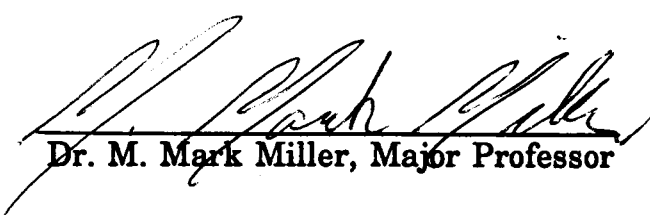
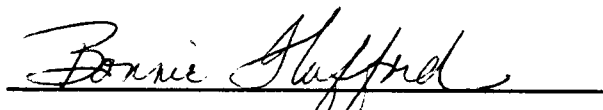
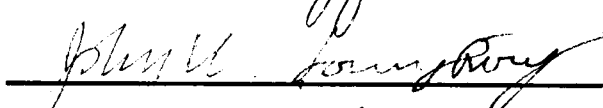


To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a thesis written by C. Shelley Lose entitled "National Stereotypes and Perceived Mass Media Use." I have examined the final copy of this thesis for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science, with a major in Communications.


Dr. M. Mark Miller, Major Professor

We have read this thesis
and recommend its acceptance:


Accepted for the Council:


Associate Vice Chancellor
and Dean of the Graduate School

**NATIONAL STEREOTYPES
AND PERCEIVED MASS MEDIA EXPOSURE**

A Thesis

Presented for the

Master of Science

Degree

The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Catherine Shelley Lose

August, 1994

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

There are many people who have directly or indirectly helped me in the course of this research. I am indebted to my thesis committee: Dr. Bonnie Hufford, whose dynamic teaching furthered my interest in international topics; Dr. Jeff Wilkinson, whose offer of help saved the day; and Dr. John Lounsbury, whose friendship and generosity made my entire graduate career easier. This thesis would not have been written without the commitment and guidance of my major professor, Dr. M. Mark Miller, whose expertise and experience are matched by his patience and good humor.

I am grateful to the gang of Swedes, most especially Ola Johansson, for being my inspiration.

Above all, I thank my parents, David and Betti Lose, whose unflagging love and encouragement make all things possible.

ABSTRACT

Stereotyping has been shown to be a significant force in the way individuals view and evaluate the world. Studies of sex-role stereotyping and racial stereotyping have demonstrated that media have some effect on the formation and perpetuation of stereotypes. This study focuses on the national stereotypes of Germans, English, French and Swedes held by Americans, and whether these stereotypes are correlated with perceived media use.

Using a groundbreaking study by Katz and Braly (1933) as a guide, an adjective checklist-type questionnaire designed to measure the stereotypes of these four national groups was developed through a series of unstructured interviews with undergraduates. Questions about perceived media exposure to the national groups through TV news, TV entertainment, movies, newspapers, magazines and advertising were added to the questionnaire. Other factors, including language study, travel experience, perceived knowledge about and relationships with members of the national groups were also measured.

A concept map of the adjectives and the nationalities was generated, along with a dendogram and frequency scale. From these analyses, a concrete picture of the stereotype of the Germans, English, French and Swedes emerged. Germans were described as "beer-drinking," "hard-working," "stubborn," "nationalistic," "disciplined" and "racist." The English were "witty," "proper," "articulate," "formal," "conservative," "sophisticated" and "intelligent." The French stereotype was

"dirty," "passionate," "sexy" and "arrogant." The Swedes were described as "naive," "shy," "dumb," "wholesome," "healthy," "blond," "laid-back," "good-looking," "friendly," "clean" and "sexy."

Stereotyping was then compared with perceived mass media use and the other factors listed above. No significant correlation was found between stereotyping and perceived mass media exposure or between stereotyping and language study, travel experience, perceived knowledge about and relationships with members of the national groups.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER	PAGE
1 INTRODUCTION AND REVIEW OF LITERATURE.....	1
Introduction.....	1
Literature Review.....	4
2 METHOD.....	18
Adjective Checklist Development.....	18
Questionnaire Description.....	25
3 RESULTS.....	27
National Stereotypes.....	28
Stereotypes and Perceived Media Exposure.....	40
Stereotypes and Other Factors.....	43
4 CONCLUSIONS.....	46
LIST OF REFERENCES.....	52
APPENDIXES.....	56
A. Survey Questionnaire.....	57
B. Percentage Endorsing Non-Related Adjectives.....	65
VITA.....	66

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND REVIEW OF LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

A stereotype may be defined as a generalization or belief about a group of people, which may or may not have any basis in fact, that serves as an evaluative "starting point" for individuals dealing with a member of the stereotyped group. There is an extensive body of literature on the content of cultural and national stereotypes. The media have been shown to have a substantial effect on the perpetuation of sexual stereotypes (Frueh 1975, Miller 1989), and can change them (Haavio-Manila 1972). However, the role of the media in the formation and perpetuation of ethnic stereotypes has not been studied extensively. A question of this magnitude can only be examined effectively by considering smaller questions first.

Do these stereotypes of different ethnic groups perpetuated in the minds of Americans exposed to them through the media or other sources? Which media are perceived to transmit images of ethnic groups? Is reported media exposure to these images correlated with stereotype-holding? Is travel experience, language study, reported knowledge about the ethnic groups or friendships with members of ethnic groups correlated with ethnic stereotypes? It frequently has been observed that Americans must overcome ethnocentrism in order to communicate effectively with other cultures. Analyzing stereotypes Americans hold of other cultures

and how they relate to media images is a vital step toward achieving this goal.

The need for better intercultural communication has been stressed repeatedly. In this age of European unification and worldwide diplomacy, this need is even more pressing. Modern technology makes worldwide communication fast and easy, but it does not necessarily help nations understand each other; it is worth remembering that some predicted world peace with the invention of the telegraph. Researchers have tried to define better ways of understanding different cultures from a variety of different perspectives. There are hundreds of ways to approach this complex problem; some researchers have focused on macro-analysis, examining meaning and context roles in communication of different cultures (Hall 1976), while others have worked with specific segments of the issue, through such innovations as role-playing workshops for business executives (Friday 1989).

Stereotypes are not necessarily harmful. However, we use them to predict and understand the world around us, which can limit thought and exposure to new ideas (Barna 1982). The study of stereotypes of various ethnic groups should have particular relevance to the information gatherers and distributors of the mass media. Awareness and understanding of commonly-held cultural stereotypes can help U.S. mass media practitioners avoid reinforcing these stereotypes in the minds of their audiences. Professionals in the mass media also have the opportunity to challenge these stereotypes through their work.

Knowledge of stereotypes is important for anyone working in the ever-growing field of intercultural communication in business, media or government. Awareness of stereotypes can facilitate understanding and communication between different cultural groups, helping them overcome negative preconceptions and allowing for an open exchange of ideas.

Observing national stereotypes of all kinds in U.S. media is not difficult. The stereotype of the Swedish woman as blonde, beautiful and slightly stupid can be seen in movies and commercials; "The Swedish Bikini Team," for example. Swedes often are depicted as masseuses, while all speak with a strong, lilting accent. The lovable Swedish Chef of the Muppets is unintelligible while he makes his meatballs. French people, who are all gourmet cooks, are pictured carrying bread and wearing berets. They hate Americans and are elitists. British people are uptight, inflexible and aristocratic, or drunken Cockneys. German stereotypes of blond Nazis are portrayed on TV and in films; often, villains look and sound German, even if they are not explicitly identified as such. Darth Vader's evil officers in the *Star Wars* trilogy exemplify this more subtle form of ethnic stereotyping. However, this is not a content analysis of these stereotypes, nor is the question of whether these stereotypes are founded on "a kernel of truth" relevant to this study.

This study examines American-held stereotypes of four ethnic groups: Germans, English, French and Swedes. What are the stereotypes of these different cultures, and where in the media are they transmitted? A survey designed to measure respondents' stereotypes of these groups and perceived media exposure to images of them will be administered to a

sample of undergraduate students. Factors such as language study, perceived knowledge about each country, travel experience, and relationships with members of the ethnic groups will be considered and correlated with data on media exposure and stereotypes.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Stereotypes. Walter Lippmann wrote that stereotypes are a way of conserving thought, existing because people are told or imagine things before actually seeing or experiencing them. We then “project onto the world what has been preserved in memory” (59). Thus, stereotypes become a uniquely personal interpretation, allowing us to understand and feel comfortable in our place in the world. Although Lippmann does not explore ethnic or national stereotypes in depth, he names the stereotypes of “the volatile Irish, the logical French, the disciplined Germans, the ignorant Slavs, the honest Chinese, and the untrustworthy Japanese” (97).

Lippmann's idea that individuals project their own beliefs onto the world for reassurance is supported by the concept of ethnocentrism, or the attitude that one's own culture is superior to other cultures. Stephan and Rosenfield (1982) summarize Campbell's (1967) basic rules about the effect of ethnocentric biases on stereotypes:

1. The greater the real differences between groups on any particular custom, detail of physical appearance, or item of material culture, the more likely it is that the feature will

appear in the stereotyped imagery each group has of the other.

2. Those trait differences involved in intergroup interaction will be most strongly and accurately represented in mutual stereotypes.

3. Those traits which have well-established rejection responses associated with them for within group usage will be most apt to be perceived in outgroup stereotypes.

4. Differences between the ingroup and outgroup, if sufficient to be noted, will be exaggerated in the mutual stereotypes each hold of the other.

5. There is a "tendency to perceive racial rather than environmental causes for group differences" (105).

Stephan and Rosenfield state ingroups and outgroups can have vastly different interpretations of each other's cultural traits; the ingroup's "friendliness" may be perceived by the outgroup as "intrusive," or "forward." Even the ingroup's own ethnocentrism may be perceived by members of the ingroup as "loyalty" and "patriotism," while members of the outgroup may label this behavior as "clannishness" or "favoritism."

Diverse interpretations of the same cultural trait obviously can cause major misunderstandings between individuals of different cultural backgrounds. Barna (1982) says stereotypes help reduce the threat of the unknown by making the world predictable. However, he notes

Stereotypes are stumbling blocks for communicators because they interfere with objective viewing of stimuli--the sensitive search for cues to guide the imagination toward the other person's reality. They are not easy to overcome in ourselves or to correct in others...stereotypes persist because they are firmly established as myths or truisms by one's own national culture and because they sometimes rationalize prejudices. They are also sustained and fed by the tendency to perceive selectively only those pieces of new information that correspond to the image held....the stereotype for the visitor becomes a reality (349).

As Troler and Hamilton observe, "stereotypes have a directive effect on our attentional processes, influencing *what* we perceive, but can also guide our interpretation of what we do observe, thereby influencing *how* we perceive." Thus the holder of a stereotype perceives all new information through the distorting lens of the stereotype.

