



**Universitat de Girona**

**THE CONSTRUCTION OF NATIONAL IDENTITY AS  
A DEVELOPMENTAL PROCESS FROM CHILDHOOD  
TO ADOLESCENCE IN CATALONIA**

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**THE CONSTRUCTION OF NATIONAL IDENTITY AS A  
DEVELOPMENTAL PROCESS FROM CHILDHOOD TO  
ADOLESCENCE IN CATALONIA**

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*To Martyn, "...walk softly baby,  
because you walk through my dreams..."*

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## CONTENTS

<b>1. A PERSPECTIVE ON THE NATION AND NATIONAL IDENTITY.....</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>1.1 Why national identity is important in Europe today .....</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>1.2 Nation and national belonging .....</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>1.3 National Identity .....</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>1.4 Individual and collective rights.....</b>	<b>8</b>
<b>1.5 Individual freedom and culture.....</b>	<b>9</b>
<b>2. HISTORY OF CATALONIA AND ITS INSTITUTIONS.....</b>	<b>15</b>
<b>2.1 Catalonia as a community.....</b>	<b>15</b>
<b>2.2 The birth of Catalan Political Institutions .....</b>	<b>16</b>
<b>2.3 The Demise of the Catalan Dynasty and the Trastámara and Hapsburg Houses.....</b>	<b>17</b>
<b>2.4 The War of Succession; the Bourbon house.....</b>	<b>20</b>
<b>2.5 Philip V and the Abolition of the Generalitat.....</b>	<b>22</b>
<b>2.5 Recovering of self-government.....</b>	<b>26</b>
<b>2.7 The re-emergence of the Generalitat de Catalunya .....</b>	<b>27</b>
<b>2.8 The Generalitat de Catalunya in Exile .....</b>	<b>30</b>
<b>2.8 Democracy arrives to Spain; the Re-established Generalitat .....</b>	<b>31</b>
<b>3. CONTEMPORARY CONTEXT OF THE RESEARCH.....</b>	<b>33</b>
<b>3.1 Political organisation.....</b>	<b>33</b>
<b>3.2 Demographic structure .....</b>	<b>34</b>
<b>3.3 The Catalan-speaking world .....</b>	<b>34</b>
3.3.1. The legal framework for the Catalan language.....	35
3.3.2 The social-linguistic situation in Catalonia .....	35
3.3.3 The progress of the Catalan language .....	37
3.3.4 The presence of the Catalan language in the mass media.....	38
<b>3.4. Educational system.....</b>	<b>39</b>
3.4.1. The school language .....	39
3.4.2. Organisation of the educational system.....	40
<b>3.5. The current political attitudes.....</b>	<b>42</b>

4. THE SOCIAL CONSTRUCTION OF NATIONAL IDENTITY .....	43
<b>4.1 Which one is my group?</b> .....	44
<b>4.2. “Us” versus “them”</b> .....	45
<b>4.3. How does the child construct the world around them?</b> .....	46
<b>4.4. Giving meaning to “us”</b> .....	50
<b>4.5. Why is my group the best?</b> .....	55
<b>4.6. Is my group always the best?</b> .....	57
<b>4.7 Are bilingual children different?</b> .....	60
<b>4.8. Integrating knowledge, culture and social practices.</b> .....	62
<b>4.9. What can be the contribution of developmental psychology?</b> .....	67
5. THE STUDY.....	71
<b>5.1. Presentation of the study</b> .....	71
<b>5.2. Procedure and Materials</b> .....	71
5.2.1. Schools contact and interviewing time .....	71
5.2.2. Interview Presentation. ....	72
5.2.2.1. <i>Subjective identification and national identification</i> .....	74
5.2.2.2. <i>Knowledge of countries</i> .....	75
5.2.2.3. <i>National stereotypes, evaluation and feelings</i> .....	77
5.2.2.4. <i>Social background</i> .....	78
<b>5.3. The Sample</b> .....	78
5.3.1. Age and sex .....	79
5.3.2. Age, and linguistic home situation .....	79
5.3.3. Parents’ origin and linguistic situation at home .....	80
6. RESULTS CONCERNING SUBJECTIVE AND NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION .....	81
<b>6.1. Subjective identification</b> .....	81
6.1.1. Developmental differences in Subjective Identification for each linguistic home situation. ....	83
6.1.2. Linguistic differences for the Subjective Identification for each age group..	87
<b>6.2. National Identification</b> .....	92
6.2.1. Spanish identification.....	92
6.2.2. Catalan Identification .....	93
6.2.3. Catalan vs. Spanish Identification .....	93
<b>6.3. Conclusions</b> .....	95

7. Results concerning knowledge of countries.....	97
<b>7.1 Geographical knowledge</b> .....	97
7.1.1 Spatial knowledge.....	97
7.1.2 Knowledge of the name of the capital cities .....	100
<b>7.2 Symbolic knowledge</b> .....	103
7.2.1 Knowledge of flags.....	103
7.2.2 Knowledge of famous people .....	105
<b>7.3. Conclusions</b> .....	110
8. <b>RESULTS CONCERNING NATIONAL STEREOTYPES, EVALUATION AND FEELINGS</b> .....	111
<b>8.1 National stereotypes, evaluation and favouritism</b> .....	111
8.1.1 National stereotypes .....	111
8.1.2. Countries similarity .....	113
8.1.3 Evaluation and Favouritism.....	119
8.1.3.1 <i>National evaluation</i> .....	119
8.1.3.2 <i>Favouritism</i> .....	122
<b>8.2 National feelings</b> .....	123
8.2.1 Differences between groups .....	124
8.2.2 Association between national affect. ....	128
<b>8.3 Conclusions</b> .....	134
9. <b>RESULTS CONCERNING NATIONAL SELF-ESTEEM AND TRAVEL EXPERIENCES</b> .....	135
<b>9.1 Self-esteem</b> .....	135
<b>9.2 Travel experiences</b> .....	135
9.2.1. Number of countries visited.....	136
9.2.2. Number of weeks spent in each country.....	137
<b>9.3 Conclusions</b> .....	138
10. <b>DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY</b> .....	139
<b>10.1 The development of national identity in Catalonia</b> .....	139
<b>10.2 The role of the language spoken at home in the construction of national identity</b> .....	143
11. <b>REFERENCES</b> .....	147



## **1. A PERSPECTIVE ON THE NATION AND NATIONAL IDENTITY**

### **1.1 WHY NATIONAL IDENTITY IS IMPORTANT IN EUROPE TODAY**

Historically the cohesion of territories in political, social and economical units has not been determined by cultural unity. Traditionally, the majority of ethnic groups have been included inside larger communities, for example, big empires such as the Carolingian Empire, the Roman Empire, and many others throughout history. Their cohesion did not alter the fact that inside their borders different ethnic groups lived in peace.

During the Middle Ages nationalist movements emerged. These movements were characterised by an awareness of a national identity (symbols, language, culture and territory) rather than a nation state. Examples of these Middle Age movements included the wars between Scotland, England and France, and in Spain the unification of the state during the reign of the Catholic Kings. In the eighteenth century, a revival of popular nationalism can be found in the American and French Revolutions. It is possible and necessary to differentiate between feelings of belonging to a national group and the modern nationalism that is clearly linked to the modern state (Salazar, 1996).

With the origin of the modern state (nation-state) the idea to affirm the political identity of one community with the existence of a language, a culture and the concept of only one nation was born. The formula “one culture, so one nation, so one state” defined the new legitimate principle of nationalist movements. But, often the formation of states does not follow this formula and alters this order to “one state, so one culture, so one nation”. This has happened in traditional states (e.g. France) as well as in newly created states (e.g. Italy); in this thesis these states are called “state-nation”. In these cases, it is possible to find states formed by several cultural communities whose limits do not coincide with the state’s borders. To be a member of one of these cultures becomes salient from other collective identities (Álvarez & Vila, 1993).

According to Smith (1992), contradictions between different types of nationalism depend more on the nationalism conceptualisation than on practical difficulties in the individual's or groups' everyday life. On the one hand, there is the Romantic nationalism concept; a seamless nation, with only one cultural unity. On the other hand, there is the pluralistic nationalism concept; the nation as a rational association of common laws and cultures in one territory. Both concepts suggest that the only legitimate criterion to a political community and government is the nation.

In recent times there has been an increase in studies investigating national identity development (Barrett & Farroni, 1993; Moodie, 1980; Cutts, Eishenhart & Webley, 1992). This may be due to either the opportunity to participate in the European Unification process or simply, it is that social and political changes in Europe have questioned stable values and structures such as the nation and national identity. Scientific progress in communication and industry, the globalisation of the economy, the importance of multicultural and multilingual education, increases the state's plurality. These social, political and economic contexts favour the individual's mobility and therefore relationships between persons from different cultures will be fostered as individuals will be more likely to live and work outside their mother nation. The changes in Europe during recent years exemplify this. Tomorrow's European children will live and work in a different Europe, where borders will not exist, free travelling between countries and free trade of products will be an everyday reality. Easily, we can imagine that their working life will evolve in an international labour market, and so they will work and live in more than one country.

New technologies have made people question many basic assumptions. How will European unification influence cultural heritage, ethnic communities, religions and nations that are part of what we conventionally call Europe? In the search for answers to such questions further questions concerning what it means to be European, Catalan or Spanish arise.

## **1.2 NATION AND NATIONAL BELONGING**

The nation and national identity are salient categories for the modern world that fundamentally influence how we perceive the world, others, and also how we behave in front of them. The majority of definitions of the nation have three main common elements: spatial, social and politic (Smith, 1991). The spatial element is the territory, nations are usually linked to a homeland. The social element is related to the necessity that the members of a nation share common understandings, aspirations, historical memories, myths, symbols and traditions. The political element is, for some authors (Smith, 1991; Held, 1984), equivalent to the “state” or the “government”. But this definition does not take into account nations that are only part of a “State” (e.g. Québécois in Canada, Catalan and Basque in Spain).

In reality it is not strange to find several nations living together inside one “State”. For example Kymlicka (1996) defines the nation as the existence of a historical community, more or less institutionally complete, that occupies a concrete territory or homeland and share a language and a differentiated culture<sup>1</sup>. Thus it is considered that a state where several nations live together is a multinational state, where different cultures are national minorities<sup>2</sup>.

The process by which multinational states arise and how different nations form a part of it is extremely varied ranging from voluntary incorporation to invasion. Independently of their origins a lot of multinational states can be found amongst western democracies (e.g. Canada, United States of America, United Kingdom of Britain and Northern Ireland, Switzerland, Spain etc.). To assert that these (and others that have not been mentioned) are multinational states, does not mean to deny that in some ways, the citizens consider themselves as a whole/unique people. For example,

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<sup>1</sup> This definition of the nation does not give a solution to the discussion about what is or what is not a nation. Neither is it the only definition possible. It is only used to clarify what is understood in this work by the term “nation”.

<sup>2</sup> The term “multinational” is used rather than “multicultural” because this last term has been used to refer the co-existence of several cultures such as a teenager’s culture, gay’s culture, heavy metal culture etc.. whereas the term “multinational” expresses the idea of several nations existing or co-

the Swiss have a strong sense of common loyalty, despite their cultural and linguistic divisions. In fact, multinational states cannot survive unless the different national groups maintain their loyalty to the wider political community within which they are included and cohabit. Some authors, describe this common loyalty as a manner of national identity and therefore they consider Switzerland as state-nation. However, it is necessary to differentiate between feelings of state loyalty from national identity (i.e. the belonging to a national group).

There is a consensus in the literature that national belonging (Smith, 1992; Kymlicka, 1996) cannot be defined by race or common ancestry. The increase in migratory movements, in recent years, and cross-national marriages make all national groups racially and ethnically mixed. National minorities are cultural groups, not necessarily ethnic or ancestry groups. To focus national belonging in ethnicity or ancestry has strong racist connotations, which are obviously unjust. To avoid this injustice, anyone independent of race, sex, or origin should be able to become a member of a nation. But according to Smith (1992), this process of becoming a member of a nation can be achieved in two different ways, and this defines two different kinds of nationalism (civic and ethnic). Civic nationalism is characterised by an acceptance of political and democratic rights alone. Ethnic nationalism is characterised by the need to learn the language and history of the new national group. However, national belonging ought to be defined as the integration of a cultural community and should be opened to all people, independent of their race or origins by understanding this integration as the learning of the language, the history of the society and the participation in its political and social institutions (Kymlicka, 1995; Habermas, 1992; Walzer 1992).

### **1.3 NATIONAL IDENTITY**

National identity has been studied by several Social Sciences such as Anthropology, Sociology, Psychology (especially Social Psychology) etc. So, the study of national identity and its definition has to incorporate all these approaches. This research topic therefore often appears to be a labyrinth, where terms such as “national identity”,

“ethnic identity”, “cultural identity”, are always related and sometimes used synonymously and sometimes as completely different concepts. Although the focus of the current thesis is development, the Social Psychology theories traditionally used to study National Identity must also be recognised.

Montero (1984) offers a clear definition of these concepts: “Ethnic identity is the feeling of belonging to a social group that has a developed culture and comes from a common ancestry; cultural identity is related to the feelings of shared habits, costumes, etc., which are historically developed, and the production of which allows an identification. Finally, national identity is a set of meanings and representations which are relatively stable through time that allow the members of a social group, who share a common history and territory and other socio-cultural elements, to recognise themselves as related biographically with the others.” (pag. 26-27)

According to Smith (1991), the most important function of national identity is that it provides people with the knowledge of who they are and who others are, and where they are from. And it is during the socialisation process that people develop a devotion to the nation and the maintenance of a unique culture, and share values, symbols, traditions, and meanings. According to Billig (1995) the concept of national identity is a social concept formed by the habits, beliefs, and behaviours of the social life, with a strong emotional component. The expression of this part of our identity is present in our everyday life, practices and actions, even if often we do not recognise it.

Moreover, national identity is particularly applicable to serve as the primary focus of identification, because it is based on belonging, not accomplishment. National identity provides an anchor for people’s self-identification and the safety of effortless secure belonging. But this means that people’s self-respect is bound up with the esteem in which their national group is held.

#### **1.4 INDIVIDUAL AND COLLECTIVE RIGHTS**

Therefore, the study of national identities has to recognise the plurality and to respect the diversity of the national groups. It is important to know how these identities are formed from childhood, how they change, their relationship, genesis and development. The topic of national identities is a social and political debate, and this makes its scientific study necessary. Interpersonal relationships between citizens, economical, social and educational politics are orientated by the concept of national identity. “Universalistic” and “homogeneous” approaches are not the solution, since they neglect the complexity of the issues of national identity. To homogenise a society and to lose its diversity always implies a cultural impoverishment. People have to be able to maintain their own diverse identities and to respect the identities of others. This requires respect of others and, above all, the minorities, which are in this case the weaker. Collective rights have to be protected and respected and at the same time the individual rights of people.

It is sometimes assumed that collective rights claimed by national groups often threaten or undermine individual rights. However, viewing individual and collective rights as opposites does not help us to improve intergroup relationships.

The desire to protect cultural practices from internal conflicts can exist in all the cultures including homogeneous states-nation and many real life examples can be found. These kinds of collective rights seek to protect the group from the internal conflict and do not impact upon intergroup relationships. Obviously, there are some ethnic or national groups that do use their collective rights to restrict their own members’ freedom. For example, those that legally impose a theocratic culture and an orthodox religion that limit the individual liberties of their members.

On the other hand collective rights can be used to protect the existence of a group and its specific identity by limiting the impact of the decisions of the society within which it is included. These kinds of collective rights imply intergroup relationships and is

called external protection. Also these kinds of politics have risks when a group is excluded in order to conserve another group's specificity.

Even though both kinds of collective rights have risks when these rights are used, external protections do not necessarily create injustice. Concession of special rights of representation, of territorial claims, or linguistic rights of a minority do not imply a dominant position of one group over another. External protections can only exist in multinational or polyethnic states, due to their protection of the ethnic or national group from the destabilising impact of the wider society's decisions.

These claims, internal and external protections, do not have to be together, and therefore it is necessary to determine which kind of claim each group makes. So, all claims directed to promote the equality between groups have to be accepted, and thus definite external protections employed. But all internal restrictions that limit the member's right to question and to review traditional authorities and practices have to be rejected. In fact, minority rights have to be defended always if they are consistent with the respect of the freedom and the autonomy of the individual.

### **1.5 INDIVIDUAL FREEDOM AND CULTURE**

Respect of individual freedoms of group members is linked to, and in fact depends upon, culture. The term "culture" frequently has been used to define all kind of groups such as adolescents, gays, pop, etc. Here culture is defined as that which provides a group's members with meaningful ways of living across the full range of human activities, including social, educational, religious, recreational and economical life, encompassing both public and private spheres (Kymlicka, 1996). These cultures tend to concentrate in a territory and are based in a language, memory and shared values, and also in institutions and common practices that become a nation. The importance of the common institutions that embrace all the society and shape real options to the people is salient in the modern world. Historically such institution were scarce. For example, the language used in public schools was not a subject of debate when there were no public schools. Most analysts have concluded that the defining feature of

nation is that they are pervasive, encompassing and organisational cultures (Smith, 1986).

But to define nations as “pervasive, encompassing and organisational cultures” does not imply a restriction of the people’s freedom. On the contrary, culture grants people the freedom of choice in terms of how they lead their lives, respecting their capacity to re-examine and to evaluate and change the direction of their lives. Therefore, on the one hand, individuals must have the resources and liberties needed to lead their lives without the fear of discrimination or punishment. They must also have the conditions necessary to acquire an awareness of different views about life, and an ability to examine and evaluate them. Thus, individual freedom is understood to be the ability to make choices from amongst options. Culture not only provides these options, but also makes them meaningful to us.

To choose amongst various social practices implies an understanding of meaning attached to them by our culture. Our culture also provides us with the models through which we can identify experiences as valuable (Duworkin, 1985). According to Duworkin, the survival of a culture is not guaranteed and it has to be actively protected. This is not because it is valuable in itself, but because it is only having access to a culture, and an understanding of its history, language, tradition and convention that people have the availability of meaningful options. For meaningful individual choice to be possible, people need not only to have access to information, the capacity to reflectively evaluate it, and freedom of expression and association, but also a culture.

According to Rawls (1993) the ties to one’s culture are normally too strong to be given up. People are born and are expected to lead a complete life within the same society and culture. Abandonment of cultural ties, of one’s own political and organisational community, is a very difficult process and it seems that it is not legitimate to demand that people pay this price, not only because it is a very slow process, but also because of the role of cultural membership in people’s self-identity. Cultural membership has a high social profile, in the sense that it affects how others perceive and respond to us,



which in turn shapes our self-identity. So to abandon or change our cultural ties can only be demanded if people voluntarily decide to move to another community and to live in another culture (Rawls 1993).

Sometimes minority rights may impose restrictions on the members of the larger society, by making it difficult for them to move into the territory of the minority (e.g. by having to learn another language, etc.). In all cases, these difficulties are fewer than the difficulties that the minority group members would face in the absence of such rights, since, without these rights national minority members would have to face the loss of their culture. Consequently, their cultural membership and their self-identity would be affected and it is unreasonable to ask people to accept such a loss. When these minority rights are recognised, members of the majority who choose to enter the minority's homeland may have to forego certain benefits which they are accustomed to. In fact, language rights are a fundamental cause of political conflict, even violence, throughout the world, including Canada, Belgium, Spain, Sri Lanka, the Baltic, Bulgaria, Turkey and many other countries. Sometimes this issue is solved by leaving each political subunit to make its own language policy on a democratic basis. So, if a national minority forms a majority in a territory, they can decide to have their mother tongue as the official language. But this is only because they are recognised as a local majority not as a nation.

The special rights (claim of territory, language, etc.) that contribute to the external protections for national minorities, have to be accepted always since they reduce the inequalities between majority and minority groups. In this context it is understood that equality is to ensure the same opportunity to live and work in one's culture for all the people independently of which culture they belong to. Once the cultures of national groups are protected, through language rights and territorial autonomy, then the decisions about which particular aspect of one's culture are worth maintaining and developing should be left to the choices of individual members (Kymlicka, 1996) and their capacity to evaluate and re-examine their own culture.

But when a culture allows its member to evaluate, question and even reject traditional forms, cultural identity becomes more diffused and less characteristic. When culture becomes more liberal its members share fewer things (traditions, ways of life, etc.) with members of their own national group and may share a more similar sense of civilisation with members from other national groups. Maybe this explains why some authors (Smith, 1986; Duworkin, 1985; 1989; Rawls, 1978; 1993) have supposed that the modernisation of the nation and liberalisation will supplant the attachments to the differentiated culture and the nationalism movements linked with it.

However, it can be found that nationalism movements have actually increased in society, and that members of different national groups value highly their own culture. This national belonging has a high social value, and the way that people perceive and react to other national group members and how people are perceived and reacted to by the others, depends upon it.

National minorities' desire to survive as different cultural societies does not imply necessarily a desire to maintain a cultural purity, but a desire to maintain their cultural belonging and to continue developing it, in the same way that the members of the majority develop theirs.

The fact is that Western societies are becoming more heterogeneous from the national point of view. This fact means that we need to search for consensus from a position of mutual respect, to guarantee the coherence and the social cohesion.

In the Spanish State, actually, everybody recognises its plurality. The political and territorial organisation gives to Spain the name of the Autonomies' State, where different nations live together with their own national identities, identities that at the same time are plural, diverse and therefore, complex. Differentiated rights for each group, such as territorial autonomy, representation in the central institutions, and linguistic rights, that can help to decrease the vulnerability of the minority groups in front the majority, are guaranteed by the Spanish Constitution.

Catalonia has a strong nationalist movement, a high level of autonomy in its legislative, educational, social and health services, and a generalised social perception of being different from the rest of Spain. The Catalan government has power over the educational system and in Catalan state schools Catalan is the official language. As such, all children living in Catalonia can speak both Catalan and Castilian. However, it doesn't follow that both languages are the mother tongue. Approximately 50% of the population of Catalonia have Catalan as their own language. But due to the migratory movement from the south of Spain to Catalonia during the 60's, there are many families that only speak Castilian within their family circle, so these children have Castilian as a mother tongue. Also there are mixed families where one parent speaks Catalan with the children and the other speaks Castilian, so these children have both languages as a mother tongue.

Even knowing that the construction of the national identity is diverse and complex, sometimes a mimetic relationship between the knowledge of a language and the national identity associated with it can be found in public discourse. In fact, there is a relationship between the national identity and the language, but national identity is not synonymous with the knowledge of the language (e.g. an English child who learns Spanish does not develop a Spanish identity). Vila (1996) found that adolescents who have Castilian as their mother tongue and underwent a Catalan immersion program within schools do not necessarily have a highly salient Catalan identity. The relationship that appears in several socio-linguistic studies (Siguan 1994), is between national identity and the maintenance of the language (in our case Catalan) as a family language. And the right of the Catalan speakers in Catalonia to keep the Catalan language as a mother tongue is what makes it necessary that all the people independently of their family language have to know the Catalan language. Because only then will the Catalan language provide Catalan speakers with incentives and opportunities to use it and to develop it in a cognitively stimulating way. If a language is relegated to a family context, without any public dimension, or as a second class

language in a public dimension, the speakers of this language will lose their right to live their life in the language that they chose.

## **2. HISTORY OF CATALONIA AND ITS INSTITUTIONS**

This chapter presents a summary of the history of Catalonia and the development of its institutions. This summary only pretends to explain the facts in the Catalan history that have an effect on its development as a nation, its territory, language and institutions.

### **2.1 CATALONIA AS A COMMUNITY**

The origin of Catalonia as a community with its own culture, territory and institutions goes back to the early part of the Middle Ages (c.11-12th). Throughout the centuries, Catalonia has had institutions and forms of government, each one appropriate to its time, with varying degrees of sovereignty. During certain periods, these institutions corresponded to the existence of a sovereign state, while at other more recent times they have represented a sharing of power with the central Spanish State.

The exercise of their rights and liberties and the authority of their institutions were interrupted against the will of the people for long stretches of time throughout the history of Catalonia. However, Catalonia has always managed to regain control of its own destiny, especially when at decisive moments its citizens have demonstrated their unified support of their political institutions.

The present structure of political power in Catalonia was defined basically by the 1979 Statute of Autonomy after the adoption of the new Spanish Constitution in 1978. But the most important political institution, the ‘Generalitat de Catalunya’, that is the executive organisation of the Catalan Government, was "restored" in 1977 prior to the adoption of the Constitution. The term "restored" is used not only because the Generalitat de Catalunya had existed in democratic Spain during the Second Republic (1931-1939), but also because the birth of this institution goes back to the 14-15th centuries as an executive body set up by the ‘Corts Generals’ (General Courts) of the Federation of the Catalan-Aragon Crown (c.14-15th). For this reason, when modern Spain recovered its democracy, the Generalitat re-emerged immediately after the end of dictatorship periods, even before the

democratic state was formally constituted. This happened in 1931 and again in 1977, as we will see further on. First, however, we will go back in time to review the origins.

## **2.2 THE BIRTH OF CATALAN POLITICAL INSTITUTIONS**

The progressive emancipation of the Counts of Catalonia from the Frankish kings throughout the 10th and 11th centuries, the conquest of new territories wrested from the Saracens and the ensuing repopulation of this area with Catalan-speakers, together with the supremacy of the Counts of Barcelona (Ramon Berenguer III and Ramon Berenguer IV) were all decisive factors in the long process of Catalan unification. This process led to the establishment of Barcelona as the capital city, the consolidation of a unified government over the Catalan counties, and the implantation of the country's own language. The heads of the House of Barcelona were to govern the Catalan people for the better part of five centuries.

With the marriage of Count Ramon Berenguer IV to Petronila of Aragon in 1137, the Kingdom of Catalonia and Aragon was born. In addition to these two territories together with Provence and Roussillon, this kingdom was to successively incorporate during the reign of James I the Conqueror (c.13th) the Balearic Islands, Valencia, Sicily, Corsica, Sardinia and Naples, and ultimately extended as far as Athens and Neopatria.

The progressive consolidation of the territory and government of Catalonia due to the course of events during that period culminated in the establishment of a legitimate title. By virtue of the Treaty of Corbeil (1258) between James I the Conqueror and Louis IX (Saint Louis of France), the former agreed to the loss of his dominions beyond the Pyrenees (except Montpellier and Roussillon), while the King of France as the successor to the Carolingian kings renounced his rights to the Catalan provinces of Barcelona, Urgell, Besalú, Roussillon, Empúries, Cerdanya, Conflent, Girona and Osona. Catalonia lost territory but gained legitimate independence. Indeed, this independence was a fact from the 10th century when several institutions to govern the territory of Catalonia can be already found. For example, the “Cort Comtal” and the assemblies of “Pau i Treva” (Peace and Truce)

which deliberated over the signing of peace treaties or actions to be taken in response to acts of violence.

When Peter I died in the Battle of Muret (1214), the country fell into a state of confusion about the succession rights. According to contemporary historians, it is at this moment when the papal delegate reunited in assembly the prelates and magnates of the royal court and the representatives of the towns and villages to establish the political order. The new King, James I, still a child, took his oath before this assembly called the *Corts Reials Catalanes* (The Catalan Royal Courts). But it is in the reign of Peter II the Great (1276-1285) when the institutional form of the *Corts Reials* took shape, having the *Corts* advisory as well as legislative functions exercised through the three social estates (clergy, nobility, villages and towns subjected to government by the King). The whole assembly of all these Catalan representatives in the *Corts* was called “*lo General de Catalunya*” and represented a true balance of powers between the estates and the King. During the 14th and 15th centuries an executive body to carry the *Corts Reials* ruling was needed and the *Generalitat* was created.

### **2.3 THE DEMISE OF THE CATALAN DYNASTY AND THE TRASTÁMARA AND HAPSBURG HOUSES (15TH-17TH CENTURIES)**

The demise of the Catalan Dynasty in 1410 upon the death of Martin the Humane, who left no legitimate heir, proved decisive in the progressive assumption of powers by the *Generalitat*. By virtue of the *Compromise of Caspe* (1412) the Catalan-Aragon Crown passed into the hands of the Castilian *Trastámara* Dynasty in the person of Ferdinand I of Antequera who agreed to respect the *Constitutions of Catalonia* and recognise of the powers of the *Generalitat*, acknowledging not only the judicial and financial powers but also the political ones. Under this reign, the *Generalitat* shaped its definitive legal form assuming the responsibility for defending the *Constitutions of Catalonia*, making demands of the king himself if necessary.

Gradually the Generalitat became the highest representation of the interests of Catalonia and a fierce defender of its Constitutions and liberties against the encroachments of the monarchy and the Inquisition.

The dominion of Castile was consolidated during the reign of the Catholic Kings, whose marriage brought together the crowns of Castile and Catalonia-Aragon. Ferdinand II (1479-1516) introduced Castilian institutions (such as the Inquisition), government officials and even posted Castilian troops in Catalonia. The gradual decline of Barcelona and its institutions provided a foothold for this development.

When Ferdinand II was succeeded by his grandson Charles I (1516-1556), the first monarch of the House of Hapsburg or Austria, Catalonia's dependence on, and isolation from, Castile was accentuated. With the establishment of the Hapsburg Dynasty, the monarchy became even more distanced from the interests of the people. This was exemplified by the introduction in Catalonia of the figure of the viceroy, the monarch's envoy and representative. This delegation of powers caused friction with the Generalitat at a time when, within Catalonia, this institution was sometimes seen as an oligarchic power, which did not always manage finances in the interests of the citizens. Financial problems also created conflicts with the Crown during the reign of Philip III (1598-1621) because of the taxes Catalonia was obliged to pay to the Crown. The Generalitat was, of course, charged with the collection of these taxes. This situation made the Catalans even more distrustful and led to confrontations, which led to open warfare during the reign of Philip IV (1621-1665). Under Philip IV, the Catalan institutions faced the most serious threat in their history up to that time. While the King was still a minor, the Count of Olivares promoted political centralisation at all costs and he consequently advised the King to subject all of the kingdoms of Spain "to the style and laws of Castile". During the Thirty Years War (1618-1648), in which Castile aligned itself with Austria against France, the King and his advisor Olivares made a series of demands on the Catalans who were requested to provide funds and men for a war which in no way affected Catalonia. The Constitutions of Catalonia, which the King himself had sworn to respect, guaranteed the right of Catalans to do this freely, but never under duress. The Generalitat, and particularly its president, Pau Claris, came



under considerable pressure, and Francesc de Tamarit, the military envoy, was imprisoned.

To make matters worse, Castilian royal troops sent to defend Roussillon against French territorial pretensions committed terrible excesses of libertine conduct and pillage in Catalan territory. This aroused first the indignation of the population and then a general uprising. On 7 June 1640, on the feast of Corpus Christi, the peasants entered Barcelona to fight the royalists. It was this bloody Corpus Christi which touched of the Spanish invasion, which had already been prepared by the Count of Olivares.

The Generalitat, presided over by Pau Claris, called the people to resist and dispatched ambassadors to Louis XIII, King of France, requesting aid against the invasion by the King of Spain. The aid promised by the French King, through Cardinal Richelieu, was insufficient, despite his offer to support the creation of a Catalan Republic.

On 26 January 1641, the Battle of Montjuïc was fought against the army of Philip IV, who was defeated and forced to retreat. One month later, the president Pau Claris died. In an obituary published in the *Dietari de la Generalitat* he was described as "the great restorer of our motherland Catalonia, defender and liberator of the motherland".

After the fall of the Count of Olivares, famine and plague and Philip IV's promise to respect Catalan institutions brought the war to an end in 1652, although this did not result in absolute peace.

Although the Thirty Years War had ended with the Treaty of Westphalia in 1648, in which Spanish dominions in the centre of Europe were relinquished, the war between France and Castile affecting Catalan territories to the north of the Pyrenees continued. When Louis XIV and Philip IV signed the Peace of the Pyrenees in 1659, Catalonia was mutilated when Philip IV ceded a part of Catalan territory (Roussillon, Capcir, Conflent, Vallespir and part of Cerdanya) to France, once again transgressing the Constitutions of Catalonia.

#### **2.4 THE WAR OF SUCCESSION; THE BOURBON HOUSE (1702-1714)**

If in the 17th century Catalonia suffered the consequences of the Thirty Years War and the loss of its northernmost territory, in the 18th century it was to lose its political institutions as the result of a conflict over the succession to the throne of Castile and Catalonia-Aragon, which eventually led to an international war. For some European countries, the succession to the Spanish throne was a weighty enough matter to change the balance of power in Europe. For Catalonia, the outcome was decisive for the preservation of its rights and liberties. Philip IV and his successor Charles II (1665-1700) were the last monarchs of the Austrian Hapsburg Dynasty. Charles II, who died without leaving an heir, had made an effort to ease tensions with Catalonia, so it was not surprising that when the question of succession was posed, the Catalans mistrusted the absolutism of the French Dynasty, and showed greater inclination towards the Austrian claimant.

Before the death of Charles II in 1700, all of the arts of French diplomacy were marshalled to persuade him to designate Duke Philip of Anjou, grandson of Louis XIV, as his successor to the Spanish throne. The pressures brought to bear on the dying king led to the designation of the French claimant over Archduke Charles of Austria, nephew of the Queen of Spain (Mariana of Neuburg) and son of the Austrian Emperor Leopold I. Charles's claim was supported by the Catalans, England, Holland, and some German states. Later, Portugal and Savoy joined this Great Alliance against the King of France, Louis XIV, and Duke Philip of Anjou, the new King of Spain, Philip V. Nonetheless, neither the Generalitat nor the mass of Catalans rejected the first Bourbon king, Philip V, until their freedom was threatened despite the fact that the king had sworn to respect these rights in the first Corts held in Barcelona in 1701.

In 1700, there was open warfare in Europe against Spanish possessions and the Madrid-Paris axis: Holland, with English aid, concentrated troops around Flanders; Austria did the same in the Milanese. The Great Alliance found staunch allies in the Catalan supporters of the Archduke Charles of Austria against Philip V, while the German states were divided between the two blocks.

