show, first, that the stereotypes in 1993 differ significantly from those in 1995 and 1997 and, second, that the stereotypes in 1995 differ from those in 1997.¹ Similar results are found for the clichés.² Thus, there seems to be a need to study these changes. First, we will explain the technique and then discuss the results.

In the previous section we added up, over the three time points, the tables of counts. The result of this is a (15 x 5) table of stereotypes by countries. We now form a new table by merging the three sub tables (i.e. 1993, 1995 and 1997) next to each other. This gives a (15 x 15) table, i.e. a table with 15 rows (stereotypes) and 15 columns (3 x 5 countries). Using this table we could calculate a table with row proportions. We could then go on to compare the column profiles of, for example, *Belgium in 1993* with *Belgium in 1995*.

This "broad matrix" (Gifi 1994) is analysed using CA. The analysis of this (15 x 15) table by means of CA again shows an ordering on the first dimension (40 per cent of the inertia) from positive to negative stereotypes. On the second dimension (23 per cent) there is a similar differentiation to the one in the

Figure 2 Quantification stereotypes first dimension



previous analysis. In our introduction we mentioned that a lot of concern exists about the fact that some countries are seemingly unalterably negatively evaluated by the interviewees over the three time points. This separation of positive and negative countries appears on the first axis in the CA solution. Therefore, we will concentrate on the first dimension that orders the countries and the stereotypes on precisely this axis, and explicitly take account of the development over time of the stereotypes.

In Figure 2 we present a map of the results of the analysis for the first dimension. On the horizontal axis we find the three time points, i.e. 1993, 1995 and 1997. Vertically, we find the scores (the quantified orderings) of the stereotypes and the 15 time-country points; *Belgium in 1993*, 1995 and 1997, *Germany in 1993*, 1995 and 1997, etc. Given that 15 stereotypes have been analysed, the plot becomes a little fuzzy. However, not each point is equally important in determining this first axis. Greenacre (1984: 67) describes a method that determines the contribution of the points to the inertia of an axis. We calculated the contributions of the stereotypes to the inertia of the first axis. These numbers are not reported here, instead the labels for the stereotypes that carry a considerable weight are shown in bold in Figure 2.³

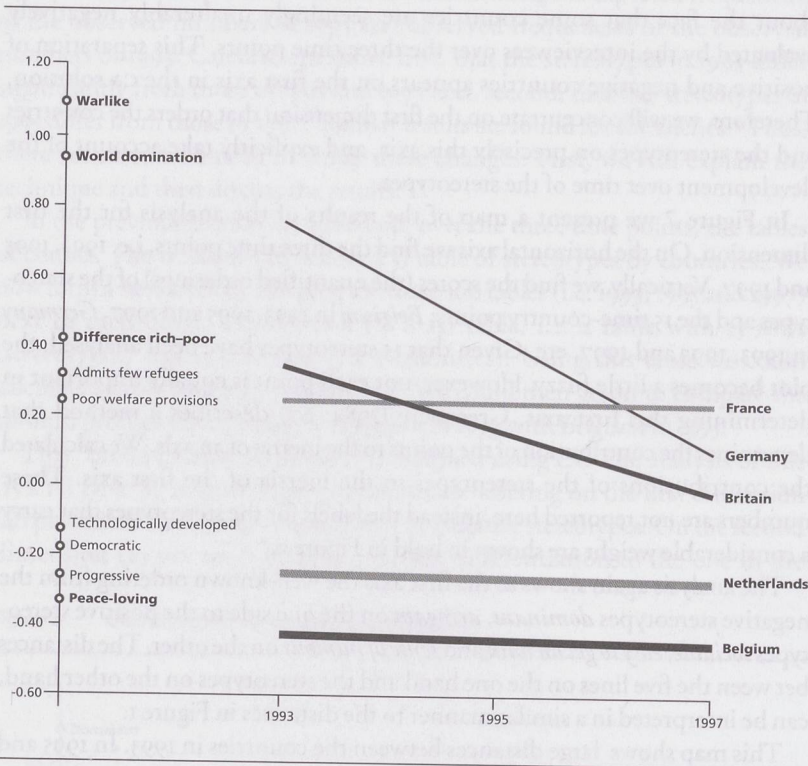
The analysis again shows as the first axis the well-known ordering from the negative stereotypes *dominant*, *arrogant* on the one side to the positive stereotypes *sociable*, *easy to get on with* and *sense of humour* on the other. The distances between the five lines on the one hand and the stereotypes on the other hand, can be interpreted in a similar manner to the distances in Figure 1.