Rothbart et. al. (1978) add that the type of information received about a group may influence its stereotype. They have suggested that "extreme instances of ingroup behavior may be counterbalanced by all the other information we have about our ingroup, whereas our relative ignorance of the outgroup may lead us to accept extreme instances of outgroup behaviors as highly representative" (254). Troler and Hamilton (1986) cite four studies in addition to those discussed here indicating subjects are more likely to recall information conforming to stereotypic expectancies than information not consistent with these expectancies. Perry (1987) notes that "when ordinary people generalize about objects or events, the size of the sample or their knowledge about its freedom from bias often make little difference" (416). These studies suggest the adage "people believe what they want to believe" may be used quite aptly to describe the difficulties in correcting or altering stereotypes.

Stereotypes are not static; some researchers have found they are affected by worldwide diplomacy. Buchanan and Cantril (1953) found in their nine-country survey of stereotypes that "there exists in all nine countries surveyed a tendency to ascribe certain characteristics to certain people... stereotypes of one's own countrymen are invariably in flattering terms....the prevalence of complimentary over derogatory terms in a

national stereotype is a good index of friendliness between nations" (57). Rothbart and John (1993) note the 19th-century American stereotype of the Chinese generally was positive when Chinese immigrants worked on the transcontinental railroad, but became negative when they began to compete with Americans for jobs. Events such as the forced migration of Japanese-Americans to internment camps during World War II support this conclusion. Although none of the internees had been charged with any crime, and many later served in the U.S. armed forces with distinction, it was assumed by many that anyone of Japanese descent was suspect.

Media coverage clearly reflects changing diplomacy trends, possibly helping affect stereotypes. For example, Klineberg (1950) cites a content analysis of *New York Times* editorials written from 1917-1946 that found the editorials were slanted consistently against the Soviet Union, improving only when the Soviets sided with the West against the Axis powers during World War II.

Some disagreement exists among researchers about the harmfulness of stereotypes. Brislin (1982) says some stereotypical categories mask individual differences, but all categories are not necessarily harmful, "conservatives," "academics" or "educators," for example. He adds "the link between prejudice and stereotype has become strong...refusal to deal with them (stereotypes), however, means a refusal to deal with one of the most basic aspects of thinking and communication" (370). Klineberg's (1950) view of stereotypes is more negative, asserting "stereotypes may be inevitable, but they are always dangerous" (123). Brigham (1973) has pointed out that like Klineberg, most researchers

generally assert that ethnic or national stereotypes are undesirable, but there is no consensus on the explanation for this. Researchers have classified these generalizations as undesirable stereotypes for a variety of reasons: "they are factually incorrect; they are products of a 'faulty' or illogical thought process; they are characterized by inordinate rigidity; they are derived from an inadequate basis of acquisition, such as hearsay; they are consensual beliefs within a culture, perhaps implying a lack of individual thought; they serve a rationalization function for ethnic prejudice" (Brigham 2006).

Before addressing whether stereotypes are undesirable, understanding what specifically constitutes the stereotype must first be identified. Then, it becomes possible to study what effect mass media may have on stereotypes.

Content of National Stereotypes

As Rothbart et. al. have noted (1978), "research on the nature of group stereotypes has focused far more on the description of social stereotypes than on the mechanisms or processes implicated in their formation" (237). Katz and Braly's (1933) study is a groundbreaking example of this type of research, examining the stereotypes of ten ethnic groups held by 100 Princeton students. The researchers developed a list of adjectives by pre-testing 25 Princeton students, supplementing the list with their own additions. The subjects were asked to choose as many of these adjectives as needed to describe each ethnic group, adding their own adjectives as they wished. Next, the subjects reviewed the adjectives they

had selected for each group and marked the five adjectives they felt were "most typical" of each group. By calculating the percentage of subjects who marked each adjective as "most typical," the researchers developed ranked lists of the 12 most frequently used adjectives for each ethnic group.

The researchers found a very clear picture emerged of the stereotype of blacks, Germans and Jews, while the stereotypes of Chinese, Japanese and Turks were defined less clearly; possibly, the static list of adjectives is at fault. Katz and Braly write, "...in the case of the Negroes we can find 50 percent of the votes or selections of traits in 4.6 traits" (287), while 50 percent of the votes to describe Germans were found in 5.0 traits. The researchers note "the agreement here is very high, and even in the case of the Turks where 15.9 traits must be included to give 50 percent of the possible 500 assignments of selections, the voting is far from a chance selection" (287).

Germans were identified as "scientifically-minded" by 78 of the students, "industrious" by 65 of the students, and "stolid" by 44 of them. Katz and Braly conclude these findings "seem consistent with the popular stereotype to be found in newspapers and magazines." Negroes were characterized as "superstitious" by 84 students and "lazy" by 75; the researchers observe that these adjectives "are somewhat similar to the picture of the Negro as furnished by *The Saturday Evening Post*" (286), the researchers observe. Seventy-nine of the students selected "shrewd" to describe Jews, and 49 chose "mercenary."

The researchers conclude "the degree of agreement among students in assigning characteristics from a list of 84 adjectives to different races seems too great to be the sole result of the students' contacts with members of these races" (288). Subjects will convince themselves any individual they meet who contradicts the stereotype is merely an exception, thus "any characteristic can become attached to any race and stick there with scarcely any factual basis" (288). Therefore, stereotypes may be a matter of both public and private attitude.

Brigham (1971) has noted most researchers seeking to define the content of ethnic or national stereotypes have used the Katz and Braly framework, often using the same list of 84 adjectives in translation if necessary. He lists seven studies in addition to those discussed here which do so.

The Katz and Braly method has been used by researchers in many different countries. Buchanan and Cantril's 1953 survey for UNESCO, *How Nations See Each Other*, also explored ethnic stereotypes through an adjective-list method. Their questionnaire provided a list of only 12 adjectives to describe each ethnic group, and included an "impossible to characterize" option. In all, five nations were characterized by a varying number of national groups; the Russians by eight national groups, the French and British by themselves and three others, the Chinese by three others and the Americans by themselves and seven others. The researchers found that the stereotypes of the Russians and the Americans were the most consistent across the national groups, while the stereotypes of the other three nations were not as clear. While acknowledging that

although the limited adjective list may have prevented subjects from describing other ethnic groups effectively, Buchanan and Cantril conclude that the "stereotyped view of certain peoples is common property of the Western culture rather than the effect of bilateral national outlooks that differ from one country to another" (50).

Other researchers have shown stereotyping is not unique to Western cultures. Rath and Das (1958) developed their own list of 60 adjectives when examining stereotypes held by Indian students of themselves and Americans, Russians, Chinese and British. The subjects stereotyped themselves the most consistently, choosing as many as 23 adjectives; five positive traits (religious, peace-loving, hospitable, idealistic and artistic) chosen the most often. The subjects chose six derogatory traits to describe themselves, none to describe the Chinese, two for Russians, 10 for Americans, and 11 for the British. Klineberg (1980) cites four studies using the adjective-list approach conducted in Japan, the Philippines, Pakistan and Lebanon.

The Role of the Media The role of the media in shaping and perpetuating national or ethnic or national stereotypes is not well-defined. Rath and Das (1958) found different social groups overwhelmingly agreed on the stereotypes of four different ethnic groups. They conclude since the different social groups did not associate with each other, "this common pool of stereotypes for the four foreign nationalities

must have been derived from the popular newspapers which again are almost the same for the educated people of this state" (384). Klineberg (1950) describes content analyses and quantitative analyses of various media containing ethnic or national stereotypes, including books, magazine fiction, newspapers and school textbooks.

Although the role of the media in shaping national or ethnic stereotypes is unclear, the role of the media in perpetuating some kinds of stereotypes is comparatively well-documented.

Sex-role stereotypes It has been demonstrated repeatedly (Tuchman 1979, Miller and Everett 1989, Libert and Sprafkin 1988, Ruble and Ruble 1982) forms of the media, including television, magazines, books, movies, music and advertising, contain sex-role stereotypes. Sex-role stereotypes are prevalent in ads, books and television programming for children (Maclin and Kolbe 1984, Muehlenhard 1983). As Weinraub (1983) notes, numerous studies have demonstrated that adults in our society have sex-role stereotypes. Further, she cites evidence that adults and children "modify their behaviors and their perceptions in a variety of situations in accordance with these stereotypes."

Tuchman (1979) says researchers have established that

1. boys and girls pay particular attention to children of their own gender performing gender-typed tasks;
2. they can reproduce these tasks;
3. sex-stereotyped content prompts from children traditional responses about women's roles;
4. content contradicting dominant stereotypes prompts less traditional views;

5. the more television girls watch, the more traditional are their views and aspirations (539).

Through a detailed survey of 80 children and their parents, Frueh and McGhee (1975) measured children's sex-role stereotypes and found a positive correlation between high television watching and traditional sex-role developments. They conclude "high amounts of television watching are clearly associated with stronger traditional sex-role development. The lack of interaction effects suggests that this relationship holds equally for boys and girls, and it does not change with increasing age" (109). Ruble and Ruble (1982) write, "If children learn sex stereotypes from the media, then showing characters engaged in nontraditional roles should lead to a decrease in stereotyping" (230).

Ruble and Ruble (1982) list five studies in addition to those discussed here which suggest adults, as well as children, are influenced by cultural norms and same-sex models portrayed in the media. Weinraub (1983) notes "The evidence so far is suggestive that television may contribute to the development of sex-role stereotypes. It is possible, however, that TV programming simply perpetuates existing sex-role stereotypes in society." Ruble and Ruble (1982) add, "it may be argued that the mass media play a key role in both the formation and the maintenance of gender-related beliefs and behavior" (229).

Haavio-Manila (1972) found that media campaigns can change sex-role stereotypes as well as reinforce them. From 1966 to 1970, Finland produced a media campaign designed to replenish the workforce by encouraging women to find jobs outside the home. The campaign

emphasized the equality of men and women, and sparked a lively debate throughout the country. Pre-test and post-test changes in attitudes revealed a shift from 50 percent of the sample to 80-90 percent in favor of equality for women. Haavio-Manila concluded "it is evidently most difficult to influence either attitudes or behavior at the microlevel of the family" (102), especially concerning household duties. Changes also seem difficult to achieve in work relations. She noted "these opinion changes may be superficial; they may not affect practically important areas of everyday life" (109). However, her findings indicating the media can have a positive impact toward mitigating and even altering harmful stereotypes are significant to mass media practitioners.