Full-scale war broke out in May 1702. The first skirmishes within Spanish territory were provoked by the English and Dutch navies and took place along the coasts of Cadiz and Vigo.

In Catalonia, opposition to Philip V increased because of the continuous vexations on the part of the King and his Viceroy, Fernández de Velasco, who was also in conflict with the Generalitat because of its defence of the Constitutions of Catalonia. This situation and the news of the battles undertaken by the Great Alliance led to an uprising in Catalonia in mid-1705. In June, two Catalan envoys signed the Genoa Pact with the representatives of Queen Anne of England in favour of Archduke Charles of Austria. In exchange, the English Crown guaranteed respect for the freedom and Constitutions of Catalonia, irrespective of the result of the war. Catalonia was not interested in the war of succession, but was fighting to preserve its rights and liberties.

Towards the end of 1705, Archduke Charles of Austria triumphantly entered Barcelona as King Charles III. He immediately convened the Corts Catalanes and swore to respect the Constitutions of the Catalans. These were to be the last Corts in the history of the Catalan-Aragon Crown.

In Europe, everything seemed to point to an allied victory over the absolutism of France and Spain. In 1706, Philip V laid siege to Barcelona, but Catalan resistance proved to be effective and the king failed and was forced to flee to France. However, soon afterwards he managed to conquer two major territories of the Catalan-Aragon Federation: Valencia in 1707, and Aragon in 1708.

In 1708, Louis XIV, defeated on several fronts, sued for peace. However, the demands of the allies caused negotiations to break down, since the French King refused to accept that his grandson Philip V should renounce the Spanish throne. The war continued.

An unexpected event changed the course of history: in April 1711, the Austrian Emperor Joseph I died, and his brother, Archduke Charles, inherited the Crown and left Barcelona for Vienna. Faced with the danger of the reconstitution of a great European empire, more fearful a prospect than the Franco-Spanish alliance if the

Spanish throne finally fell into Austrian hands, the non-Austrian allied powers decided to negotiate peace with Louis XIV and to recognise Philip V. Talks began immediately and eventually resulted in the Treaty of Utrecht of 1713.

Catalonia was thus abandoned to its fate despite the promises of the new Austrian Emperor Charles and the English Crown. The Emperor proposed to England the constitution of Catalonia as a Republic. But England knew that this would mean continuing a war that was no longer in its interests, and merely insisted to Madrid through its ambassador Lord Lexington that it was necessary to respect Catalan liberties, adding that the Catalans "could still cut a considerable figure in the world by organising themselves as a commonwealth".

### **2.5 PHILIP V AND THE ABOLITION OF THE GENERALITAT (C.18TH)**

In March 1713, Philip V's troops laid siege to Barcelona. Catalonia, now reduced to the two fortified areas of Barcelona and Cardona, had to choose between surrendering and continuing the struggle in its own defence. In mid-1713, the Braços Generals– the Corts without the King – were convened to take a decision. In the light of the imbalance between the Catalan forces (now bereft of the support of the Great Alliance troops) and those of Philip V, the military and ecclesiastic representatives together with the deputies of the Generalitat were in favour of accepting the Bourbon king. But the representatives of the civil estate won the vote in favour of resistance. Respecting this decision, the Generalitat once more called the people to defend the city.

The siege was started by the Duke of Berwick, the French General imposed by Louis XIV on his grandson Philip V. General Antoni Villarroel was placed at the head of the Catalan troops. In Philip V, the Catalans saw the definitive establishment of an absolutist and centrist power over all the subject territories. Contemporary observers saw the siege of Barcelona as an aggression against a people who had made freedom the basis of their institutions. The writers of the time described the defence of Barcelona as a heroic gesture, which was admired throughout Europe.

After eighteen months of siege and fierce battle the city was finally forced to capitulate on 11 September 1714. The most distinguished defenders of Barcelona wished to save the city and its defenders from total defeat.

On 15 September 1714, the Duke of Berwick officially appointed the Supreme Royal Council of Justice and Government under the presidency of Philip's minister, to replace the Generalitat and the Consell de Cent (Council of the One Hundred which existed from the time of Ferdinand II and represented the Barcelona city's power and had legislative and advisory powers and acted as a sort of parliament). The following day, Philip's minister read the decree of dissolution before the President of the Generalitat: "The representation of the Diputació and Generalitat de Catalunya having ceased to exercise its function as a result of the entrance of the arms of the King into this fortified city, His Excellency the Marshall Duke of Berwick and Liria has charged me to order the deputies and "oïdors de comptes" (auditors of accounts) of the General de Catalunya as well as all of their subordinates to take down all emblems, to completely cease the exercise of their positions, posts and offices, and to hand in their keys, books and all other elements related to this Diputació and its premises..." Valencia and Aragon had already fallen to the Castilian Crown. Mallorca and Ibiza surrendered the following year. As a result of the Treaty of Utrecht (1713), Minorca was ceded to England. The other territories of the former Crown of Catalonia and Aragon were dismembered: Naples and Sardinia came under Austrian sovereignty, and Sicily was handed over to the Duke of Savoy.

The Generalitat and the Consell de Cent had been abolished, the Catalan military forces disarmed and disbanded or exiled, the leaders of the resistance imprisoned or condemned to death, their castles destroyed, the Mint closed, the University of Barcelona and the "Estudis Generals del Principat" abolished, and the official use of Spanish instead of Catalan was decreed. Catalonia lost all political power and was submitted to a long process of "Castilianisation".

The new system of government of Catalonia, provisionally established in 1714, was definitively established by the Royal Decree of "Nueva Planta" (Reorganisation) approved by the Council of Castile on 16 January 1716. The

Decree of “Nueva Planta” entrusted maximum power of government to a military officer, the Captain General, who was assisted by the Royal Tribunal. The territorial division of the Principality which had already existed at the time of James I was replaced. More than two centuries would have to pass before the territorial organisation into counties (which existed before James I) would finally be restored by the 20th-century Generalitat.

During the reigns of the successors of Philip V, Ferdinand VI (1746-1759) and Charles III (1759-1788), the attention of the Catalans was focused on cultural and economic resurgence, partly a result of Charles III's decision to allow the Catalan ports direct commerce with the Americas for the first time. This was a time of industrial development for Catalonia.

Political life was centred on the Madrid Court from which came all decisions affecting the government of Catalonia. Philip V had banished the official use of Catalan, and in a Royal Letter Patent of 1768 Charles III eliminated the language from primary and secondary education. Obviously these measures did not result in the total disappearance of the Catalan language, which even then continued to serve as a vehicle for notable literary works. Likewise Catalonia, despite its official submission to the new monarch, had not entirely lost its national awareness. When the Madrid Courts met in 1789 to swear in the heir Prince Ferdinand, the Catalan representatives presented themselves as the *Diputació del Principat de Catalunya*, in memory of the now-abolished Generalitat.

In some sectors of Catalan society, the French Revolution was received as a breath of fresh air. When France declared war on Spain in 1793, giving way to the so-called "Great War", Catalonia organised its defence against the French, who ultimately lost. In 1795, the Peace of Basel was signed formalising the reciprocal restitution of occupied territories.

With the rise of Napoleon Bonaparte and the start of his army's conquest of Europe, Catalonia was once again embroiled in a defensive war, just thirteen years after the end of the Great War. Charles IV (1788-1808) was incapable of dealing with the situation. Napoleon skilfully took advantage of the King's weakness and the

inexperience of his successor, Ferdinand VII, to expand his empire. The defence of Catalan territory was thus motivated by hatred of the invader and religious convictions. The Higher Council of the Principality, an independent body charged with organising the military defence forces, was constituted in mid-1808. This opened a devastating period of war, which left the country ravaged and impoverished. Napoleon tried to win over Catalonia by offering it a form of self-government independent of the Crown of Joseph Bonaparte (1810) and by decreeing the official status of the Catalan language. Nonetheless, the Principality refused to accept occupation. With the war against Napoleon still raging, the Courts in Cadiz gave constitutional force to centrist and uniformist policies which placed Catalonia in a position which was even more unfavourable than that which Napoleon was willing to grant.

The Higher Council of the Principality, which had acted as a government in times of emergency, was abolished and replaced by a new body established by the Constitution of Cadiz: the Provincial Council, presided by the Captain General, who was the highest authority in the Principality. The War against French occupation had ushered in a new period characterised by the predominance of the military. Under the Constitution of Cadiz (1812), Catalonia was divided into provinces. Later, under the absolutist rule of Ferdinand VII, who recovered the Spanish Crown from Napoleon in 1813, re-established the territorial organisation imposed by Philip V. Ten years later, the provincial divisions were reinstated.

During the 19th century, civil unrest, the Carlist wars and confrontations between political parties punctuated the history of Catalonia. The short-lived Spanish First Republic of 1873 featured two Catalans as Presidents: Figueras and Pi i Margall. In 1874, a military coup brought down the Republic and restored the monarchy with Alfonso XII, who was succeeded by Alfonso XIII under the regency of Maria Cristina in 1885.

## **2.5 RECOVERING OF SELF-GOVERNMENT (19TH-20TH CENTURIES)**

The most decisive and directly political action, in terms of the effective recovery of the political power lost when the Generalitat was abolished by Philip V, was the

constitutional assembly of the “Unió Catalanista” in 1892, formulating the Basis for the Catalan Regional Constitution, commonly known as the “Bases de Manresa”. This document called for a Catalan Corts, an executive body exercising autonomous power, the re-establishment of the Tribunal of Catalonia as a body of judicial power, autonomous control over public order and education, and official status for the Catalan language as the sole native language of the country. The fundamental principle inspiring the Bases was that "Catalonia shall be sovereign in its internal government".

At the turn of the century, Catalan political nationalism was reinforced by a cultural, artistic and literary renaissance of some importance. Catalonia emerged from a period of crisis and exhaustion. With the impetus provided by the industrial revolution and the dynamic nature of its society, which already had close ties with Europe, it became the economic driving force of the Iberian Peninsula.

The first unified body representing Catalan nationalism was founded in 1906, “Solidaritat Catalana”, which was a pro-autonomy movement which brought together the majority of the nationalistic parties. This movement emerged as a protest against the military repression of the Catalan press of the time, and also to oppose a law on jurisdiction proposed by the central government which was clearly an attack on democracy and autonomy. The following year, Solidaritat Catalana won a clear victory in the elections to the Corts.

The two most notable members of Solidaritat Catalana, Enric Prat de la Riba (1870-1917) and Francesc Cambó (1876-1947), were important figures in Catalan politics at the beginning of the 20th century. In 1906, in “La nacionalitat catalana”, Prat de la Riba expounded a philosophical justification of Catalan nationalism, calling for the establishment of a Catalan state within a Spanish federation. He was also the creator of the “Mancomunitat de Catalunya”.

The Mancomunitat, established in 1914, was based on the union of the four Catalan Provincial Councils and represented the first territorial reunification of Catalonia. It was made up of an Assembly composed of the ninety-six deputies of Catalonia in the Spanish Parliament, a Council of eight ministers and the President, Prat de la



Riba. Without any budget other than the funds collected by the four provincial Councils, the Mancomunitat carried out cultural and civic work of which the results can still be seen today. But the Mancomunitat was also abolished in 1925, this time by the dictatorship of General Primo de Rivera (1923-1930).

The fall of the Primo de Rivera dictatorship brought down the monarchy, defeated in the municipal elections of 12 April 1931 in which the Republican forces triumphed. In Catalonia, these forces had co-ordinated their efforts during March of 1930 with a view to establishing a federal republic (Manifest de la Intel·ligència Republicana) which would see the restoration of real self-government in Catalonia. On 17 August 1930, representatives of the Republican movement from all over the state met in San Sebastian to agree on the establishing of the Republic. The Catalan Republican representatives who went to San Sebastian demanded recognition of Catalonia's right to autonomy as a precondition. The legal solution accepted in the Pact of San Sebastian was that Catalonia would express its autonomous aspirations in a Statute of Autonomy, which would be subject to the approval of the people in a plebiscite, and of the Corts with respect to the division of powers between the central government and the autonomous government of Catalonia.

### **2.7 THE RE-EMERGENCE OF THE GENERALITAT DE CATALUNYA (1931-1939)**

Francesc Macià, the leader of Esquerra Republicana de Catalunya (ERC), a Republican left-wing party, won a clear victory in the elections held on 12 April 1931. On 14 April, Macià proclaimed the Catalan Republic within an Iberian Federation. A few hours later the second Spanish Republic was proclaimed in Madrid. Negotiations between the two new powers, in Madrid and Barcelona, resulted on 17 April in the provisional reestablishment of the Generalitat de Catalunya as the government of Catalonia with Francesc Macià as its first President.

Decrees issued on 28 April by President Macià established the provisional structure of the Generalitat and appointed its first Government, in which Esquerra Republicana de Catalunya had a clear majority. The Generalitat was composed of a Council or provisional Government, a provisional Assembly (forty-five deputies

elected by the town councillors of all of the Catalan municipalities) and commissioners delegated by the Government who took over the services previously run by the Provincial Councils, which no longer existed in Catalonia. One of the first acts of the government of President Macià was to abolish all the public bodies, which had no place within the structure of Catalan territory.

These events opened up a new chapter of history which proved, however, not to be exempt from serious problems. Despite the fact that this period represented only a brief interlude (1931-1939) and that the Statute of Autonomy was suspended between October 1934 and February 1936, it was sufficient to establish the foundation on which political power in Catalonia is still structured today.

The provisional Assembly was responsible for drafting the Statute of Autonomy which, after being approved by plebiscite, was presented to the Cortes of the Spanish Republic for ratification. However, the Statute was never ratified: the Cortes modified its contents and limited the scope of the powers of the Generalitat. On 9 September 1932, the Cortes approved the revised Statute, and a few weeks later parliamentary elections were held in Catalonia. The Parliament of Catalonia was constituted on 6 December 1932, with Lluís Companys as its first President.

The Generalitat was composed of the Parliament, the President of the Generalitat and the Government. Shortly afterwards, with the creation of the Supreme Court of Appeals in 1934, Catalonia assumed judicial powers in addition to its executive and legislative powers. The Generalitat also assumed additional executive powers, including jurisdiction over matters relating to public order, when the governmental structure of the Civil Governors, representing the Spanish Government in Catalonia, was eliminated in January 1934. However, the creation of this new power structure in Catalonia and the granting to the Generalitat of powers of government in no way represented a return to the sovereignty enjoyed prior to the abolition of the Generalitat by Philip V.

On Christmas Day 1933, President Macià, the man who had succeeded in restoring the Generalitat and the Parliament of Catalonia, chose Lluís Companys as his successor.

The mandate of Lluís Companys (1933-1940), second President of the modern Generalitat, was an extremely dynamic period for the Parliament of Catalonia, particularly from a legislative standpoint. The Supreme Court of Appeal was created, the Municipalities Act was passed, and numerous other laws and statutory instruments affecting Finance, Justice, Labour, Cooperatives, Agriculture, Education, Culture, Health, Civil Law, etc. were approved.

On 6 October 1934, President Lluís Companys, considering that the stability of the Republic and the autonomy of Catalonia were in danger, clashed with the central Spanish Government and proclaimed the Catalan State within the Spanish Federal Republic. The army quashed the movement, the Statute of Autonomy was suspended and the Government of Catalonia and many other citizens, both officials and non-officials, were imprisoned and handed down long sentences. As a result of the general elections held in February 1936, the members of the Government of Catalonia were released from prison and the Generalitat resumed its functions.

General Franco led a military uprising against the Republic, which began on 18 July 1936. This attempted coup marked the beginning of the Spanish Civil War. In Catalonia, however, the people and the police force directed by the Generalitat put down the military revolt. Nevertheless, the uprising provoked a revolutionary explosion, which had been building up for some time, particularly within the ranks of the anarcho-sindicalists of the CNT-FAI. This resulted in serious conflicts with the Generalitat lasting until the end of 1936, when ministers following the anarchist ideology joined the Government. This chapter was fated to be a short one. In May 1937, the CNT-FAI lost its hegemony, which passed over to the communists and the governing party, Esquerra Republicana de Catalunya.

During the first phase of the Civil War, the Government of the Generalitat assumed full emergency powers to deal with the situation. This allowed them to make the decisions necessary to defend the governing institutions of Catalonia. Thus, the legislature and Lluís Companys' term as president were prolonged owing to the impossibility of holding legislative elections.

Towards the end of 1937, the central Government in Madrid took back the powers which it had granted to Catalonia with the 1932 Statute of Autonomy, in particular those relating to public order. Once again internal socio-political struggles in Catalonia were to have negative repercussions on its political autonomy.

### **2.8 THE GENERALITAT DE CATALUNYA IN EXILE (1939-1977)**

In 1938, with the Civil War still raging, General Franco once again abolished the Generalitat and banished the use of Catalan in any social situation as Philip V had done in 1716. And once again these measures did not result in the total disappearance of the Catalan language, which even then continued to serve as a vehicle for notable literary works. The defeat of the Republic in 1939 forced the Catalan Government, the members of parliament and thousands of ordinary citizens into exile. At the request of the authorities of the Franco regime in Madrid, President Lluís Companys was captured in August 1940 in the small French town of La Baule by three agents of the German military police and delivered to the government of Franco. Judged in Montjuïc Castle in Barcelona by a military court and sentenced to death, he was executed on 15 October 1940.

In view of the impossibility of Parliament meeting under these circumstances, Josep Irla, who had been elected President of the Parliament in October 1938, temporarily assumed the Presidency of the Generalitat in exile, until he resigned on 7 May 1954. The need to guarantee the continuity of the Presidency of the Generalitat in a situation in which the normal functioning of the institutions of Catalonia was impossible led to the election of a new president by the deputies of the Parliament of Catalonia. This meeting took place on 7 August 1954 in the Spanish Embassy in Mexico<sup>1</sup>; one of the countries that had not recognised the political regime of Spain set up under Franco in 1939. Josep Tarradellas, to whom President Josep Irla had delegated his executive functions in 1952, was elected President. In 1937, Tarradellas had been the Chief Minister of the Catalan Government and Minister of Finance.

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<sup>1</sup> During this time the Spanish Embassy in Mexico was still a representative of the Republican Government of Spain.

Tarradellas became the trustee of the Generalitat and was recognised as such by Catalan political forces.

## **2.8 DEMOCRACY ARRIVES TO SPAIN; THE RE-ESTABLISHED GENERALITAT (1977-1980)**

The legalisation of political parties following the death of General Franco in 1975 and the proclamation of Juan Carlos I as King of Spain, led to the first Spanish legislative elections which were held on 15 June 1977. The road was opened to democracy. In Catalonia the elections were won by the parties that included the re-establishment of the Generalitat and the return of their exiled President in their electoral programmes. This was done to emphasise the continuity of the institution, which had symbolically continued in exile. As a result, on 29 September 1977, the Generalitat de Catalunya was re-established by royal decree and Josep Tarradellas returned to his country after an exile of forty years to be recognised as President of the Generalitat. Shortly thereafter, a commission of experts appointed by the Catalan Assembly composed of Members of Parliament who had been elected in the June 1977 elections began drafting the Statute of Autonomy known, after the place where it was drawn up, as the Statute of Sau.

In December 1978, King Juan Carlos sanctioned the Spanish Constitution before the "Cortes Generales". A year later, on 18 December 1979, he also sanctioned the Statute of Autonomy of Catalonia which had been approved first by the Spanish "Cortes" and subsequently by a referendum of the people of Catalonia held in October 1979. According to its preamble, this Statute "is the expression of the collective identity of Catalonia and defines its institutions and relations with the State within a framework of free solidarity with the other nationalities and regions". In the same document the Generalitat is defined as "the institution around which the self-government of Catalonia is politically organised".

A historic date in the annals of Catalan democracy was 20 March 1980 when the second legislative elections were held to constitute the new Parliament of Catalonia (the first had been held forty-eight years earlier on 20 November 1932). On 10 April, the Parliament and its deputies elected Heribert Barrera as President of the

restored Parliament, and Jordi Pujol i Soley as the hundred-and-fifteenth president of the historic Generalitat.

### **3. CONTEMPORARY CONTEXT OF THE RESEARCH**

Against the historical background presented in the previous chapter, this chapter provides an overview of the current situation in Catalonia from demographic, political and linguistic perspective.

#### **3.1 POLITICAL ORGANISATION**

With the re-establishment of democracy in Spain, the way was opened for the restoration of the Catalan institutions of self-government. The 1977 democratic elections in Spain, the re-establishment of the provisional Generalitat in the same year, the enactment of the 1978 Spanish Constitution and the Catalan Statute of Autonomy in 1979, and finally the 1980 Catalan legislative elections were the milestones which led to the re-establishment of autonomous political power in Catalonia embodied in the Generalitat.

The Statute of Autonomy establishes that the Generalitat shall be composed of three essential bodies: the Parliament, the President of the Generalitat and the Executive Council or Government. The Constitution and the Statute stipulate that the laws of Catalonia shall regulate the functioning of these institutions. One of the most important laws passed by the Catalan Parliament by virtue of this right to define its own internal organisation is the so-called Parliament, President and Executive Council of the Generalitat Act (Law 3/1982 of 23 March).

The 1978 Spanish Constitution established the necessary framework to make the transition from a centralised state to a state comprising autonomous bodies of government, with the consequent decentralisation of political and administrative powers. For this reason, it recognises and guarantees the right to autonomy of the various nationalities and regions which make up the Spanish state. This principle of autonomy is ratified when it declares the Autonomous Communities to be the entities on which territorial organisation of the state is based. In this way, these new territorial entities are called to participate in the political power of the state, and this political participation makes it necessary to transfer a series of powers to the Autonomous Communities in order to make possible their self-government. If

this had not been done, only a simple administrative decentralisation would have taken place, rather than the political decentralisation called for in the Constitution.

The constitutional recognition of these powers enables the Autonomous Communities to achieve self-government by establishing their own legal system and exercising their legislative powers.

### 3.2 DEMOGRAPHIC STRUCTURE

The population of Catalonia is 6.090.040. The age distribution is: 20% younger than 20 years old; 31.60% between 20 and 39 years old; 24.40% between 40 and 59 years old; 18.30% between 60 and 79 years old; and 3.6% 80 or more years old. However, this population is not homogeneous in its origins. As has been said in the first chapter, due to the migratory movement from the South of Spain to Catalonia during the 60's (preferentially Andalusia), this population is diverse. In 1996 of the 6.090.040 Catalan habitants, 4.165.361 were born in Catalonia; 810.483 were born in Andalusia; 942.390 were born in other parts of the Spanish State; and 171.806 were born in a foreign country. The next table shows the migration to Catalonia throughout the last 80 years.

**Table 3. I Migratory movement to Catalonia until 1991;  
figures represent number of people**

	before 1921	1921- 1930	1931- 1940	1941- 1950	1951- 1960	1961- 1970	1971- 1980	1981- 1990	Total
from the rest of the Spanish State	12.705	27.486	39.446	98.562	188.567	331.939	200.284	106.982	1.005.971
from Andalusia	2.193	7.874	17.066	66.243	185.164	347.258	172.860	63.129	861.787

(Institut d'Estadística de la Generalitat de Catalunya, 1996)

### 3.3 THE CATALAN-SPEAKING WORLD

Catalan is one language of the group of western neo-Latin languages, together with Spanish, Portuguese and French, the most widely spoken languages in the same family. Catalan is spoken in a large area (68.000 km<sup>2</sup>) in the east of Spain (Catalonia, the Balearic Islands, Valencia, the Franja - the area in Aragon bordering on Catalonia - and other municipalities in Murcia that border on Valencia), Andorra, the south of France (North Catalonia, the Department of



Pyrénées Orientales) and in the Sardinian city of l'Alguer (Alghero). Catalan in all its variants is spoken over an area with a population of 10 million.

### **3.3.1. The legal framework for the Catalan language**

The legal framework on language in Spain is to be found in the 1978 Constitution, mainly in article 3, and in the statutes of autonomy of Catalonia, Valencia, the Balearic Islands and Aragon. It is implemented in Catalonia through the 1998 law on language policy (which replaces the 1983 law), in the Balearic Islands through the 1986 law on language policy, and in Valencia through the 1983 law on the use and teaching of Valencian. In accordance with this legislation, Catalan is the language proper to Catalonia, the Balearic Islands and Valencia and is also an official language in these areas, alongside Spanish. In Andorra, Catalan is the only official language according to article 2 of the 1993 Constitution of the Principality of Andorra. Neither North Catalonia nor L'Alguer have their own law on language.

In addition, on 11 December 1990, the European Parliament approved the “Resolution on the situation of languages in the Community and on the Catalan language”. This resolution recognises the identity, current validity and the use of Catalan within the context of the European Union and proposes that Catalan be included in certain actions undertaken by European institutions.

### **3.3.2 The social-linguistic situation in Catalonia**

It is more interesting to know the social political situation of the Catalan language in Catalonia than the legal status of the Catalan language, that is to say, how the legal status translates to the everyday lives of the people living in Catalonia.

From 1983, with the Law of linguistic normalisation of the Catalan language in Catalonia, until the 1998 law, the linguistic policy of normalisation of the Catalan language has combined collective linguistic rights (the own language of Catalonia is Catalan) and the individual rights of the people living in Catalonia (Catalan and Castilian languages are jointly official languages in Catalonia) in an exemplary manner. At the same time, the extent of the knowledge and use of the Catalan language and individual linguistic rights have been guaranteed.

But this process has not been achieved without conflicts. First, members of the linguistic majority in the Spanish state living in Catalonia had to suffer some discomfort due to the fact that every time the presence of Catalan in the social life made it more difficult to live in Catalonia exclusively using Castilian. Second, members of the minority who saw their mother tongue persecuted and minimised in the past perceived the democratic process established by the consensus too slow and extremely difficult to understand. The overcoming of these conflicts only has been possible from the social consensus and the non-discrimination of any part of the population of Catalonia, one part of which has Catalan as a mother tongue and the other with Castilian as a mother tongue.

It seems clear, or at least several sociological discourses show not doubt, that one of the most relevant factors in the construction of the identity of the Catalan nation has been the language. The Catalan language has been assumed as a differential characteristic of the Catalan people with respect to the rest of the State (It should be notice that this phenomenon has not been observed in other communities of the Spanish state e.g. the Basque country<sup>1</sup>). But in parallel to this discourse from political spheres with or without government responsibilities, the idea that it is possible to be Catalan independently of the language used habitually, looking for integration in a unique community without provoking a social fracture has been the base of the social consensus. To live satisfactorily in Catalonia, integrated in its society, means to have job, normal conditions of life, social promotion perspectives, etc. and also to learn the Catalan language. To live in a community with a high level of personal satisfaction works towards integrating the heterogeneous population not only linguistically but also in origin (as it has been shown in section 3.2), than simply the knowledge or otherwise of a language.

But actually the perspective of the young people in Catalonia to live satisfactorily (i.e. to have job, normal conditions of life, social promotion perspectives, etc.) is every day more an utopian ideal than a real expectation. Unemployment, the discredit of democratic institutions, and the confrontation between the policies of some political parties, conflicting the Spanish identity to the Catalan identity and

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<sup>1</sup> Where the Basque language has not been to differentiate used the Basc people from the rest of the Spanish communities as clearly as in Catalonia.

vice-versa<sup>2</sup>, give an irrelevance to relation between to know the Catalan language or not and the level of personal satisfaction of people living in Catalonia.

In spite of the actual social conflicts in Catalonia, it can be asserted that the development of the law of linguistic normalisation of the Catalan language in Catalonia (1983;1998) has changed the linguistic situation in Catalonia, in relation to the progress of the knowledge of the Catalan language and its presence in the mass media and in social relations.

### 3.3.3 The progress of the Catalan language

The 1996 census of the population over the age of two in Catalonia was 5.984.000. This census indicates that 5.683.000 (95%) understand Catalan; 4.506.000 (75.3%) can speak it; 4.330.000 (72.4%) can read it; and 2.743.000 (45.8%) can write it. Table 3.II shows the progress in the knowledge of Catalan between 1986 and 1996 in Catalonia.

**Table 3. II The progress in the knowledge of Catalan (1986-1996);  
Population over the age of two.**

Skill	1986	Percentage	1991	Percentage	1996	Percentage
Understand	5.305	90.6	5.577	93.8	5.683	95.0
Speak	3.760	64.2	4.065	68.3	4.506	75.3
Read	3.554	60.7	4.019	67.6	4.330	72.4
Write	1.850	31.6	2.376	39.9	2.743	45.8
Total of population	5.856		5.949		5.984	

\* the numbers are thousand of people

### 3.3.4 The presence of the Catalan language in the mass media

In 1976, advances towards democracy were supported by the appearance of the first newspaper published in Catalan after almost 40 years of prohibition. This was the newspaper AVUI (Today). The number of daily papers in Catalan later grew to include Regió 7 in 1978; the Punt Diari in 1979, now known as El Punt, in 1988, the Diari de Barcelona came back into print, but is now no longer published; and in 1990, the Diari de Girona began publication in Catalan. Despite this considerable increase in the daily press in Catalan, the print runs only made up 14% of the total press in the principality. This situation has improved with the publishing of El

<sup>2</sup> The actual alliance between CiU party (Catalan nationalist party in the government of Catalonia)

Periódico in two separate editions of the same paper, one in Catalan and the other in Spanish, using advances in technology. Since it was first published on 28 October 1997, the Catalan print run has stabilised at 42% of the total of over 200,000 copies printed each day. This means that it is now the daily paper in Catalan with the widest readership. A similar case is El Segre (The Segre), which has appeared in two editions since 11 September 1997. As with El Periódico, it does not have an even readership throughout Catalonia, but it should be noted that both papers have increased their print runs

The radio stations owned by the Generalitat broadcast wholly in Catalan: Catalunya Radio, set up in 1983; RAC-105, set up in 1984; Catalunya Música, set up in 1987; and Catalunya Informació set up in 1992. There are also other publicly owned radio stations, such as Radio 4, broadcast by Radio Nacional de España, which pioneered programmes in Catalan after Franco's death, and COM Ràdio. There are currently 192 local radio broadcasters in the Principality and 80% of their total programming is in Catalan.

The use of Catalan on terrestrial television channels in Catalonia is as follows: TV3 and Canal 33, the two channels belonging to the Catalan Radio and Television Corporation, broadcast exclusively in Catalan. Approximately 85% of the spoken and written advertising is in Catalan; TV1 and TV2, the two channels belonging to TVE (Spanish Radio and Television Corporation), broadcast mainly in Castilian, although some programmes on TV2 are in Catalan; Antena 3 Televisión uses Catalan only in its football match broadcasts and in some programmes broadcast in Catalonia on Saturday mornings; TV5 is very similar to Antena 3 but since 1994, some trials have been done to introduce broadcasts simultaneously in Catalan and Castilian (viewers with the appropriate equipment can choose between the two) for some episodes of series; Canal Plus broadcasts nothing in Catalan except for occasional films.

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and P.P (Spanish nationalist party) in the government of Spain has mitigated this confrontation.

### **3.4. EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM**

#### **3.4.1. The school language**

The law of normalisation of the Catalan language in Catalonia (1983) and its development in the educational system has been the application of the Immersion programs in the schools. This development has been done with a wide social and political support. The consensus implies that nobody can legislate about the language forgetting that the language, is a way of expression and identity and is considered a basic good by a big part of the population of Catalonia, whether they belong to the linguistic group that has Catalan language as own language, or if they belong to the linguistic group that has Castilian language as own language.

The Immersion programs are the tool to guarantee the knowledge of the Catalan language by the whole population living in Catalonia and, in consequence, the way to guarantee the linguistic rights of the Catalan speakers in Catalonia. The central purpose of bilingual education in Catalonia is that at the end of the obligatory school the students have a mastery of the Catalan and Castilian languages.

The right, recognised by the law, of families to choose the language of their children in the school before the age of 8 years old, generally results in the families choosing Catalan as a school language for their children. In the most intense moment of the campaign against the Immersion programs<sup>3</sup> in the school, less than 100 families in the whole of Catalonia chose Castilian as a school language for their children during the first year of Parvulari (nursery school). However, in cases where it is necessary, this Castilian education is provided through individual attention, without breaking the relationship of the child with its class group. So, in Catalan schools, the Catalan language is used in all the internal and external activities. This means that the Catalan language must be used in all the administrative tasks of the school including files, evaluations, internal reports and communications. Also teaching activities are in Catalan except the teaching of Castilian and foreign languages. So, oral and writing activities, teachers'

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<sup>3</sup> On the 23th of September, 1993, the Supreme Court lodged an appeal, citing the anti-constitutionality of three articles of the linguistic normalisation law of 1983 that concerned the Immersion programs in the schools.

expositions of subjects, didactic materials, schoolbooks and evaluation activities are in the Catalan language.

### **3.4.2. Organisation of the educational system**

The Catalan system of education is divided into three main periods: infant education, primary school, and secondary school.

#### A. Cycle of educació infantil (day-care centre) and Parvulari (nursery school)

This cycle is voluntary and is not a necessary condition to accede to the primary school. This cycle is organised in two educational cycles: Llar d'Infants (day-care centre) from birth to the age of 3 years old; and, Parvulari (nursery school) from 3 to 6 years old.

The aims of this step of the educational system are to provide the children with: an educative situation that allows him/her to progressively make personal discoveries and to enhance growth; the possibility to establish relationships with other children as well as adults using different ways of expression and communication; to discover their closer environment; values, habits, and a guide of behaviour that favours its personal autonomy and social integration.

Llar d'Infants and Parvulari are both parts of only one educative phase; however, they have different features.

The Llar d'Infants define an environment with similar characteristics to the family context. This means flexibility in the timetable, adapting that to the necessities of the child and family, favouring a quality relationship between the school and the parents. Also they usually have their own space differentiated from the Parvulari and primary schools.