This map shows large distances between the countries in 1993. In 1995 and 1997 the distances became less or, stated differently, the judgements become more similar. Furthermore, in each time period the *Britons* are positioned near the origin in between the inhabitants of the other countries. This confirms our earlier statement that this country and its inhabitants are evaluated or stereotyped in different terms than positive-negative. Finally, the figure shows that in the transition from 1995 to 1997 the *French* become more negatively stereotyped than before. In fact, they are almost as negatively evaluated as the *Germans*.

We now consider the development of the clichés over the three time periods. The three sub-tables are merged into a table that thus contains nine rows (the clichés) and fifteen columns (time-period combinations). The results for the first dimension are shown in Figure 3 in a manner that is similar to Figure 2.⁴ Just as with the stereotypes, clichés that carry a considerable weight⁵ in determining the first dimension are printed in bold, whereas the remaining clichés are printed in standard type.

Figure 3 shows that, similar to the longitudinal analysis of the stereotypes, an ordering exists from positively denominated clichés, such as *peace-loving*, to negatively denominated clichés such as *warlike* and *wants to dominate the*

Figure 3 Quantification clichés first dimension



world. The cliché *difference rich-poor is large* occupies a position in between these extremes but on the negative side. As before, the largest spread exists for the first period; the attributed clichés diverge most in 1993. The distances between the five country lines on the one hand and the clichés on the other hand are interpreted in a similar manner to those in Figures 1 and 2.

Figure 3 leads to the following inferences. On the first dimension there is a division between, on the one hand, a cluster of three more or less negatively evaluated countries: *Germany*, *France* and *Great Britain* and on the other hand a cluster of two countries that are positively evaluated: *Belgium* and the *Netherlands*. The positions these two countries occupy remain fairly stable over the three time periods.

However, the developments over the three time periods of the countries within the negative cluster are not so stable; some fluctuations and even interchanges have taken place. In 1995 the group variance between the countries in the negative cluster was very low; on the positive-negative dimension they hold similar positions. However, a comparison of the positions of *Germany* and *France* before and after 1993 shows that they have exchanged positions; in 1993

Germany was evaluated most negatively but in 1997 this position was occupied by *France*. This exchange was not yet visible in Figure 2 where we analysed the stereotypes, although a trend in that direction is perceivable.

6 Conclusions and discussion

Several aspects of our analyses call for an explanation. First, the longitudinal analyses of both stereotypes and clichés show a separation between two clusters of countries: the first cluster consists of *Germany* and *France* and is associated with negative clichés and stereotypes, whereas the other cluster (*the Netherlands* and *Belgium*) is associated with positive clichés and stereotypes. It is not so easy to establish why *Germany* and *France* are in the negative cluster; a common characteristic is their size: both countries are relatively large whereas the interviewed youngsters come from a small country. Perhaps this leads to an in-group versus out-group reaction, whereby the large countries and their inhabitants belong to the out-group and the small countries to the in-group. This simple model of in-group versus out-group differentiation has been shown to apply in various other situations (cf. Meijerink, van Holsteyn and Mudde 1998).