Racial Stereotypes Rich (1974) notes that books, newspapers and magazines project racial stereotypes. She says that entertainment mass media, including television and motion pictures, historically have presented blacks as "types," while whites were depicted as multi-dimensional characters. Gandy and Matabane (1989) say many current successful television programs feature black characters whose race does not seem to affect their lives noticeably, and these portrayals reassure whites while doing little to reflect accurately the lifestyles of the majority of black America. Gist (1990) notes that in her research on news coverage,

little evidence was found of 'mainstreaming' minorities on any of several fronts: First, minorities were underrepresented as quoted sources in news stories, as indicated by the extremely low frequency of Asian, Native American or Latino surnames used in referencing quoted

sources. Further, reporters in the studies commented frequently that they either didn't have or did not use source networks in minority communities in their coverage areas. When minority sources were used, there was heavy reliance on a very few individuals, such as church leaders, activists, etc. (54).

Gist found the vast majority of news articles about minorities was negative, and the few positive articles about minorities tended to be about athletics or entertainment, or were "positive examples out of a negative context (e.g., African-American youth breaks away from street gangs, etc.)." Despite these discouraging articles, Dovidio and Gaertner (1986) cite evidence from four studies in addition to those discussed here indicating egalitarian trends in mass media portrayals of African-Americans and other minorities.

Gandy and Matabane (1989) say measuring the effects of exposure to media content is both methodological and conceptual: "Effects that are conceived of as being group, cultural or aggregate are too often measured at the individual level. Because effects at the interpersonal and institutional/societal levels are too difficult to measure, they tend to be ignored." As Rothbart and John (1993) observe,

It is fair to say that for most groups, our knowledge comes more from indirect sources like media, parents, and schools than from direct sources, but the exact mixture of indirect and direct sources depends on the group and the context of intergroup perception (41).

Determining this "exact mixture" is not a problem in the study of media effects on sex-role stereotypes; it is impossible to avoid mixing with members of the opposite sex, but it is possible to avoid contact with

members of other races. Also, it is difficult to separate racial stereotypes from socio-economic stereotypes, a problem not nearly as significant to the study of sex-role stereotypes or stereotypes of the Western European national groups addressed by this study.

Despite these difficulties and the corresponding lack of research on the subject, some evidence exists that media portrayals of blacks and other minorities can and does affect stereotypes. Rich (1990) writes that

recent research in the organizational sciences has demonstrated clearly the influence of various forms of modeling on self-efficacy and subsequent performance. Participants who were exposed to strong, positive modeling experiences developed stronger self-beliefs and subsequently outperformed those who did not benefit from positive modeling experiences. Importantly, the more similar to oneself the model is-- in age, race, gender, etc.-- the more powerful the modeled effects (57-58).

Rich concludes that biased representations of blacks in the media cause an "impact wider than minority youth; these reporting practices maintain and further existing stereotypes that whites hold of minorities as well" (58).

Ogles (1991) writes "the power of televised symbolic content in the formation of social reality has been demonstrated by positive correlations between the amount of television survey respondents consume and their tendency to express views about aspects of reality that are consistent with the ways those aspects of reality are treated in televised portrayals" (2). His study of TV viewing and perceived racial assimilation found "perceptions of real-world racial assimilation are related to television viewing habits in subtle and non-obvious ways" (14).

Study plan This study will explore the possibility that national stereotypes, like sex and race stereotypes, may be perpetuated by the media. The study will focus on national stereotypes of the people of Germany, England, France and Sweden. By choosing these four rich, western European countries, racial and socio-economic considerations are kept to a minimum, allowing the study to explore stereotypes based on cultural differences alone. A survey will be developed following the Katz and Braly model, using an adjective checklist. In order to update the 61-year-old Katz and Braly adjective list, a series of loosely-structured interviews with undergraduates will be conducted. Descriptors gathered from these interviews will be consolidated into an updated adjective list for use in the survey questionnaire. The survey will be administered to a sample of University of Tennessee undergraduates, and will measure stereotypes of the people of Germany, England, France and Sweden. Data about respondents' perceived media exposure to images of these groups through TV entertainment, TV news, magazines, movies, newspapers and advertising will be gathered. The data about stereotypes will be analyzed through a concept map and a dendogram. Information gained about stereotypes will be correlated with the media exposure data, as well as with information about travel experience, language study, perceived knowledge of each country, and relationships with members of these four national groups.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

ADJECTIVE CHECKLIST DEVELOPMENT

A questionnaire featuring adjective checklists was developed to determine each respondent's stereotypes of Swedes, Germans, French and English. In order to test the relationship between stereotypes and perceived media use, this questionnaire included items regarding which media respondents perceive to mention these four national groups most often. The questionnaire included a section about demographic characteristics, travel experience, and relationships with members and perceived knowledge about the national groups.

As Brigham (1971) noted, most studies defining common stereotypes of various ethnic or national groups follow the Katz and Braly model. This model provides subjects with a list of adjectives to choose from to describe each group; many use exactly the same list of adjectives as Katz and Braly. Although these studies typically instruct subjects to add any adjectives they feel would be more descriptive, this instruction is meaningless when the stereotype of each group is obtained by computing the percentage of subjects choosing each adjective on the list. Triandis and Vassiliou (1967) add, "there is no reason to believe that the traits that are most relevant to the particular group will be represented in the adjective lists and thus will appear in the results of the study." Duijker and Frijda (1960) discuss the weaknesses of the adjective-list model:

First of all, the respondent is forced to choose between a series of verbally formulated alternatives. In view of the differences in speech and vocabulary between various social strata and between regions in the same country, it is doubtful whether the choice is determined exclusively by the words in their academically accepted meaning. In the most literal sense this technique puts words in the respondent's mouth (122).

Further, many of the adjective lists used in other studies are not contemporary enough to be reliable in this study; as noted above, Brigham (1971) observes that many adjective-list studies use the list developed by Katz and Braly (1933).

Unstructured interviews A series of unstructured one-on-one interviews were conducted with 13 subjects, allowing them to come up with their own adjectives to describe national groups by asking an open-ended question about each national group; e.g., "What comes to mind when you think about Swedes?" Szalay (1978) says free association investigations such as this one typically use a single word as the stimulus. In this case, the stimulus word was the name of the national group. This method allowed subjects to say exactly what they mean, rather than having to choose the word closest in meaning from a list. Szalay (1978) observes the simplicity and immediacy of free associations "makes them...much closer to the stable, significant aspects of the subjective representation of the world than an equivalent set of fully articulated sentences about the stimuli," and thus can reveal much about the culture of the subjects tested. Wimmer and Dominick (1994) note unstructured

interviews like this allow interviewers "freedom in determining what questions should be asked in order to obtain the required information" (128), which results in "an expanse and depth" not possible in highly structured interviews. The researcher was able to press the interviewees for more descriptors, allowing for a fuller and more comprehensive list of descriptors for use in the development of the final questionnaire. From these interviews, a more current, reliable list of adjectives was developed for use in the survey.

A small sample of thirteen communications undergraduates that were similar in age and college major to the eventual questionnaire respondents were interviewed. They were asked, "what comes to mind when you think about German people?" After answering, respondents were pressed for more information with questions such as "can you think of another way of saying that?", in order to obtain the most descriptive words and phrases possible. This process was completed with all four national groups, helping ensure the adjectives selected for use on the survey questionnaire were words that individuals of similar age and background would use to describe the national groups in question.

Few adjective-list models describe how the list of adjectives was obtained. As observed above, Triandis and Vassiliou (1967) criticize adjective-list models because the most relevant words may not be included on the adjective list. Similarly, Duijker and Frijda (1960) object to adjective-list models because the technique does not allow respondents to use their own words, preventing them from expressing their views effectively. Although this study does not overcome all difficulties

associated with the adjective-checklist model, it attempted to address these concerns by developing the adjective checklist through unstructured interviews, obtaining pertinent adjectives for use on the survey questionnaire. These interviews were conducted with a sample of students similar in background to the eventual survey questionnaire respondents.

The descriptors given by interviewees in these tape-recorded interviews were broken down into a list for each country and separated into groups of words that the researcher judged similar in meaning. From these lists, words which seemed most representative of what interviewees had said were selected for use on the checklist portion of the questionnaire. An effort was made to select words that conceivably could be used to describe any or all of the national groups; for example, "Oktoberfest" was not selected, because it is clearly German, nor was the English "pub." Instead, the more neutral, all-encompassing word "beer-drinking" was selected, since it could be used to describe the basic characteristics covered by both the country-specific "Oktoberfest" and "pub."

Additional words which seemed necessary to the researcher, usually antonyms of words gathered from the interviews, completed the list of adjectives used in the questionnaire. The researcher judged 42 adjectives would be sufficient and reasonable for the adjective checklist. Figure 1 illustrates this process, and demonstrates how words that were or could be used across all four national groups were selected; the table does not

GERMANY

arrogant demanding strong-minded hard-headed	}	stubborn, arrogant
Hitler Holocaust genocide violence darkness	}	nationalistic
Oktoberfest beer drinkers German beer	}	beer-drinking
strong people resilient can endure strong stout work ethic harsh people	}	hard-working
rigid uptight strict regimented orderly	}	stubborn, disciplined
straightforward opinionated more blunt not as polite to the point	}	straightforward, rude
sort of shy not aggressive quiet laid-back helpful	}	shy, laid-back
superior smart	}	superior, intelligent
healthy pure clean blond fat	}	healthy, clean, blond

ENGLAND

proper traditional structured customs rules	}	traditional, proper
high-society formal mannered polite dignified cultural	}	sophisticated, formal, cultural
unattractive pale not as clean	}	dirty, ugly
quick-witted sarcasm dry humor	}	witty
intellectual smart sharp intelligent	}	intelligent
pubs drinking	}	beer-drinking
articulate accents speech	}	articulate
standoffish snooty superior haughty uppity overbearing uptight	}	rude, superior
blunt	}	straightforward
relaxed laid-back nice	}	relaxed, laid-back
grumpy crabby	}	grumpy

**FIGURE 1 : DESCRIPTORS GIVEN BY INTERVIEWEES
AND CORRESPONDING QUESTIONNAIRE ADJECTIVES**

FRANCE

hot-blooded high-strung argumentative loud fast-paced	}	high-strung
proud confident	}	proud
quick reaction judgmental opinionated individualistic blunt	}	judgmental, impulsive
attractive stylish beautiful healthy	}	beautiful, good-looking
passionate lovers romantic	}	passionate, sexy
rude snobbish irritable superior	}	rude, grumpy
dirty not as clean smelly	}	dirty
cultural artistic	}	cultural
friendly open nice sweet laid-back fun	}	friendly, laid-back
liberal	}	liberal

SWEDEN

blond fair cute	}	blond
sexy	}	sexy
smiles friendly happy positive	}	friendly
wholesome	}	wholesome
relaxed not uptight laid-back	}	relaxed, laid-back
shy quiet	}	shy
not smart dumb ditzzy	}	dumb
trusting naive	}	naive

WORDS ADDED BY RESEARCHER:

democratic
conservative
inferior

FIGURE 1, CONTINUED

indicate the frequency with which each descriptor appeared, and is intended as a summary only.