In the Parvulari the children groups are more numerous, and usually are part of an educational community (primary school). However, it has to maintain its function of support and co-operation with the families.

### B. L'Educació Primària (Primary School)

The Educació Primària includes six academic courses from 6 to 12 years old and is obligatory. These six courses are divided in three cycles: Initial (from 6 to 8 years old), medium (from 8 to 10 years old) and superior (from 10 to 12 years old). Each cycle has its own characteristics related to the children's ages (i.e. different courses, timetables, organisation, etc.).

The aims of the Educació Primària are to provide the learning with a communal education that makes possible the development of their individual relational and social capacities with the acquisition of basic cultural elements, oral and writing expression, and arithmetic calculation. The time dedicated to play is integrated within school time, and all the schools have to have special spaces and organisation for this activity related to the children's age.

### C. Educació Secundària Obligatoria (Secondary school)

The Educació Secundària Obligatoria is organised in two cycles with two school years each, and includes learning from 12 to 16 years old.

The aims of this stage are to make it possible for all students to accede to the basic elements of the culture, and to improve their personal development and consolidate the instrumental learning from the primary school, and complete their cultural development.

The curriculum of the Educació Secundària Obligatoria is organised by credits, 65% of which are obligatory for all students and 35% optional. So with the optional credits the students can construct their personal curriculum.

When the students finish this educational stage they receive an "educational accreditation" and if they achieved the basic learning they receive in addition the title of "Degree in Secondary School".

When the students successfully finish this stage they can continue studying Batxillerat (this is the way to accede to University) or studies of medium degree. On the other hand, they can join to the labour world.

### 3.5. THE CURRENT POLITICAL ATTITUDES

To exemplify current political attitudes in Catalonia, the data presented in Table 3.III are the percentage in votes obtained by the different political parties in the last council, Catalan and Spanish elections in Catalonia.

To read Table 3.III from the perspective of national identity in Catalonia, it is necessary to know which ones are the parties in Catalonia that support Catalan nationalism. These are CIU “Convergència i Unió”, actually in power in Catalonia, and ERC “Esquerra de Catalunya”. The PSC “Partit Socialista Catalán” is the Catalan branch of PSOE “Partido Socialista Obrero Espanyol” which was in the Spanish government until 1996. The PP “Partido Popular” is the current party in power in Spain. Neither PSOE or PP supports the Catalan nationalism movement. The differences between all these parties are much far numerous than just their views on the Catalan nationalistic movement (i.e. economic, social, education, etc.).

**Table 3. III Results of the last Council, Regional and Primary elections in Catalonia; percentage of votes**

	CIU	PSC	ERC	IC	PP	Others
Council elections 1995	30.50	33.40	6.30	12.10	12.40	2.20
Catalan Parliament 1995	40.80	24.80	9.50	9.70	13.00	5.30
Spanish Parliament 1996	29.50	39.20	4.20	7.60	17.90	0.60

Table 3.III shows how Catalan people vote differently in each election. To choose their representative in the council government, 57.90% chose Spanish parties and 36.80% chose Catalan nationalistic parties. To choose their representative in the Catalan parliament, 50.30% chose Catalan nationalistic parties and 47.50% chose Spanish parties. To choose their representative in the Spanish parliament, 64.70% chose Spanish parties and 33.70% chose Catalan nationalistic parties. So, it could be said that the people choose their representative in relation to the institution that they are voting to rather than simply in accordance with nationalistic ideas.



#### **4. THE SOCIAL CONSTRUCTION OF NATIONAL IDENTITY**

In this chapter, theoretical approaches which have guided the present research will be outlined. To study the developmental processes related to the construction of identity, it is not enough to consider them in their social context, but it is necessary consider their social construction. In this way, the processes explained by Social Psychology about how adults come to consider themselves as members of determinate social groups and how this influences in their intergroup relations, are very important.

This chapter does not fully all of the cover the existing debate within Social Psychology between the theories that will be mentioned. Instead, the aim of this chapter is to outline the concepts that can be used in the context of this developmental study. This chapter also reports the few studies on national identity that have been done within Developmental Psychology.

The theoretical framework used as the basis for this research is derived from the integration of the principal concepts of Social Representations Theory (Moscovici 1988, Farr & Moscovici 1984, Breakwell & Canter 1993) and Social Identity Theory (Tajfel 1981, Turner 1990, Hogg & Abrams 1988). This framework asserts that individuals are members of several social groups (family, ethnic, national, etc.) and that they subjectively identify with and classify themselves as members of some of these groups. In addition to this self-categorisation act, which happens with different degrees of commitment and feelings, the acquisition of a social identity also involves the internalisation of beliefs, attitudes, and values that are socially shared with the other members of the group. These consist of beliefs and feelings about the ingroup as well as beliefs and evaluations of the salient outgroups. Internalisation of these values contributes to the representation that the child has about the world, and can also affect the new knowledge that he/she will acquire.

The term “national identity” is used to refer to amongst other things, the dimension in which different groups recognise themselves and relate to each other in terms of national belonging. This takes us to the processes involved in intergroup relations, in

which the identity even if it is social or national, is determinate by the perception and evaluation of the own group (ingroup) and the others (outgroup), (Breakwell, 1983). Social identification implies perception and categorisation of the similar and the different, and a temporal stability.

#### **4.1 WHICH ONE IS MY GROUP?**

Social Identity combines cognitive as well as motivational aspects, and is defined as “that part of an individual’s self-concept which derives from his knowledge of membership of a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that” (Tajfel, 1978, p.63). The psychological aspects of the social identity derive from social categorisation effects. The Categorisation process simplifies the environment by accentuating similarities within groups and differences between groups. According to Tajfel (1972) segmenting the environment by grouping it is a “sine qua non” condition for the individual’s or group’s survival. At the same time, it constitutes an essential phenomenon to guide social behaviours, to maintain and to create values, rules, and beliefs. In short, it creates, guides and defines the specific situation of one subject in the society (Berger, 1966).

The categorisation process structures perception as well as allowing us to predict social events. According to Bruner (1957), social categorisation constitutes an underlying phenomenon in the social perception process. In this case the categorisation process is thought of as a double process, since it is the final product of social perception and at the same time the point of reference that organises the perception. In this study, perception is understood as the process that is constructed around feelings, motivations, social insertions and rules that characterise both the perceiver and the perceived. All these factors are essential in social perception.

If the inductive and deductive processes from self-categorisation theory are translated to the social interaction the result is that on one hand, when little is known about a person, characteristics from the social group category to which he/she belongs would be attributed to him/her. On the other hand, even if a lot of ambiguous interpretations can be made of one situation, it is always easier to find evidence of

the characteristics of the social group which individual belongs. A lot of factors and situations make people give more attention to the fact that the object, event or person represents a category than to their specific characteristics.

The awareness of the existence of different social groups does not imply necessarily an identification with or evaluation of categories. These evaluative and emotional aspects must not be lost in the study of the intergroup relationships, nor in the study of how children arrive to relate with other groups.

#### **4.2. “US” VERSUS “THEM”**

It is in social situations that the belonging to a group is most salient and then the individual incorporates this belonging to his/her social identity. Once this identification process is activated, the individual tends to compare their own group with others relevant to that social dimension. In this process, intragroup similarities and intergroup differences are accentuated. This accentuation of similarities and differences will vary according to the social context, which in turn determines the particular comparison dimensions upon which the groups are compared. Categorisation is needed for intergroup discrimination, because it selects the comparative or evaluative dimensions that will be used at any one moment. In addition, it guarantees that the comparison is centred on the perceived discontinuities between ingroup and outgroups members. The presence of others establishes the possibility to give meaning to one's own group identity, because it establishes a point of comparison. “We are what they are not”. Without this recognition of others, one's own identity is threatened (Breakwell, 1983). Social comparison is an essential condition, because it transforms these perceptual discriminations into attitudes and actions favourable to the ingroup. So, it seems that social comparison and categorisation are complementary processes.

Social categorisation helps to systematise and order the social environment, and furthermore it has an important role in guiding action and actualising values. To study categorisation in social relationships only as a logical classification process does not correspond with the characteristics of a lot of social categories. Social

categories do not correspond to the concept “all or nothing”, they are “widespread categories” (Tajfel, 1981), where the categories are like “constellations” formed by the objects’ partial and varied characteristics.

In this theoretical context, categories are used by the individual to order and to interpret the physical and social environment, and they cannot be considered as given but subjected to continual re-elaboration. So, the categorisation process is also a process of construction of reality. The category formation process is an active process, since individuals not only order and simplify the environment, but it is also necessary to maintain the predominant system of values of their culture. So, the child’s system of categories acts as an important base to understand and acquire knowledge about the world, their own group and others’ groups. From the beginning children are members of several social groups, for example, gender, ethnic, age, religious, national, etc. Children as young as 5-6 months are aware of the categorical divisions around them (sex, age, ethnicity,) and can skilfully use them depending on the context (Horowitz, et al. 1938; Davey, 1983; Goodman, 1952; Clark & Clark, 1947; Williams & Morland, 1976; Thompson 1975; Duveen & Lloyd, 1986; Slaby & Fray, 1975; Yee & Brown, 1994; Fagan & Singer, 1979). Thus, like adults, children can also use categories in a strategic way to simplify and give meaning to their environment.

Tajfel & Jahoda (1966) assert that during the socialisation process children learn to evaluate their own groups even before they know much about their characteristics. The self-categorisation process implies that children acquire values, beliefs and attitudes shared by the other members of the group (adults).

#### **4.3. HOW DOES THE CHILD CONSTRUCT THE WORLD AROUND THEM?**

The process through which the child represents the world around him/her is not simple and linear. Piaget and Weil (1951), in one of the first studies done about the children’s acquisition of the concept of the homeland, and their relationships with other national groups, defined three stages of development related to inclusion and the decentration of cognitive processes. Later, Jahoda (1964), from a social

perspective of child development, replied to Piaget's and Weil's study (1951) and asserted that the stages defined are not applicable. According to Piaget, national identity development is based on the relation between the "whole" and its "portions", and children do not know that "logical categories can be included within others" until the age of 10-11 years old. Jahoda presents evidence that children understand hierarchical relations at a much earlier age. Children know that "women" and "men" are "human beings", and that "fruit" and "vegetable" are "food", etc. Therefore, younger children know that they can be two things at the same time, "boy", "brother", "human being". According to Jahoda, Piaget was wrong when he argued that the incapacity to conceptualise national relations was due principally to the incapacity to work with logical inclusion before the age of 10-11 years old.

But then why do children continue to make mistakes in the domain of national inclusion? Jahoda answered this question by saying that it is the nature of the objects about which children are asked. In the case of well-defined objects, children do not have problems with the inclusion process. But the concept of nationality is highly abstract, borders are not well defined, in the sense that there are no physical clues, and so the concept remains uncertain. It seems that children's difficulty is with the lack of familiarity with the characteristics of the category "nationality" and with its limits, more than the incapacity to do mental work with the logic of classes. This kind of difficulty is not limited to the nationality concept; it applies to the majority of social domains where categories are subtle and children have to learn each domain gradually. This is why children still remain confused in the social categories domain while the inclusion of categories with physical characteristics is already evident for them.

Jahoda (1962,1963a,1963b) in his studies about children's ideas about country and nationality, and about attitudes towards other countries, defines several stages of development related to geographical knowledge and national identification. Four stages of geographical knowledge development were proposed by Jahoda. In the first stage, children have not any idea about their city as a whole, their perspective is limited by their immediate environments, home, school, and others where they spend their everyday life. At this stage, they still do not know the relationship between the

geographical names of the places that they know. At the second stage, children have an idea of their city as a whole and they already can identify the names of the places that they know. At this stage they still have difficulties in understanding the city as part of a region; they can identify its name but it exists in “a far away” place. They can recognise national anthems but they attribute them all to their region or city and the same happens with flags and other symbols. At the third stage, children understand that the city is part of a region, but do not, as yet, understand the idea that the region is part of a country. They start to identify national symbols but still with some difficulties. Finally, they understand the relations between city, region and country and they identify properly national, regional and city symbols.

Jahoda (1962, 1963a,1963b) also studied the spontaneous national identifications. He found that until 11 years old children did not use a national term to describe themselves. Children aged 9 years old tended to identify with their sex and older children with wider categories such as human being. National or national belonging terms, regional or state, only appeared in 3% of the sample and in the middle class group. In this study, the questions, “which one is your country?” or, “which one is your nationality?” were also explored. The majority of the younger children answered with the city name, Glasgow, to the first question, and they could not understand the second question. The majority of children who answered the second question did so correctly, in this case “Scottish” or “British”, but some of them answered “England” or “English”. The children were also asked about the possibility of being both “Scottish” and “British” at the same time, and the majority of them answered that “yes, it is possible”.

Jahoda (1963a,1963b) studied this relationship between children’s cognitive development and their social knowledge in his study into children’s development of social knowledge about money and social interactions. He concluded that initial social experience is found in the home and direct experience with social objects, in this case economic exchanges, are few. Gradually, the environment is amplified to the school where knowledge is more abstract and complex, and at the same time, children start to have some direct experience with social objects. Finally, in the last phase, compromise, wide exchanges and a formal education about social life exist.

The most important aspect of this progression in experience is that it is made possible by the social experience; information increases and the appearance of conflicts between social requests and the representations that the child has about an object, trigger and develop social knowledge. For Jahoda children's knowledge develops in concentric circles from the inner to the outer

It is not simply a matter of choosing between Piaget and Weil's (1951) perspective or Jahoda's (1963a,1963b) concentric circles explanation. Children first begin to know about the environment closest to them (neighbourhood, city, etc.). But, this knowledge is paralleled by the acquisition of knowledge about far away places (cities that the family has travelled to, places that the child has heard adults speak about, etc.). Both of these types of knowledge intervene from the beginning in their construction of the world. The knowledge of the most immediate and direct is reorganised and acquires new meanings from the integration of more general and abstract elements, (Delval, 1989) such as the description of far away places, travels, experiences, etc. For example, children living in a town such as Girona, from an early age, are able to relate the names of some geographical places like "Les Rambles" (avenue of Girona city) or Palafrugell (village in the Costa Brava) etc. In this way, the child begins to create a notion of "geographical space", and names are not only labels. They begin to know that when they go to Barcelona "it is very far" and "it is necessary to travel a long time by train or car", compared to when they go to Les Rambles "we go walking", "it is close" and "it is in Girona". At the same time they listen to people speaking about far away places (like Paris, Madrid, or other places where people go for holidays and bring home exotic things). Long before anybody has explained to the child the relationship between these places, the child already has a lot of information that they have integrated, thus constructing a world that does not necessarily coincide with the adult world, but which helps the child to communicate and to understand the situations in which they are immersed.

Other studies have shown that children's knowledge about countries and members of other national groups starts to develop at primary school (Barrett & Short, 1992; Giménez de la Peña & Barrett, 1992; Barrett & Farroni, 1993). Children before the age of 7 years have difficulties understanding the concept of a foreigner and its

relationship to cities as well as countries. At this age they also have difficulties naming foreign countries or cities. The ability to name other countries is quite poor before the age of 7 years. From the age of 7 years, geographical knowledge expands and at the same time children elaborate upon the idea that people live in these places. According to Barrett (1995), children from 6 years can answer questions about other countries, but they need a strong contextualisation to be able to establish comparisons between groups. This necessity disappears around the age of 10 years. Another developmental trend is that younger children's answers are always more positive towards all groups in the comparison. By contrast, at the age-range of 10-14 years old, the answers are more ambivalent with a clear tendency to negative evaluations. A possible explanation can be that older children perceive the variability existing within groups.

But this does not explain why in some intergroup situations the evaluation of the groups is made taking certain rules as reference but not others also learnt during the socialisation process.

#### **4.4. GIVING MEANING TO "US"**

From birth, children are interacting with others, are subjected to external regulations that organise and regulate their life, and from this moment children begin to construct the implicit rules that govern these regularities. The society within which people are born models the way people develop and how they become adults in this society. But this process is not passive; it does not imply that the child is simply a receiver of social influences. The socialisation process is an active process. With both social rules or norms, children acquire social and moral values linked to them, which in turn define what is desirable or not (Delval, 1989).

Systems of social categorisation based on values are often modified with more difficulty than systems relatively independent of them. If values remain stable there is a tendency for them to be maintained. Systems of categories with clear evaluation differences are reinforced, clearer and more evident in everyday life. Bar-Tal (1996) considers that group beliefs and values vary immensely from one group to



another. In general, these values and beliefs are related to the rules that regulate the group performance, the shared values, common targets and ideology that the group shares, and that defines their group belonging and gives unity to the group. This central character of the beliefs makes them so difficult to question from inside the group. The members of the group see these beliefs as natural and true. The acceptance of the group's beliefs is an important indicator of group belonging and of the group's limits. Group members are characterised by these common beliefs and are perceived as homogeneous. Centrality of group beliefs implies that they are accessible to the group member's repertory and they have an important role when members of the group make evaluations, judgements, decisions, and even behaviours. Group beliefs provide an orientation system about the ingroup and the outgroup, a feeling of a common destiny, and accentuate perceived differences and judgement about people from other groups (Tajfel, 1978, 1981). These beliefs include a positive evaluation of the ingroup, and because of that, they contribute to a positive self-esteem, and include beliefs, values and attitudes about outgroups. These beliefs tend to converge in part of the group culture and are transmitted to following generations.

Various ingroup and outgroup evaluations represent one of the more fundamental and primitive aspects of the social categorisation process. It is known that at first, children construct bipolar structures to guide cognitively themselves and to help to express moral and evaluative judgements (good-bad, beautiful-ugly, etc.) This attribution of bipolar values to a situation or object is done in agreement with the social contents of the child's developmental context. So, these bipolar attributions of values have an important role in social identity development and in intergroup relationships. To be able to evaluate the objects and to know which ones are good or bad, children need to represent them. Obviously the capacity to represent objects is not limited to each object separately, but develops and can be applied to characteristics possessed by a group of objects (i.e. category). These evaluations are the base from which more abstract conceptualisations are used, so the role of values in the genesis of social categories is very important. This process begins in childhood and is directly related to the social values of the child's social ingroup.

The development of the capacity to represent categories can be related to social interactions and the interiorisation of the ideology from the social environment through the socialisation process. In the child's social development, social interactions transmit, build, maintain and transform the child's social identities. These social interactions are not only direct relations face-to-face, but also relations derived from the social, economical and political structure.

All of this suggests that the concept of Social Identity is central to explain intergroup relationships (Billig & Tajfel, 1973; Tajfel, 1978; Tajfel & Turner, 1986; Turner, 1975,1981). Previous research about people's beliefs and feelings about their own national group and others, have shown that the acquisition of these feelings and beliefs starts around the age of 5 or 6 years old and continues throughout childhood and adolescence (Jahoda 1962, Tajfel 1966, Lambert & Klineberg 1967, Barrett & Short 1992). Piaget and Weil (1951) and Jahoda (1963a,1963b,1964) showed that before 5 years of age children have little knowledge about their own nationality and country, and usually they are not able to say its name, and even when their understanding is poor. Acquisition of information about the different characteristics of groups implies considerable cognitive progress. Children's knowledge about nations is very varied including traditions, clothes, language, religion, etc. An important characteristic of this information is that it is not only descriptive but also has a strong emotional and evaluation component. Tajfel (1966) suggests that children acquire evaluative judgements about salient foreign people, without the necessity of real knowledge of these countries. Ethnocentrism research (Tajfel, 1984; Giménez de la Peña & Barrett, 1992) also demonstrates that emotional evaluations of social objects (nations) are formed before information or detailed knowledge about these social objects has been acquired. Within the same culture, children's representations tend to converge with adults' representations during adolescence. This emotional and evaluative aspect can be found in children as young as 6 years old.

Lambert & Klineberg (1967) explored the relationship between this emotional and evaluative aspect with the information that children hold about countries. They found that better information was related to more positive evaluations. Middleton, Tajfel &

Johnson (1970) have also studied this relationship between cognitive and emotional aspects in children's development. The study focused upon children's ability to understand that other peoples' behaviours and attitudes are based on the same principles as their own behaviours and attitudes. They concluded that children's favouritism or dislike of other human groups has predictable effects on their ability to understand that the people from other countries can act or feel as they do. So, intergroup attitude development cannot be understood only on the basis of prejudice or through an analysis of children's cognitive capacities, which is contrasts with Piaget and Weil (1951).

Middleton, Tajfel & Johnson (1970) also noted the existence of a "U-shaped" developmental trend between affect and cognition. So, if according to Tajfel (1966) and Jahoda (1962) and others, the emotional component is learnt first, the interpretation of these results can be that children are more sensitive to information about countries that arouse strong feelings in them. At the same time, information selection processes act to ensure congruency between emotional learning and information learnt later.

Doise (1985,1989) analysed the classic studies of Piaget & Weil (1951) and Tajfel et al. (1970,1972) and concluded that both studies illustrate children's early ability to manifest preferences and judgements about their own and other nations. But these preferences and judgements are not based upon factual knowledge of these countries since this is almost non-existent at this age. The study of the national identity and the associated beliefs and values cannot be limited to a study of factual knowledge alone.

In this direction it can be asserted that knowledge is not a prerequisite to affective development about other nations. Johnson (1973) assumed this position in his study about the development of English children's concept of Germany, and concluded that knowledge about nations was selected to confirm the evaluations learnt previously. In addition, after re-testing the same children he confirmed that the best remembered information coincided with the ones that confirmed previous evaluations, even if they had often forgotten the origin of the information. So, it seems that there are

several information selection and maintenance processes that still exist even when the main frame of reference has been lost.

This discrepancy between the development of concepts and evaluations not only exists in relation to countries and nations but also, to other human groups such as, race, ethnic, religious and social (Aboud,1988).

But if emotional development precedes knowledge, how do children learn about symbols that have been associated, at least for adults, with strong emotional meanings? In adults, a relationship between strong emotional feelings and national symbols has been shown. It seems that national symbols are an important part of the feeling of national belonging, and it may be the case that they hold the clue to understand how children develop this feeling of national belonging.

Horowitz (1941) studied national symbols in relation to the development of patriotism in children. Results showed that younger children choose exotic flags as favourite such as the Siamese (“because it has an elephant”) while 16 years old children chose the United State’s flag. Weinstein (1957) also the studied the development of the concept of the flag and its relationship with feelings of nationality. According to the author there are nine stages of development. First, children have only a little knowledge about the names of the objects and they do not know about other countries. Second, they have some ideas about other countries, and they already have classified as “good” or “bad” countries. In addition, although the flag belongs to each country it does not necessarily represent the country. Third, countries start to be differentiated by geographical and physical aspects but moral and cultural differences are still not perceived. The purpose of the flag is to mark the ownership of objects, places, etc., by a country. Fourth, the country is seen as a collection of elements, people, flag, objects, events, which authorise people’s behaviour or not, and a government who guarantee the country’s continuity. But still there is only a possession relationship between these elements and the country; identification with the country is still not present. Fifth, the concept of the state appears as a fundamental; up to 50 states are known, and flags are used to identify them. Sixth, children start to express symbolic ideas associated with flags (honour,

etc.), and the government protects the country. Seventh, the degree of complexity in the idea of the country increases. Country is something more than a territory with a common administration, it is also a group that has alliances, and a function of the government is to establish relationships with other countries. Eighth, ideas of loyalty start to be present. And at the ninth and last stage, an increase in the knowledge of rituals associated with the flag is evident.

#### **4.5. WHY IS MY GROUP THE BEST?**

There are many studies that demonstrate that evaluation precedes an understanding and knowledge of other groups even if direct contact, physical differences, behaviour differences that make discrimination easy exist or not. Tajfel, Jahoda, Nemeth, Rim & Johnson (1972) studied the development of children's preference for their own country, and demonstrated that at the age of 6-7 years old children already have a crystallised and agreed preference for their own group. Their results showed a significant tendency to assign the best items or the most liked items to their own national group, but this tendency decreased with age. The agreement of which items were assigned to their own national group and which ones to the others national groups increased with age. So, this reveals how ingroup favouritism and national stereotypes develop with age.

As previously noted, a basic assumption of Social Identity Theory is that the individual has a tendency to maintain a positive social identity (Turner, 1981). During the social comparison process the individual is not only comparing capacities and opinions, but according to Festinger, is also evaluating the ingroup. In this process people try to establish a positive distinctiveness favourable to their own group (Brown, 1984; Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Turner, 1975) and through it establish a positive evaluation of themselves. In addition to this, Turner suggests that intergroup favouritism increases when the importance of the dimension of comparison is important and/or salient to the group with whom the comparison is made.

There is a general consensus in the literature that children come to “prefer” their own group to others well before they are able to form, understand and use

appropriately the concepts of country or nation (Tajfel et al., 1970; Jahoda, 1963a, 1963b; Davies, 1968). Furthermore, there are two recurrent phenomena in these studies. The first one is that at an early age these biased behaviours and attitudes appear. The second is that a critical period appears between 5 and 8 years old, during which it seems that children start to be more focused on the ingroup, more aware of social groups, and the ingroup evaluations are more positive than outgroup evaluations. Davey (1983) found that the discrepancies between ingroup and outgroup images were bigger in 7-8 year old children than in older children (9-10 years old). Similar results were found by Avermaet & McLintock (1988) who reported that ingroup bias was more evident in a group of children with an average of age of 8 years old. Yee & Brown (1994) explored gender ingroup favouritism. Their results showed that boys applied an equality principle and gave better rewards to the group that obtained better results. On the contrary, girls always gave better prizes to the feminine team independently of the results. These results reaffirmed the conclusions of Zalk & Katz (1978) about gender ingroup favouritism, and how independently of sex, younger children's bias (around 7 years old) is stronger than older children's (10 years old).

Furthermore Powlishta et al. (1994) examined the relationship between different forms of prejudice (gender bias, bias towards people speaking another languages, and bias towards obese people) in a large sample of Canadian children aged from 5 to 13 years old. The results showed two interesting aspects: first, bias in favour of the child's own group was greatest in the younger two age groups studied (i.e. 5-9 years old) than in the older children (i.e. 13 years old). And once again girls showed more gender bias than boys, although this sex difference did not generalise to the other categories. Most interesting, however, were the generally zero correlations between prejudice in one domain and prejudice in others. So, there was no evidence of consistent individual differences in generalised prejudice.

The identity construction process needs, in all cases, the presence of "others" and is a social process that is based in social interaction processes (Torregrosa, 1983).

#### **4.6. IS MY GROUP ALWAYS THE BEST?**

Existing research about children's preferences indicate that from a young age children are sensitive to status differences in intergroup relations (Vaughan et al., 1981) and they show some resistance to integrating new information if it is contrary to the children's existing stereotypes. Children do compare social groups using the information that exists in their own group about others.

There is a wealth of evidence which indicates that children from as young as three years of age (and possibly even earlier) identify with social groups and express clear evaluative preferences for one over another (Goodman, 1952; Clark & Clark, 1947). This information about how early children can identify social categories and how they prefer one to another is contrary to the idea that children can make social comparisons only if first they have "objective" information about the different groups. However, the nature and direction of these preferences seems also to depend on the social standing of their group in the wider society. Children from dominant or majority groups often respond quite differently from those belonging to subordinate or minority groups. Age is an important factor in this behaviour. From early research by Goodman (1952) and Clark and Clark (1947) it is known that minority children identify and prefer the outgroup. These findings confirm early studies such as Horowitz (1936), and also more actual research (Brand et al., 1974; Milner, 1983; Porter, 1971; Williams & Morland, 1976) that has used a great variety of different techniques. These studies noted a consistent tendency for (dominant) majority group children to show strong ingroup identification and preference whilst (subordinate) minority group children's identification with their ingroup was much weaker and was often paralleled by evaluative preferences for the majority outgroup.

Vaughan (1964) also studied this minority children preference for the outgroup and found that this pro-outgroup preference was stronger in younger children and had a peak in the 6-8 year age range, declining somewhat as the children grew older. A similar pattern had been found comparing different cultural groups (Jahoda, et al. 1972; Milner, 1973; Aboud, 1977; Morland, 1969). Interestingly, Morland (1969) found both pro-ingroup in white children and pro-white preference in Chinese

children aged 4-6 years in Hong Kong. This study suggests that it is not the numerical majority or minority which cause the bias as even a clear numerical majority in Hong Kong Chinese children presented a pro-white bias.

More evidence of children's early sensitivity to subtle social influences, which leads to a devaluation of their own group compared with an outgroup conceived in some sense to be "dominant" or "superior", can be found in Tajfel et al.'s (1972) study about the devaluation by children's of their own national group. In this study the authors provide evidence that children are sensitive to social differences even though no overt tension between the groups was present.

Tajfel et al. (1970) presented a cross-national study about children's preference for their own country. The main finding of this study was a significant relationship between preference and nationality assignments in the younger children, decreasing with age, but being still strong and significant in the older age range tested. However there were two exceptions to this. The first exception was in Louvain, where the age effect was not present. These results were interpreted in terms of the children's difficulty in interpreting the relationship between Flemish and Belgian nationalities. In the second exception, the Glasgow sample, none of the age groups showed the tendency to prefer their own national group "Scottish". According to the authors, one possible explanation for this lack of national preference may be the devaluation of the ingroup which has been shown in many studies on children from minority or underprivileged groups. Children are sensitive to this social phenomenon from an early age. Tajfel et al. (1972) provide more evidence of this fact, showing that when English children prefer their own group at all the ages, younger Scottish children do not present any preference for Scottish as compared to English. This tendency is reversed in older Scottish children, when there is a preference for English over Scottish. At the same time, Cheyne's (1970) study provides evidence that self-denigration ideas, which might affect children, do exist in the adult Scottish population.

Existing research, such as Goodman (1952) and Milner (1973) provides evidence that outgroup preferences may indeed imply ingroup rejection, at least for some



children. These authors found a correlation between self-esteem and ethnocentrism among Black children: the less ethnocentric they were (that is, the less they favoured Blacks relative to Whites) the lower their self-esteem. But it would be a mistake to generalise from these results that minority group children have always had, and will always have, a negative view of themselves and their group; it is clear that there have been important cultural and historical variations in these self-perceptions. But it can be affirmed that the experience and consequences of growing up as a subordinate and a dominant group member are not the same, and that our theories about intergroup relationships would do well to reflect this.

Vaughan (1987) offers an explanation why minority group children seem to exhibit pro-outgroup preferences, drawing from the cognitive-developmental account of the social comparison process (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Vaughan argues that children's understanding and evaluation of their identity stems, in large, from their comparison of that ingroup with relevant outgroups. When such a comparison reveals their group to be superior, or at least roughly equal, then the child can acquire some positive self-regard from its membership. This is usually the case for dominant-group children. On the other hand, for subordinate-group children, such comparisons reveal that their own group appears obviously inferior on a number of dimensions. Then the child's self-concept is also likely to be negative, and it is not difficult to see how negative identity could manifest itself in attitudes and preferences "against" their own group and "towards" the dominant, and apparently favoured, outgroup. The significance of incorporating this social comparative element into any cognitive-developmental model is that it can help us to understand why during certain historical periods, there can be dramatic shifts in responses from children of subordinate groups.

#### **4.7 ARE BILINGUAL CHILDREN DIFFERENT?**

Children use languages to differentiate between people's nationalities. So, they construct linguistic categories and use them as national categories. Frequently, this guide is poor and as a result, children often make mistakes. These mistakes only disappear when children learn to differentiate between linguistic and national

categories. Bilingualism and the process of learning a second language are often forgotten in the study of national identity. Learning a second language, in one sense, demonstrates that one's own thoughts and ideas can be expressed in the other language, and this implies that those who speak that language are not necessarily psychologically different from oneself. So, if prejudice results from assumed psychological dissimilarity (Rokeach, 1960), it should be reduced by the experience. Lambert (1984) argues that "children can very easily become comfortably bicultural and bilingual, and that from this base they enhance their sense of personal well-being, their sense of social justice, and their tolerance and appreciation of human diversity"(p. 258). This author also suggests two other ways that bilingualism may lead to more positive attitudes toward an outgroup. First, he mentions becoming bicultural. Outgroup-language acquisition will facilitate learning about its culture and interacting with its members (Genesee, 1981). Bilingualism facilitates intergroup interaction through increasing intelligibility of, and interpersonal involvement with, outgroup members. This may lead to possible positive contact effects (Amir, 1969). Second, Lambert (1984) mentions enhanced self-esteem as a potential result of accomplishing the task of learning a second language. The centrality of insecurity and self-esteem to various theories of prejudice (e.g. Turner, 1975) would suggest that more positive outgroup attitudes could result from increased self-esteem, produced by success at language learning, reducing the need to bolster it through outgroup derogation. So, in at least in three ways, bilingualism may affect intergroup attitudes, through reduction of assumed psychological differences, facilitation of positive contact effects, and enhancement of learner's self-esteem.

Guimond & Palmer (1993) studied the relationship between bilingualism, ingroup favouritism, intergroup attitudes, and tolerance towards other groups. In this study they examined three linguistic samples; monolingual, bilingual and students of the other language. Their results showed that bilingual children do not present ingroup favouritism, that some ingroup favouritism is presented by respondents with some fluency, and that the most ingroup favouritism is presented by unilingual respondents at higher educational levels. Such relationships give rise to interesting questions for

Social Identity Theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Turner, 1975), specifically concerning the positive distinctiveness of the ingroup which is used in order to achieve a positive social identity (Turner, 1981). In this case, the results showed that bilinguals, who show no favouritism, have no such need. However a more straightforward explanation is possible. According to the authors, the results may indicate that bilinguals develop a new social identity and thus no longer have a need to differentiate the old ingroup from the outgroup. In this study the authors also explore the relation between bilingualism and tolerance, following Lambert's (1984) assertion that bilingualism increases tolerance of diversity in general. Their findings showed that there is a positive relationship between fluency and attitudes toward other groups and between changes in both. Also, the authors found that there was evidence of increasing ingroup favouritism among individuals with low second-language proficiency. According to the authors, two different processes may increase intolerance among unilinguals: in one case, the effects of failure in second-language training; in the other, negative effects of contact with the second-language group. So, the results suggest that attitudes toward the second-language group are far from static and that success or failure in the language acquisition process can affect them directly or indirectly. Directly, as a result of the positive or negative nature of the experience, and indirectly, by the effect of the level of obtained fluency on the outcome of contact with the other language group. Either could affect future motivation to learn the language.