Second, the exchange of the positions of *Germany* and *France* in 1997. There is in fact *major* opposition between the two clusters and the changes in positions over time should be viewed from this perspective. In our view, small changes in the positions of countries within the negative cluster could well be caused by temporary factors that do not represent stable changes over time. An event that causes negative publicity for a particular country and period could lead to such small changes, especially if the event occurs just before interviews are held. For example, in 1997, there were some severe differences in opinion between *the Netherlands* and *France* with the former being heavily criticized by the latter for its liberal drugs policy and its experiments with hard drugs users. It is not unthinkable that this temporarily influenced the interviewees' opinions about *France* in a negative way. Repeating the research in 1999 could well show that positions within the negative cluster have interchanged again due to some more or less isolated event.

To conclude this article, we will present and subsequently discuss a number of statements on image formation that can be found in the literature and that are based on the analysis of, among others, the Counts of the Clichés and Stereotypes. First, Dekker, Aspeslagh, and Winkel (1997: 7) state, that the attitude in 1997 with respect to *Germany* and the *Germans* had become more positive, but in principle remained unchanged compared to the attitude measured in 1995. Second, the same authors also state that this *negative* attitude with respect to *Germany* is hard to change, because it has been determined by

deeply rooted emotions (the authors apparently refer to the Second World War), something that does not apply to the other countries. However, our analyses show a negative *cluster* of countries (*Germany* and *France*) and not just one country. This finding questions the idea of 'deeply rooted emotions' among youngsters that would go back to the Second World War.

With regard to the first statement: in Figure 3 we saw that not only did *Germany* show a significant change in (relative) position on the positive-negative dimension on two occasions, first from 1993 to 1995 and subsequently from 1995 to 1997, but there has also been an interchange of positions from *France* and *Germany*. This all shows quite clearly that the attitudes or images with respect to *Germany* are not necessarily harder (or easier) to change than those with respect to any other country.

Third, we find in Dekker, Aspeslagh and Du Bois-Remond (1997) the statement that the attitude with respect to *Belgium* has changed considerably: it is stated that by 1997 *Belgium* had lost its position as the most likeable country. However, our Figures 2 and 3 do not point in that direction: *Belgium* remains the country on the extreme positive side of the dimension. Finally, the authors state that the youngsters have a positive attitude to *France* in 1993 and 1995. The attitude did not change until 1997. Again, our analysis indicates differently: *France* and its inhabitants are in the negative cluster over all three periods. Matters just became even worse for *France* and the *French* in 1997.

On the basis of preceding analyses the conclusion may be drawn that it is important to use a proper data analysis method. This also holds for the analysis of count or frequency data. We have used CA for this purpose. It is shown that without such a model one is easily tempted to make absolute statements where only relative statements are justified.

Appendix 1: Counts of stereotypes in 1993, 1995 and 1997

Table A1 Counts of stereotypes in 1993

	Bel	Ger	GB	Fr	NL	Total
Friendly	1037	295	713	610	784	3439
Tolerant	547	235	309	279	823	2193
Sociable	982	274	370	561	987	3174
Businesslike	185	633	817	319	837	2791
Down-to-earth	433	248	505	293	898	2377
Pragmatic	313	356	371	312	881	2233
Easy to get on with	942	188	400	425	921	2876
Sense of honour	1040	252	644	340	1055	3331
Conscientious	178	417	457	256	226	1534
Money-grubber	298	956	442	339	1054	3089
Loyal to authority	255	645	621	279	382	2182
Value old customs	189	281	1137	430	267	2304
Proud of their country	515	1011	847	880	764	4017
Arrogant	78	1032	322	434	211	2077
Dominant	43	1228	295	310	183	2059
Total	7035	8051	8250	6067	10273	39676