The process of interviewing for descriptors and summarizing the descriptors into a coherent, manageable list of adjectives to be used in the adjective checklist portion of the questionnaire also gave valuable insight into the stereotypes which would eventually emerge from analysis of the completed questionnaire. The stereotypes described by the interviewees closely match the stereotypes described by the questionnaire respondents, as outlined in the following chapter.

The results of this process of adjective checklist development confirm the 84-word adjective list developed by Katz and Braly in 1933 is out of date. Some words from the 1933 list, such as "gluttonous," "pugnacious," "ostentatious," "slovenly" and "stolid," are apparently no longer common in the speech or writing of university undergraduates. Some words, such as "intelligent," "straightforward," "conservative," "witty," "sophisticated," "naive," "rude," "passionate" and "arrogant" are present on both lists. Other words on Katz and Braly's list seem to have a synonym on the new list; for example, the 1933 list's "industrious" is closely matched to the new list's "hard-working." Pairs of words following a similar pattern include "conventional" / "traditional" and "reserved" / "shy." An informal word from the older list, "happy-go-lucky," was replaced by "laid-back."

QUESTIONNAIRE DESCRIPTION

The first section of the questionnaire features this new adjective checklist, with the adjectives arranged in alphabetical order. Respondents are asked to "check the words that describe common perceptions of Germany and German people" on the first sheet of adjectives, with similar instructions for the other three groups on three separate sheets, all with identical lists of adjectives. There was no limit to the number of adjectives subjects could choose to describe each national group. As respondents answered the first four pages of the questionnaire, they likely became more familiar with the adjective checklist. The researcher tried to avoid any potential distortion of the results by rotating the order of the first four pages of the questionnaire; some questionnaires asked about Germany and Germans first, others asked about England and the English first, and so on. Responses were coded 2=positive response, 1=negative response.

The second section of the questionnaire determined perceived media exposure to images of the four national groups, asking how often the respondent had "heard, read or seen anything about Germany or Germans in the following media." The respondents checked how often they had been exposed to the national groups through TV news, TV entertainment, movies, newspapers, and advertising, choosing from the options "frequently, often, sometimes, never." Identical questions were asked about the other three groups. Responses were coded 4=frequently, 3=often, 2=sometimes, 1=never.

The respondents were asked, "How much do you feel you know about these countries?" and were provided with the responses "a great deal, a lot, about average, some, very little." Responses were coded 5=a great deal, 4=a lot, 3=about average, 2=some, 1=very little.

The third section of the questionnaire asked for standard demographic information, including age, sex and educational background. Sex was coded 1=male, 0=female, while educational background was coded 4=senior, 3=junior, 2=sophomore, 1=freshman. Additionally, subjects were asked if they had ever traveled to or studied the languages of the countries surveyed (English language excepted). They were also asked if they had ever had any friends or acquaintances from the four countries. Responses for language study and friends and acquaintances were coded 2=positive response, 1=negative response. A complete copy of the questionnaire is included in Appendix A.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

Through a series of unstructured interviews with 13 undergraduate communications majors, an updated, pertinent list of adjectives used by interviewees to describe the Germans, English, French and Swedes was developed. This adjective checklist was part of the survey questionnaire, which would then be used to verify these stereotypes obtained from the interviewing process. To test for correlations between stereotyping and other factors, additional questions about how often respondents had seen, read or heard anything about the four groups in various types of media were added, along with questions about the respondents' travel experience, language study and relationships with members of the national groups.

The questionnaire was administered to a sample of 38 undergraduate students at the University of Tennessee. The students, 27 women and 11 men, were enrolled in two sections of a sophomore-level journalism class, and were similar in age and major to the students interviewed for descriptors earlier. The questionnaire (included in Appendix A) took about 10 minutes for the respondents to complete. The instructions read, "This is a survey designed to measure how people from different countries are perceived. There are no right or wrong answers, and all surveys will remain anonymous. Please work quickly, and answer as honestly as you can." It was hoped the wording of these instructions would prevent or reduce respondent anxiety about reporting negative stereotypes of the national groups. The respondents were provided with a list of 42 adjectives, arranged

alphabetically, based on information obtained from the earlier pre-test interviews. Each national group had a separate page listing the same adjectives, while respondents were instructed to "Check all the words that describe common perceptions of *the country* or *the country's people*. Work quickly." As a result, each adjective had four chances per respondent of being selected, creating a total of 152 opportunities.

The questionnaires were designed so coding would be relatively simple; on the first four pages, respondents checked the blank next to each adjective to indicate a positive response or left the blank unmarked to indicate a negative response. This was coded 2=positive response, 1=negative response.

NATIONAL STEREOTYPES

The resulting data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for Windows software, which resulted in cross-tabulations for each of the adjectives listed, providing percentage and frequency data for each word across each of the national groups. Kendall's tau correlations between the four countries and the 42 adjectives were computed. Words correlating with one of the countries with a correlation coefficient at .3 or higher were considered part of that country's stereotype. The adjectives forming the stereotypes for each national group are presented in Table 1. The first four columns of both Table 1 and Appendix B break down the percentages of positive responses for each word by country, while the fifth column indicates the number of positive responses across all countries. The percentages and numbers of respondents choosing adjectives

TABLE 1
PERCENTAGE ENDORSING ADJECTIVES BY COUNTRY

	Germany	England	France	Sweden	Number
German terms					
racist	78.6	7.1	10.7	3.6	28
beer-drinking	58.3	16.7	5.0	20.0	60
hard-working	49.1	16.4	7.3	27.3	55
stubborn	48.6	32.4	16.2	2.7	37
disciplined	43.9	35.1	10.5	10.5	57
nationalistic	41.8	20.3	24.1	13.9	79
English terms					
witty	7.4	59.3	14.8	18.5	27
proper	16.0	58.0	16.0	10.0	50
articulate	16.0	52.0	24.0	8.0	50
formal	22.6	46.8	24.2	6.5	62
conservative	25.9	41.4	17.2	15.5	58
sophisticated	9.4	40.6	37.5	12.5	64
intelligent	25.0	40.3	18.1	16.7	72
French terms					
dirty	27.8	5.6	61.7	5.6	18
passionate	15.0	18.3	45.0	21.7	60
sexy	6.5	6.5	43.5	43.5	62
arrogant	23.4	33.8	39.0	3.9	77
Swedish terms					
naive	0	0	11.1	88.9	9
shy	0	0	12.5	87.5	8
dumb	9.1	0	9.1	81.8	11
wholesome	3.7	18.4	7.4	70.4	27
healthy	17.0	12.8	8.5	61.7	47
blond	27.1	6.8	6.8	59.3	59
laid-back	4.5	4.5	31.8	59.1	56
good-looking	8.9	5.4	30.4	55.4	22
friendly	15.4	17.3	13.5	53.8	52
clean	11.6	23.3	14.0	51.2	43
sexy	6.5	6.5	43.5	43.5	62

which did not correlate with any of the four national groups are presented in a similar table in Appendix B.

Reliability The groups of words judged to form stereotypes of the four national groups were analyzed for reliability using the SPSS reliability subprogram. This analysis provided insight into how consistently each respondent checked the adjectives forming the stereotype for each national group. The reliability scale alpha was lowest for France, at a disappointing .3677. England was significantly better at .7415; Germany's alpha was .6720; Sweden's was highest at .8236. An alpha scale of .7 is generally considered to indicate an acceptable level of reliability. For a checklist survey of this type, featuring 42 adjectives respondents were to read and evaluate quickly, the level of reliability achieved for all national groups besides France is acceptable. From this, a collective stereotype, as well as each respondent's individual stereotype, of each national group was determined.

Concept Map A concept map based on the frequency and co-occurrence of the 42 adjectives and the four national groups was generated through a computer program developed by M. Mark Miller. The map provides a visual representation, confirming the correlations between the adjectives and the individual countries while clarifying their relationships to each other. The size of each adjective's point on the map was varied according to how many positive endorsements the adjective received across all nationalities; the number of positive endorsements was rounded to the nearest ten, and an

appropriately-sized circle was selected. The size of the points selected to mark each country's location on the map do not vary. The placement of the adjectives on the map is determined by which country or countries the adjective is associated with. The coordinates for the concept map are shown in Table 2, and the concept map is shown in Figure 2.

The concept map clearly shows that Sweden's stereotype was the most distinct, because the adjectives associated with Sweden are the most tightly clustered. The unacceptable reliability of France's stereotype is demonstrated by the scattering of the adjectives associated with France. France itself is not far from England on the concept map, showing the stereotypes of France and England are not as distinct as those of Germany and Sweden. Germany's stereotype is quite distinct, and it is interesting to note that most of the negative adjectives that did not associate with any of the countries like "grumpy," fell in the German portion of the map. Words like "cultural," which was a popular choice but did not associate with any of the countries, are pulled towards the middle of the map, while other words not often selected, like "inferior," also tend to fall in a central location. However, the great difference in the frequencies of positive responses for "cultural" and "inferior" can easily be seen in the sizes of each word's point on the map.

Dendogram. A dendogram, shown in Figure 3, was created through the SPSS program and describes the agglomeration schedule derived from submitting the map coordinates to a hierarchical cluster analysis. This diagram provides useful information about how quickly words clustered with

TABLE 2

COORDINATES OF COUNTRIES AND ADJECTIVES ON CONCEPT MAP

WORD	NORTH/ SOUTH	EAST/ WEST	WORD	NORTH/ SOUTH	EAST/ WEST
Germany	-.38	.70	friendly	.70	.01
beer-drinking	-.14	.56	good-looking	.72	.04
disciplined	-.34	.03	healthy	.67	.12
hard-working	-.09	.41	laid-back	.79	.19
nationalistic	-.23	.18	naive	.91	.28
racist	-.40	.71	sexy	.61	-.03
stubborn	-.46	.33	shy	.91	.22
England	-.32	-.67	wholesome	.77	-.10
articulate	-.24	-.55	cultural	.03	-.14
conservative	-.22	-.25	democratic	.03	-.44
formal	-.29	-.31	grumpy	-.51	.53
intelligent	-.15	-.30	high-strung	-.42	.12
proper	-.19	-.54	impulsive	-.24	.25
sophisticated	-.03	-.54	inferior	.18	.63
witty	-.06	-.51	judgmental	-.54	.05
France	-.03	-.32	liberal	.30	-.20
arrogant	-.35	-.13	proud	-.15	-.04
dirty	-.17	.59	relaxed	.58	-.36
passionate	-.09	-.05	rude	-.53	.30
Sweden	.86	.18	straightforward	-.29	.35
blond	.61	.36	superior	-.40	-.28
clean	.62	-.17	traditional	-.07	-.14
dumb	.83	.39	ugly	-.46	.75