Existing research about the effects of bilingualism or learning a second language has not always provided evidence of such effects. Studies comparing bilingual children, monolingual children and children in immersion programs typically find some positive effects on attitudes towards the other group at earlier grade levels but not in later years (Blake, Lambert, Sidoti, & Wolfe, 1981; Cziko, Lambert, Sidoti & Tucker, 1980; Lambert, 1987; Lambert & Tucker, 1972). In another words, the immersion experience appears to affect intergroup attitudes but this effect is "not pronounced nor consistent" (Lambert, 1987).

Such contradictory findings may be due to the influence of social context on the relation between bilingualism and outgroup attitudes (Taylor, 1987). The issue of

bilingualism rarely concerns two language groups that occupy equal positions of power; usually one is dominant and the other subordinate. Differences in power or on other dimensions, such as size or growth rate, may alter the consequences of bilingualism. The concepts of additive and subtractive bilingualism were advanced several years ago by Lambert to describe how second-language learning may have drastically different effects from one case to another (Lambert, 1984). This perspective has been useful to account for various cognitive consequences of bilingualism. Clement (1980) proposed a model directed to the more social aspects of bilingualism. This author suggested that the collective outcomes of the process of second-language acquisition differ according to the status of the first language and culture. Clement distinguishes two processes: first, integration (i.e. for dominant groups where there is great appreciation of the other language and culture without losing one's own identity); second, assimilation (i.e. for non-dominant groups where there is great necessity for the other language and culture, even losing one's own identity).

#### **4.8. INTEGRATING KNOWLEDGE, CULTURE AND SOCIAL PRACTICES**

The most obvious explanation for the appearance of the phenomena that have been described in children is that all these behaviours are acquired through direct socialisation by their parents and from other sources such as peer group influence and the usual channels of cultural transmission. Superficially, such an explanation is appealing. Few would deny that the home environment has some influence on the development of the child, even if arguments still rage as to the exact nature and extent of this influence (Plomin & Daniels, 1987). The frequent depiction of men and women and certain minority groups in stereotypical roles in the media and in children's literature is, by now, a well-documented phenomenon (Durkin, 1985; Milner, 1983). It seems a very natural conclusion to draw the conclusion that all these socio-cultural influences should directly determine our children's social attitudes. Unfortunately the truth is not so simple. Empirical studies have provided evidence that parental behaviour and children's ethnocentric preferences or gender attitudes are not necessarily related (Spencer, 1983; Branch & Newcombe, 1980; Davey, 1983; Maccoby, 1980; Repetti, 1984; Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974,1987). Of

course, parents are not the only influences in the child's life; children live immersed in a world of mass media communication. But the evidence for the effects of these media influences on children's attitudes is also equivocal (Himmelweit et al., 1958; Zuckerman et al., 1980; Williams, 1986). In sum, as Durkin (1985) has concluded, the effects of the mass media on children are not unidirectional. So, children can not be considered as empty vessels into whom prevailing attitudes and beliefs of adult society are steadily poured.

In summary, it can be said that all these results (i.e. the very early emergence and use of category awareness, the curvilinear nature of the development of evaluated thinking, and the weak evidence for a unidirectional parent-child or society-child transmission of intergroup attitudes) suggest that children are not passive receptors of adults' beliefs and attitudes. Children, just like their parents, are actively seeking to understand, evaluate, and control their social world with the cognitive means that they have at their disposal. The biases and preferences, which can so easily be observed, are not the result of some passive indoctrination by the adult world but the natural outcome of an interaction between that world and the psychological processes of categorisation, identification, comparison and the social integration of children.

It is evident that the construction of national identity is a complex process in which beliefs, emotions, values, history, social practices, and knowledge about the ingroup and outgroups, etc. are entwined, that is, all the elements that form the children's social environment. To find an explanation of how all these elements are linked to social development, Social Representation Theory needs to be explored.

Social Representations can be defined as principles that define one's position in a group of social relations, and organise symbolic principles that intervene in social relations, communication and knowledge (Doise, 1986). From this perspective, national identities are associated with social representations that are formed by values and beliefs that are socially shared by the members of the national group. And these shared social representations intervene in the acquisition of new knowledge; in

terms of national identity, these social representations intervene in the acquisition of knowledge about countries, and their people.

A social representation is not only a system of values and beliefs shared by a group of people, but also it is an “important system of values, ideas and social practices with two fold function: first to establish an order which will enable individuals to orient themselves in their material and social world and master it; and secondly to enable communication to take place among the members of a community by providing them with a code for social exchange and a code for naming and classifying unambiguously the various aspects of their world and their individual and group history” (Moscovici 1973, p.XIII). On the one hand, the social identity implies knowledge of the ingroups; on the other hand, social representations give to the individual a common knowledge specific to their group, and guide the members of the group to a common discursive space, without which communication in everyday life would be impossible (Wagner & Elejabarrieta, 1994; Moscovici, 1984; Jodelet, 1989).

The concept of social representation also refers to how people learn and think about everyday life, about the characteristics of our environment, the information circulating in our social context, etc. Social representations are reproduced and activated by the tools of common knowledge, and then applied to a specific situation providing a strategic view of required social action. They provide a consensus about the contents of the knowledge or about the ways in which this knowledge is established (e.g. to consult the stars, the tarot, physical proves, etc.) (Wagner & Elejabarrieta, 1994).

Social representations are a kind of social knowledge, of common and practical sense that at the same time is shared and participates in the construction of reality. It is maybe this characteristic of being both process and product that is most difficult to understand and also to explain about social representations (Jodelet, 1989).

Social representations are not simply social codes/objects that people use to produce individual representations, social representation are not located inside the head of the people such as images from the external world. Instead, social

representation are an essential part of reality. But the construction of a social representation, in which the individual participates, is not made in a vacuum but it is very much related to the social groups to which people belong, and as symbolic activity, social representation feeds on the socio-cultural materials that are manifest in social practices.<sup>1</sup>

According to Ibañez (1988), sources of social representations or the materials and processes from which they originate are basically three: common cultural background; dynamic and mechanism of the representation; and social practices.

The common cultural background comprises beliefs, values and historical and cultural references that form the collective memory and even the identity of the society. It is the cultural background that shapes the mentality of a time and provides the essential categories from which one's social representations are formed (Ibañez, 1988).

The internal mechanisms that form the social representation are objectification and anchoring. Objectification, according to Jodelet, can be defined as an operation to form an image and self-structure. In other words, the way that knowledge forms part of social representation through several transformations. In this process the social representation is provided with a selective construction according to the cultural criterion, structural scheme, and with naturalisation that gives meaning to a conceptual scheme which becomes evident. Anchoring consists of, according to Moscovici, the use of our current system of thinking to interpret and give sense to the new information. A social representation objectified, naturalised and anchored is used to interpret, classify, guide and justify behaviour.

Social practices include social communication and social insertion. Social communication is where social representations have their origin and are manifested in everyday life. Social representations not only emerge in the permanent background of conversation, but they also originate in the conversational context, due to the fact

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<sup>1</sup> As essential characteristic of social representations according to Jodelet (1984) is to emphasize that social representations are always the representation of objects, have imaging character, have

that they are in a continuous flux of information, judgements, values and images. At the same time, communication is needed to extend the system of knowledge through all the members of the group, and to compromise them as producers and receptors of it. If not, social representations cannot comply with their function as the foundations for communication, the nucleus of social identity as shared background of knowledge, and social agreement about the way to acquire valid knowledge (Wagner & Elejabarrieta, 1994). Social insertion makes it possible for the individual to participate within different groups, social situations and personal experience with objects of the social representation.

In summary, it can be said that social representations classify social objects, explain the objects and evaluate their characteristics from the common sense discourse. Social representations intervene in the elaboration of the reality and at the same time are the structures used to interpret this reality. In other words, social representations are part of the object that they represent, and at the same time social representations are used to interpret the object. This characteristic of being at the same time process and product make social representations' character of "objective" reality really difficult to question for the members of the group. So, a spiral effect is produced, where the existence of knowledge socially elaborated and shared not only provides support and rewards coming from the group, but in addition reduces the possibilities to "prove the reality" of these judgements. Both processes feed each other and become ever closely entwined. The emotional dimension, closely linked with the evaluative dimension, constitutes a central element in social representations and differentiates them from social cognition. People judge or evaluate according to the stereotypes, values or representations shared within their group, more or less unaware and this allows them to continue belonging to the group. In this way, their emotions, evaluations or information related to their own group and others depend on their belonging or identification with the group, and at the same time, this identification depends upon the emotions, evaluations or information voiced.

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the quality to be able to exchange the sensitive by the idea, perception by concept, have a constructive quality and is autonomous and creative.



The construction of group identity is not limited to a shared memory or language, but also involves shared social representations. From this point of view, national identities are constructed, but at the same time, national identities create national realities, that in addition have the function to objectify elements from the national reality that previously existed (e.g. nation, language, protection about the majority decisions etc.) or were established in a previous representational universe ( e.g. the Catalan, Philip V, etc.). These realities are the base of subjective identification and, as was previously stated, these social representations are very difficult to question for the members of the group.

In this sense, research into national identity construction cannot be limited to the study of the self-categorisation process, but must try to make an explicit study of beliefs, attitudes, and systems of values about the ingroup as well as outgroups. In other words, to study the contents of the subjective national identification, in Catalonia, would be difficult without mentioning Philip V or the persecution of the linguistic rights of Catalan speakers. In the same way, it is difficult to understand Spanish identification without reference to the Catholic Kings or to the imperialism caused by Philip II (Ceuta and Melilla are still examples of that).

#### **4.9. WHAT CAN BE THE CONTRIBUTION OF DEVELOPMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY?**

A central assumption of developmental theories in psychology is that to understand something we have to understand the process through which it has been produced; that is, we have to grasp its developmental construction. This idea has also been evident in the Theory of Social Representations. This means that, in order to understand representations we need to analyse their successive transformations through the different phases of childhood and adolescence. This approach sees the child as a social actor. Also, the study of national identities makes it necessary for us to find answers to questions such as: what knowledge is shared? how is it organised it? and, what is the nucleus of these positions in the socio-psychological reality? And from developmental psychology the question also arises: how do children construct national realities, and how does this process vary with age, becoming closer and closer to adults' realities of their own group?

Children acquire first knowledge of the socially more salient groups, the ones that are most important for the people interacting with them. Because these groups are socially salient they often have a strong emotional meaning associated with them. To categorise themselves with a group allows children to locate themselves in their own social system in relation to other social groups and individuals. The content that children give to their own group and to others have various origins, including social representations used in their community, personal experience, formal and familiar education etc. Values, beliefs, attitudes etc. of each group condition strongly the mechanism of selection of information and the disposition to integrate new information, (i.e. the learning process). Cutts Dougherty, Eisenhart & Webley (1992), in their study about the role of social representations and national identities in the development of territorial knowledge, demonstrate the importance of social representations in understanding the acquisition, development or modification of geographical knowledge.

Following Tajfel's idea about multiple social identities, it can be said that each social group provides children with a group identity, supported by a particular representation of the world, with a set of values, attitudes, beliefs and actions corresponding to a social representation. And these social representations associated with their belonging to social groups have an effect on their development, and in their knowledge of themselves and others. Fordham & Ogbu's (1986) study, with black students in the Capital High School of Washington, illustrates this. The authors showed how the social representation associated with being a "black student" intervenes in the learning process of the students that identified with this category.

This idea of multiple belonging is very difficult to operationalise. It can be said that the "others" are different (outgroup) in relation to a particular social dimension, but at the same time it can be that under the perspective of another dimension these "others" are considered as similar (ingroup). The positive definition of the identity to two different groups at the same time is only possible when each group can be evaluated under different dimensions. The construction of positive social identities requires the existence of multidimensional social comparison.

The emotional value of the nation for adult people is sometimes a feeling stronger than the feeling awoken by social classes. But this subject has been less studied by sociologists, psychologists and anthropologists. If it could be understood how this national feeling is developed, an explanation why one of the most powerful forces that join or face human beings could be offered. Children's ideas about their own nation, the formation of a attachment to their own country, and their understanding about their political, cultural, linguistic etc. origins, is therefore an extremely important subject to study.

## **5. THE STUDY**

### **5.1. PRESENTATION OF THE STUDY**

This research was conducted in the context of a European study, financed by the European Communities Commission, under the Human Capital and Mobility program (CHRX-CT94-0687). Prof. M. Barrett from Psychology Department, University of Surrey directed the study, with the title “Children’s beliefs and feelings about their own and other national groups in Europe”. This study was conducted simultaneously in three European countries, Great Britain, Italy, and Spain. Two cities were selected in each country, one where the nationality coincides with the state nationality (London, Rome, Malaga), the second one where regional nationalism feelings have an influence on the population (Dundee, Padova, Girona).

The present research represents the results concerning the Children’s Development of National Identity in the city of Girona.

### **5.2. PROCEDURE AND MATERIALS**

#### **5.2.1. Schools contact and interviewing time**

Firstly the primary schools and secondary schools within the city of Girona were contacted. Private schools, state schools and schools with a state subsidy were chosen. Once in the schools, children were selected randomly, with the condition that they had to be 6, 9, 12 or 15 years old at the time of the interview. This meant that all the interviewed children were within the ages bands shown in Table 5.II. This condition was important to ensure good administration of the interview, especially the first task with card set A. This is where they had to choose from several cards which they would use to describe themselves, and four of the cards made reference to age.

The interviewing process was completed during January to May 1996. Three female interviewers, all aged between 23 and 30 years old, conducted the interviews with the children.

### **5.2.2. Interview Presentation.**

The interview schedule used for this research was prepared for all the European teams jointly. All the teams conducted a pilot study to test the interview ten months before the main study.

Individual interviews were chosen for several reasons. First, a questionnaire would have been too long and complicated to answer. Secondly, 6 and 9 years old children would have difficulties reading questions on a questionnaire. Thirdly, 6 year old children would have difficulties writing their responses to questions. Fourthly, it was important to find a way to make the interview interesting for the 6 and 9 year old children, in order to avoid fatigue effects. Fifth, individual interviews would allow the opportunity to clarify younger children's doubts, and to write down their answers. Also especially younger children would enjoy the process. Therefore the best manner was to employ individual interviews, where the interviewer provided the necessary explanations for each age, and collected the answers.

Each child was interviewed individually in a room made available by the school. The room was wide and with a table wide enough to spread out the material for the interview. The language of the interview was established by the child before the interview, when they were asked about their name, age, and other introductory questions. The answers were collected on an answer form (see appendix n.2).

A structured interview was designed because it allowed comparison of results between different ages. At the same time, using this kind of interview allowed the possibility to compare different countries' results, making statistical analysis of the data possible.

The wide range of ages included made it necessary to subtly differ the introduction of the interview and the explanation of the tasks that the children did. So, for the younger

children, 6 and 9 years old, the interview had more explanations about tasks, the materials, etc.(for example, section 2 was introduced with a definition of “a map”). For the 12 and 15 years old children, explanations about the materials were not required, but explanations were provided if children asked for these (see appendix n.1).

Five European countries were consistently asked about: Spain, Great Britain, France, Italy, and Germany. The presence of these countries in the mass media, and their political, social, and historical importance in Europe, made them salient enough to be the object of the interview. Furthermore, the Autonomous Communities of Catalonia and Andalusia were included, Catalonia because of the aim of study and Andalusia because of migratory movement from this Community to Catalonia during the fifties.(see Chapter 3 for a review of this phenomena)

A total of seven target countries communities were included, and therefore the interview was long, especially for the 6 and 9 year old children. The material was adapted in order to maintain their attention (i.e. varied, tangible and amusing). The aim of this diverse interview schedule was to ensure that the younger children did not feel tired and enjoyed the interview. So, if the younger children did not know something, the interviewer took care to ensure that they did not feel bad. With these objectives in mind, the instrument was made with a variety of materials (e.g. cards, etc.). All the cards and the written words were prepared in advance in both languages that are used in Catalonia, Catalan and Castilian (Spanish), and in both sexes, female and male. Thus, one of four different sets of cards, depending on language (i.e. Catalan or Castilian) and sex (i.e. male or female) were used. The set of cards corresponding to the child’s sex and to the language that he/she chose at the start of the interview were used for each child.

Before proceeding with the interview description, it is necessary to note that, as with all interviews, this interview had some points which could have been improved The possible elicitation of a conflict between the two nationalities in the study (between

Catalan and Spanish) could be one of these aspects. However, no interview can be done apart from the social background of the interviewee and interviewer.

The interview (see appendix n.1) was designed with the following structure, eight parts that were grouped into four sections: subjective identification and national identification; knowledge of the countries; stereotypes, evaluation and feelings; and social background. Following, each of these sections and the material used will be explained.

#### 5.2.2.1. Subjective identification and national identification

The objective of this section was to ascertain which categories the children used to describe themselves and how these categories changed with age. It was also used in order to know which national identification the child expressed in order to inform the wording of later sections of the interview schedule.

##### A. Subjective identification

In this task the following categories were presented to children: sex, age, Gironian, Catalan, Andalusian, Spanish, European, British<sup>1</sup>, French, Italian, and German.

Sex, age, and Gironian were included in the task because it is known that children acquire these categories at an early age (sex, age and place where they live, Davey; 1983) due to the fact that these categories are present in their everyday lives. On the other hand, nationality is an abstract concept and, as such, is expected to appear later in children's development.

So, for the first question 1.1 "... which ones do you think could be used to describe you?" 15 cards were used upon which were written the words: "6 years old", "9 years old", "12 years old", "15 years old", "boy", "girl"<sup>2</sup>, "Gironian", "Catalan", "Andalusian", "Spanish", "French", "British", "German", "Italian", "European".

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<sup>1</sup> The term "British" was translated in Catalan to by "Angles" and not by "Britanic", as this was easier for the younger children to understand as "Angles" is usually used as a synonym of "Britanic".

<sup>2</sup> The terms "boy" and "girl" were translated as "nen" and "nena" for the 6 and 9 years old interview, and as "noi" and "noia" ("young man" and "young woman" respectively) for the 12 and 15 year olds.

After the child had selected the cards that he/she thought were the best ones to describe him/her-self, they were asked to order them from the most important to the less important. The actual verbal instructions were: “ ... If you had to choose just one of these cards because it was the most important to you, which one would you choose?” and then “... Which one is the next most important to you?” Thus the categories which children actually use to describe themselves as well as their order of importance and any changes with age could be assessed.

### B. National identification

In this section, how children describe themselves with respect to their nationality was explored. The children had to choose how they describe themselves as either Spanish, Catalan, or both nationalities at the same time (i.e. Catalan versus Spanish). The order of question 1.3 and 1.4 were balanced to eliminate any order effects. The materials used were card sets B, C, and D.

Card set B, used in question 1.3, comprised of four written cards: “very Spanish”, “a little bit Spanish”, “not at all Spanish” and “don’t know”.

Card set C used in question 1.4 consisted of four written cards: very Catalan, a little bit Catalan, not at all Catalan, don’t know.

Card set D used in question 1.5 consisted of six written cards: Catalan, more Catalan than Spanish, both, more Spanish than Catalan, Spanish, don’t know.

#### 5.2.2.2. Knowledge of countries.

The study of two kinds of knowledge, geographical and symbolic, was explored in this section. These aspects were selected because spatial representation and symbolic knowledge of countries are used by children to establish and affirm the differences between their own group and others.

### A. Geographical knowledge



In this section, children were asked to locate different countries on a map of Europe, and tested for the name and location of different capital cities. These geographical aspects were chosen because they are all relevant and exclusive to each country. Other geographical aspects, such as rivers, mountains, etc. are often not exclusive to one country. The order of the countries was randomised with the only condition being that the first country would be always the child's own country, in this case Spain, then the other European countries and then the two Autonomous Communities (i.e. Catalan and Andalusia).

A map of Europe, with the countries' boundaries, in A.3 size was used during questions 2.1 to 2.7. The child was asked to point on the map to each country, and for the name of the capital city. The location of the capital city was only asked for if the child knew the correct name.

#### *B. Symbolic knowledge*

Flags and famous people were chosen as symbols of each country.

The knowledge that a country's flag represents each country as different from each other is often transmitted in the school. The material presented here was card set E.

Card set E was formed by nine cards and was used for question 3.1 "...Can you find the Spanish flag? etc.". The cards consisted of the flags of the countries: Catalonia, Spain, Andalusia, Great Britain, France, Italy, Germany, Norway and Sweden. The flags were spread in front of the child in a randomised order for each individual child. The order of questions also was randomised for each child but always with the condition that the home country was mentioned first, then the other European countries, and then the Autonomous Communities.

The knowledge that children had about famous people, which often helps children to base their knowledge about the different countries, was also explored. Children were asked about the name of famous people from each country. The order of the questions followed the same instructions outlined in the above sections.

### 5.2.2.3. National stereotypes, evaluation and feelings.

In this section, how children see their own and others groups was explored. The children were also asked if they liked or disliked each country.

#### A. National stereotypes and evaluation

In this section, how children describe different national groups was explored. The children were asked to choose from several adjectives which ones could be used to describe the people living in the different countries. The material used was card set H. The presented order of countries followed the conditions explained above.

Card set H consisted of 12 cards with adjectives written on them. This set was used for questions 6.1, 6.3, 6.5, 6.7, 6.9, 6.11, and 6.13, "... Which words do you think can be used to describe (country) people...". On the answer sheet, the adjectives chosen were written.

The following list shows the adjectives selected for this task: dirty, clean, friendly, unfriendly, clever, stupid, lazy, hardworking, happy, sad, honest, and dishonest. Simple adjectives with opposite meaning, good-bad were chosen. The order of the cards was randomised separately for each individual child.

#### B. National Feelings

When the child had finished with the adjective task and before they continued with the next country, he/she was asked: "Do you like or dislike (country) people?". The answers were categorised as, like a lot, like a little, dislike a little, dislike a lot, don't know, other. The questions referred in this paragraph are 6.2, 6.4, 6.6, 6.8, 6.10, 6.12, and 6.14.

#### C. National self-esteem

Positive self-esteem is really important to maintain group membership. The next section was designed to evaluate this aspect related to the group that children

consider as most important to them. In this section the child was asked, “Which face shows how you feel about being (national term 1.1)?

Cards set I was used only with 6 and 9 years old, this was a long card with five faces that represented five mood levels: very happy, a little bit happy, neutral, quite sad, very sad.

Card set J was used only with 12 and 15 years old, and consisted of cards with words corresponding to the five mood levels mentioned above.

#### 5.2.2.4. Social background

The aims of this section were to ascertain where parents came from, which language they spoke at home, and the quantity of contacts that children had with people from other nationalities through the number of times that they had visited a different country.

### **5.3. THE SAMPLE**

The sample is characterised by four variables, Sex, Age, Linguistic situation at home, and Parent’s Origin. These variables are defined in Table 5.I.

**Table 5. I Independent Variables**

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Categories</u>
Age	6, 9, 12, 15 yeras.
Sex	Male, Female.
Linguistic situation at home	Catalan, bilingual, Castilian speakers.
Parent’s Origin	Both from Catalonia, one from an other Spanish region, both from other Spanish regions.

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The sample of the present study consisted of 495 children aged 6, 9, 12 and 15 years old. These ages were selected because they represented the different levels in development of membership of a national group.

### 5.3.1. Age and sex

Similar numbers of boys and girls were present in each age group, as the Table 5.II shows.

**Table 5. II Sample by age and sex; number of subjects**

	6 years old	9 years old	12 years old	15 years old	total
girl	64	59	64	58	245
boy	51	69	68	62	250
total	115	128	132	120	495

### 5.3.2. Age, and linguistic home situation

The sample was also broken down by the language/s that the children spoke in their family environment. Three linguistic home situation categories were used: Castilian, children who speak only Castilian (Spanish) at home; Catalan, children who speak only Catalan at home; and bilingual, children who speak both languages at home. In Table 5.III, the number of subjects, and the mean age (in months and the standard deviation) by different linguistic home situation and age group can be seen.

**Table 5. III Sample by age and linguistic situation at home; number of subjects, mean age (in months) and standard deviation**

Age	Linguistic home situation			
	Castilian	Catalan	Bilingual	Total
6 years old	<b>22</b> X=80 Sd=8.7	<b>76</b> X=79.1 Sd=3.4	<b>14</b> X=79.7 Sd=3.0	<b>112</b> X=79.3 Sd=4.8
9 years old	<b>42</b> X=115.2 Sd=3.3	<b>62</b> X=115.6 Sd=2.8	<b>22</b> X=115.1 Sd=3.2	<b>126</b> X=115.4 Sd=0.27
12 years old	<b>43</b> X=151.8 Sd=1.06	<b>67</b> X=148.6 Sd=1.53	<b>20</b> X=151.3 Sd=0.6	<b>130</b> X=150.0 Sd=0.86
15 years old	<b>32</b> X=188.4 Sd=0.46	<b>71</b> X=187.6 Sd=0.37	<b>15</b> X=185.8 Sd=1.04	<b>118</b> X=187.5 Sd=0.29
Total	<b>139</b>	<b>276</b>	<b>71</b>	<b>486</b>

\* It can be seen that in this table there are 9 children that are not included. This is because they have one or both parents from other European or extra-European countries and they speak at home a language different from Catalan or Castilian.

### 5.3.3. Parents' origin and linguistic situation at home

When the relationship between Parents' origin and the language that the family speaks at home was studied it can be seen that these two variables are related.

Table 5.IV shows the relationship between the parents' origin and linguistic home situation variables. So, for this study, the linguistic home situation was used as an independent variable.

**Table 5. IV Sample by parent's origin and linguistic home situation; number of subjects**

<b>Parents' origin</b>	<b>Linguistic home situation</b>			<b>Total</b>
	<b>Catalan</b>	<b>Bilingual</b>	<b>Castilian</b>	
both from Catalonia	223	18	22	263
one from other Spanish region	27	36	45	108
both from other Spanish region	4	13	55	72
<b>Total</b>	<b>254</b>	<b>67</b>	<b>122</b>	<b>443</b>

$\chi^2 = 229.27$   $p = 0.00001$

## **6. RESULTS CONCERNING SUBJECTIVE AND NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION**

This chapter is organised following the interview sections. Each section will be structured in three parts: the first one explains how the variables were constructed and the analysis done to obtain the data; the second part presents the results, generally through tables of means and standard deviations, jointly with main effects and interaction effects for each criterion variables; the last part presents the interpretation of the main results.

As could be seen in the methodological chapter, this section is actually divided in two sub-units, subjective identification and national identification.

### **6.1 SUBJECTIVE IDENTIFICATION**

The measure of subjective identification was obtained from children's answers to the question "... which ones do you think could be used to describe you?". After choosing the cards the children were then asked to rank these cards in order of importance: "... If you had to choose just one of these cards because it was the most important to you, which one would you choose?" "... Which one is the next most important to you?".

Eight categories will be used in this section: Sex, Age, Gironian, Catalan, Spanish, Andalusian, European, and Other Countries. The first category *sex* implies that the children have chosen the cards "boy" or "girl". The second category *age* implies that the children have chosen the cards "6 years old", "9 years old", "12 years old" or "15 years old". The third *Gironean* implies that the children have chosen the card "Gironean". The fourth *Catalan* implies that the children have chosen the card "Catalan". The fifth *Spanish* implies that the children have chosen the card "Spanish". The sixth *Andalusian* implies that the children have chosen the card "Andalusian". The seventh *European* implies that the children have chosen the card "European" and the eighth, *Other countries*, implies that children have chosen "British", "German", "French", or "Italian".

In order to rank the results rank “one” was assigned to the most important card, rank “two” to the second more important, etc., until the last one selected by the child. First of all, the first-ranked was assigned a score of 1, the second had a score of 2, and so on. The value assigned to each of the cards not chosen from the total set of 15 cards was the average of the remaining ranks up to rank 15. For example, in the case of a child who had selected only 4 cards, ranks 5 to 15 would remain, the average of these ranks is established as follows:  $(5+6+7+8+9+10+11+12+13+14+15)/11=10$ . The ranks assigned to the cards were used as an index of salience of these categories in the child’s identity system, their subjective identification with them. With the objective to make tables, graphs, and the interpretation of the results more clear, an inversion of the values was made so that the higher score corresponds to the most important card, and the lowest score to the card chosen as least important.

These data for each category were analysed according to the criteria variables linguistic home situation and age, using a Kruskal-Wallis test. When this test was significant, we used a Mann-Whitney-U test to see between which groups the differences fell. In order to see the differences, within each age group, between the importance attributed to the different cards we conducted a Friedman test. And to know if there were a significant differences between the importance attributed to the categories within each age a Wilcoxon test were conducted. The statistics for the Mann-Whitney-U, Friedman and Wilcoxon tests are shown in appendix n.3.

To present these results first, the analysis of the differences between the age groups for the subjective identification within each of the three linguistic home groups, Castilian, Catalan and bilingual, are shown. Second, the analysis of the differences between the three linguistic groups for the subjective identification within each of the four age groups are shown. The categories *Andalusian* and *other European countries* are not recorded in any of the following tables because the number of subjects that chose these cards was small (i.e. 8 children over 495) and they were not related with any criteria variables.

### 6.1.1. Developmental differences in Subjective Identification for each linguistic home situation.

#### A) Castilian speaking children

Table 6.I shows the data for the group of Castilian speaking children of the sample on the subjective identification measure.

**Table 6.I Castilian children's subjective identification; means and standard deviations**

TOTAL	AGE				
	6	9	12	15	
<b>sex</b>	1	1	1	1	
<b>X=10.1 sd=2.20</b>	2	2	2	2	
<b>F=17.53</b>	3	3	3	3	
<b>P&lt;0.0005</b>	<b>a</b>	<b>a b c</b>	<b>b</b>	<b>c</b>	
<b>age</b>	4	6	3	2	
<b>X=9.9 sd=1.62</b>	5	7	4	3	
<b>F=12.336</b>	6	8	5	4	
<b>P&lt;0.006</b>	<b>a b c</b>	<b>a</b>	<b>b</b>	<b>c</b>	
<b>Gironean</b>	1	1	1	4	
<b>X=7.46 sd=3.45</b>	4	6	3	5	
<b>F=2.1609</b>		10	5	6	
<b>P&lt;0.5397</b>			6	7	
<b>Catalan</b>	5	2	5	2	
<b>X=8.02 sd=3.37</b>	8	7	8	5	
<b>F=8.18</b>	9	11	8	5	
<b>P&lt;0.0424</b>	<b>a</b>	<b>a b</b>	<b>b</b>		
<b>Spanish</b>	2	3	6	5	
<b>X=8.5 sd=3.69</b>	6	8	9	6	
<b>F=6.089</b>	10	12	9	6	
<b>P&lt;0.10</b>					
<b>European</b>	3	4	2	1	
<b>X=4.6 sd=3.00</b>	7	9	4	3	
<b>F=11.387</b>	8	10	7	4	
<b>P&lt;0.0098</b>	9	11	8	6	
	10	12	9	6	

\*The subindices a,b,c,d, etc. show between which age groups significant differences were found within each row.

\*\*The subindices 1,2,3, etc. show between which categories significant differences were found within each columns.

Table 6.I shows the results for the Castilian speakers in detail, so in the text only the more relevant results that characterise a developmental pattern will be considered. First, the group of the most important categories used by the younger children to describe themselves is *sex* and *age*, while at older ages geographical and/or national belonging categories can be found in addition to *sex* and *age*. Second, the importances of being *Gironean* and *Spanish* remain statistically stable with age (but with a tendency to increase) while the importance of being *Catalan*



shows a fluctuating pattern of development but always in a relatively high score. Thus, at the age of 12 years old the most important categories to describe the self are *age*, *sex*, *Spanish* and *Catalan*, and at 15 years old the most important characteristics are *age*, *Spanish*, *age* and *Gironean*. Third, the importance of being *European* increase at the age of 15 years old arriving to be as important as being *Catalan*.

B) Catalan speakers children

**Table 6.II Catalan children's subjective identification; means and standard deviation**

		AGE				
TOTAL		6	9	12	15	
<b>sex</b>	1					
<b>X=9.8 sd=2.18</b>	2	X=9.8	X=10.4	X=9.7	X=9.6	
<b>F=8.99</b>	3	sd=0.27	sd=0.24	sd=0.24	sd=0.27	
<b>P&lt;0.0294</b>	4		<b>a b</b>	<b>a</b>	<b>b</b>	
<b>age</b>	1				4	
<b>X=9.9 sd=1.41</b>	5	X=10.7	X=9.8	X=9.3	X=9.7	
<b>F=39.75</b>	6	sd=0.13	sd=0.15	sd=0.15	sd=0.18	
<b>P&lt;0.00001</b>	7	<b>a b c</b>	<b>a d</b>	<b>b d</b>	<b>c</b>	
	8					
<b>Gironean</b>	2				7	
<b>X=9.1 sd=2.94</b>	5	X=8.3	X=8.6	X=10.1	X=9.7	
<b>F=8.57</b>	9	sd=0.40	sd=0.43	sd=0.23	sd=0.25	
<b>P&lt;0.0356</b>	10	<b>a</b>	<b>b</b>	<b>a b</b>		
<b>Catalan</b>	6				1	
<b>X=10.3</b>	11	X=9.5	X=10.2	X=10.6	X=11.0	
<b>sd=2.25</b>	12	sd=0.31	sd=0.27	sd=0.22	sd=0.21	
<b>F=24.15</b>		<b>a b</b>	<b>c</b>	<b>a</b>	<b>b c</b>	
<b>P&lt;0.00001</b>						
<b>Spanish</b>	3				2	
<b>X=4.6 sd=3.03</b>	7	X=4.25	X=4.70	X=5.56	X=3.90	
<b>F=14.765</b>	9	sd=0.33	sd=0.36	sd=0.40	sd=0.33	
<b>P&lt;0.0020</b>	12	<b>a</b>	<b>b</b>	<b>c</b>	<b>a b c</b>	
	13					
<b>European</b>	4				3	
<b>X=5.8 sd=3.20</b>	8	X=3.30	X=5.50	X=7.47	X=7.46	
<b>F=70.26</b>	10	sd=0.19	sd=0.41	sd=0.38	sd=0.30	
<b>P&lt;0.00001</b>	11	<b>a b c</b>	<b>a d e</b>	<b>b d</b>	<b>c e</b>	
	13					

\*The subindices a,b,c,d, etc. show between which age groups significant differences were found within each row.