Table A2 Counts of stereotypes in 1995

	Bel	Ger	GB	Fr	NL	Total
Friendly	694	365	546	497	614	2716
Tolerant	461	201	246	243	615	1766
Sociable	668	257	327	423	611	2286
Businesslike	106	742	499	199	555	1831
Down-to-earth	272	218	363	155	715	1723
Pragmatic	226	280	269	203	608	1586
Easy to get on with	642	249	331	372	544	2138
Sense of humour	653	216	528	261	625	2283
Conscientious	102	244	305	158	167	976
Money-grubber	183	556	320	209	694	1962
Loyal to authority	204	459	477	266	248	1654
Value old customs	150	168	742	352	210	1622
Proud of their country	442	664	651	703	527	2987
Arrogant	67	465	202	330	172	1236
Dominant	26	650	213	257	136	1282
Total	4896	5464	6019	4628	7041	28048

Table A3 Counts of stereotypes in 1997

	Bel	Ger	GB	Fr	NL	Total
Friendly	773	387	675	441	837	3113
Tolerant	450	258	315	230	793	2046
Sociable	695	300	413	376	856	2640
Businesslike	149	538	575	346	700	2308
Down-to-earth	311	249	391	204	849	2004
Pragmatic	255	344	318	236	732	1885
Easy to get on with	731	285	448	298	791	2553
Sense of humour	729	252	640	232	856	2709
Conscientious	166	252	375	295	207	1295
Money-grubber	286	719	416	386	847	2654
Loyal to authority	201	482	530	294	339	1846
Value old customs	194	189	880	423	206	1892
Proud of their country	467	782	806	804	754	3613
Arrogant	89	577	292	498	181	1637
Dominant	39	733	241	465	188	1666
Total	5535	6347	7315	5528	9136	33861

Appendix 2: Counts of clichés in 1993, 1995 and 1997

Table A4 Counts of clichés in 1993

	Bel	Ger	GB	Fr	NL	Total
Democratic	728	823	691	691	1270	4203
Progressive	385	703	379	448	1057	2972
Peace-loving	937	335	607	579	1201	3659
Technologically developed	374	973	507	505	1264	3623
Difference rich-poor is large	119	479	773	492	124	1987
Poor welfare provisions	244	235	494	504	31	1508
Admits few refugees	366	505	670	388	134	2063
Wants to dominate the world	10	799	211	183	42	1245
Warlike	16	787	96	120	26	1045
Total	3179	5639	4428	3910	5149	22305

Table A5 Counts of clichés in 1995

	Bel	Ger	GB	Fr	NL	Total
Democratic	759	762	731	719	960	3931
Progressive	367	632	392	402	772	2565
Peace-loving	746	488	586	580	813	3213
Technologically developed	392	762	540	465	851	3010
Difference rich-poor is large	103	195	336	338	78	1050
Poor welfare provisions	156	88	225	285	5	759
Admits few refugees	171	235	420	257	53	1136
Wants to dominate the world	6	188	90	107	15	406
Warlike	9	173	45	49	7	283
Total	2709	3523	3365	3202	3554	16353

Table A6 Counts of clichés in 1997

	Bel	Ger	GB	Fr	NL	Total
Democratic	733	758	722	706	1064	3983
Progressive	429	668	508	508	968	3081
Peace-loving	813	531	706	504	1000	3554
Technologically developed	609	827	759	692	1155	4042
Difference rich-poor is large	164	335	337	501	119	1456
Poor welfare provisions	280	164	204	371	13	1032
Admits few refugees	234	377	451	376	75	1513
Wants to dominate the world	9	222	99	319	34	683
Warlike	11	223	43	227	2	506
Total	3282	4105	3829	4204	4430	19850

Notes

1. $\chi_{1993,1995}^2 = 2075$, $\chi_{1993,1997}^2 = 3383$ and $\chi_{1995,1997}^2 = 1154$.
2. $\chi_{1993,1995}^2 = 4622$, $\chi_{1993,1997}^2 = 5267$ and $\chi_{1995,1997}^2 = 1244$.
3. At least 8% of the inertia of the first axis.
4. The eigenvalue $\lambda = 0.365$ which corresponds to 41 % of the total inertia.
5. At least 10% of the inertia of the first axis.

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