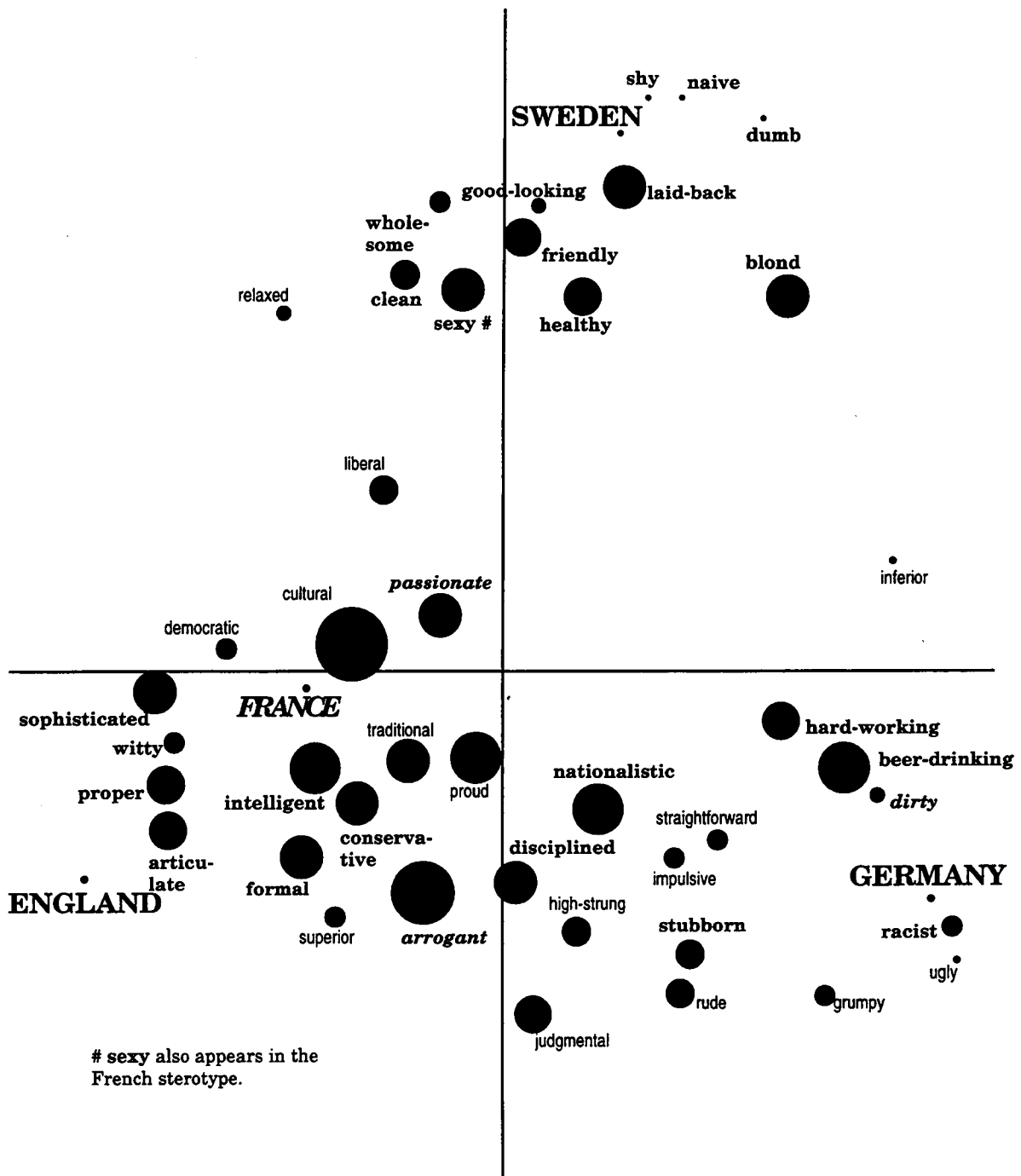
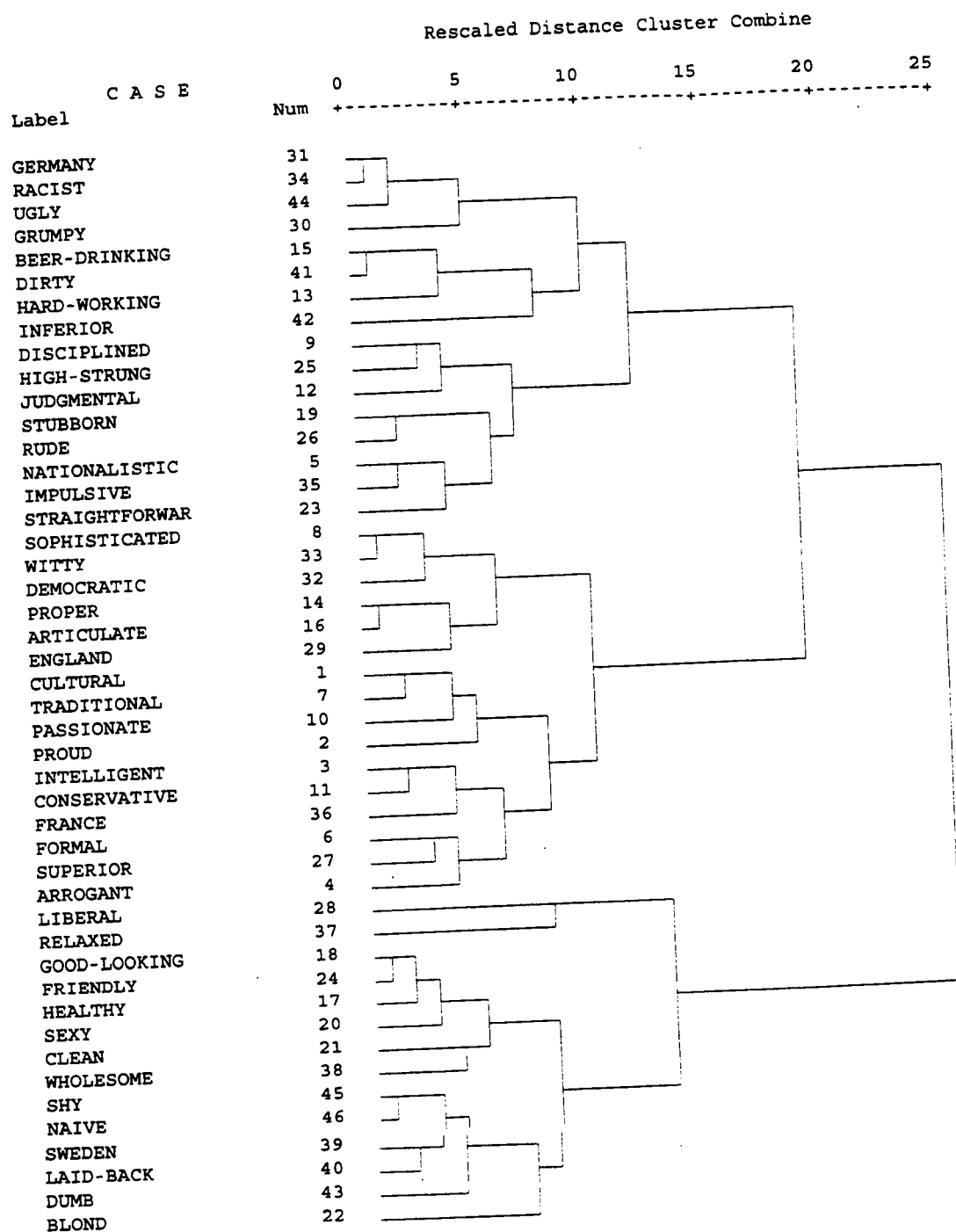


FIGURE 2
CONCEPT MAP OF NATIONAL STEREOTYPES

FIGURE 3
DENDROGRAM OF ADJECTIVES AND COUNTRIES



each other and with the countries. Germany paired with "racist" very early, while Sweden and "laid-back" followed a similar pattern. Words respondents clearly associated with each other included "sophisticated"/"witty" and "proper"/"articulate" for England and "good-looking"/"friendly" and "shy"/"naive" for Sweden. Other words which were not as clearly associated with a specific country quickly associated with each other, like "stubborn"/"rude" and "cultural"/"traditional." France failed to associate with any of the words judged to be its stereotype, reflecting the reliability problems discussed earlier; the words in France's stereotype, "arrogant, sexy, dirty, passionate," failed to cluster with each other as well.

Frequencies and Cross-tabulations As discussed earlier, Table 1 and Appendix B summarize frequency and percentage information for each of the adjectives on the checklist. "Naive" was an unpopular choice, with only nine positive responses. However, the word is strongly associated with Sweden, because all positive responses except one indicated Sweden. On the concept map, "naive" falls close to Sweden. "Shy" follows a similar pattern, with seven of eight positive responses indicating Sweden. It is close to "naive" on the concept map. "Dumb" received 11 positive responses, and nine indicated Sweden; it falls close to "shy" and "naive" on the map. The low number of positive responses for "naive," "shy" and "dumb" is reflected in the small size of the words' points on the concept map. "Laid-back" was chosen 22 times, 13 for Sweden and seven for France. "Blond" received 59 positive responses, with 16 for Germany and 35 for Sweden; although it appears in the Swedish stereotype, it is pulled slightly toward Germany. All

of these words, "shy," "naive," "dumb," and "laid-back" seem to describe personality characteristics; some would argue that "blond" can describe personality as well as hair color. These words, including "blond," cluster together on the dendogram analysis before joining the other group of words associated with Sweden discussed below.

The other cluster of words associated with Sweden seemed to describe mainly physical attributes. "Good-looking" received 31 positive responses for Sweden, with 17 for France. Of 52 positive responses for "friendly," Sweden received 28. Sweden received 29 of the 47 positive responses for "healthy." These words are part of the Swedish stereotype. "Wholesome" was highly associated with Sweden, with 19 of 27 positive responses. "Clean" got 43 positive responses, with 22 for Sweden. All of these words are in the Swedish stereotype. The 62 positive responses for "sexy" were evenly split between France and Sweden, with 27 each. "Sexy" is the only word to appear in more than one country's stereotype; its popularity is indicated with the size of its point on the concept map. Although "sexy" falls closest to Sweden on the map, it is pulled slightly toward France.

"Relaxed" got 24 positive responses, and is notable mainly because no respondents chose Germany; there were 10 each for France and Sweden. "Relaxed" falls between Germany and Sweden, far away from Germany. "Liberal" got 39 positive responses, with 17 for France and 10 for Sweden; these words cluster together on the dendogram.