\*\*The subindices 1,2,3, etc. show between which categories significant differences were found within each columns.

First, the most important category used to describe the self changes with age, being *age* at 6 years old, *sex* and *Catalan* at 9 years old, *Catalan* and *Gironean* at 12 years old and *Catalan* at 15 years old. Second, the importance of being *Catalan* increases with age, while the importance of being *Gironean* has a peak at 12 years old, and the importance of being *Spanish*, which has a low score, decreases

dramatically at 15 years old. Third, the importance of being *European* increases with age, coming to be more important than being *Spanish* at 12 and 15 years old.

C) Bilingual speakers children

**Table 6.III Bilingual children's subjective identification;  
means and standard deviation**

TOTAL	AGE				
	6	9	12	15	
<b>sex</b>	1	1	1		
<b>X=10.3 sd=1.96</b>	2 X=11.	2 X=10.	2 X=10.3		X=9.2
<b>F=7.8100</b>	3 1	3 5	sd=0.51		sd=0.63
<b>P&lt;0.0499</b>	sd=0.31	4 sd=0.27			<b>a</b>
	<b>a</b>				
<b>age</b>	4	1	3		
<b>X=9.7 sd=1.61</b>	5 X=10.	5 X=9.8	4 X=9.9		X=8.6
<b>F=9.245</b>	6 5	6 sd=0.26	sd=0.28		sd=0.60
<b>P&lt;0.0263</b>	sd=0.22				<b>a</b>
	<b>a</b>				
<b>Gironean</b>	1	2			
<b>X=8.1 sd=3.51</b>	4 X=7.0	7 X=7.9	X=8.5		X=9.0
<b>F=2.948</b>	7 sd=0.98	8 sd=0.77	sd=0.74		sd=0.87
<b>P&lt;0.3997</b>					
<b>Catalan</b>	8	9	5	1	
<b>X=9.7 sd=2.55</b>	9 X=9.7	10 X=10.	X=9.3		X=9.60
<b>F=3.175</b>	sd=0.59	3 sd=0.48	sd=0.64		sd=0.74
<b>P&lt;0.3654</b>					
<b>Spanish</b>	2	3	1		
<b>X=5.9 sd=3.47</b>	5 X=4.8	5 X=5.5	3 X=6.7		X=6.6
<b>F=2.0074</b>	8 sd=0.86	7 sd=0.74	5 sd=0.71		sd=1.01
<b>P&lt;0.5709</b>		9			
<b>European</b>	3	4	2	1	
<b>X=5.4 sd=3.40</b>	6 X=3.5	6 X=3.8	X=7.0		X=7.3
<b>F=17.5845</b>	7 sd=0.58	8 sd=0.60	sd=0.74		sd=0.87
<b>P&lt;0.0005</b>	9 <b>a b</b>	10 <b>c d</b>	<b>a c</b>		<b>b d</b>

\*The subindices a,b,c,d, etc. show between which age groups significant differences were found within each row.

\*\*The subindices 1,2,3, etc. show between which categories significant differences were found within each columns.

First, the categories of *age* and *sex* are the most important for 6 year old children, but at 9 years old, *age* is replaced by *Catalan* in the group of most important cards, and at 12 and 15 years old, this group is formed by the two physical categories (*sex*, and *age*) jointly with the geographical (*Gironean*) and the national (*Catalan*) belongings. Second, the geographical (to be *Gironean*) and/or national belongings (to be *Catalan* or *Spanish*) do not present any age effect, but the importance of being *Catalan* is significantly higher than the importance of being *Spanish* in all ages (except at 15 years old, but this could be due to the big variance in this group), and the importance of being *Gironean* is always in between the two national

categories. Third, the importance of being *European* increases dramatically between 9 and 12 years old, and this belonging has the same importance for the bilingual children as being *Spanish*, at all ages.

#### *Summary*

In summary, it can be said that there are differences in the way in which children from each linguistic group chose to describe themselves. It appears that Catalan speakers and bilingual children give the earliest importance to the national belonging (i.e. *Catalan*) that is not present in Castilian speaking children (i.e. *Spanish*). Also it seems that 12 and 15 years old Catalan speaking children accentuate the difference with the other groups by giving higher levels of importance to their characteristic of being *Catalan*.

So, different patterns are used to describe the self in the three linguistic groups. In order to show these differences in more detail, the next section compares the results from each linguistic group within each age.

### 6.1.2. Linguistic differences for the Subjective Identification for each age group.

#### A) 6 years old children

**Table 6.IV 6 years old children's subjective identification; means and standard deviation**

TOTAL	LINGUISTIC SITUATION		
	Castilian	Catalan	Bilingual
<b>sex</b>			
<b>X=9.9 sd=0.44</b>	X=10.0	X=9.8	X=11.1
<b>F=5.73</b>	sd=0.44	sd=0.27	sd=0.31
<b>P&lt;0.056</b>	<b>a</b>	<b>b</b>	<b>a b</b>
<b>age</b>			
X= 10.7	X=10.9	X=10.7	X=10.5
sd=1.09	sd=0.2	sd=0.13	sd=0.22
F=1.30			
P<0.519			
<b>Gironean</b>			
X=7.7 sd=3.67	X=6.45	X=8.3	X=7.00
F=4.44	sd=0.84	sd=0.40	sd=0.98
P<0.108			
<b>Catalan</b>			
X=9.3 sd=2.73	X=8.86	X=9.5	X=9.7
F=1.76	sd=0.62	sd=0.31	sd=0.59
P<0.41			
<b>Spanish</b>			
<b>X=5.0 sd=3.26</b>	X=7.0	X=4.25	X=4.8
<b>F=10.25</b>	sd=0.80	sd=0.33	sd=0.86
<b>P&lt;0.005</b>	<b>a</b>	<b>a</b>	
<b>European</b>			
X=3.2 sd=1.60	X=2.8	X=3.30	X=3.5
F=0.985	sd=0.09	sd=0.19	sd=0.58
P<0.610			

\*The subindices a,b,c,d, etc. show between which age groups significant differences were found within each row.

First, only the categories of *sex* and *Spanish* presented significant differences, *sex* being more important for the bilingual children and *Spanish* more important for the Castilian speaking children. Second, the category of being *Catalan*, which has a high score, did not present any linguistic effect at this age. So, at 6 years old the three linguistic groups attributed the same high level of importance of being *Catalan*, while the importance attributed to being *Spanish* is higher for Castilian than for Catalan speaking children.

*B) 9 years old children***Table 6.V 9 years old children's subjective identification; means and standard deviation**

TOTAL	LINGUISTIC SITUATION		
	Castilian	Catalan	Bilingual
<b>sex</b>			
<b>X=10.7 sd=1.57</b>	X=11.2	X=10.4	X=10.5
<b>F=7.1855</b>	sd=0.13	sd=0.24	sd=0.27
<b>P&lt;0.027</b>	<b>a b</b>	<b>a</b>	<b>b</b>
<b>age</b>			
X=9.9 sd=1.20	X=10.0	X=9.8	X=9.8
F=0.8574	sd=0.18	sd=0.15	sd=0.26
P<0.651			
<b>Gironean</b>			
X=8.08 sd=3.54	X=7.38	X=8.6	X=7.95
F=4.762	sd=0.50	sd=0.43	sd=0.77
P<0.0925			
<b>Catalan</b>			
<b>X=9.2 sd=3.00</b>	X=7.23	X=10.2	X=10.3
<b>F=27.6462</b>	sd=0.50	sd=0.27	sd=0.48
<b>P&lt;0.0001</b>	<b>a b</b>	<b>a</b>	<b>b</b>
<b>Spanish</b>			
<b>X=5.9 sd=3.65</b>	X=8.0	X=4.70	X=5.5
<b>F=18.79</b>	sd=0.6	sd=0.36	sd=0.74
<b>P&lt;0.0001</b>	<b>a b</b>	<b>a</b>	<b>b</b>
<b>European</b>			
<b>X=4.8 sd=3.12</b>	X=4.5	X=5.50	X=3.8
<b>F=6.8020</b>	sd=0.40	sd=0.41	sd=0.60
<b>P&lt;0.0333</b>		<b>a</b>	<b>a</b>

\*The subindices ab,c,d, etc. show between which age groups significant differences were found within each row.

First, the categories that present a linguistic effect are *sex*, *Catalan*, *Spanish* and *European*. Castilian speaking children attributed to *sex* and *Spanish* categories more importance than Catalan speakers and bilingual children, while Catalan speakers and bilingual children attributed more importance to being *Catalan* than Castilian speakers. Second, Catalan speaking children attributed more importance to the category *European* than the other two groups. Thus, at the age of 9 years, the identification with one of the two national groups becomes related to the language that children speak at home (i.e. *Catalan* for Catalan and bilingual speakers, and *Spanish* for Castilian speakers).

*C) 12 years old children***Table 6.VI 12 years old children's subjective identification;  
means and standard deviation**

TOTAL	LINGUISTIC SITUATION		
	Castilian	Catalan	Bilingual
sex			
X=9.9 sd=2.04	X=9.97 sd=0.30	X=9.7 sd=0.24	X=10.3 sd=0.51
F=3.570			
P<0.1655			
age			
X=9.4 sd=1.66	X=9.62 sd=0.29	X=9.3 sd=0.15	X=9.9 sd=0.28
F=4.122			
P<0.1273			
<b>Gironean</b>			
<b>X=9.05</b>	X=7.5	X=10.1	X=8.55
<b>sd=2.89</b>	sd=0.49	sd=0.23	sd=0.74
<b>F=21.799</b>	<b>a</b>	<b>a b</b>	<b>b</b>
<b>P&lt;0.00001</b>			
<b>Catalan</b>			
<b>X=9.8 sd=2.66</b>	X=8.8	X=10.6	X=9.3
<b>F=14.375</b>	sd=0.46	sd=0.22	sd=0.64
<b>P&lt;0.0008</b>	<b>a</b>	<b>a b</b>	<b>b</b>
<b>Spanish</b>			
<b>X=7.0 sd=3.66</b>	X=9.1	X=5.56	X=6.7
<b>F=32.48</b>	sd=0.5	sd=0.40	sd=0.71
<b>P&lt;0.00001</b>	<b>a b</b>	<b>a</b>	<b>b</b>
<b>European</b>			
<b>X=6.4 sd=3.43</b>	X=4.58	X=7.47	X=7.0
<b>F=16.345</b>	sd=0.40	sd=0.38	sd=0.74
<b>P&lt;0.0003</b>	<b>a b</b>	<b>a</b>	<b>b</b>

\*The subindices ab,c,d, etc. show between which age groups significant differences were found within each row.

Only the national and geographical categories present a linguistic effect at this age. Catalan speaking children attributed more importance than the other two linguistic groups to the categories of being *Catalan* and *Gironean*, while Castilian speaking children attributed more importance than the other two groups to the category of being *Spanish*. The characteristic of being *European* was more important for the Catalan speakers and bilingual children than for Castilian speakers.

## D) 15 years old children

**Table 6.VII 15 years old children's subjective identification; means and standard deviation**

TOTAL	LINGUISTIC SITUATION		
	Castillian	Catalan	Bilingual
sex			
X=9.4 sd=2.53 F=30.571 P<0.751	X=9.21 sd=0.54	X=9.6 sd=0.27	X=9.2 sd=0.63
age			
X=9.5 sd=1.76 F=3.633 P<0.1632	X=9.68 sd=0.31	X=9.7 sd=0.18	X=8.6 sd=0.60
Gironean			
X=9.1 sd=2.72 F=5.33 P<0.069	X=8.18 sd=0.56	X=9.70 sd=0.25	X=9.0 sd=0.87
<b>Catalan</b>			
<b>X=9.8 sd=3.07</b> <b>F=34.325</b> <b>P&lt;0.00001</b>	X=7.34 sd=0.65 <b>a b</b>	X=11.04 sd=0.21 <b>a c</b>	X=9.60 sd=0.74 <b>b c</b>
<b>Spanish</b>			
<b>X=5.8 sd=3.96</b> <b>F=41.934</b> <b>P&lt;0.00001</b>	X=9.37 sd=0.6 <b>a b</b>	X=3.90 sd=0.33 <b>a c</b>	X=6.6 sd=1.01 <b>b c</b>
European			
X=6.9 sd=2.97 F=3.65 P<0.1610	X=6.03 sd=0.50	X=7.46 sd=0.30	X=7.3 sd=0.87

\*The subindices ab,c,d, etc. show between which age groups significant differences were found within each row.

At this age only the categories of being *Catalan* or *Spanish* presented differences. Each linguistic group attributed a different level of importance to these characteristics. The highest level of importance to the category of being *Catalan* was attributed by the Catalan speaking children, the lowest importance was attributed by the Castillian speaking children, with the bilingual children being between these two groups. In the category of being *Spanish* the relationship between linguistic group and level of importance is the inverse, with again the bilingual children between the other two groups.

*Summary*

So, it can be seen that each linguistic group attributed different levels of importance to the characteristic of being *Catalan* or *Spanish*. Catalan speakers attributed the

most importance to the characteristic of being *Catalan* and Castilian speakers are the group that attributed the most importance to the characteristic of being *Spanish*. Notice that at 6 years old this effect can be seen only in relation to the importance of being *Spanish* and not related to the importance of being *Catalan*.

However, to find whether Catalan speaking children give more importance to their characteristic of being *Catalan* than Castilian speakers to their characteristic of being *Spanish*, more analysis is needed. In order to answer this question, the level of importance given to these to characteristics by the two linguistic groups were compared, using a Kruskal-Wallis test. Table 6.VIII shows the results.

**Table 6.VIII Catalan subjective identification vs. Spanish subjective identification**

	6 years old	9 years old	12 years old	15 years old
$X^2=18.66$ $p<0.0001$	$X^2=6.4$ $p<0.008$	$X^2=6.72$ $p<0.009$	$X^2=3.53$ $p<0.05$	$X^2=7.8$ $p<0.005$
<b>Catalan</b>	X=9.56 sd=2.7	X=10.23 sd=2.19	X=10.67 sd=1.8	X=11.00 sd=1.8
<b>Castillian</b>	X=7.00 sd=3.8	X=8.00 sd=3.9	X=9.16 sd=3.37	X=9.37 sd=3.4
X=10.36 sd=2.2				
X=8.5 sd=3.5				

The above table shows us that, except at 12 years old, to be *Catalan* is more salient for the Catalan speakers than to be *Spanish* for the Castillian speakers children, when they are describing themselves.



## 6.2. NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

In this section, the results on how children describe themselves in relation to the Catalan and Spanish national identities will be shown. Three variables were used: Spanish identification, Catalan identification, and Catalan vs. Spanish identification. These variables are related with questions 1.3, 1.4, and 1.5 “Which one of these cards do you think best describes you?” of the interview respectively.

We will analyse these data related to the “age” and the “linguistic home situation” variables, using a Hierarchical Log Linear test 3x4.

### 6.2.1. Spanish identification

The measure of Spanish identification was obtained from children’s answers to question 1.3 which has three categories of answer: “not at all Spanish”, “a little bit Spanish” and “very Spanish”. These categories scored from 1 to 3 respectively. Table 6.IX shows the results.

**Table 6.IX Spanish identification; means and standard deviation**

INTERACTION x=21.026 p<0.0500	AGE x=83.311 p<0.00001				
LINGUISTIC SITUATION x=68.536 p<0.00001	6 years old	9 years old	12 years old	15 years old	TOTAL
Castillian	X=2.44 1 sd=0.21	X=2.46 1 sd=0.10	X=2.49 1 sd=0.08 2	X=2.38 1 sd=0.11	X=2.45 1 sd=0.05 2
Catalan	X=1.89 1 sd=0.11 <b>a</b>	X=2.12 1 sd=0.88 <b>b c</b>	X=1.87 1 sd=0.06 <b>b d</b>	X=1.54 1 sd=0.07 2 <b>a c d</b>	X=1.85 1 sd=0.04 3
Bilingual	X=2.00 sd=0.35	X=2.37 sd=0.14	X=2.11 2 sd=0.07	X=2.07 2 sd=0.12	X=2.16 2 sd=0.07 3
<b>TOTAL</b>	X=2.01 sd=0.09	X=2.28 A sd=0.06 B	X=2.12 A sd=0.05 C	X=1.83 B sd=0.06 C	

\* The subindices 1,2,3, etc. show between which groups present significant differences respect the main effects of the variable linguistic situation.

\*\* The subindices A,B,C, etc. show between which groups present significant differences respect the main effects of the variable age.

\*\*\*The subindices 1,2,3 etc. show between which linguistic groups significant differences were found within each column (age).

\*\*\*\* The subindices a,b,c, etc. show between which age groups significant differences were found within each row (linguistic group).

Table 6.IX shows different patterns of answer in the variable Spanish identification. First, Castillian speakers, which have the highest score, are significantly different to Catalan speaking children, which have the lowest score, and the bilingual children are always between these two groups. Second, only

Catalan speakers present differences with age, showing a “U-shaped” pattern of answer in, with 9 and 12 years old being the ages with higher Spanish identification.

### 6.2.2. Catalan Identification

The measure of Catalan identification was obtained from children’s answers to question 1.4. which has three categories of answer: “not at all Catalan”, “a little bit Catalan” and “very Catalan”. These categories scored from 1 to 3 respectively.

**Table 6.X Catalan Identification**

INTERACTION x=21.459 p<0.0441	AGE				
	6 years old	9 years old	12 years old	15 years old	TOTAL
LINGUISTIC SITUATION x=125.72 p<0.00001					
Castillian	X=2.53 1 sd=0.18 2	X=2.20 1 sd=0.10 2	X=2.16 1 sd=0.09	X=2.24 1 sd=0.12 2	X=2.22 1 sd=0.05 2
Catalan	X=2.80 1 sd=0.05	X=2.89 1 sd=0.04	X=2.91 1 sd=0.03 2	X=2.90 1 sd=0.03	X=2.87 1 sd=0.02 3
Bilingual	X=3.00 2 sd=0.00	X=2.95 2 sd=0.05	X=2.45 2 sd=0.14	X=2.73 2 sd=0.14	X=2.73 2 sd=0.12 3
<b>TOTAL</b>	X=2.74 sd=0.05	X=2.67 sd=0.05	X=2.59 sd=0.05	X=2.71 sd=0.04	

\* The subindices 1,2,3, etc. show between which groups present significant differences respect the main effects of the variable linguistic situation.

\*\* The subindices 1,2,3 etc. show between which linguistic groups significant differences were found within each column (age).

\*\*\* The subindices a,b,c, etc. show between which age groups significant differences were found within each row (linguistic group).

First, Catalan speaking children, which have the highest score, are significantly different to Castilian speakers, which have the lowest score. Bilingual children aged 6 and 9 years old present as strong a Catalan identification as Catalan speakers, but in older ages their Catalan identification decreases to be placed between the Castilian and Catalan linguistic groups. Second, while for Castilian and Catalan children the Catalan identification remains stable with age, bilingual children present a different pattern, that is, their Catalan identification is stronger at 6 and 9 years old than at 12 and 15 years old.

### 6.2.3. Catalan vs. Spanish Identification

The third measure of national identification, Catalan vs. Spanish, has five categories of answer: “Catalan”, “more Catalan than Spanish”, “both”, “more

Spanish than Catalan”, and “Spanish”. These categories scored from 1 to 5 respectively.

**Table 6.XI Catalan vs. Spanish Identification**

INTERACTION x=45.197 p<0.0055	AGE x=36.465 p<0.0003									
	LINGUISTIC SITUATION x=192.97 p<0.00001		6 years old	9 years old	12 years old	15 years old	TOTAL			
Castillian	X=2.95	1	X=3.34	1	X=3.33	1	X=3.26	1	X=3.26	1
	sd=0.29	2	sd=0.16	2	sd=0.15	2	sd=0.13	2	sd=0.08	2
Catalan	X=2.01	1	X=2.02	1	X=1.96	1	X=1.60	1	X=1.89	1
	sd=0.15		sd=0.09	3	sd=0.10	3	sd=0.07	3	sd=0.05	3
Bilingual	X=2.00	2	X=2.82	2	X=2.75	2	X=2.20	2	X=2.20	2
	sd=0.53		sd=0.21	3	sd=0.12	3	sd=0.22	3	sd=0.22	3
TOTAL	X=2.20	A	X=2.60	A	X=2.53	B	X=2.12	C		
	sd=0.13	B	sd=0.09	C	sd=0.09	D	sd=0.09	D		

\* The subindices 1,2,3, etc. show between which groups present significant differences respect the main effects of the variable linguistic situation.

\*\* The subindices A,B,C, etc. show between which groups present significant differences respect the main effects of the variable age.

\*\*\*The subindices 1,2,3 etc. show between which linguistic groups significant differences were found within each column (age).

\*\*\*\* The subindices a,b,c, etc. show between which age groups significant differences were found within each row (linguistic group).

Table 6.XI shows that while in Castillian speaking children the level of identification remains stable in the “both” category, in bilingual children the developmental pattern presents tendency to a “U-shape”, and in Catalan speakers the identification with the regional extreme becomes greater with age.

### Summary

First, the Castillian speaking children presented similar levels of identification with Catalan and Spanish identities (see appendix n 3. Table A-3.XI), and when they have to choose between Catalan or Spanish they describe themselves as *both* (Catalan and Spanish) or as *more Spanish than Catalan*. Secondly, for the bilingual children the Catalan identification is always stronger than the Spanish one, except in the 12 years old group (see Table A-3.XI). When the bilingual children have to choose between to be Catalan or Spanish, they present a U-shape with 9 and 12 years old children showing a tendency to describe themselves as *both* (Catalan and Spanish). Thirdly, the Catalan children have a strong Catalan identification and a weak Spanish one (see Table A-3.XI). When they have to choose, they choose *more Catalan than Spanish* or *Catalan*, with the 15 years old children being the most extreme group.

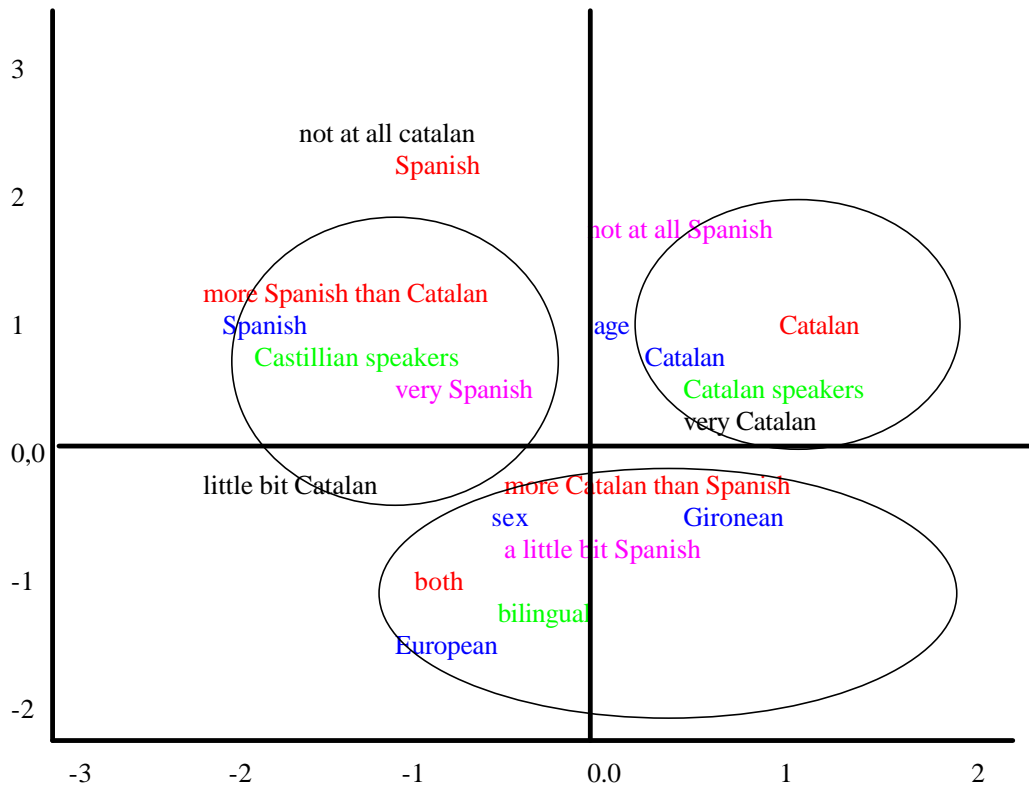
### **6.3. Conclusions**

As conclusions of subjective and national identification, it can be said that three patterns of National Identity are constructed around the home linguistic situation of the children.

In order to define the association between the different categories of the variables linguistic home situation, subjective identification, Spanish identification, Catalan identification and Catalan vs. Spanish identification, a correspondence analysis was used. Because the correspondence analysis only works with categories from the subjective identification, only the card selected by children as the most important was used. This analysis only shows descriptive associations.

The first association is around the Catalan speaking children. These children categorise themselves as “Catalan” and they feel “very Catalan” and “not at all Spanish”. This association is opposite to the association around the Castilian speaking children. These children categorise themselves as “Spanish” and they feel “more Spanish than Catalan”. The bilingual children avoid the Catalan or Spanish identification, but, in the Catalan vs. Spanish variable, where they have to choose between both, they have a tendency to the Catalan identification. These three associations are maintained in the 12 and 15 years old groups, but are not present in the 6 and 9 years old groups (see appendix.4).

**Figure 6. I Correspondence analysis subjective Identification and national identification**



First selection

Home linguistic Situation

Spanish vs. Catalan Identification

Catalan Identification

Spanish Identification

## 7. RESULTS CONCERNING KNOWLEDGE OF COUNTRIES

In this chapter the data about geographical knowledge and symbolic knowledge will be presented. All the data were analysed according to the criteria variables linguistic home situation and age, using an ANOVA test to establish the main and interaction effects and using a Scheffé test to establish between which groups the main differences occurred. In appendix n.5, T-test results on the level of knowledge between different countries are shown. Flags' data were binary in form (i.e. the answers were classified as either correct or incorrect), and ANOVA was used also to analyse these data. Although ANOVA is not normally used to analyse such data, it is well established that ANOVA produces accurate results when used to analyse binary data that have been scored as 0s and 1s (Cochran, 1950; Cox, 1970). ANOVA also has a further advantage that it enables interaction effects to be identified.

### 7.1 GEOGRAPHICAL KNOWLEDGE

As could be seen in the methodological chapter, this section is actually divided into two sub-units, spatial knowledge and knowledge of the name of capital cities.

#### 7.1.1 Spatial knowledge

This measure is composed using the data from country location and capital city location variables. The country location variable was obtained from children's answers to questions 2.1 to 2.7 (i.e. Can you show me where {name of each country} is?), and capital city location variable was obtained from the question "can you mark on the map where {name of the capital city} is?". Both variables were transformed to Z-score and then they were added resulting in a unique measure, spatial knowledge. This measure was analysed using a 3x4 mixed ANOVA and a T-test when the main effects were significant. Tables 7.I and 7.II show the results obtained.

**Table 7. I Spatial knowledge (1)**

COUNTRY	AGE	LINGUISTIC HOME SITUATION							
		Castillian		Catalan		Bilingual		Age Total	linguistic home sit. differences
<b>Germany</b>	6	1	X=-1.47	1	X=-1.41	1	X=-1.32	X=-1.41	1
		2	sd=0.00	2	sd=0.32	2	sd=0.54	sd=0.32	2
Age F(3,485) =91.61 p<0.0001	9	3	X=-1.24	3	X=-1.11	3	X=-1.26	X=-1.18	3
		4	sd=0.62	4	sd=0.97	4	sd=0.67	sd=0.82	4
Ling. F(2,485) =4.13 p<0.017	12	1	X=-.039	1	X=1.04	1	X=0.72	X=0.51	1
		3	sd=1.58	3	sd=1.62	3	sd=1.50	sd=1.71	3
		5							5
									F(2,129)=12.82 p<0.00001

7. Results concerning knowledge of countries

			a b	a	b				
Interact. F(6,485) =4.233 p<0.0001	15	2	X= 1.33 sd=1.43	2	X=1.22 sd=1.60	2	X=1.16 sd=1.65	X=1.24 sd=1.58	2
Linguistic home situation Total age differences		4	X=-0.42 sd=1.56	1	X=-0.07 sd=1.75		X=-0.20 sd=1.61		5
			F(3,138)=36.54 p<0.00001		F(3,275)=84.01 p<0.00001		F(3,70)=20.51 p<0.00001		
<b>Italy</b>	6	1	X= -2.20 sd=0.44	1	X=-2.16 sd=0.52	1	X=-2.15 sd=0.55	X=-2.16 sd=0.56	1
		2		2		2			2
		3		3					3
Age F(3,485) =161.52 p<0.0001	9	3	X=-1.46 sd=1.44	1	X=-0.88 sd=1.59	3	X=-1.06 sd=1.69	X=-1.10 sd=1.56	4
		4		4		4			5
Ling. F(2,485) =10.61 p<0.0001	12	1	X=-0.14 sd=1.33	2	X=1.19 sd=0.83	1	X=1.08 sd=0.95	X=0.75 sd=1.21	2
		3		4		3			4
		5							6
Interact. F(6,485) =3.44 p<0.002	15	2	X=1.04 sd=0.92	3	X=1.24 sd=0.94	2	X=1.07 sd=0.88	X=1.16 sd=0.93	3
		4				4			5
		5							6
Linguistic home situation Total age differences			X=-0.59 sd=-0.18	1	X=-0.18 sd=1.79		X=-0.22 sd=1.77		
			F(3,138)=42.98 p<0.00001		F(3,275)=190.19 p<0.00001		F(3,70)=30.58 p<0.00001		
<b>Britain</b>	6	1	X=-1.98 sd=0.00	1	X=-1.98 sd=0.00	1	X=-1.78 sd=0.56	X=-1.95 sd=0.20	1
		2		2		2			2
		.							F(2,111)=6.60 p<0.0020
Age F(3,485) =152.35 p<0.0001	9	3	X=-1.56 sd=0.89	3	X=-1.50 sd=1.07	3	X=-1.81 sd=0.54	X=-1.57 sd=0.93	3
		4		4		4			4
Ling. F(2,485) =4.18 p<0.016	12	1	X=-0.44 sd=1.58	1	X=0.87 sd=1.45	1	X=0.61 sd=1.29	X=0.39 sd=1.59	1
		3		3		3			3
		5							5
Interact. F(6,485) =4.82 p<0.0001	15	4	X=1.09 sd=1.35	2	X=1.06 sd=1.31	2	X=1.33 sd=1.14	X=1.10 sd=1.29	2
		5		4		4			4
									5
Linguistic home situation Total age differences			X=-0.66 sd=1.63	1	X=-0.39 sd=1.76	1	X=-0.45 sd=1.67		
			F(3,138)=39.85 p<0.00001		F(3,275)=146.61 p<0.00001		F(3,70)=45.96 p<0.00001		
<b>France</b>	6	1	X=-1.97 sd=0.43	1	X=-1.98 sd=0.39	1	X=-1.92 sd=0.54	X=-1.9 sd=0.45	1
		2		2		2			2
		3		3					3
Age F(3,485) =167.39 p<0.0001	9	1	X=-0.66 sd=1.66	1	X=-0.59 sd=1.59	3	X=-1.31 sd=1.21	X=-0.73 sd=1.57	1
		4		4		4			4
		5		5					5
Ling. F(2,485) =3.77 p<0.024	12	2	X=0.31 sd=1.65	2	X=1.46 sd=0.84	1	X=1.23 sd=0.90	X=1.04 sd=1.28	2
		4		4		3			4
		6							6
Interact. F(6,485) =4.51 p<0.0001	15	3	X=1.37 sd=0.91	3	X=1.46 sd=0.91	2	X=1.73 sd=0.85	X=1.46 sd=0.91	3
		5		5		4			5
		6							6
Linguistic home situation Total age differences			X=-0.09 sd=1.75	1	X=0.05 sd=1.80		X=-0.07 sd=1.79		
			F(3,138)=28.95 p<0.00001		F(3,275)=202.39 p<0.00001		F(3,70)=60.40 p<0.00001		

**Table 7. II Spatial knowledge (2)**

COUNTRY	AGE	LINGUISTIC HOME SITUATION								
		Castillian		Catalan		Bilingual		Age Total	linguistic home sit. differences	
<b>Spain</b>	6	1	X=-1.98	1	X=-1.91	1	X=-1.92	X=-1.92	1	
		2	sd=0.43	2	sd=0.54	2	sd=0.54	sd=0.52	2	
		3		3		3			3	
	Age F(3,485) =261.25 p<0.0001	9	1	X=-0.19	1	X=0.00	1	X=-0.82	X=-0.20	1
			4	sd=1.75	4	sd=1.66	4	sd=1.55	sd=1.68	4
			5			5				5
	Ling. F(2,485) =2.21 p<0.111	12	2	X=1.42	2	X=1.89	2	X=2.02	X=1.75	2
			4	sd=1.21	4	sd=0.52	4	sd=0.41	sd=0.83	4
	Interact. F(6,485) =2.14 p<0.47	15	3	X=1.95	3	X=1.97	3	X=1.79	X= 1.94	3
			5	sd=1.95		sd=0.47	5	sd=0.48	sd=0.50	5
	Linguistic home situation Total age differences			X=0.51 sd=1.83		X=0.43 sd=1.87		X=0.31 sd=1.89		
				F(3,138)=57.43 p<0.00001		F(3,138)=297.74 p<0.00001		F(3,138)=68.83 p<0.00001		
	<b>Catalonia</b>	6	1	X=-2.19	1	X=-2.18	1	X=-2.19	X=-2.18	1
			2	sd=0.00	2	sd=0.09	2	sd=0.00	sd=0.52	2
			3		3					3
Age F(3,485) =205.41 p<0.0001		9	1	X=-0.58	1	X=-0.72	3	X=-1.80	X=-0.86	1
			4	sd=1.8	4	sd=1.72	4	sd=1.10	sd=1.73	4
			5							5
Ling. F(2,485) =2.93 p<0.054		12	2	X=0.62	2	X=1.34	1	X=1.28	X=1.09	2
			4	sd=1.6	4	sd=0.76	3	sd=0.48	sd=1.14	4
Interact. F(6,485) =4.34 p<0.0001		15	3	X=1.42	4	X=1.44	2	X=1.26	X=1.4	3
			5	sd=0.61		sd=0.55	4	sd=0.76	sd=0.60	5
Linguistic home situation Total age differences				X=-0.00 sd=1.84		X=-0.06 sd=1.81		X=-0.36 sd=1.79		
				F(3,138)=34.17 p<0.00001		F(3,275)=246.50 p<0.00001		F(3,70)=107.30 p<0.00001		
<b>Andalusia</b>		6	1	X=-1.88	1	X=-1.83	1	X=-1.75	X=-1.83	1
			2	sd=0.00	2	sd=0.30	2	sd=0.50	sd=0.30	2
			3		3					3
	Age F(3,485) =106.72 p<0.0001	9	3	X=-0.97	1	X=-1.24	3	X=-1.60	X=-1.21	1
			4	sd=1.39	4	sd=1.21	4	sd=0.98	sd=1.25	4
			5							5
	Ling. F(2,485) =2.524 p<0.081	12	1	X=-0.60	2	X=-0.60	1	X=-1.3	X=0.49	2
			3	sd=1.59	4	sd=1.37	3	sd=1.46	sd=1.47	4
			5			5				6
	Interact. F(6,485) =1.15 p<0.129	15	2	X=1.42	4	X=0.78	2	X=1.14	X=1.00	3
			4	sd=1.05		sd=1.52	4	sd=1.04	sd=1.37	5
	Linguistic home situation Total age differences			X=-0.07 sd=1.74		X=-0.43 sd=1.65		X=-0.63 sd=1.56		
				F(3,138)=40.09 p<0.00001		F(3,275)=86.34 p<0.00001		F(3,70)=25.35 p<0.00001		

The three most relevant results in the above table are as follows. First, the main effect of age is significant for all the countries and always in the way that older children have more knowledge than younger. Second, the main effect of language is only significant in the European countries, “the others” and not in Spain, Catalonia and Andalusia. So, it can be said that for the acquisition of spatial knowledge there exists two groups with different patterns. There is one formed by the “other” European countries (i.e. Germany, Italy, Britain, France) where the effect of the language used at home is significant, in the way that Catalan



speaking children have more knowledge than Castilian speakers. On the other hand, the group formed by Spain, Catalonia and Andalusia, where language groups do not have different level of spatial knowledge. Third, looking at the interaction effects, it can be seen that the 12 years old Castilian group usually have less knowledge than the other groups at the same age, for all the countries with the exception of knowledge about Andalusia, where there are not significant interaction differences.