"Dirty" was chosen 18 times, with 11 indicating France and five for Germany; it falls closer to Germany on the concept map, again showing the

reliability problems with France's stereotype. As indicated by the size of its point on the concept map, "arrogant" received 77 positive responses, 30 for France, 26 for England and 18 for Germany. "Passionate" was associated with France, with 27 of 60 positive responses, with the others spread fairly equally over the other three countries. Along with "sexy," these words were judged to be a part of the French stereotype. These words are not grouped together on the dendogram and did not cluster with France on the concept map, reflecting the low reliability of the French stereotype. Except for "dirty," these words were popular choices across all four nationalities, which may help explain why France's stereotype is not as distinct.

Although it was not a common choice, "racist" was very highly associated with Germany, which received 22 of the 28 positive responses; this is clearly reflected in the concept map. "Hard-working" received 55 positive responses, 27 for Germany and 15 for Sweden. "Beer-drinking" received 60 positive responses, with 35 for Germany, 10 for England and 12 for Sweden; France was nearly excluded, with only three positive responses. "Stubborn" received 37 positive responses, with 12 for England and 18 for Germany, and only one for Sweden. "Nationalistic" falls closest to Germany, with 33 of 79 positive votes; France received 19, England 16, and Sweden 11. These words make up the German cluster.

The English stereotype is not as well-defined as the stereotypes of Germany and Sweden. "Witty" was highly associated with England, receiving 16 of 27 positive responses. "Sophisticated," which was linked with "witty" early in the dendogram analysis, was split evenly between England and France, with 26 and 24 positive responses out of a total of 64.

"Proper" and "articulate" received 50 positive responses, with 29 and 26 for England, respectively; they also were closely linked on the dendogram analysis. Their similarity in frequency is observable in the sizes of their points on the concept map. England received 24 of 58 positive responses for "conservative," with the remaining responses divided fairly equally across the other three countries, which pulls it away from England and toward the middle of the map. Similarly, "intelligent" received 29 positive responses for England, while the remaining 43 positive responses spread over the other three countries. England received 29 of 62 positive responses for "formal," with 15 for France and 14 for Germany; Sweden received only four.

The remaining adjectives were not linked clearly with any of the countries. England received 13 of 33 positive responses for "superior"; France and Germany received nine each. The word "ugly" was the least used of all the adjectives, with only eight positive responses across all nationalities. Six of these indicated Germans were ugly, which is reflected in the concept map; "ugly" falls closer to Germany than to the other three countries. With a correlation coefficient of .27, "ugly" was close to being included in the German stereotype.

"Straightforward" got 33 positive responses, 14 for Germany, and six or seven for the other three countries. "Inferior" was chosen only nine times, with a fairly even distribution across the four countries; Sweden received four positive responses.

"Grumpy" received 29 positive responses, with 14 for Germany and eight for England. The word falls close to Germany on the concept map, far away from Sweden, which received only one positive response.

France did not fall into its own area on the concept map, which makes interpreting the correlations of the words that fall between Germany and England difficult. "Impulsive" received 25 positive responses, 13 for France and seven for Germany. It falls directly between these two countries on the map. "High-strung" received 37 positive responses, with a comparable split between France and Germany, at 13 and 11 respectively. "High-strung" received 10 positive responses for England, while "impulsive" received only three; both words received very few positive responses for Sweden. "High-strung" falls directly between England, France and Germany on the concept map. "Rude" received 38 positive responses, with none for Sweden; the responses are fairly evenly split between England, France and Germany (10-14-14). It falls between these three countries, far away from Sweden. This pattern is repeated with "judgmental," which received 20-15-18 for England, France and Germany respectively. "Disciplined" falls directly between England and Germany, which received 20 and 25 of the 57 positive responses respectively. "Traditional" received 23 positive responses for England, 18 for Germany and 13 for Sweden, while France received nine. "Proud" was a popular choice, with 76 positive responses, 21-21-23 for England, France and Germany, while Sweden had 11.

"Democratic" was chosen by 28 respondents, with 13 for England and seven for France. As is observable by the size of its point on the concept map, the most (91) positive responses for any single word went to "cultural," with 31 for France, 24 for England, 20 for Germany, and 16 for Sweden.

Overall, the data indicated a general reluctance to ascribe unquestionably negative traits to any of the national groups. Words like "grumpy, ugly, dirty, dumb, inferior" were unpopular choices, while others that can be interpreted as negative, like "rude, impulsive, arrogant, superior, high-strung, naive" were used only slightly more. The word "racist" was the exception to this tendency; 22 of 38 respondents used it to describe Germany.

Through these cross-tabulations, consistent stereotypes of Sweden, Germany and England emerge, confirming and enlarging the snapshot image of each group obtained during the interview process used to develop the questionnaire. These patterns are further clarified through the concept map and dendogram, creating a detailed, specific picture of the three national groups. Sweden's distinct stereotype is shown through its isolation and tight cluster of adjectives on the concept map. Germany's stereotype is a bit less distinct, but still clearly shown on the map. The stereotype of England is fairly clear, but is still slightly muddled with France's indistinct stereotype. France's stereotype is harder to analyze because of its poor reliability, difficulties easily observable on the concept map and dendogram.

STEREOTYPES AND PERCEIVED MEDIA EXPOSURE

In the questionnaire, respondents were asked to rate "How frequently have you seen, read, or heard anything about Germany or German people in the following media." and were provided a list of media types, TV news, TV entertainment, movies, magazines, newspapers and advertising. The four-level rating scale provided allowed respondents to

check an option from "frequently, sometimes, seldom, never." This was coded from 4 to 1, with frequently=4, 3=sometimes, 2=seldom, 1=never.

A table of the frequencies with which respondents said they were exposed to each of the ethnic groups through these different media is presented in Table 3. According to the respondents, England is mentioned most often in the various media. England's means are highest in all the media categories, particularly in TV entertainment; 47.4 percent of respondents marked "frequently" for a mean of 3.37, which is the highest percentage marking "frequently" as well as the highest mean of all countries and all media categories. The respondents indicated Sweden is the least mentioned in the media, with means ranging from 1.86 to 2.16 in all categories. Sweden's highest mean is in advertising, ranking third after England and France; possibly the highly popular print advertisements for Absolut vodka account for this finding.

The media data were analyzed for reliability using the SPSS reliability subprogram. Reliability (alpha) for respondents indicating they had seen, read, or heard anything about Germany or German people was .7545; for England, alpha was .8545; France, .8178; and Sweden, .8443. Since .7 or higher is considered to be an acceptable level of reliability, these results indicate a high degree of individual consistency across the media-related data.

The data were compiled into additive indexes and then correlated. This analysis clearly indicates respondents who said they saw, read, or heard something about one ethnic group in the various types of media listed were likely to report similarly for the other groups. Respondents indicating

TABLE 3
FREQUENCIES OF PERCEIVED MEDIA EXPOSURE

	GERMANY	ENGLAND	FRANCE	SWEDEN
TV news	1 5.3 2 13.2 3 57.9 4 23.9 mean = 3.00	1 2.6 2 5.3 3 47.4 4 44.7 mean = 3.34	1 7.9 2 39.5 3 42.1 4 10.5 mean = 2.55	1 31.6 2 50.0 3 18.4 4 0 mean = 1.86
TV entertainment	1 13.2 2 65.8 3 18.4 4 2.6 mean = 2.10	1 0 2 10.5 3 42.1 4 47.4 mean = 3.37	1 2.6 2 47.4 3 39.5 4 10.5 mean = 2.57	1 31.6 2 39.5 3 23.7 4 5.3 mean = 2.03
movies	1 5.3 2 31.6 3 47.4 4 15.8 mean = 2.74	1 0 2 13.2 3 52.6 4 34.2 mean = 3.21	1 0 2 31.6 3 47.4 4 18.4 mean = 2.92	1 21.1 2 52.6 3 23.7 4 2.6 mean = 2.07
magazines	1 10.5 2 36.8 3 47.4 4 15.8 mean = 2.53	1 0 2 23.7 3 50.0 4 26.3 mean = 3.02	1 2.6 2 52.6 3 36.8 4 7.9 mean = 2.50	1 31.6 2 50.0 3 18.4 4 0 mean = 1.87
newspapers	1 10.5 2 23.7 3 42.1 4 23.7 mean = 2.79	1 2.6 2 26.3 3 44.7 4 26.3 mean = 2.95	1 7.9 2 65.8 3 23.7 4 2.6 mean = 2.21	1 36.8 2 52.6 3 10.5 4 0 mean = 1.73
advertising	1 31.6 2 47.4 3 13.2 4 7.9 mean = 1.97	1 7.9 2 23.7 3 44.7 4 23.7 mean = 2.84	1 7.9 2 47.4 3 31.6 4 13.2 mean = 2.50	1 23.7 2 44.7 3 23.7 4 7.9 mean = 2.16

exposure to Germans or Germany through media also indicated exposure to the English or England, for example; p is less than .001, indicating a significant level of positive correlation across the respondent pool. Likewise, the correlation coefficients are low across all different pairings of the ethnic groups.

Stereotype indexes also are correlated significantly among themselves; that is, if a respondent's completed questionnaire corresponded with an ethnic stereotype emerging from the cross-tabulations, then s/he was likely to indicate stereotypical views of the other ethnic groups consistently.

Interestingly, reported media representations of the various groups and stereotyping did not seem to be significantly correlated. The lowest p value, measured at .103, measured was for Swedish stereotypes and exposure to Sweden through the media, which is statistically insignificant. No consistent pattern emerges from these correlations; the correlation coefficients for media exposure and stereotypes for England and France were negative, while Sweden and Germany emerged with a positive correlation coefficient. The data are summarized in Table 4.

STEREOTYPES AND OTHER FACTORS

Stereotyping was not correlated significantly with the study of German, French or Swedish language. Correlation coefficients ranged from -.13 for German language and stereotyping, to .07 for French and .08 for Swedish.

TABLE 4
CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS
OF PERCEIVED MEDIA EXPOSURE AND STEREOTYPES

Germany in media							
England in media	.61 p < .001	England in media					
France in media	.5 p < .001	.54 p < .001	France in media				
Sweden in media	.5 p < .001	.32 p < .025	.33 p < .021	Sweden in media			
German stereotype	.04 p < .411				German stereotype		
English stereotype		.11 p < .258			1.0 p < .001	English stereotype	
French stereotype			.25 p < .061		.48 p < .001	.50 p < .001	French stereotype
Swedish stereotype				.17 p < .151	.59 p < .001	.59 p < .001	.35 p < .15

Also, stereotyping was not shown to be significantly correlated with respondents' perceived knowledge about the countries. Correlation coefficients here ranged from $-.01$ for Germany and $-.04$ for England to $.26$ for France, and $.24$ for Sweden.

Similar results were obtained from data about respondents' friendships or acquaintanceships with members of the ethnic groups, showing that these factors is not correlated significantly with stereotyping. The correlation coefficients for German acquaintances / German stereotype and German friends / German stereotypes were relatively high, but still not statistically significant at $.28$ and $.31$ respectively; English acquaintances / English stereotype was not statistically significant at $.02$, likewise English friends / English stereotype was $.05$; French acquaintances / French stereotype was high at $.42$, which is possibly because of the poor reliability of the French stereotype, while French friends / French stereotype was low at $.03$; Swedish acquaintances / Swedish stereotype was a bit higher at $.24$, while Swedish friends / Swedish stereotype was $.15$. Overall, the data do not indicate a significant correlation between respondents' stereotypes of the four national groups and their reported relationships with members of those groups.

Finally, stereotyping was not shown to correlate significantly with travel experience, with very low correlation coefficients across all cross-tabulations. Correlation coefficients ranged from $-.17$ for Germany, $-.002$ for England, $.13$ for France. None of the respondents reported travel experience in Sweden.

CHAPTER 4

CONCLUSIONS

Barna (1982) notes stereotypes are "one of the most basic areas of communication." As such, they should be carefully considered by mass media researchers and practitioners. This study fails to show a significant correlation between reported media use and national stereotyping, but does provide a close look at the stereotypes themselves as well as an examination of perceived media exposure to images of the national groups.

The stereotype of Germany which emerged was rather unsettling. "Beer-drinking," "hard-working," "racist," "stubborn," "disciplined" and "nationalistic" were the words describing the stereotype in this study, while the vast majority of all negative words fell in Germany's area of the concept map. Particularly distressing was that while "racist" was chosen only 28 times from 168 opportunities, 78.6 percent of those described Germany. Perhaps this is due in part to media coverage of recent neo-Nazi attacks on foreign nationals living in the newly-unified country. The selection of "racist" and "nationalistic" also may draw from the knowledge of Hitler and the Nazis carrying out their "final solution," the annihilation of European Jews, recently remembered in the Oscar-winning movie *Schindler's List*. However, the data gathered from the media use questions did not show a significant correlation between reported exposure to German topics through any form of the media and

stereotypes. Still, 47.4 percent of respondents indicated they saw something about Germany in movies "sometimes," for a mean of 2.74.

The stereotype for England was not as distinct, but many of the words chosen seem related in meaning. "Proper," "conservative" and "formal" seem related, as do "arrogant" and "superior." The English were further described as "sophisticated," "witty," "intelligent" and "articulate." Again, media portrayals of English people often seem to follow this stereotype, or derive humor from it. The British comedy group of Monty Python shows that the English are "witty," while gleefully exploiting the stereotype of the stuffy English. Indeed, 47.4 percent of respondents indicated they "frequently" saw something about England or English people in the media.

France's stereotype was the most muddled. One possible culprit for this was a failure to provide appropriate questionnaire adjectives that might have described the French more effectively. However, the breakdown of the adjectives derived from the original series of personal interviews (shown in Figure 1) conducted before the questionnaire was constructed indicate acceptable words were present on the questionnaire. Words from the interview, such as "hot-blooded, aggressive, argumentative, high-strung" were covered by "high-strung" and "passionate," while "rude," a frequent description given in the interviews, also was on the questionnaire. Other words derived from process of interviewing about the French included "dirty," "impulsive," "cultural," "friendly" and "liberal." Only "dirty," "sexy," "arrogant" and

"passionate" appeared in the French cluster, although "cultural" and "impulsive" came close. There is a marked tendency for few of the words in France's cluster to associate exclusively with that country; most of the words in the cluster were used fairly frequently to describe other nationalities. "Sexy," for example, appeared in both the Swedish and French cluster, while the positive responses for "arrogant" were split fairly equally between England and France, with 26 and 30 respectively, while Germany received 18 positive responses. This tendency seems the most likely explanation for the rather indistinct French cluster. Also, the placement of the England and France on the concept map indicates the French stereotype is not clearly distinguished from the English stereotype. Further research is needed to clarify France's stereotype and its relationship with the other national stereotypes.

Sweden's stereotype is the most distinct of all. Its stereotype had 11 words, more than any other nationality; this is surprising, because many of the students interviewed during the questionnaire development process provided very few descriptors for Sweden. Most of the words used to describe Swedes by both interviewees and questionnaire respondents were physical attributes: "good-looking," "friendly," "sexy," "wholesome," "clean," and "healthy" sound like ideal attributes for a shampoo commercial model, or indeed any model for any commercial. In a way, this finding is not surprising; as Sweden is arguably the most obscure of all the countries studied here, and choosing physical, easily

observable attributes rather than more complex personality characteristics seems easiest. Again, although no correlation was found between reported media exposure to Sweden or Swedes and stereotyping, the stereotype obtained corresponds neatly to the "Swedish Bikini Team" of recent beer commercials and other such portrayals. Interestingly enough, the highest mean across all the media categories for Sweden was advertising, at 2.16.

Despite speculations about media portrayals of these national groups which may be interpreted as or lead to the formation of stereotypes, this study fails to show a significant correlation between individuals' perceived media exposure to these portrayals and their stereotypes. It is possible the study itself lacks internal validity in some vital way, most likely through the self-reported media exposure questions. Also, the small, non-random sample reduces the internal validity of this study and its conclusions. However, this study does suggest media exposure is not related to national stereotype formation or perpetuation in an easily observable or conscious manner.

If this study is correct in its failure to find a concrete correlation between media and stereotypes, then the inevitable question arises: If not in the media, where are clearly existent stereotypes transmitted and reinforced? Rothbart (1978) observes the study of stereotypes has focused much more on describing them than on determining how they are formed. As the literature review in this study indicates, much more research has been done in content analysis of media and stereotypes of

groups which are easily differentiated, like men and women or whites and African-Americans, than of groups that are more subtly differentiated, such as national groups of western Europe. Studies of the link between stereotype holders and media are uncommon, in part because of research difficulties discussed earlier.

It is not inconceivable that stereotypes could be transmitted from person to person through the family unit or community, or by contact with members of the stereotyped group (although data obtained from this study fails to support the latter supposition). As discussed in the literature review, Rothbart and John (1993) write that

It is fair to say that for most groups, our knowledge comes more from indirect sources like media, parents, and schools than from direct sources, but the exact mixture of indirect and direct sources depends on the group and the context of intergroup perception (41).

It seems highly unlikely that factors like parents, schools and contact with members of the stereotyped group alone could transmit and perpetuate stereotypes with the force and consistency necessary to sustain them. Relationships between countries and social conditions change over time, and these changes are reflected in the media; today, almost everyone in this country would be offended by racist portrayals of African-Americans in radio shows like "Amos 'n' Andy," or by cartoons of people of Japanese descent similar to those in 1940's issues of *The New Yorker*. Haavio-Manila (1972) showed media can and do change sexual stereotypes, while others (Ogles 1991, Gist 1990) argue that media

have an effect upon individuals' views of race. As Klineberg (1950) observes, "Although there may be argument concerning details, there can be no disagreement to the fact that media have a definite impact on attitudes and behavior" (94).

Although this study fails to find concrete association between perceived mass media exposure to these national groups and stereotyping, mass media practitioners should be aware these stereotypes do exist. Journalists must be aware of their own stereotypes about different national groups to keep their stories free of bias. Other mass media practitioners, especially in the fields of public relations and advertising, should know what these stereotypes are in order to create effective campaigns having to do with these countries, perhaps when promoting various exports or tourism; positive aspects of the national stereotype should be emphasized and encouraged, while negative aspects should be challenged or avoided altogether. Finally, any American seeking to form relationships of any kind with members of these national groups should know what their own stereotypes are to overcome the negative effects of prejudice.

Clearly, more work needs to be done in this area. This limited study fails to show a significant correlation between the media and national stereotypes, but does not conclude decisively that no relationship between media and national stereotypes exists.

LIST OF REFERENCES

LIST OF REFERENCES

- Barna, L.M. (1982). Stumbling blocks in intercultural communication. In L.A. Samovar and R.E. Porter (Eds.), *Intercultural Communication: A Reader* (pp. 345-353). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Co., Inc.
- Brigham, John C. (1971). Ethnic stereotypes. *Psychological Bulletin* 76, 15-38.
- Brigham, John C. (1973). Ethnic stereotypes and attitudes: A different mode of analysis. *Journal of Personality* 41 (2), 206-233.
- Brislin, R.W. (1982). Prejudice in intercultural communication. In L.A. Samovar and R.E. Porter (Eds.), *Intercultural Communication: A Reader* (pp. 366-370). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Co., Inc.
- Buchanan, W. and Cantril, H. (1953). *How Nations See Each Other*. Urbana: University of Illinois Press.
- Dovidio, J.F. and Gaertner, S.L. (1986). Prejudice, discrimination, and racism: Historical trends and contemporary approaches. In J. F. Dovidio and S.L. Gaertner (Eds.), *Prejudice, Discrimination and Racism*. (pp. 1-34). New York: Academic Press, Inc.
- Duijker, H.C.J and Frijda, H.J. (1960). *National Character and National Stereotypes*. Amsterdam: North-Holland Publishing Company.
- Friday, Robert A. (1982). Contrasts in discussion behaviors of German and American managers. In L.A. Samovar and R.E. Porter (eds.), *Intercultural Communication: A Reader* (pp. 174-184).
- Frueh, T. and McGhee, P.E. (1975). Traditional sex role development and amount of time spent watching television. *Developmental Psychology* 11 (1), 109.
- Gandy, O.H and Matabane, P.W. (1989). Television and social perceptions among African-Americans and Hispanics. In M.K. Asante and W.B. Gudykunst, (Eds.) *Handbook of International and Intercultural Communication*. (pp. 318-351). London: Sage Publications.
- Gist, Marilyn E. (1990). Minorities in media imagery: A social cognitive perspective on journalistic bias. *Newspaper Research Journal* 11 (3), 52-63.

- Haavio-Manila, E. (1972). Sex role attitudes in Finland, 1966-1970. *Journal of Social Issues* 28 (2), 93-110.
- Hamilton, D.L. and Trolie, T.K. (1986). Stereotypes and stereotyping: An overview of the cognitive approach. In J. F Dovidio and S.L. Gaetner (Eds.), *Prejudice, Discrimination and Racism*. (pp. 127-163). New York: Academic Press, Inc.
- Hall, Edward T. (1981). Context and meaning. In L.A. Samovar and R.E. Porter (Eds.), *Intercultural Communication: A Reader* (pp. 46-55). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Co., Inc.
- Katz and Braly. (1933). Racial stereotypes of one hundred college students. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* 28, 280-290.
- Klineberg, O. (1950) *Tensions Affecting International Understanding*. New York: The Social Science Research Council.
- Klineberg, O. (1980) Historical perspectives: Cross-cultural psychology before 1960. In H.C. Triandis and W.W. Lambert (Eds.) *The Handbook of Cross-Cultural Psychology*. (Vol. 1, pp. 31-65.) Boston: Allyn & Bacon, Inc.
- Lippmann, Walter. (1922). *Public Opinion*. New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc.
- MacLin, M.C. and R.H. Kolbe. (1984). Sex role stereotyping in children's advertising: Current and past trends. *Journal of Advertising* 13, 34-42.
- Miller, M.M. and Everett, S.P. (1989). Children's television program images, research methods/research findings in retrospect. Presented at the annual meeting of the Speech Communication Association, San Francisco. November, 1989.
- Muehlenhard, C.L. (1983). Women's assertion and the feminine sex-role stereotype. In Violet Franks and E.D. Rothblum, (Eds.), *The Stereotyping of Women: Its Effects on Mental Health*. (pp. 153-171). New York: Springer Publishing Co.
- Ogles, R.M. (1991). The audience perspective: Perceived media diversity in the Midwest. Presented at the annual meeting of the Speech Communication Association, Atlanta. November 1, 1991.
- Perry, David K. (1987). The image gap: How international news affects perceptions of nations. *Journalism Quarterly* 4, 416-433.