Also it can be seen that children from all the linguistic groups have more knowledge about Spain than about the other countries (see appendix n.5). The ranking of level of knowledge is different for every linguistic group. For the Castilian group the order of knowledge of the countries is Spain, Catalonia, Andalusia, France, Germany, Italy and United Kingdom. For the Catalan group the order of knowledge is Spain, France, Catalonia, Germany, Italy, United Kingdom and Andalusia. For the bilingual group the order of knowledge is Spain, France, Germany, Italy, Catalonia, United Kingdom and Andalusia.

### **7.1.2 Knowledge of the name of the capital cities**

This measure was obtained from children's answers to the question "What is the name of the capital of {country}?". The variable was transformed to Z-score This measure was analysed using a 3x4 mixed ANOVA and a T-test when the main effects were significant.

Tables 7.III and 7.IV show the results obtained. These tables show three main points. First, the main effect of age is present in all the linguistics situations and for all the countries, in the way that older children know the name of the capital cities better than younger children. Second, the main effect of linguistic home situation is present in all the countries except Germany and Andalusia in the way that Catalan speaking children have a higher knowledge of the name of the capital cities than Castilian speaking children. The interaction effects (i.e. age-linguistic home situation) show a similarity between spatial knowledge and the knowledge of the name of the capital cities: except for Andalusia, the group that marks clearly the differences is always 12 years old Castilian speaking children, in the way that have less knowledge than Catalan speakers.

**Table 7. III Knowledge of the name of capital city.**

COUNTRY	AGE	LINGUISTIC HOME SITUATION								
		Castillian		Catalan		Bilingual	Age Total	linguistic home sit. differences		
<b>Germany</b>	6	1	X=-0.62 sd=0.00	1	X=-0.62 sd=0.00	1	X=-0.47 sd=0.55	X=-0.60 sd=0.19	1	F(2,111)=3.66 p<0.0287
		2		2		2			2	
	9	2	X=-0.62 sd=0.00	3	X=-0.59 sd=0.26	3	X=-0.62 sd=0.00	X=-0.60 sd=0.18	1	
		4		4		4			3	
		4		4		4			4	
12	3	X=-0.28 sd=0.77	1	X=0.45 sd=1.03	1	X=0.30 sd=1.05	X=0.18 sd=1.01	3	F(2,129)=7.99 p<0.0005	
	3		3		3			5		
15	1	X=0.79 sd=0.97	2	X=0.68 sd=1.00	2	X=0.61 sd=1.04	X=0.70 sd=0.99	2		
	2		4		4			4		
	4		4		4			5		
Linguistic home situation Total age differences		X=-0.19 sd=0.84	1	X=-0.01 sd=0.94	1	X=-0.07 sd=0.92				F(3,138)=36.09 p<0.00001
			2		2					F(3,275)=61.14 p<0.00001
			1		1					F(3,70)=10.45 p<0.00001
<b>Italy</b>	6	1	X=-0.94 sd=0.00	1	X=-0.91 sd=0.19	1	X=-0.94 sd=0.00	X=-0.92 sd=0.16	1	
		2		2		2			2	
		3		3		3			3	
	9	3	X=-.074 sd=0.55	1	X=-0.31 sd=0.82	3	X=-0.63 sd=0.66	X=-0.51 sd=0.74	1	F(2,125)=4.79 p<0.0098
		4		4		4			4	
12	1	X=-0.19 sd=0.85	4	X=0.54 sd=0.55	1	X=0.49 sd=0.61	X=0.29 sd=0.76	2	F(2,129)=16.90 p<0.00001	
	3		2		3			4		
	5		5		5			6		
15	2	X=0.64 sd=0.41	3	X=0.63 sd=0.43	2	X=0.63 sd=0.43	X=0.63 sd=0.42	3		
	4		5		4			5		
	5		5		5			6		
Linguistic home situation Total age differences		X=-0.28 sd=0.83	1	X=-0.02 sd=0.84	1	X=-0.10 sd=0.85		2		F(3,138)=43.00 p<0.00001
			2		2					F(3,275)=138.31 p<0.00001
			1		1					F(3,70)=36.33 p<0.00001
<b>United Kingdom</b>	6	1	X=-0.87 sd=0.00	1	X=-0.87 sd=0.00	1	X=-0.87 sd=0.00	X=-0.87 sd=0.00	1	
		2		2		2			2	
	9	3	X=-0.77 sd=0.42	3	X=-0.71 sd=0.53	3	X=-0.87 sd=0.00	X=-0.76 sd=0.45	1	
		4		4		4			3	
	12	1	X=-0.32 sd=0.89	1	X=0.53 sd=0.89	1	X=0.20 sd=1.00	X=0.20 sd=0.98	3	F(2,129)=11.69 p<0.00001
3			3		3			5		
5			5		5					
15	2	X=0.72 sd=0.77	2	X=0.65 sd=0.82	2	X=0.83 sd=0.69	X=0.69 sd=0.79			
	4		4		4					
	5		5		5					
Linguistic home situation Total age differences		X=-0.30 sd=0.89	1	X=-0.10 sd=0.96	1	X=-0.20 sd=0.94				F(3,138)=38.08 p<0.00001
			1		1					F(3,275)=104.09 p<0.000001
			1		1					F(3,70)=30.75 p<0.00001
<b>France</b>	6	1	X=-1.08 sd=0.00	1	X=-1.05 sd=0.22	1	X=-0.87 sd=0.00	X=-1.06 sd=0.18	1	
		2		2		2			2	
		3		3		3			3	
	9	3	X=-0.56 sd=0.87	1	X=-0.35 sd=0.95	3	X=-0.72 sd=0.77	X=-0.48 sd=0.90	1	
		4		4		4			4	
12	1	X=0.06 sd=0.97	2	X=0.73 sd=0.51	1	X=0.49 sd=0.80	X=0.47 sd=0.79	2	F(2,129)=10.76 p<0.00001	
	3		4		3			4		
	5		5		5			6		
15	2	X=0.76 sd=0.48	3	X=0.85 sd=0.23	2	X=0.88 sd=0.00	X=0.83 sd=0.31	3		
	4		5		4			5		
	5		5		5			6		

7. Results concerning knowledge of countries

Linguistic home situation Total age differences	X=-0.14 sd=0.98 F(3,138)=31.23 p<0.00001	1	X=0.02 sd=0.97 F(3,275)=201.23 p<0.0001	1	X=-0.11 sd=0.99 F(3,70)=38.87 p<0.0001
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**Table 7. IV Knowledge of Capital city name (2).**

COUNTRY	AGE	LINGUISTIC HOME SITUATION									
		Castillian			Catalan			Bilingual		Age Total	linguistic home sit. differences
<b>Spain</b>	6	1	X=-0.96	1	X=-0.90	1	X=-0.82	X=-0.90	1		
		2	sd=0.00	2	sd=0.31	2	sd=0.52	sd=0.31	2		
		3		3					3		
	Age F(3,485) =206.41 p<0.0001	9	1	X=-0.26	1	X=-0.01	3	X=-0.60	X=-0.20	1	F(2,125)=3.34
			4	sd=0.94	4	sd=0.98	4	sd=0.77	sd=0.95	4	p<0.0385
			5		5					5	
	Ling. F(2,485) =6.00 p<0.003	12	2	X=0.53	2	X=0.99	1	X=0.99	X=0.84	2	F(2,129)=12.87
			4	sd=0.83	4	sd=0.00	3	sd=0.00	sd=0.52	4	p<0.00001
			a b		a		b				
	Interact. F(6,485) =3.86 p<0.001	15	3	X=0.93	3	X=0.99	2	X=0.99	X= 0.97	3	
			5	sd=0.34	5	sd=0.00	4	sd=0.00	sd=0.18	5	
			X=0.14	1	X=0.24	1	X=0.14				
	Linguistic home situation Total age differences		sd=0.97 F(3,138)=38.91 p<0.00001		sd=0.95 F(3,275)=248.93 p<0.00001		sd=0.98 F(3,70)=70.50 p<0.00001				
	<b>Catalonia</b>	6	1	X=-1.12	1	X=-1.03	1	X=-0.97	X=-1.04	1	
			2	sd=0.00	2	sd=0.39	2	sd=0.53	sd=0.37	2	
3				3					3		
Age F(3,485) =126.52 p<0.0001		9	1	X=-0.35	1	X=0.01	3	X=-0.66	X=-0.22	1	F(2,125)=4.45
			4	sd=0.98	4	sd=1.00	4	sd=0.86	sd=1.00	4	p<0.0136
			5		5					5	
Ling. F(2,485) =10.19 p<0.0001		12	2	X=0.23	2	X=0.80	1	X=0.49	X=0.56	2	F(2,129)=8.59
			4	sd=0.95	4	sd=0.41	3	sd=0.82	sd=0.75	4	p<0.0003
			6		6					6	
Interact. F(6,485) =2.75 p<0.012		15	3	X=0.76	3	X=0.89	2	X=0.75	X=0.84	3	
			5	sd=0.49	5	sd=0.00	4	sd=0.51	sd=0.32	5	
			6		6					6	
Linguistic home situation Total age differences			X=-0.03 sd=1.01 F(3,138)=28.22 p<0.00001	1	X=0.146 sd=0.97 F(3,275)=188.21 p<0.00001	1	X=-0.09 sd=1.01 F(3,70)=22.07 p<0.00001				
<b>Andalusia</b>		6	1	X=0.82	1	X=-0.82	1	X=-0.82	X=-0.82	1	
			2	sd=0.00	2	sd=0.00	2	sd=0.00	sd=0.00	2	
	3			3					3		
	Age F(3,485) =58.452 p<0.0001	9	3	X=-0.53	3	X=-0.52	3	X=-0.63	X=-0.54	1	
			4	sd=0.72	4	sd=0.72		sd=0.59	sd=0.69	4	
			5							5	
	Ling. F(2,485) =0.33 p<0.74	12	1	X=0.22	1	X=0.18	1	X=0.00	X=0.16	2	
			3	sd=1.03	3	sd=1.02	4	sd=1.02	sd=1.02	4	
			6		6					6	
	Interact. F(6,485) =0.68 p<0.663	15	2	X=0.70	2	X=0.46	2	X=0.80	X=0.57	3	
			4	sd=0.89	4	sd=0.98	3	sd=0.84	sd=0.94	5	
			6		6		4			6	
	Linguistic home situation Total age differences		X=-0.05 sd=0.99 F(3,138)=21.91 p<0.00001		X=-0.17 sd=0.95 F(3,275)=41.34 p<0.00001		X=-0.19 sd=0.95 F(3,70)=15.26 p<0.00001				

Again, similarly to the spatial knowledge results, all children, independently of their language home situation, have more knowledge about the capital of Spain than of the other

countries (see appendix n.5). The order of knowledge score is different for every linguistic group. For the Castilian group, the order of knowledge of the capital cities is Madrid, Barcelona, Seville, Paris, Bonn, Rome, London. For the Catalan group, the order of knowledge of the capital cities is Madrid, Barcelona, Paris, Bonn, Rome, London, and Seville. For the bilingual group, the order of knowledge of the capitals cities is Madrid, Bonn, Barcelona, Rome, Paris, Seville and London.

So, it can be concluded that even having a lot of spatial and verbal similarities, geographical knowledge presents different patterns of acquisition, and the effects of the language spoken at home is not the same in the two measures.

## **7.2 SYMBOLIC KNOWLEDGE**

Two variables were used in this section, knowledge of flags and famous people for each country.

### **7.2.1 Knowledge of flags**

This measure was obtained from questions 3.1 to 3.7 (i.e. “Can you find the {countries} flag?”). As has been said earlier flags’ data were binary in form (i.e. the answers were classified as either correct or incorrect), and 3x4 ANOVA was used also to analyse these data (Cochran, 1950; Cox, 1970).

Tables 7.V and 7.IV show that only the age influences the recognition of the country’s flags, younger children having less knowledge than older children.

Also it can be seen that children from all the linguistic groups have more knowledge about the Catalan flag than about the other flags (see appendix n.5). The ranking of level of knowledge is similar for the linguistic groups in the three most known flags (i.e. Catalan, Spanish and British). So, for the Castilian group, the order of knowledge of the countries is Catalonia, Spain, United Kingdom, Germany, Andalusia, France and Italy. For the Catalan group, the order of knowledge is Catalonia, Spain, United Kingdom, France, Italy, Germany, and Andalusia. For the bilingual group, the order of knowledge is Catalonia, Spain, United Kingdom, Italy, Germany, France and Andalusia.

So, two differences between geographical and symbolic knowledge can be seen. First, only the age variable presents main effects and second, the order of the most known flags is different than the order in the geographical knowledge.

7. Results concerning knowledge of countries

**Table 7. V Knowledge of flags (1)**

COUNTRY	AGE	LINGUISTIC HOME SITUATION								
		Castillian		Catalan		Bilingual		Age Total	linguistic home sit. differences	
<b>Germany</b>	6	1	X=0.18	1	X=0.13	1	X=0.14	X=0.15	1	
		2	sd=0.39	2	sd=0.34	2	sd=0.36	sd=0.36	2	
		3		3					3	
	Age F(3,485)=46.72 p<0.0001	9	3	X=0.33	1	X=0.41	3	X=0.36	X=0.67	1
			4	sd=0.47	4	sd=0.49	4	sd=0.49	sd=0.49	4
			5		5					5
	Ling. F(2,485)=0.341 p<0.711	12	1	X=0.60	2	X=0.70	1	X=0.65	X=0.67	2
			3	sd=0.49	4	sd=0.46	3	sd=0.48	sd=0.47	4
			6		6					6
	Interact. F(6,485)=0.316 p<0.751	15	2	X=0.90	3	X=0.90	2	X=0.86	X=0.90	3
			4	sd=0.29	5	sd=0.30	3	sd=0.35	sd=0.30	5
			6		6					6
	Language Total		X=0.52 sd=0.50	X=0.53 sd=0.49	X=0.50 sd=0.50					
	Total age effects		F(3,138)=15.91 p<0.00001	F(3,275)=50.52 p<0.00001	F(3,70)=7.94 P<0.0001					
	<b>Italy</b>	6	1	X=0.09	1	X=0.11	1	X=0.00	X=0.10	1
2			sd=0.29	2	sd=0.32	2	sd=0.00	sd=0.31	2	
3				3					3	
Age F(3,485)=65.13 p<0.0001		9	3	X=0.28	1	X=0.43	3	X=0.36	X=0.37	1
			4	sd=0.45	4	sd=0.49	4	sd=0.49	sd=0.48	4
			5		5					5
Ling. F(2,485)=2.10 p<0.123		12	1	X=0.65	2	X=0.76	1	X=0.80	X=0.73	2
			3	sd=0.48	4	sd=0.42	3	sd=0.41	sd=0.44	4
			6		6					6
Interact. F(6,485)=0.45 p<0.854		15	2	X=0.84	3	X=0.90	2	X=0.86	X=0.88	3
			4	sd=0.36	5	sd=0.30	4	sd=0.35	sd=0.32	5
			6		6					6
Language Total			X=0.49 sd=0.50	X=0.54 sd=0.49	X=0.52 sd=0.50					
Total age effects			F(3,138)=19.1 4 p<0.00001	F(3,275)=58.15 p<0.00001	F(3,70)=17.14 p<0.00001					
<b>United Kingdom</b>		6	1	X=0.18	1	X=0.23	1	X=0.07	X=0.21	1
	2		sd=0.39	2	sd=0.42	2	sd=0.26	sd=0.41	2	
	3			3					3	
	Age F(3,485)=63.26 p<0.0001	9	1	X=0.50	1	X=0.61	3	X=0.40	X=0.54	1
			4	sd=0.50	4	sd=0.49	4	sd=0.50	sd=0.50	4
			5		5					5
	Ling. F(2,485)=3.00 p<0.050	12	2	X=0.76	2	X=0.94	1	X=0.85	X=0.86	2
			4	sd=0.422	4	sd=0.23	3	sd=0.36	sd=0.44	4
			5		5					5
	Interact. F(6,485)=1.01 p<0.412	15	3	X=0.93	3	X=0.90	2	X=0.93	X=0.92	3
			5	sd=0.24	5	sd=0.30	4	sd=0.25	sd=0.28	5
			6		6					6
	Language Total		X=0.63 sd=0.48	X=0.66 sd=0.47	X=0.57 sd=0.49					
	Total age effects		F(3,138)=17.2 9 p<0.00001	F(3,275)=54.48 p<0.00001	F(3,70)=17.43 p<0.00001					
	<b>France</b>	6	1	X=0.13	1	X=0.15	1	X=0.00	X=0.14	1
2			sd=0.35	2	sd=0.36	2	sd=0.00	sd=0.35	2	
3				3					3	
Age F(3,485)=47.02 p<0.0001		9	3	X=0.45	1	X=0.45	3	X=0.36	X=0.43	1
			4	sd=0.50	4	sd=0.50	4	sd=0.49	sd=0.50	4
			5		5					5
Ling. F(2,485)=2.435 p<0.089		12	1	X=0.55	2	X=0.83	1	X=0.75	X=0.73	1
			4	sd=0.50	4	sd=0.37	3	sd=0.35	sd=0.41	2
			6		6					4

7. Results concerning knowledge of countries

Interact.	F(6,485)=1.46	15	2	X=0.78	3	X=0.84	2	X=0.86	X=0.83	3
	p<0.190			sd=0.42	5	sd=0.36	4	sd=0.35	sd=0.37	5
Language Total				X=0.51		X=0.56		X=0.50		
				sd=0.50		sd=0.49		sd=0.50		
Total age effects				F(3,138)=8.76		F(3,275)=49.25		F(3,70)=15.14		
				p<0.00001		p<0.00001		p<0.00001		

**Table 7. VI Knowledge of flags (2)**

COUNTRY	AGE	LINGUISTIC HOME SITUATION										
		Castillian			Catalan		Bilingual		Age Total	linguistic home sit. differences		
<b>Spain</b>	6	1	X=0.13	1	X=0.22	1	X=0.35	X=0.22	1			
		2	sd=0.35	2	sd=0.41	2	sd=0.49	sd=0.41	2			
		3		3					3			
	Age	F(3,485)=269.73	9	1	X=0.61	1	X=0.83	3	X=0.59	X=0.71	4	
				4	sd=0.49	4	sd=0.37	4	sd=0.50	sd=0.46	5	F(2,125)=4.34
				5							5	p<0.01
	Ling.	F(2,485)=3.79	12	a		a						
				2	X=0.88	2	X=0.97	1	X=1.00	X=0.95	2	
	Interact.	F(6,485)=2.43	15	4	sd=0.32		sd=0.17	3	sd=0.00	sd=0.22	4	
				5		3	X=1.00	3	X=0.98	2	X=1.00	X=0.99
Language Total				X=0.71		X=0.73		X=0.74				
Total age effects				sd=0.45		sd=0.43		sd=0.43				
				F(3,138)=30.79		F(3,275)=106.1		F(3,70)=12.83				
				p<0.00001		8 p<0.00001		p<0.00001				
<b>Catalonia</b>	6	1	X=0.27	1	X=0.39	1	X=0.35	X=0.37	1			
		2	sd=0.45	2	sd=0.49	2	sd=0.49	sd=0.48	2			
		3		3					3			
	Age	F(3,485)=60.68	9	1	X=0.69	1	X=0.82	3	X=0.68	X=0.75	1	
				4	sd=0.46	4	sd=0.38		sd=0.47	sd=0.43	4	
				5							5	
	Ling.	F(2,485)=1.19	12	2	X=0.93	2	X=0.97	1	X=1.00	X=0.96	2	
				4	sd=0.25		sd=0.17	3	sd=0.00	sd=0.19	4	
	Interact.	F(6,485)=0.72	15	5	sd=0.00	4	sd=0.11		sd=0.00	sd=0.09	5	
				3	X=1.00	3	X=0.98	2	X=1.00	X=0.99	3	
Language Total				X=0.76		X=0.78		X=0.77				
Total age effects				sd=0.42		sd=0.41		sd=0.42				
				F(3,138)=23.72		F(3,275)=50.62		F(3,70)=12.32				
				p<0.00001		p<0.00001		p<0.00001				
<b>Andalusia</b>	6	1	X=0.09	1	X=0.17	1	X=0.07	X=0.14	1			
		2	sd=0.29	2	sd=0.37	2	sd=0.26	sd=0.35	2			
		3		3					3			
	Age	F(3,485)=45.25	9	3	X=0.35	1	X=0.38	3	X=0.36	X=0.38	1	
				4	sd=0.48	4	sd=0.49		sd=0.49	sd=0.49	4	
				5		5					5	
	Ling.	F(2,485)=0.24	12	1	X=0.58	2	X=0.70	1	X=0.70	X=0.67	2	
				4	sd=0.49	4	sd=0.46		sd=0.47	sd=0.47	4	
	Interact.	F(6,485)=0.80	15	6							6	
				2	X=0.93	3	X=0.81	2	X=0.80	X=0.87	3	
Language Total				sd=0.24	5	sd=0.38	3	sd=0.41	sd=0.36	5		
Total age effects					4					6		
				X=0.51		X=0.51		X=0.49				
				sd=0.50		sd=0.50		sd=0.50				
				F(3,138)=20.61		F(3,275)=34.01		F(3,70)=9.07				
				p<0.00001		p<0.00001		p<0.00001				

**7.2.2 Knowledge of famous people**

This measure was obtained from the questions 4.1 and 4.2 (i.e. “Do you also know the names of any famous people from these countries, which you may have heard of at school or

7. Results concerning knowledge of countries

at home?"). Only a maximum of five famous people was taken because the children who gave more than this number usually, gave the names of a whole football team. In this section, two kinds of analysis will be reported. The data were analysed using 3x4 mixed ANOVA and T-test when the main effects were significant. Tables 7.VII and 7.VI show the results obtained.

**Table 7. VII Knowledge of famous people (1)**

COUNTRY	AGE	LINGUISTIC HOME SITUATION							
		Castillian		Catalan		Bilingual		Age Total	linguistic home sit. differences
<b>Germany</b>	6	1	X=0.00 sd=0.00	1	X=0.00 sd=0.00	X=0.00 sd=0.00	X=0.00 sd=0.00	1	
Age F(3,485)=27.07 p<0.0001	9	2	X=0.00 sd=0.00	2	X=0.00 sd=0.00	X=0.04 sd=0.21	X=0.07 sd=0.08	2	
Ling. F(2,485)=3.02 p<0.049	12	3	X=0.13 sd=0.41	3	X=0.31 sd=0.65	X=0.25 sd=0.55	X=0.25 sd=0.57	3	
Interact.F(6,485)=2.43 p<0.059	15	1 2 3	X=0.93 sd=1.07	1 2 3	X=1.22 sd=0.138	X=0.40 sd=1.12	X=1.06 sd=1.30	1 2 3	
Language Total			X=0.25 sd=0.67		X=0.39 sd=0.92		X=0.16 sd=0.60		
Total age effects			F(3,138) = 20.53 p<0.00001		F(2,275)=39.49 p<0.00001		F(3,70)=1.53 p<0.2142		
<b>Italy</b>	6	1	X=0.00 sd=0.00	1 2	X=0.00 sd=0.00	1 2	X=0.00 sd=0.00	1 2	
Age F(3,485)=69.914 p<0.0001	9	2	X=0.09 sd=0.29	3 4	X=0.24 sd=0.61	3 4	X=0.17 sd=0.50	3 4	
Ling. F(2,485)=0.575 p<0.563	12	3	X=0.67 sd=0.99	1 3 5	X=1.01 sd=1.24	1 3 5	X=0.91 sd=1.14	1 3 5	
Interact.F(6,485)=0.35 p<0.907	15	1 2 3	X=2.12 sd=1.71	2 4 5	X=2.09 sd=1.58	2 4 5	X=2.11 sd=1.58	2 4 5	
Language Total			X=0.72 sd=1.28		X=0.84 sd=1.33		X=0.74 sd=1.13		
Total age effects			F(3,138) = 30.00 p<0.00001		F(2,275)=57.01 p<0.00001		F(3,70)=17.43 p<0.00001		
<b>United Kingdom</b>	6	1	X=0.00 sd=0.00	1 2	X=0.01 sd=0.11	1	X=0.00 sd=0.00	X=0.00 sd=0.09	1 2
Age F(3,485)=62.35 p<0.0001	9	2	X=0.02 sd=0.15	3	X=0.11 sd=0.36	2	X=0.04 sd=0.21	X=0.07 sd=0.28	3 4
Ling. F(2,485)=0.78 p<0.458	12	3	X=0.27 sd=0.66	1 4	X=0.59 sd=1.29	3	X=0.45 sd=0.82	X=0.46 sd=1.05	1 3 5
Interact. F(6,485)=1.82 p<0.096	15	1 2 3	X=1.81 sd=1.90	2 3 4	X=1.49 sd=1.52	1 2 3	X=2.33 sd=1.91	X=1.70 sd=1.68	2 4 5
Language Total			X=0.51 sd=1.21		X=0.55 sd=1.17		X=0.63 sd=1.32		
Total age effects			F(3,138) = 24.53 p<0.00001		F(2,275)=31.29 p<0.00001		F(3,70)=19.59 p<0.00001		
<b>France</b>	6	1	X=0.00 sd=0.00	1 2	X=0.00 sd=0.00	X=0.00 sd=0.00	X=0.00 sd=0.00	1 2	

7. Results concerning knowledge of countries

Age F(3,485)=30.74 p<0.0001	9	2	X=0.04 sd=0.30	3	X=0.11 sd=0.36	X=0.13 sd=0.63	X=0.09 sd=0.40	3
Ling. F(2,485)=1.38 p<0.251	12	3	X=0.18 sd=0.45	1	X=0.38 sd=0.71	X=0.30 sd=0.75	X=0.31 sd=0.64	1 4
Interact.F(6,485)=0.52 p<0.790	15	1	X=0.96	2	X=1.15	X=0.80	X=1.08	2
		2	sd=1.17	3	sd=1.19	sd=1.32	sd=1.20	3
		3		4				4
Language Total			X=0.29 sd=0.84		X=0.41 sd=0.85		X=0.29 sd=0.83	
Total age effects			F(3,138) = 15.86 p<0.00001		F(2,275)=36.97 p<0.00001		F(3,70)=2.89 p<0.041	

Table 7. VIII Knowledge of famous people (2)

COUNTRY	AGE	LINGUISTIC HOME SITUATION							
		Castillian		Catalan		Bilingual		Age Total	linguistic home sit. differences
<b>Spain</b>	6	1	X=0.27	1	X=0.21	1	X=0.00	X=0.19	1
		2	sd=0.70	2	sd=0.67	2	sd=0.00	sd=0.63	2
		3		3		3			3
Age F(3,485)=127.17 p<0.0001	9	1	X=1.88	1	X=1.58	1	X=1.54	X=1.69	1
		4	sd=1.68	4	sd=1.54	4	sd=1.68	sd=1.88	4
		5		5		5			5
Ling. F(2,485)=1.42 p<0.313	12	2	X=3.34	2	X=3.11	2	X=3.40	X=3.25	2
		4	sd=1.51	4	sd=1.51	4	sd=1.35	sd=1.47	4
									6
Interact.F(6,485)=0.30 p<0.746	15	3	X=3.93	3	X=3.59	3	X=3.86	X=3.72	3
		5	sd=1.31	5	sd=1.04	5	sd=1.40	sd=1.17	5
									6
Language Total			X=2.55 sd=1.90		X=2.09 sd=1.83		X=2.25 sd=21.96		
Total age effects			F(3,138) = 36.13 p<0.00001		F(2,275)=114.60 p<0.0001		F(3,70)=26.99 p<0.00001		
<b>Catalonia</b>	6	1	X=0.00	1	X=0.10	1	X=0.07	X=0.07	1
		2	sd=0.00	2	sd=0.41	2	sd=0.26	sd=0.35	2
				3					3
Age F(3,485)=126.34 p<0.0001	9	3	X=0.45	1	X=1.58	3	X=0.40	X=0.98	4
		4	sd=0.91	4	sd=1.65	4	sd=1.22	sd=1.47	5
				5					F(2,125)=10.87 p<0.0001
Ling. F(2,485)=22.04 p<0.0001	12	a	X=1.95	a	X=2.95	b	X=1.65	X=2.46	2
		3	sd=1.67	4	sd=1.71	3	sd=1.46	sd=1.76	4
		5		6		5			6
Interact.F(6,485)=2.34 p<0.0001	15	a	X=3.25	a	X=4.39	b	X=3.86	X=4.00	3
		4	sd=1.74	5	sd=1.71	4	sd=1.55	sd=1.46	5
		5		6		5			6
Language Total		a	X=1.48	a	X=2.23	b	X=1.42	X=2.46	2
		1	sd=1.80	1	sd=2.09	2	sd=1.87		2
Total age effects			F(3,138) = 36.98 p<0.00001		F(2,275)=141.56 p<0.00001		F(3,70)=29.09 p<0.00001		
<b>Andalusia</b>	6	1	X=0.00	1	X=0.01	1	X=0.00	X=0.00	1
		2	sd=0.00	2	sd=0.11		sd=0.00	sd=0.09	2
Age F(3,485)=48.91 p<0.0001	9	3	X=0.42	3	X=0.12	2	X=0.40	X=0.27	3
			sd=0.85		sd=0.42		sd=0.95	sd=0.70	4
Ling. F(2,485)=12.33 p<0.0001	12	1	X=1.20	1	X=0.49	3	X=1.00	X=0.80	1
			sd=1.65		sd=1.15		sd=1.41	sd=1.40	3
									5
Interact.F(6,485)=4.21 p<0.0001	15	a	X=1.84	a	X=1.18	1	X=3.13	X=1.62	2
		3	sd=1.72	3	sd=1.57	2	sd=2.09	sd=1.78	4
				4		3			5
				a		a			



7. Results concerning knowledge of countries

Language Total	X=0.92 1 sd=1.42	X=0.45 1 sd=1.09 2	X=1.07 2 sd=1.72
Total age effects	F(3,138)=11.29 p<0.00001	F(2,275)=19.62 p<0.00001	F(3,70)=16.80 p<0.00001

The above tables show that again the age has a main effect in the way that older children report a greater number of famous people than younger children. They also show that the linguistic situation at home only has an effect when Catalan or Andalusian famous people were reported, in the way that Catalan speakers reported more Catalan famous people than the Castilian and bilingual speakers and less Andalusian famous people than the Castilian speakers and bilingual children.