- Rath, R. and Das, J.P. (1958). Study in stereotypes of college freshmen and service holders in Orissa, Indai, towards themselves and four other foreign nationalities. *Journal of Social Psychology* 47: 373-385.
- Rich, Andrea L. (1974). *Interracial Communication*. New York: Harper & Row Publishers.
- Rothbart, M. and John, O.P. (1993). Intergroup relations and stereotype change: A social-cognitive analysis and some longitudinal findings. In P.M. Sniderman, P.E. Tetlock and E.G. Carmines (Eds.), *Prejudice, Politics and the American Dilemma*. (pp. 32-59). Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Rothbart, M., Fulero, S. et. al. (1978). From individual to group impressions: Availability heuristics in stereotype formation. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology* 14, 237-255.
- Ruble, D.N. and Ruble, T. (1982). Sex stereotypes. In Arthur G. Miller (Ed.), *In the Eye of the Beholder: Contemporary Issues in Stereotyping* (pp.188-252). New York: Praeger Publishers.
- Stephan, W.G. and Rosenfield, D. (1982). Racial and ethnic stereotypes. In Arthur G. Miller (ed.), *In the Eye of the Beholder: Contemporary Issues in Stereotyping* (pp.92-136). New York: Praeger Publishers.
- Szalay, L.B. and Deese, J. (1978). *Subjective Meaning and Culture: An Assessment Through Word Associations*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Publishers.
- Triandis, H.C. and Vassiliou, V. (1967). Frequency of contact and stereotyping. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 7 (3), 316-328.
- Tuchman, Gaye. (1979). Women's depiction by the mass media. *Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society* 1 (3). pp. 528-542.
- Weinraub, M. and Brown, L.M. (1983). The development of sex-role stereotypes in children: crushing realities. In Violet Franks and E.D. Rothblum (Eds.), *The Stereotyping of Women: Its Effects on Mental Health*. (pp. 30-58). New York: Springer Publishing Co.
- Wimmer, Roger and Dominick, J.R. (1994). *Mass Media Research: An Introduction*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Co.

APPENDIXES

This is a survey designed to measure how people from different countries are perceived. There are no right or wrong answers, and all surveys will remain anonymous. Please work quickly, and answer as honestly as you can.

Thank you for your help!

Check all the words that describe common perceptions of *Germany* or *German people*. Work quickly:

arrogant	_____	judgmental	_____
articulate	_____	laid-back	_____
beer-drinking	_____	liberal	_____
blond	_____	naive	_____
clean	_____	nationalistic	_____
conservative	_____	passionate	_____
cultural	_____	proper	_____
democratic	_____	proud	_____
dirty	_____	racist	_____
disciplined	_____	relaxed	_____
dumb	_____	rude	_____
formal	_____	sexy	_____
friendly	_____	shy	_____
good-looking	_____	sophisticated	_____
grumpy	_____	straightforward	_____
hard-working	_____	stubborn	_____
healthy	_____	superior	_____
high-strung	_____	traditional	_____
impulsive	_____	ugly	_____
inferior	_____	wholesome	_____
intelligent	_____	witty	_____

Check all the words that describe common perceptions of *England* or *English* people. Work quickly:

arrogant _____

articulate _____

beer-drinking _____

blond _____

clean _____

conservative _____

cultural _____

democratic _____

dirty _____

disciplined _____

dumb _____

formal _____

friendly _____

good-looking _____

grumpy _____

hard-working _____

healthy _____

high-strung _____

impulsive _____

inferior _____

intelligent _____

judgmental _____

laid-back _____

liberal _____

naive _____

nationalistic _____

passionate _____

proper _____

proud _____

racist _____

relaxed _____

rude _____

sexy _____

shy _____

sophisticated _____

straightforward _____

stubborn _____

superior _____

traditional _____

ugly _____

wholesome _____

witty _____

Check all the words that describe common perceptions of *France* or *French people*. Work quickly:

arrogant	_____	judgmental	_____
articulate	_____	laid-back	_____
beer-drinking	_____	liberal	_____
blond	_____	naive	_____
clean	_____	nationalistic	_____
conservative	_____	passionate	_____
cultural	_____	proper	_____
democratic	_____	proud	_____
dirty	_____	racist	_____
disciplined	_____	relaxed	_____
dumb	_____	rude	_____
formal	_____	sexy	_____
friendly	_____	shy	_____
good-looking	_____	sophisticated	_____
grumpy	_____	straightforward	_____
hard-working	_____	stubborn	_____
healthy	_____	superior	_____
high-strung	_____	traditional	_____
impulsive	_____	ugly	_____
inferior	_____	wholesome	_____
intelligent	_____	witty	_____

Check all the words that describe common perceptions of *Sweden* or *Swedish people*. Work quickly:

arrogant	_____	judgmental	_____
articulate	_____	laid-back	_____
beer-drinking	_____	liberal	_____
blond	_____	naive	_____
clean	_____	nationalistic	_____
conservative	_____	passionate	_____
cultural	_____	proper	_____
democratic	_____	proud	_____
dirty	_____	racist	_____
disciplined	_____	relaxed	_____
dumb	_____	rude	_____
formal	_____	sexy	_____
friendly	_____	shy	_____
good-looking	_____	sophisticated	_____
grumpy	_____	straightforward	_____
hard-working	_____	stubborn	_____
healthy	_____	superior	_____
high-strung	_____	traditional	_____
impulsive	_____	ugly	_____
inferior	_____	wholesome	_____
intelligent	_____	witty	_____

How frequently have you seen, read, or heard anything about **Germany** or **German people** in the following media:

	FREQUENTLY	SOMETIMES	SELDOM	NEVER
TV news	_____	_____	_____	_____
TV entertainment	_____	_____	_____	_____
movies	_____	_____	_____	_____
magazines	_____	_____	_____	_____
newspapers	_____	_____	_____	_____
advertising	_____	_____	_____	_____

How frequently have you seen, read, or heard anything about **England** or **English people** in the following media:

	FREQUENTLY	SOMETIMES	SELDOM	NEVER
TV news	_____	_____	_____	_____
TV entertainment	_____	_____	_____	_____
movies	_____	_____	_____	_____
magazines	_____	_____	_____	_____
newspapers	_____	_____	_____	_____
advertising	_____	_____	_____	_____

How frequently have you seen, read, or heard anything about **France** or **French people** in the following media:

	FREQUENTLY	SOMETIMES	SELDOM	NEVER
TV news	_____	_____	_____	_____
TV entertainment	_____	_____	_____	_____
movies	_____	_____	_____	_____
magazines	_____	_____	_____	_____
newspapers	_____	_____	_____	_____
advertising	_____	_____	_____	_____

How frequently have you seen, read, or heard anything about Sweden or Swedish people in the following media:

	FREQUENTLY	SOMETIMES	SELDOM	NEVER
TV news	_____	_____	_____	_____
TV entertainment	_____	_____	_____	_____
movies	_____	_____	_____	_____
magazines	_____	_____	_____	_____
newspapers	_____	_____	_____	_____
advertising	_____	_____	_____	_____

Overall, how much would you estimate you know about these countries?

	A GREAT DEAL	A LOT	ABOUT AVERAGE	SOME	VERY LITTLE
Germany	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
England	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
France	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
Sweden	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

1. Have you ever traveled to:

	YES	NO
Germany	_____	_____
England	_____	_____
France	_____	_____
Sweden	_____	_____

4. Have you ever studied these languages?

	YES	NO
German	_____	_____
French	_____	_____
Swedish	_____	_____

2. Have you ever had any acquaintances from:

	YES	NO
Germany	_____	_____
England	_____	_____
France	_____	_____
Sweden	_____	_____

5. Please check your class designation.

Freshman	_____
Sophomore	_____
Junior	_____
Senior	_____

3. Have you ever had any close friends from:

	YES	NO
Germany	_____	_____
England	_____	_____
France	_____	_____
Sweden	_____	_____

5. Are you:

Male	_____
Female	_____

6. How old are you? _____

APPENDIX B
PERCENTAGE ENDORSING
NON-CORRELATED ADJECTIVES

	Germany	England	France	Sweden	Number
cultural	22.0	26.0	34.1	17.6	91
proud	30.3	27.6	27.6	14.5	76
traditional	28.6	36.5	14.3	20.6	63
judgmental	34.0	37.7	28.3	0.0	53
liberal	7.7	23.1	43.6	25.6	39
rude	36.8	26.3	36.8	0.00	38
high-strung	29.7	27.0	35.1	8.1	37
straightforward	42.4	21.2	18.2	18.2	33
superior	27.3	39.4	27.3	6.1	33
grumpy	48.3	27.6	20.7	3.4	29
democratic	7.1	46.4	25.0	21.4	28
impulsive	28.0	12.0	52.0	8.0	25
relaxed	0.0	16.7	41.7	41.7	24
inferior	33.3	11.1	11.1	44.4	9
ugly	75.0	12.5	12.5	0.0	8

VITA

Catherine Shelley Lose was born in Nashville, Tennessee on January 15, 1969, and grew up in Nashville. She graduated with honors from high school in 1987 and entered Millsaps College in Jackson, Mississippi that September. As an undergraduate, she was heavily involved with the theatre department, both backstage and onstage. In 1991, she graduated magna cum laude with a B.A. in English literature and a minor in theatre.

After graduation, she spent a year working as a stage manager in professional theatres in Wisconsin, New York and Tennessee.

In the spring of 1993, the author entered the graduate program in the College of Communications at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville to pursue a graduate degree in communications with an emphasis on public relations. From the fall of 1993 through summer 1994, she was employed as Media Liaison / Playbill Editor by the University of Tennessee Theatres. She was initiated into Kappa Tau Alpha, the national society for recognition of scholarship in journalism and communications.

Ms. Lose plans to move to Lund, Sweden after graduation.