The ranking of knowledge of famous people is quite different in relation to the linguistic groups. In the Castilian and bilingual groups, which have the same ranking order, the country with highest average number of famous people reported is Spain, while for the Catalan speaking children, Catalan and Spanish famous people have the highest average reported (see appendix n.5 Table. ) The ranking of famous people for the linguistic groups is as follows: for the Castilian speakers and bilingual children Spain, Catalonia, Andalusia, Italy, United Kingdom, France and Germany; and for the Catalan speakers, Catalonia and Spain, Italy, United Kingdom, Andalusia, France and Germany.

With this last section, famous people, another exploratory analysis was made in order to know if the kind of people that the children recognise as famous people was different in the criteria variables groups. The name of the people reported were categorised in six groups, sports people, artists (singers, actors, etc.), fictional people, politician, art and literature people and family people. These data were analysed by ANOVA and with a Scheffé test when it was significant. Only age presented significant differences in these analysis.

The family category ( $F(3,491)=14.01$   $p<0.0001$ ) had been used significantly more for the younger children than for the others groups, so 14.8% of younger children answered for example “my mum”, “my uncle Joan”, while in the others groups there are never more 2.3% of children who give this kind of answer.

The fiction category is used more for the 9 and 6 years old children, where 14.1% and 13% of them respectively gave one or more fictional characters as famous people ( $F(3,491)=2.80$   $p<0.03$ ), but this category is also used by the other age groups, 9.8% of 12 years old children and 8.3% of 15 year olds. It is interesting to note that the kind of fictional characters that each age reported was also different. The 6 years old children gave characters like “Spiderman”, “Superman”, “Mickey mouse” etc. and they usually gave more than two. The 9 years old

children gave characters from T.V serials, usually from Catalonia, like “la Noti”, “el Petri” etc., usually giving one or two. The 12 year olds gave characters from literature like “el Quijote”, “el Cid” etc. and only 1.4% of them gave two characters. The 15 years old gave Mr. Bean as a famous British person, but they don’t know his real name, Rowan Atkinson. It seems difficult to believe that at this age they mistake the character and the real person. It is more likely that they don’t remember the real name because it is a foreign name for them and this makes the name more difficult to remember.

All the other categories (sports, culture, artists, and politician) are used more for the 15 years old group than for the others groups.

In artists category ( $F(3,491)=107.31 p<0.0001$ ) 97.5% of the 15 years olds give one or more examples followed by 91.7% of the 12 years old group, 77.3% of the 9 years old and 14.8% of the 6 years old.

The politics category ( $F(3,491)=65.14 p<0.0001$ ) 84.2% of the 15 year olds give one or more examples followed by 53% of the 12 years old group, 31.2% of the 9 years old and 11.3% of the 6 years old.

In sports category ( $F(3,491)=46.77 p<0.0001$ ) 79.2% of 15 years old give one or more sportsmen/women followed by 31.2% of the 12 years old group, 25% of the 9 years old and 4.3% of the 6 years old.

In the art and literature category ( $F(3,491)=31.34 p<0.0001$ ) 56.7% of the 15 year olds give one or more examples followed by 40.2% of the 12 years old group, 10.9% of the 9 years old and 5.2% of the 6 years old.

### *Summary*

So, there were three main results of the symbolic knowledge. First, age has a main effect in both variables, knowledge of flags and knowledge of famous people. Second, the linguistic home situation of children showed an effect only in the knowledge of famous people, Castilian speakers and bilingual children having similar levels of knowledge, significantly different from the Catalan speaking children. Third, it must be noted that while Castilian speakers and bilingual children knew more Spanish than Catalan famous people, Catalan speaking children knew statistically the same number of Catalan as Spanish famous people.

### **7.3 Conclusions**

To conclude, it has been seen that the age is the most consistent variable in the acquisition of knowledge about countries. The children's linguistic home situation has different effects in the various kinds of knowledge. First, in the geographical knowledge it seems that the Catalan speaking children have better knowledge of the European countries than Castilian speakers. Second, the effect of the linguistic situation in the symbolic knowledge is different for the knowledge of the flags (i.e. is not present) than for the knowledge of famous people (only present in Catalan and Andalusian famous people). So, in order to find more consistent results of the acquisition of knowledge in relation with our criteria variable (i.e. age and linguistic home situation), more research is needed.

## **8. RESULTS CONCERNING NATIONAL STEREOTYPES, EVALUATION AND FEELINGS**

In this chapter the data from section 5, national stereotypes and feelings from the interview will be presented. This chapter is organised in three sections being national stereotypes, evaluation and favouritism, and national feelings.

### **8.1 NATIONAL STEREOTYPES, EVALUATION AND FAVOURITISM**

This section is related to questions 5.1, 5.3, 5.5, 5.7, 5.9, 5.11, 5.13, of the interview. The adjectives were grouped in 6 dimensions. Each dimension had a positive and negative adjective. The dimensions were clean (clean/dirty), friendly (friendly/unfriendly), clever (clever/stupid), work (hardworking/lazy), happy (happy/unhappy), honest (honest/dishonest).

The children's answers were coded as 0 if the children didn't chose any of the adjectives of the dimension; 1 if they chose the negative adjective; 2 if they chose both adjectives; 3 if they chose the positive adjective of the dimension. This coding allows us to know not only the number of subjects that chose a particular adjective, but also gives information on positive-negative attribution to the different groups for each child.

#### **8.1.1 National stereotypes**

In this section, the results on how children describe the people living in the different countries are shown. To affirm that a group of children describe the people as clean, or dirty or clean-dirty etc. at least 50% of the children must have chosen the adjective. So, it can be said that half or more of the sample describe the people living in the different places as shown in Table 8.I. The percentage of the four categories are shown in appendix n. 6. (Tables A-6.I, A-6.II, A-6.III, A-6.IV, A-6.V, A-6.VI)

**Table 8. I National stereotypes; list of categories that at least 50% of the children chose.**

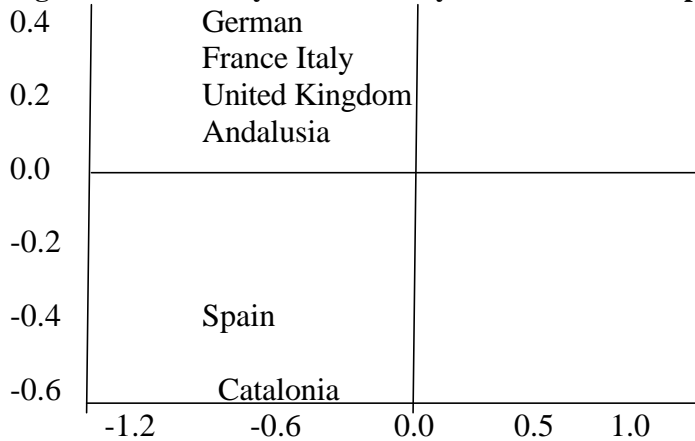
	Spain	Catalonia	Andalusia	Germany	France	U.K.	Italy
<b>Catalan speakers</b>							
6 years old	clean friendly clever hardworking happy	clean friendly clever hardworking happy honest	clean clever	clean friendly clever hardworking	clean friendly clever hardworking happy	clean friendly clever hardworking happy	clean clever happy
9 years old	clean friendly clever hardworking happy	clean friendly clever hardworking happy honest	friendly happy		clean friendly clever happy	clean friendly clever happy	clean friendly
12 years old	clean friendly hardworking happy	clean friendly clever hardworking happy honest	friendly happy	clever hardworking happy	clean friendly hardworking	clean friendly clever hardworking	clean friendly hardworking
15 years old	friendly	clean friendly clever hardworking happy honest	friendly happy	hardworking		clean hardworking	friendly happy
<b>Castilian speakers</b>							
6 years old	clean clever hardworking happy	clean clever hardworking happy	clean hardworking	clean friendly clever happy	clean hardworking	hardworking happy	hardworking happy
9 years old	clean friendly clever hardworking happy	clean friendly clever hardworking happy	clean friendly clever			clever	
12 years old	clean friendly clever happy	clean friendly clever happy	friendly hardworking happy honest		clean	clean friendly hardworking	clean friendly hardworking
15 years old	clean friendly hardworking happy	clean friendly clever hardworking happy honest	friendly lazy happy honest	hardworking	unfriendly	clever hardworking	friendly happy
<b>Bilingual</b>							
6 years old	clean clever hardworking happy	clean friendly clever hardworking-lazy honest-dishonest	clever happy-unhappy	clean friendly clever happy-unhappy honest-dishonest	clean friendly clever	clean clever	clean clever
9 years old	clean friendly clever hardworking happy	clean friendly clever hardworking happy honest	hardworking	clean	clean		friendly
12 years old	friendly happy honest	clean friendly clever hardworking happy honest	clean friendly hardworking honest		friendly hardworking honest	clean clever hardworking happy honest	happy
15 years old	friendly happy honest	clean friendly clever hardworking happy honest	friendly happy honest	hardworking	hardworking	clean hardworking honest	clean-dirty friendly

In order to organise all this information a Princals analysis was conducted. This analysis was made with the measure resulting from the addition of the adjectives score. The analysis do not show the evaluation of the countries in terms of “good” or “bad”. They show which countries are considered in a similar way, and this can be positive or negative. So, it will be shown which groups of countries are considered in a similar fashion.

**8.1.2. Countries’ similarity**

A Princals analysis was made with all the sample of children to find a structure of evaluation and if there are differences in relation to age and linguistic situation. Figure 8.I and Table 8.IV show the results.

**Figure 8. I Similarity Princals analysis with all the sample**



**Table 8. II components loadings**

Variable	Dimensions	
	1	2
Italy	-,736	,210
France	-,751	,253
Spain	-,674	-
United Kingdom	-,737	,149
Germany	-,690	,263
Catalonia	-,610	-
Andalusia	-,685	,122

It can be seen that in the first dimension, all the countries have a similar contribution, but in the second dimension two groups of countries are clearly established. First the countries Germany, France, Italy, United Kingdom and Andalusia, and secondly Spain and Catalonia. So, this second dimension will be called the “us/them” countries dimension. To interpret Catalonia and Spain as the “us” group, it should be noted that Catalonia is a region within Spain so, Catalan people are also Spanish but

they are not Andalusian, British, French, Italian nor German.

Over this structure of evaluation a 3x4 ANOVA was realised in each dimension to find significant differences between age groups and between linguistic groups. Only age was significant. For the first dimension there are significant differences ( $F(3,485)=13.54$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ) in the way that older children contribute more to this dimension than younger children. So, 6 year olds have the lowest score ( $X=-0.53$ ), followed by the 9 years old group ( $X=-0.05$ ), 12 years old ( $X=0.02$ ) and the 15 year olds ( $X=0.61$ ). For the second dimension, significant differences were also found ( $F(3,485)=3.75$ ,  $p<0.01$ ) but this time between the 9 and 15 years old groups, ( $X=-0.14$ ,  $X=-0.12$  respectively) and the 6 and 12 years group ( $X=0.20$ ,  $X=0.19$  respectively).

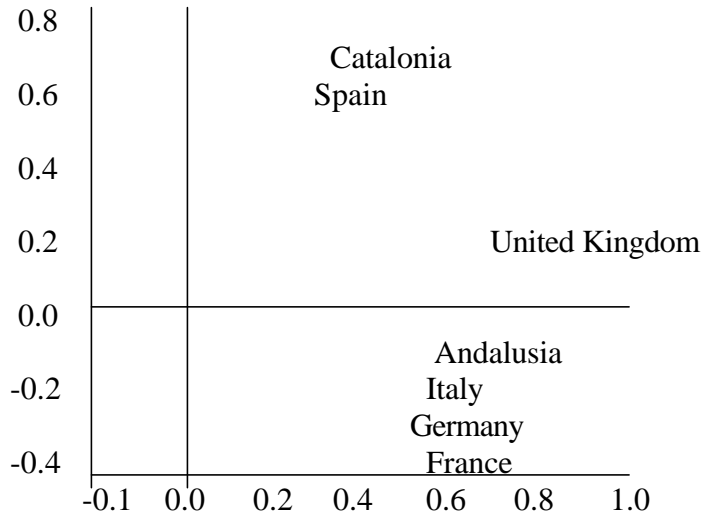
The next graphs show the similarity or image structures in each age group. These analysis show how the structures of similarity or image change with age. (The graphic of the linguistic situation within age groups can be seen in appendix n.6 from Figure A-6.I to Figure A-6.XII).

The central aim of the next graphs is to show how the location of Catalonia, Spain and Andalusia change with age, in other words the development construction.

A. 6 years old children

It can be seen that at this age the “us” group is formed by Catalan and Spanish people and they are different from the other nationalities including Andalusian. At this age the children don’t have any Spanish geographical courses in the school, so even Andalusia is an unknown country for them.

Figure 8. II 6 year old children similarity Princals analysis



**Table 8. III 6 components loadings**

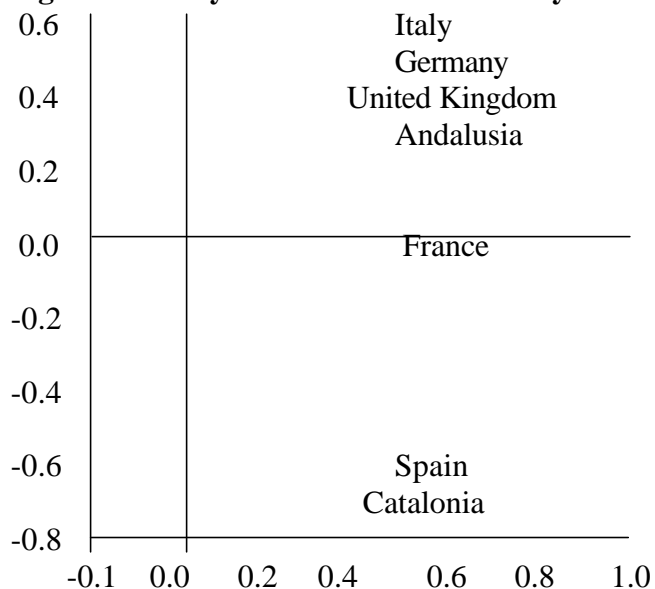
Variable	Dimensions	
	1	2
Italy	,713	-
France	,720	-
Spain	,565	,401
United Kingdom	,780	,136
Germany	,698	-
Catalonia	,617	,650
Andalusia	,719	-
		,145



B. 9 year old children

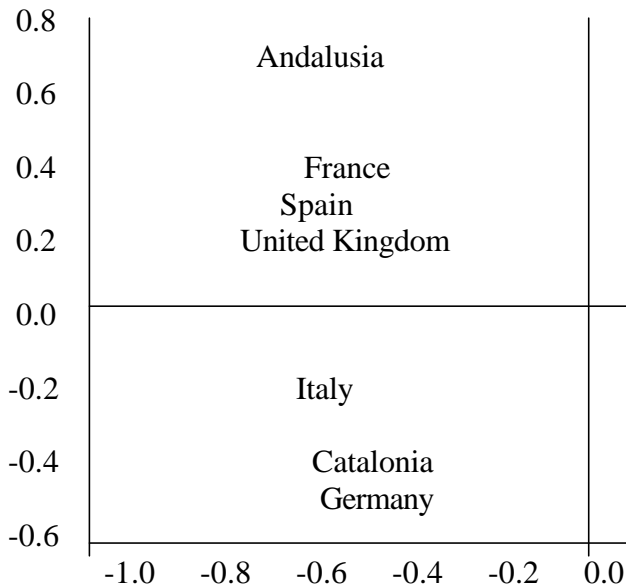
Again at 9 years old, the dimension “us/them” can be established in the same terms as younger children. The “us” group is formed by Catalan and Spanish people as opposed to “them”, the rest of nationalities including Andalusian.

**Figure 8. III 9 year old children similarity Princals analysis**



**Table 8. IV components loadings**

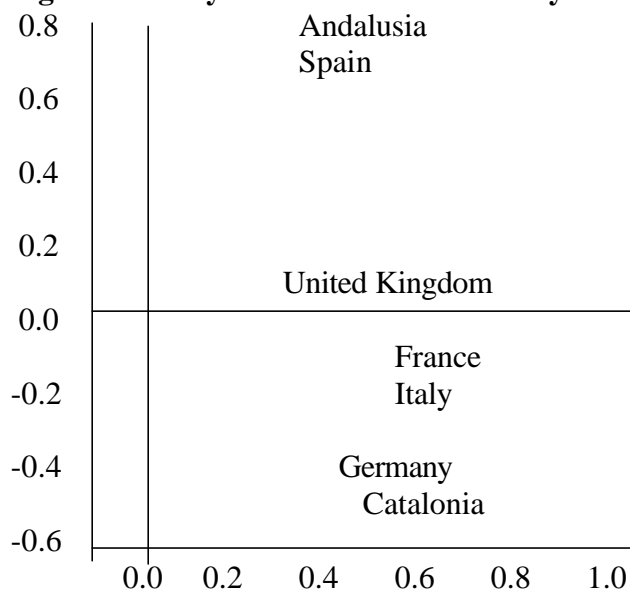
Variable	Dimensions	
	1	2
Italy	,647	,407
France	,736	-
Spain	,651	-,022
United Kingdom	,682	,668
Germany	,666	,227
Catalonia	,536	,356
		-,688
Andalusia	,663	,196

*C. 12 year old children***Figure 8. IV 12 year old children similarity Princals analysis****Table 8. V 12 components loadings**

Variable	Dimensions	
	1	2
Italy	-,726	-
France	-,684	,266
Spain	-,738	,270
United Kingdom	-,643	,175
Germany	-,631	,083
Catalonia	-,670	-,478
Andalusia	-,659	-,413

The most relevant fact in this structure is that Spain appears for first time in the opposite group to Catalonia. So, 12 years old children locate in the same configuration of the dimension “us/them”, Catalonia, Germany and Italy, with this configuration opposite to the one formed by Spanish, French, British and Andalusian people.

Maybe the awareness of the social-political situation within Spanish State becomes more salient at this age, and children start to express this situation locating Spain and Catalonia in different groups. So, it seems that at this age children are sensitive to the adults’ representation that Catalan people are different from the rest of Spain.

*D. 15 year old children***Figure 8. V 15 year old children similarity Princals analysis****Table 8. VI 15 components loadings**

Variable	Dimensions	
	1	2
Italy	,731	-
France	,718	-
Spain	,596	,595
United Kingdom	,729	,017
Germany	,620	-
Catalonia	,690	-
Andalusia	,599	,598

It can be seen how the idea that Catalan people are different to Spanish and Andalusian people is consolidated at 15 years old. At this age, an adolescent that evaluates Spain and Andalusia under the same criterion used an opposite criterion to evaluate Catalonia, and vice-versa.

*Summary*

In summary it can be said that even though the contents of stereotypes can be different for each age and linguistic group, the structure of attribution is formed by the dimension “us/them”. This dimension changes its configurations principally between 9 and 12 years old, when Spain and Catalonia are located in different groups. “We” are what “they” are not, but who “us” and “them” are changes with age, becoming closer to the adults’ representation of Catalan people as being different from Spanish and Andalusian people, with this representation not being

transmitted by the mother tongue.

### **8.1.3 Evaluation and Favouritism**

#### 8.1.3.1 National evaluation

The measure Evaluation for every country was obtained by adding the value of the adjectives and dividing it by the number of dimensions that the children had chosen for every country. So, national evaluation is a continuous variable with a minimum equal to 1 and a maximum equal 3. This measure was analysed with a 3x4 ANOVA design in order to establish the differences between the groups (with a complementary Scheffé test when it was necessary).

Tables 8.VII and 8.VIII show the results of the ANOVA analysis with means and standard deviation. First, it can be seen that the age effect is not consistent in all the countries. There are countries where this effect is not present (i.e. Germany, Britain, Spain), countries where younger children attributed a more positive adjective than older children (i.e. France) and countries just with the opposite effect of age (i.e. Catalonia). So, in our sample younger children do not present a more positive evaluation of the countries than older children. Second, Catalan speaking children evaluate Germany, Britain and Catalonia more positively than Castilian speakers and bilingual, while Castilian speakers evaluate Spain more positively than the other two groups and bilingual children evaluate France more positively than the other groups. Interaction effects between age and linguistic situation can only be found for Spain, in the way that 15 year old Catalan speakers evaluate Spanish people in a less positive way than Castilian speaking children, and also in a less positive way than younger Catalan speaking children.

**Table 8. VII Evaluation measure; means and standard deviation**

COUNTRY	AGE	LINGUISTIC HOME SITUATION					linguistic home sit. differences
		Castillian	Catalan	Bilingual	Age Total		
<b>Germany</b>	6	X=2.34 sd=0.60	X=2.40 sd=0.57	X=2.32 sd=0.58	X=2.39 sd=0.57		
	Age F(3,458)=0.113 p<0.952	9	X=2.19 sd=0.61	X=2.48 sd=0.60	X=2.45 sd=0.58	X=2.35 sd=0.63	
	Ling F(2,458)=4.692 p<0.010	12	X=2.24 sd=0.68 <b>a</b>	X=2.58 sd=0.52 <b>a</b>	X=2.25 sd=0.64	X=2.42 sd=0.62	F(2,111)=4.81 p<0.009
	Interac. F(6,458)=0.784 p<0.583 Linguistic home situation Total age differences	15	X=2.20 sd=0.52 X=2.23 sd=0.60	X=2.38 sd=0.59 X=2.44 sd=0.59	X=2.35 sd=0.71 X=2.35 sd=0.62	X=2.32 sd=0.59	
<b>Italy</b>	6	X=2.23 sd=0.55	1 X=2.39 sd=0.57	X=2.22 sd=0.63	X=2.35 sd=0.57	1	
	Age F(3,458)=3.937 p<0.009	9	X=2.36 sd=0.58	X=2.51 sd=0.58	X=2.40 sd=0.64	X=2.44 sd=0.59	
	Ling F(2,458)=2.298 p<0.102	12	X=2.59 sd=0.56	1 X=2.71 2 sd=0.40	X=2.43 sd=0.61	X=2.66 sd=0.40	1 2
	Interac. F(6,458)= 0.479 p<0.824 Linguistic home situation Total age differences	15	X=2.36 sd=0.58 X=2.41 sd= 0.58	2 X=2.35 sd=0.66 X=2.48 sd=0.57	X=2.41 sd=0.67 X=2.37 sd=0.68	X=2.37 sd=0.63	2
<b>Britain</b>	6	X=2.31 sd=0.47 <b>a</b>	X=2.60 sd=0.42 <b>a</b>	X=2.49 sd=0.44	X=2.53 sd=0.42	F(2,111)=3.91 p<0.02	
	Age F(3,473)=1.613 p<0.185	9	X=2.53 sd=0.49	X=2.63 sd=0.47	X=2.19 sd=0.69	X=2.52 sd=0.54	F(2,111)=5.53 p<0.005
	Ling F(2,473)=6.377 p<0.002	12	X=2.45 sd=0.68	<b>a</b> X=2.71 sd=0.42	<b>a</b> X=2.60 sd=0.50	X=2.61 sd=0.54	
	Interac. F(6,473)=2.023 p<0.061 Linguistic home situation Total age differences	15	X=2.50 sd=0.59 X=2.46 sd=0.57	X=2.56 sd=0.48 X=2.62 sd=0.45 2	X=2.61 sd=0.41 X=2.46 sd=0.56	X=2.57 sd=0.50	
<b>France</b>	6	X=2.28 sd=0.58	X=2.53 sd=0.52	X=2.28 sd=0.59	X=2.47 sd=0.55	1	
	Age F(3,474)=3.299 p<0.020	9	1 X=2.40 sd=0.48	X=2.54 sd=0.52	X=2.33 sd=0.64	X=2.46 sd=0.55	2
	Ling F(2,474)=3.817 p<0.023	12	2 X=2.51 sd=0.61	1 X=2.57 sd=0.58	X=2.49 sd=0.57	X=2.55 sd=0.59	3
	Interac. F(6,474)= 1.330 p<0.242 Linguistic home situation Total age differences	15	1 X=1.98 2 sd=0.65 X=2.32 sd=0.61 F(3132,)=5.18 p<0.002	1 X=2.27 sd=0.71 X=2.47 sd=0.60 F(3,272)=3.48 p<0.01	X=2.49 sd=0.55 X=2.40 sd=0.58	X=2.2 0 sd=0.70	1 2 3

**Table 8. VIII Evaluation measure; means and standard deviation**

COUNTRY	AGE	LINGUISTIC HOME SITUATION					Age Total	linguistic home sit. differences
		Castillian		Catalan	Bilingual			
<b>Spain</b>	6	X=2.50 sd=0.45	1	X=2.51 sd=0.55	X=2.60 sd=0.42	X=2.53 sd=0.51		
Age F(3,481)=1.378 p<0.25	9	X=2.62 sd=0.47		X=2.67 sd=0.49	X=2.63 sd=0.55	X=2.65 sd=0.40		
Ling F(2,481)=4.22 p<0.015	12	X=2.69 sd=0.41		X=2.48 sd=0.60	X=2.40 sd=0.41	X=2.55 sd=0.47		
Interac. F(6,481)=2.71 p<0.013	15	X=2.76 sd=0.32	1	X=2.26 sd=0.65	X=2.43 sd=0.68	X=2.44 sd=0.62	F(2,116)=7.47 p<0.001	
Linguistic situation Total age differences	home	X= 2.66 sd= 0.42	1	X=2.48 sd=0.57	X=2.52 sd=0.52		F(3,272)=5.39 p<0.001	
<b>Catalonia</b>	6	X=2.65 sd=0.34	1	X=2.76 sd=0.39	X=2.53 sd=0.49	X=2.60 sd=0.38	1	
Age F(3,481)=4.986 p<0.002	9	X=2.71 sd=0.40		X=2.87 sd=0.24	X=2.68 sd=0.55	X=2.79 sd=0.38		
Ling F(2,481)=8.107 p<0.0001	12	X=2.64 sd=0.42		X=2.82 sd=0.25	X=2.67 sd=0.47	X=2.75 sd=0.36	F(2,128)= 3.91 p<0.02	
Interac. F(6,481)=0.656 p<0.686	15	X=2.82 sd=0.31	1	X=2.87 sd=0.24	X=2.86 sd=0.28	X=2.86 sd=0.27	1	
Linguistic situation Total age differences	home	X= 2.70 sd= 0.38	1	X=2.82 sd=0.28	X=2.69 sd=0.47		F(3,273)=3.54 p<0.01	
<b>Andalusia</b>	6	1 X=2.34 sd=0.58		X=2.30 sd=0.59	X=2.23 sd=0.68	X=2.32 sd=0.50	1	
Age F(3,481)=5.233 p<0.001	9	2 X=2.41 sd=0.62		X=2.44 sd=0.60	X=2.28 sd=0.71	X=2.41 sd=0.62		
Ling F(2,481)=2.379 p<0.094	12	1 X=2.75 sd=0.4 5		X=2.44 sd=0.60	X=2.68 sd=0.49	X=2.5 9 sd=0.55	1 F(2,126)=4.50 p<0.01	
Interac. F(6,481)=0.479 p<0.824	15	a X=2.57 sd=0.40		X=2.32 sd=0.60	X=2.55 sd=0.56	X=2.43 sd=0.56		
Linguistic situation Total age differences	home	X= 2.54 sd=0.53		X=2.37 sd=0.60	X=2.44 sd=0.63		F(3,136)=4.33 p<0.006	

*Summary*

So, the differences between Catalan speakers and Castilian speaking children are related to the evaluations of the ingroups Catalonia and Spain and also to the Anglo-Saxon nationalities. It can be seen how Catalan speaking children evaluate British and German people more positively than Castilian speakers.

8.1.3.2 Favouritism

In this section the evaluation given for each country are compared in order to establish if a favouritism effect was present in our sample. The data were analysed with a Paired-Samples T-test. Only the results of the analysis by linguistic situation show significant differences, and maybe this is due to the fact that the effects of age were not consistent in this measure. So, the comparison of the different countries evaluation by age do not show any consistent result. To show the result, Tables 8.IX, 8.X and 8.XI were constructed in the following way. The column headings show the average and standard deviation of the seven nationalities ordered from the highest average of evaluation to the lowest. The first row heading shows the average and standard deviation of evaluation for Spain and the list row shows the results of the comparison (T-test) with each nationality. The second row heading shows the average and standard deviation of evaluation to Catalonia and the second row shows the results of the comparison of Catalonia (T-test) with each nationality.

As can be seen in Table 8.IX that Castilian speaking children do not present any favouritism when the evaluation of Catalan and Spanish people are compared, and they evaluate these two groups in a more positive way than any of the other groups presented. So, once more the Castilian speaking children show that for them both groups Catalan and Spanish, have the same importance.

**Table 8. IX Castilian speaking children favouritism; paired-samples T-test, means and standard deviation**

	<b>Catalonia</b>	<b>Spain</b>	<b>Andalusia</b>	<b>Britain</b>	<b>Italy</b>	<b>France</b>	<b>Germany</b>
	x=2.70 sd=0.38	x=2.66 sd=0.42	x=2.54 sd=0.53	x=2.46 sd=0.57	x=2.41 sd=0.58	x=2.32 sd=0.61	x=2.23 sd=0.60
<b>Spain</b> x=2.66 sd=0.42	ns	-----	t=2.46 p<0.01	t=3.16 p<0.002	t=4.04 p<0.000 1	t=5.41 p<0.0001	t=6.65 p<0.0001
<b>Catalonia</b> x=2.70 sd=0.38	-----	ns	t=3.02 p<0.003	t=4.29 p<0.0001	t=5.04 p<0.000 1	t=6.23 p<0.0001	t=7.62 p<0.001

Table 8.X show a different situation for the Catalan speakers. First, these children evaluate the Catalan group more positively than any of the other groups. Second, they only show a favouritism to the Spanish group when the comparison is between Spanish and Andalusian people. Third, when the evaluation of British and Spanish people are compared, Catalan speaking children show a preference for the British people.

**Table 8. X Catalan speaking children favouritism;  
paired-samples T-test, means and standard deviation**

	<b>Cataloni a</b>	<b>Britain</b>	<b>Spain</b>	<b>Italy</b>	<b>France</b>	<b>Germany</b>	<b>Andalusia</b>
	x=2.82 sd=0.28	x=2.62 sd=0.45	x=2.48 sd=0.57	x=2.48 sd=0.57	x=2.47 sd=0.60	x=2.44 sd=0.56	x=2.37 sd=0.60
<b>Spain</b> x=2.48 sd=0.57	t=9.63 p<0.0001	t=3.44 p<0.001	-----	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	t=2.52 p<0.12
<b>Cataloni a</b> x=2.82 sd=0.28	-----	t=7.21 p<0.0001	t=9.63 p<0.0001	t=9.28 p<0.0001	t=9.14 p<0.0001	t=9.77 p<0.0001	t=11.75 p<0.0001

Bilingual children again show a different pattern than the other two linguistic groups. This group of children evaluate the Catalan people more favourably than all the others, and they evaluate the Spanish people the same as the other European countries and Andalusia.

**Table 8. XI Bilingual children favouritism;  
paired-samples T-test, means and standard deviation**

	<b>Cataloni a</b>	<b>Spain</b>	<b>Britain</b>	<b>Andalusia</b>	<b>France</b>	<b>Italy</b>	<b>German y</b>
	x=2.69 sd=0.47	x=2.52 sd=0.52	x=2.46 sd=0.56	x=2.44 sd=0.37	x=2.40 sd=0.58	x=2.37 sd=0.63	x=2.35 sd=0.62
<b>Spain</b> x=2.52 sd=0.52	t=2.19 p<0.032	-----	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
<b>Cataloni a</b> x=2.69 sd=0.47	-----	t=2.19 p<0.032	t=2.74 p<0.008	t=2.98 p<0.004	t=3.75 p<0.0001	t=3.55 p<0.001	t=3.25 p<0.001

### Summary

It can be seen that in relation to the favouritism effect, Castilian speaking children behave as if both groups, Catalan and Spanish, are their ingroups, giving both countries the same, and better evaluation than to any other group. Catalan speakers and bilingual children always evaluate their ingroup better (i.e. Catalan) than any of the other.

## 8.2 NATIONAL FEELINGS

The measure of national feelings was obtained from children's answers to the questions "...And do you like or dislike (name of each country) people?". These questions had five categories of answer: "dislike a lot", "dislike a little", "I don't know", "like a little", "like a lot", these categories have a score from 1 to 5 respectively.



This measure was analysed in two different ways. First a 3x4 ANOVA design was used in order to establish the differences between the groups (with a complementary Scheffé test when it was necessary). Second, a Princals analysis was used to describe the association between the different countries for each age and linguistic situation group. Princals analyses show to which countries children feel a similar way towards, and this can be positive or negative.

### 8.2.1 Differences between groups

Tables 8.XII and 8.XIII show the results of the ANOVA analysis with means and standard deviation.

**Table 8. XII National feelings; means and standard deviation**

COUNTRY	AGE	LINGUISTIC HOME SITUATION					linguistic home sit. differences
		Castillian	Catalan	Bilingual	Age Total		
<b>Spain</b>	6	X=4.00 sd=1.15	X=3.64 sd=1.41	X=3.57 sd=1.60	X=3.73 sd=1.38		1
	Age F(3,485) =3.32 p<0.02	X=4.24 sd=0.91	X=3.92 sd=1.12	X=4.27 sd=0.70	X=4.06 sd=0.99		
	Ling F(2,485) =16.74 p<0.0001	X=4.56 sd=0.67 <b>a</b>	X=3.85 sd=0.93 <b>a</b>	X=4.30 sd=0.80	X=4.15 sd=0.88		1 F(2,129)=9.89 p<0.00001
	Interac. F(6,485)=1.92 p<0.076	X=4.56 sd=0.62 <b>a</b>	X=3.39 sd=1.05 <b>a b</b>	X=4.13 sd=1.19 <b>b</b>	X=3.80 sd=1.09		F(2,117)=16.92 p<0.00001
	Linguistic home situation Total	X=4.37 1 sd=0.85	X=3.69 1 sd=1.16	X=4.11 2 sd=1.08	X=3.95 sd=1.10		
age differences							
<b>Catalonia</b>	6	X=4.45 sd=1.15	X=4.75 sd=0.79	X=4.43 sd=1.28	X=4.66 sd=0.91		
	Age F(3,485) =0.83 p<0.47	X=4.43 sd=1.09 <b>a</b>	X=4.89 sd=0.37 <b>a</b>	X=4.55 sd=1.06	X=4.67 sd=0.82		F(2,125)=4.39 p<0.01
	Ling F(2,485) =12.86 p<0.0001	X=4.47 sd=0.93 <b>a</b>	X=4.88 sd=0.91 <b>a</b>	X=4.65 sd=1.06	X=4.69 sd=0.61		F(2,129)=5.01 p<0.008
	Interac. F(6,)=0.24 p<0.96	X=4.50 sd=0.80 <b>a</b>	X=4.89 sd=0.36 <b>a</b>	X=4.80 sd=0.41	X=4.75 sd=0.57		F(2,117)=6.06 p<0.003
	Linguistic home situation Total	X=4.46 1 sd=0.97	X=4.85 sd=0.52 2	X=4.61 sd=0.92	X=4.69 sd=0.76		
age differences							
<b>Andalusia</b>	6	1 X=3.05 2 sd=1.53	X=3.41 sd=1.50	X=4.00 sd=1.18	X=3.41 sd=1.47		1
	Age F(3,485) =5.56 p<0.001	X=3.74 sd=1.48	X=3.37 sd=1.28	X=3.23 sd=1.41	X=3.48 sd=1.37		
	Ling F(2,485) =4.79 p<0.001	1 X=4.23 sd=1.00 <b>a</b>	X=3.46 sd=1.31 <b>a</b>	X=4.20 sd=1.01	X=3.83 sd=1.21		1 F(2,129)=6.85 p<0.001
	Interac. F(6,485)=2.91 p<0.008	2 X=4.34 sd=0.60 <b>a</b>	X=3.44 sd=1.31 <b>a b</b>	X=4.33 sd=0.90 <b>b</b>	X=3.79 sd=1.00		F(2,117)=1383 p<0.00001
	Linguistic home situation Total	X=3.92 sd=1.26	1 X=3.42 sd=1.29	2 X=3.89 sd=1.23	X=3.63 sd=1.29		
age differences		F(3,138)=6.60 p<0.0003					

**Table 8. XIII National feelings; means and standard deviation**

COUNTRY	AGE	LINGUISTIC HOME SITUATION					linguistic home sit. differences
		Castillian	Catalan	Bilingual	Age Total		
<b>Germany</b>	6	X=2.82 sd=1.56	X=3.20 sd=1.49	X=3.50 sd=1.56	X=3.13 sd=1.51		
Age F(3,485) =0.23 p<0.87	9	X=3.00 sd=1.21	X=3.37 sd=1.23	X=3.27 sd=1.42	X=3.24 sd=1.25		
Ling F(2,485) =3.91 p<0.02	12	X=2.77 sd=1.41	X=3.55 sd=1.05	X=3.25 sd=1.07	X=3.23 sd=1.22		F(2,129)=5.53 p<0.005
Interac. F(6,485)=1.21 p<0.30	15	X=3.28 sd=1.02	X=3.15 sd=1.19	X=3.53 sd=0.99	X=3.22 sd=1.12		
Linguistic home situation Total age differences		X=2.96 sd=1.30	X=3.31 sd=1.26	X=3.37 sd=1.26	X=3.21 sd=1.28		
<b>Italy</b>	6	X=3.14 sd=1.52	X=3.53 sd=1.40	X=3.14 sd=1.23	X=3.43 sd=1.40		1
Age F(3,485) =3.26 p<0.02	9	X=3.63 sd=0.95	X=3.68 sd=1.18	X=3.18 sd=1.40	X=3.55 sd=1.19		
Ling F(2,485) =1.34 p<0.26	12	X=3.53 sd=1.11	X=3.94 sd=0.92	X=3.90 sd=1.21	X=3.83 sd=0.98		1
Interac. F(6,485)=0.877 p<0.51	15	X=3.63 sd=0.97	X=3.48 sd=1.14	X=3.67 sd=0.98	X=3.51 sd=1.10		
Linguistic home situation Total age differences		X=3.53 sd=1.11	X=3.65 sd=1.19	X=3.48 sd=1.25	X=3.59 sd=1.18		
<b>Britain</b>	6	X=3.41 sd=1.44	X=3.83 sd=1.37	X=3.93 sd=1.38	X=3.77 sd=1.38		
Age F(3,485) =1.08 p<0.35	9	X=3.45 sd=1.40	X=4.02 sd=1.03	X=3.23 sd=1.27	X=3.62 sd=1.24		
Ling F(2,485) =4.37 p<0.01	12	X=3.63 sd=1.29	X=4.07 sd=0.94	X=3.85 sd=1.35	X=3.89 sd=1.14		
Interac. F(6,485)=1.20 p<0.30	15	X=3.69 sd=0.97	X=3.75 sd=1.08	X=3.93 sd=0.88	X=3.75 sd=1.01		
Linguistic home situation Total age differences		X=3.58 sd=1.28	X=3.91 sd=1.13	X=3.69 sd=1.26	X=3.77 sd=1.20		
<b>France</b>	6	X=3.27 sd=1.35	X=3.54 sd=1.50	X=3.50 sd=1.45	X=3.51 sd=1.45		
Age F(3,485) =1.62 p<0.18	9	X=3.43 sd=1.29	X=3.39 sd=1.32	X=3.36 sd=1.50	X=3.41 sd=1.33		
Ling F(2,485) =1.11 p<0.33	12	X=3.37 sd=1.20	X=3.61 sd=1.27	X=3.70 sd=1.34	X=3.55 sd=1.24		
Interac. F(6,485)=0.28 p<0.94	15	X=2.88 sd=1.10	X=3.13 sd=1.22	X=3.40 sd=1.24	X=3.07 sd=1.19		
Linguistic home situation Total age differences		X=3.26 sd=1.24	X=3.42 sd=1.34	X=3.49 sd=1.27	X=3.39 sd=1.31		

Tables 8.XII and 8.XIII show two interesting points. First, the age effects are present only in Italy, Spain and Andalusia, and always in the way that 12 year old children like these countries more than 6 year old children. Second, the effect of the language that children speak at home is present forming two groups: the first composed of Spain and Andalusia, where the Castilian speakers and the bilingual children like the people from these two nationalities more than Catalan speaking children; the second group formed by Catalonia, Germany and Britain, called Anglo-Saxon group (see summary of section 8.2.1.2) where Catalan speaking children like the people from these countries more than Castilian speakers.

The affect measure given to each country were compared in order to establish the countries' ranking. The data were analysed with a Paired-Samples T-test. Only the results of the analysis by linguistic situation show significant differences. Tables 8.XIV, 8.XV and 8.XVI were constructed in the following way. The column headings show the average and standard deviation of the seven nationalities ordered from the highest average of feelings to the lowest. The first row heading shows the average and standard deviation of feelings to Spain and the first row shows the results of the comparison (T-test) with each nationality. The second row heading shows the average and standard deviation of feelings to Catalonia and the second row shows the results of the comparison of Catalonia (T-test) with each nationality.

As can be seen in Table 8.XIV that Castilian speaking children do not present any preference for the Spanish over the Catalan people and they like these two groups more than any of the other groups presented. So again, the Castilian speaking children show that for them, both Catalan and Spanish groups have the same level of affect.

**Table 8. XIV Castilian speaking children national affect; paired-samples T-test, means and standard deviation**

	<b>Catalonia</b> (x=4.46 sd=0.96)	<b>Spain</b> (x=4.37 sd=0.84)	<b>Andalusia</b> (x=3.92 sd=1.26)	<b>Italy</b> (x=3.52 sd=1.11)	<b>Britain</b> (x=3.55 sd=1.27)	<b>France</b> (x=3.25 sd=1.23)	<b>Germany</b> (x=2.96 sd=1.29)
<b>Spain</b> (x=4.37 sd=0.84)	ns	-----	t=4.37 p<0.0001	t=7.56 p<0.000	t=3.55 p<1.27	t=8.91 p<0.0001	t=10.92 p<0.0001
<b>Catalonia</b> (x=4.46 sd=0.96)	-----	ns	t=3.96 p<0.0001	t=8.12 p<0.000	t=6.85 p<0.0001	t=9.45 p<0.0001	t=11.61 p<0.0001

Table 8.XV show a different situation for the Catalan speakers. First, these children like the Catalan people more than any other. Second, when the evaluation of British and Spanish people are compared, Catalan speaking children show a preference for the British people. Third, they like Spanish people more than Andalusian, French, and German people.

**Table 8. XV Catalan speaking children national affect; paired-samples T-test, means and standard deviation**

	<b>Catalonia</b> (x=4.84 sd=0.52)	<b>Britain</b> (x=3.90 sd=1.12)	<b>Spain</b> (x=3.69 sd=1.16)	<b>Italy</b> (x=3.64 sd=1.18)	<b>Andalusia</b> (x=3.42 sd=1.28)	<b>France</b> (x=3.41 sd=1.34)	<b>Germany</b> (x=3.30 sd=1.26)
<b>Spain</b> (x=3.69 sd=1.16)	t=16.00 p<0.0001	t=2.59 p<0.01	-----	n.s.	t=3.23 p<0.001	t=2.96 p<0.003	t=4.39 p<0.0001
<b>Catalonia</b> (x=4.84 sd=0.52)	-----	t=13.66 p<0.0001	t=16.00 p<0.0001	t=15.68 p<0.0001	t=16.75 p<0.0001	t=16.55 p<0.0001	t=20.40 p<0.0001

Bilingual children show again a different pattern than the other two linguistic groups. This group of children like Catalan people more than all the others, they like Spanish people more than the other European countries, and they like Spanish and Andalusian people equally.

**Table 8. XVI Bilingual speaking children national affect; paired-samples T-test, means and standard deviation**

	<b>Catalonia</b> (x=4.60 sd=0.91)	<b>Spain</b> (x=4.11 sd=1.07)	<b>Andalusia</b> (x=3.88 sd=1.22)	<b>Britain</b> (x=3.69 sd=1.26)	<b>Italy</b> (x=3.47 sd=1.25)	<b>France</b> (x=3.49 sd=1.37)	<b>Germany</b> (x=3.36 sd=1.25)
<b>Spain</b> (x=4.11 sd=1.07)	t=3.63 p<0.001	-----	n.s.	t=2.20 p<0.03	t=3.51 p<0.001	t=3.13 p<0.003	t=3.76 p<0.0001
<b>Catalonia</b> (x=4.60 sd=0.91)	-----	t=3.63 p<0.001	t=4.69 p<0.0001	t=5.11 p<0.0001	t=6.36 p<0.0001	t=6.38 p<0.0001	t=6.53 p<0.0001

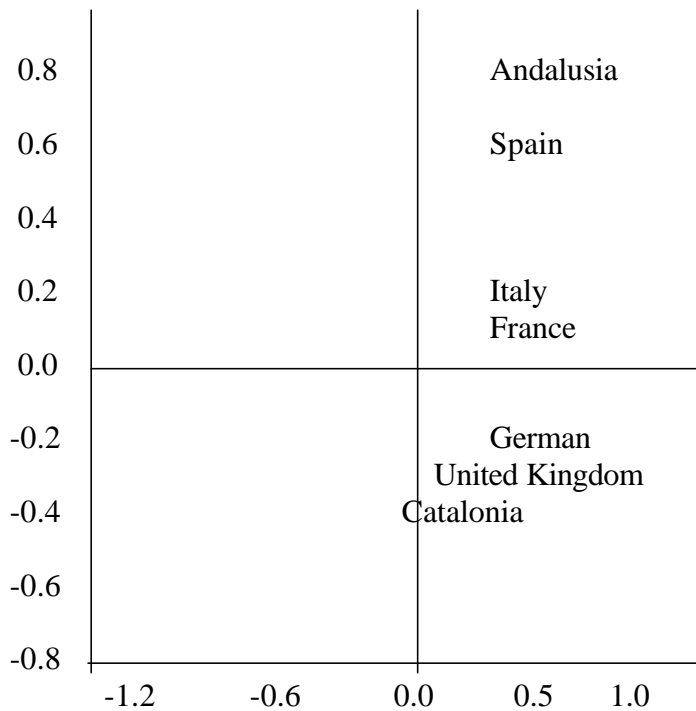
*Summary*

It can be seen that again Castilian speaking children do not present any preference when Catalan and Spanish people are compared, but Catalan speakers and bilingual children a clear preference is shown for Catalan people.

### 8.2.2 Association between national affect

A Princals analysis was made with all the sample of children to see if a structure of national affect existed and if there are differences in relation to age and linguistic situation.

**Figure 8. VI Affect Princals analysis the whole the sample**



**Table 8. XVII components loadings**

Variable	Dimensions	
	1	2
Italy	,527	,023
France	,545	,044
Spain	,575	,351
United Kingdom	,533	-,432
Germany	,551	-,275
Catalonia	,330	-,619
Andalusia	,615	,567

It can be seen in Figure 8.VI and Table 8.XVII that all the countries have similar contribution to the first dimension but in the second, two groups of countries are formed. First, a group is formed by Andalusia, Spain, France and Italy. Second, a group is formed by Germany, United Kingdom and Catalonia. So, this second dimension has been called the “Latin/Anglo-Saxon” countries.

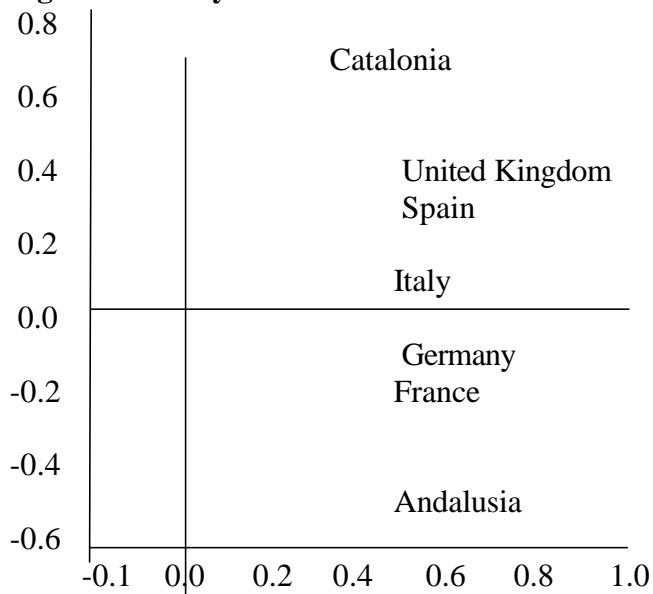
Over this structure of evaluation a 3x4 ANOVA was realised in each dimension to find significant differences between age groups and between linguistic groups. This analysis reported if differences exist in both variables.

First, age presented significant differences only in the first dimension ( $F(3,485)=3.513$   $p<0.015$ ) in the way that the group that scored less in this factor is the 6 years old group ( $X=-0,14$ ) followed by the 15 years old group ( $X=-0,07$ ), the 9 years old ( $X=-0,01$ ) and the 12 years old group ( $X=0,21$ ). When a Scheffé test was made, the significant differences were between the 6 years old group and the 12 year olds. Second, the linguistic situation presented significant differences only in the second dimension “Latin/Anglo-Saxon” ( $F(2,485)=38.23$   $p<0.001$ ) in the way that the contribution to this factor of the Catalan speakers and the Castilian speaking children is opposite, and significant with a Scheffé test. Third, the interaction of both variables was not significant.

So, the next sections will show the main structures of national affect for the age groups (the groups of linguistic situation within age can be seen in appendix n.6 from Figure A-6.XIII to Figure A-6.XXIV).

*A. 6 years old group's National affect.*

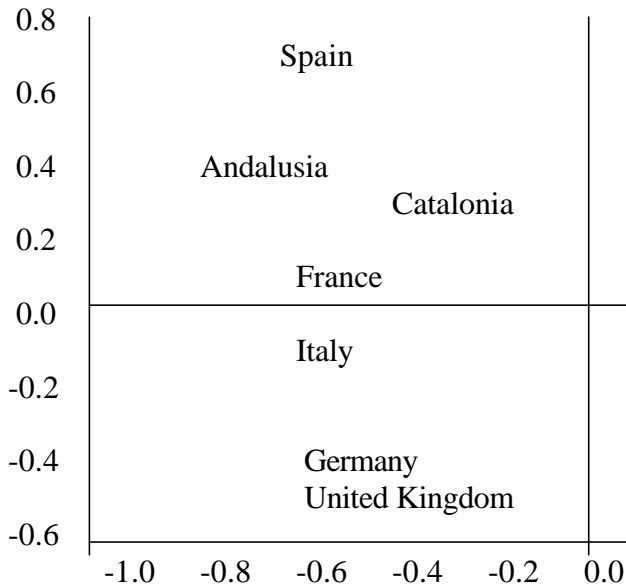
**Figure 8. VII 6 years old children national affect Princals analysis**



**Table 8. XVIII components loadings**

Variable	Dimensions	
	1	2
Italy	,593	,051
France	,652	-,250
Spain	,639	,191
United Kingdom	,680	,302
Germany	,724	-,221
Catalonia	,457	,706
Andalusia	,652	-,560

In Figure 8.VII and Table 8.XVIII it can be seen that two groups of countries can be found in the second dimension. First, the group formed by Catalonia, United Kingdom, Spain and Italy. Second, the group formed by Germany, France and Andalusia. Also is interesting to note that Catalan and Andalusian people are in opposite locations so, those children who like one a lot dislike the other a lot. This dimension can be called again the “us/them” countries.

*B. 9 years old group's National Affect.***Figure 8. VIII 9 year old children national affect Princals analysis****Table 8. XIX components loadings**

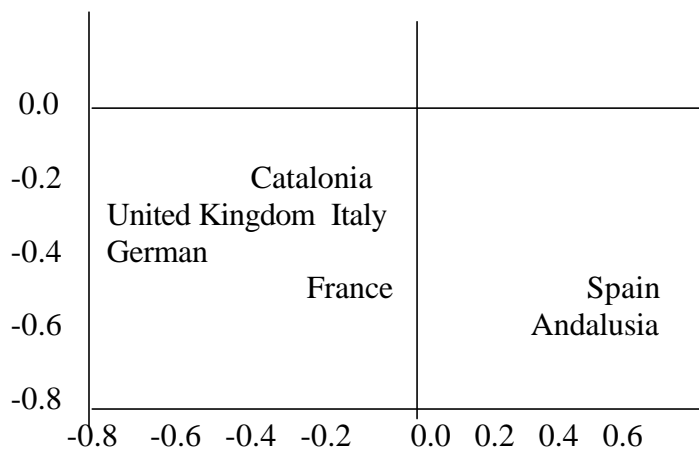
Variable	Dimensions	
	1	2
Italy	-,600	-,176
France	-,566	,035
Spain	-,513	,576
United Kingdom	-,443	-,617
Germany	-,484	-,481
Catalonia	-,190	,238
Andalusia	-,687	,367

In Figure 8.VIII and Table 8.XIX it can be seen again that it is in the second dimension where two groups of countries can be found. First, we have Spain, Andalusia, Catalonia and France. Second we have Italy, Germany and United Kingdom. We call this dimension the “us/them” countries. At this age the three nationalities Spain, Catalonia and Andalusia are in the same group, so for this group the affect to these three nationalities follows the same criterion. Due to the geographical location of Girona province, remembering that Girona province is on the border with France, and that a lot of families go to France in bank holidays, often to Perpignan (a town in France about 100km. from the city of Girona), to spend the day shopping in the hyper-market, for a long weekend holiday etc.. So, it can be possible that at this age, the children’s relation with French people is close enough to consider them like “us” in the affect structures.



*D. 12 years old group's National Affect.*

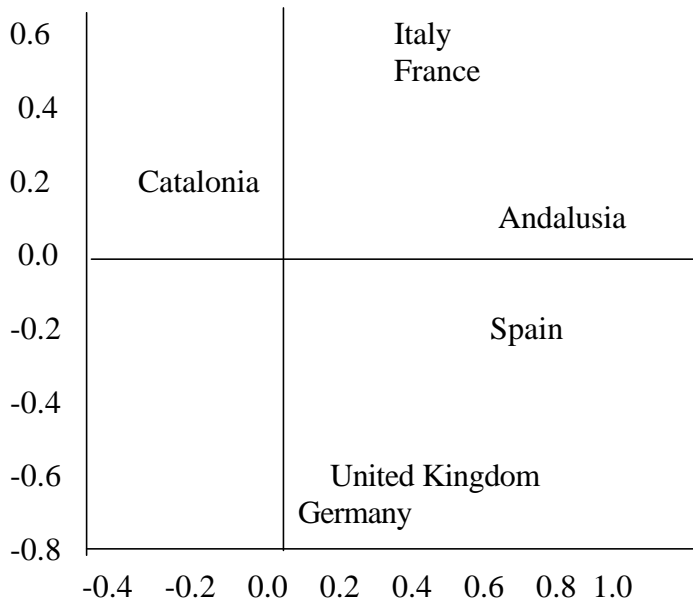
**Figure 8. IX 12 years old national affect Princals analysis**



**Table 8. XX components loadings**

Variable	Dimensions	
	1	2
Italy	-,333	-,380
France	-,183	-,538
Spain	,642	-,529
United Kingdom	-,515	-,335
Germany	-,541	-,396
Catalonia	-,270	-,267
Andalusia	,588	-,585

In Figure 8.IX and Table 8.XX it can be seen that this time it is in the first dimension where two groups of countries can be found. First Spain and Andalusia are very close each other, but completely opposite to the rest of the European countries including Catalonia. This dimension is call “European / Spanish people”. Again if the relative position of Catalonia, Spain and Andalusia are compared, it can be seen that at this age the structure or affect is guided by the socio-political conflict that exists between the different nationalities.

*D. 15 years old group's National Affect.***Figure 8. X 15 years old national affect Princals analysis****Table 8. XXI 15 components loadings**

Variable	Dimensions	
	1	2
Italy	,310	,480
France	,349	,442
Spain	,749	-,258
United Kingdom	,215	-,608
Germany	,030	-,738
Catalonia	-,059	,115
Andalusia	,852	,059

At this age, both dimensions are creating groups of countries. In the first dimension Catalonia is opposite to the rest of the European countries. This dimension can be called “Catalan people/the others”. In the second dimension the groups are, on one hand, Catalonia, Italy, France, Andalusia and on the other hand, Germany, United Kingdom and Spain. This second dimension can express the change of the adolescents’ interpretation of the socio-political conflict, in this case the conflict is expressed only towards Spain and not to Andalusia. This makes Spain form a group with Germany and United Kingdom, and this dimension is called “political influence”.

### *Summary*

In summary, three main points can be noted. First, Castilian speaking children like Spanish and Andalusian people more than Catalan speaking children, and at the same time Catalan speaking children like Catalan, German and British people more than the Castilian speaking children. Second, the structure of affects is constructed in relation to the “Latin/Anglo-Saxon” dimension, with the Catalan speakers located in the Anglo-Saxon side and the Castilian children in the Latin. Third, different structures were found related with age: 6 and 9 years olds have a structure based in the dimension “us/them”; at 12 years old the dimension is the “European (Catalonia included)/ Spanish (Spain and Andalusia)” nationalities; the older children aged 15 years old present a structure based in the “Catalan/the others” dimension and in the dimension “political influence”.

### **8.3 CONCLUSIONS**

To conclude this chapter three points can be noticed. First, in both structures explored, similarity of image and similarity in feelings Spain and Catalonia are in the same groups for children aged 6 and 9 years old and in opposite groups for adolescent aged 12 and 15 years old. This can be explained by the fact that adolescents are more aware of the social-political conflict between Spain and Catalonia. Second, the affect structures of the Castilian speakers and bilingual children are similar at the point that Catalonia and Spain are in the same group, while for the Catalan speaking children their affect structure is organised under the dimension “Latin/Anglo-Saxon”. Third, the measures of favouritism and preferences present really consistent results, in the way that Castilian speaking children do not present favouritism effects between Catalonia and Spain and either preferences effects, Catalan speaking children present Catalan favouritism and Catalan preferences and bilingual children too.

## 9. RESULTS CONCERNING NATIONAL SELF-ESTEEM AND TRAVEL EXPERIENCES

This chapter will show the results of the last two sections of the interview, self-esteem and travel experiences.

### 9.1 SELF-ESTEEM

The self-esteem measure is related with question 6.2 of the interview (i.e. And, which face shows how you feel about being {Spanish/Catalan, the first chosen in subjective identification task}?) This question had five categories of answer: “very sad”, “quite sad”, “neutral”, “quite happy”, “very happy”. These categories scored from 1 to 5 respectively. This measure was analysed with a 3x4 ANOVA design in order to establish the differences between the groups Table 9.1 shows the results.

**Table 9.1 Self-esteem; means and standard deviation**

<b>INTERACTION</b> F(6,480)=0.39 p<0.088	<b>AGE</b> F(3,480)=1.53 p<0.20				
<b>LINGUISTIC SITUATION</b> F(2,480)=2.90 p<0.06	6 years old	9 years old	12 years old	15 years old	<b>TOTAL</b>
Castillian	X=4.45 Sd=1.18	X=4.50 Sd=0.92	X=4.79 Sd=0.56	X=4.66 Sd=0.65	X=4.62 Sd=0.82
Catalan	X=4.59 Sd=0.97	X=4.75 Sd=0.51	X=4.85 Sd=0.47	X=4.87 Sd=0.42	X=4.76 Sd=0.65
Bilingual	X=4.50 Sd=0.94	X=4.59 Sd=0.80	X=4.53 Sd=0.77	X=4.67 Sd=0.72	X=4.57 Sd=0.79
<b>TOTAL</b>	X=4.57 Sd=0.72	X=4.65 Sd=0.72	X=4.77 Sd=0.58	X=4.76 Sd=0.57	

As can be seen, neither age nor linguistic situation show any significant effect. So, all the children of the sample feel “quite happy” or “very happy” with their own nationality, independently of their age or their linguistic home situation.

### 9.2 TRAVEL EXPERIENCES

To describe children’s travel experiences two factors were explored, the number of countries that the children had visited and also the number of weeks that they spent in each country. So, this section is related with questions 7.3 and 7.4 of the interview

(i.e. “Have you ever been to any other countries?” “And how long were you in .....?”). A 3x4 ANOVA design and a Scheffé test were used in order to establish the differences between the groups.

### 9.2.1. Number of countries visited

Table 9.2. shows the results for the number of countries visited. First, it can be seen that the age effect is always in the sense that older children have visited more countries than younger children. Second, the main effect of the linguistic situation shows that the Catalan speaking children are the group that have visited more countries, but this difference is not significant with a Scheffe test at 15 years old. So can be said that for the older children, the differences in the number of countries visited are not so evident as in the younger ages.

**Table 9. 2 Number of countries visited; means and standard deviation**

<b>INTERACTION</b> F(6, 485)=2.192 p<0.043		<b>AGE</b> F(3,485)=26.025 p<0.001						
<b>LINGUISTIC SITUATION</b> F(2, 485)=19.059 p<0.0001		6 years old	9 years old	12 years old	15 years old	TOTAL	AGE DIFFERENCES	
Castillian	X=0.09 1 Sd=0.29	X=0.31 1 Sd=0.52	X=0.49 1 Sd=0.55 2	X=1.41 Sd=1.21	X=0.58 1 Sd=0.86	F(3,138)=19.27 p<0.0001		
	<b>a</b>	<b>b</b>	<b>c</b>	<b>a b c</b>				
Catalan	X=0.42 1 Sd=0.62	X=0.92 1 Sd=0.93 2	X=1.64 1 Sd=1.57	X=2.08 Sd=1.57	X=1.26 1 Sd=1.39 2	F(3,275)=25.87 p<0.0001		
	<b>a b</b>	<b>c d</b>	<b>a c</b>	<b>b d</b>				
Bilingual	X=0.14 Sd=0.36	X=0.36 2 Sd=0.58	X=1.55 2 Sd=1.67	X=1.20 Sd=1.01	X=0.83 2 Sd=1.20	F(3,70)=6.98 p<0.0001		
	<b>a</b>	<b>b</b>	<b>a b</b>					
<b>TOTAL</b>	X=0.35 A Sd=0.61 B	X=0.63 C Sd=0.80 D	X=1.25 C Sd=1.43 E	X=1.81 A Sd=1.46 B D E				
<b>LINGUISTIC DIFFERENCES</b>	F(2,111)=4.29 p<0.02	F(2,125)=5.52 p<0.0001	F(2,129)=1.26 p<0.0001	F(2,117)=3.99 p<0.02				

\* The subindices 1,2,3, etc. show between which groups significant differences are presented with respect to the main effects of the variable linguistic situation.

\*\* The subindices A,B,C, etc. show between which groups significant differences are presented with respect to the main effects of the variable age.

\*\*\*The subindices 1,2,3 etc show between which linguistic groups significant differences were found within each column (age).

\*\*\*\* The subindices a,b,c, etc. show between which age groups significant differences were found within each row (linguistic group).

### 9.2.2. Number of weeks spent in each country

This section present the results of the numbers of weeks that children spent in the other European countries of the study (i.e. Germany, United Kingdom, France and Italy).

**Table 9. 3 Numbers of weeks in other European countries;  
means and standard deviations**

COUNTRY	AGE	LINGUISTIC HOME SITUATION				linguistic home sit. differences
		Castillian	Catalan	Bilingual	Age Total	
<b>Germany</b>	6	X=0.00 sd=0.00	X=0.03 sd= 0.16	X=0.07 sd= 0.27	X=0.03 sd= 0.18	
	Age F(3,485) =0.18 p<0.91	9	X=0.00 sd=0.00	X=0.25 sd= 0.15	X=0.09 sd= 0.43	X=0.03 sd= 0.25
	Ling F(2,485) =2.64 p<0.07	12	X=0.00 sd=0.00	X=0.35 sd= 0.27	X=0.05 sd= 0.22	X=0.06 sd= 0.27
	Interac. F(6,485) =0.92 p<0.47 Linguistic home situation Total age differences	15	X=0.03 sd=0.18 X=0.01 sd=0.08	X=0.59 sd= 0.27 X=0.38 sd= 0.17	X=0.00 sd= 0.00 X=0.06 sd= 0.29	X=0.11 sd= 0.46
<b>Italy</b>	6	X=0.05 sd= 0.21	X=0.03 sd= 0.16	X=0.00 sd= 0.00	X=0.03 sd= 0.16	
	Age F(3,474) =1.88 p<0.13	9	X=0.00 sd= 0.07	X=0.15 sd= 1.02	X=0.18 sd= 0.85	X=0.10 sd= 0.79
	Ling F(2,474) =1.19 p<0.30 Interac. F(6,474) =2.09 p<0.13 Linguistic home situation Total age differences	12 15	X=0.00 sd=0.00 X=0.52 sd=1.03 X=0.29 sd= 1.70	X=0.27 sd= 0.62 X=0.27 sd= 0.53 X=0.17 sd= 0.64	X=0.40 sd= 1.10 X=0.00 sd= 0.00 X=0.17 sd= 0.76	X=0.20 sd= 0.62 X=0.23 sd= 0.50
	<b>United Kingdom</b>	6	X=0.00 sd=0.00	X=0.01 sd= 0.11	X=0.00 sd= 0.00	X=0.03 sd= 0.16
Age F(3,485) =2.22 p<0.08		9	X=0.00 sd=0.00	X=0.05 sd= 0.22	X=0.00 sd= 0.00	X=0.02 sd= 0.15
Ling F(2,485) =1.58 p<0.20 Interac. F(6,485) =0.65 p<0.68 Linguistic home situation Total age differences		12 15	X=0.00 sd=0.00 X=0.16 sd= 0.72 X=0.04 sd= 0.35	X=0.10 sd= 0.46 X=0.49 sd= 1.71 X=0.17 sd= 0.92	X=0.10 sd= 0.45 X=0.13 sd= 0.52 X=0.06 sd= 0.33	X=0.08 sd= 0.58 X=0.36 sd= 1.38
<b>France</b>		6	X=0.09 sd= 0.43	X=0.30 sd= 0.54	X=0.07 sd= 0.27	X=0.25 sd= 0.56
	Age F(3,474) = 1.49 p<0.21	9	X=0.36 sd= 0.82	X=1.50 sd= 6.07	X=0.27 sd= 0.56	X=0.89 sd= 4.28
	Ling F(2,474) =4.09 p<0.01	12	X=0.37 sd= 0.58 <b>a</b>	X=1.18 sd= 1.69 <b>a</b>	X=1.05 sd= 1.10	X=0.89 sd= 1.36 F(2,129)=4.98 p<0.008
	Interac. F(6,474) =0.54 p<0.77	15	X=0.63 sd= 0.49 <b>a</b>	X=1.18 sd= 1.17 <b>a</b>	X=0.73 sd= 0.46	X=0.97 sd= 0.98 F(2,117)=4.22 p<0.01

Linguistic home situation Total age differences	X=0.64 sd= 0.01	A	X=1.01 sd= 3.08	A	X=0.55 sd= 0.79
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Table 9.3 shows that a significant effect of the linguistic variable only appears in the number of weeks that the children spent in France, in the way that Catalan speakers have spent more time in France than Castilian speaking children, when they are 12 and 15 years old.

### 9.3 CONCLUSIONS

In summary it can be said that Catalan speaking children seem to travel to a larger number of countries than the Castilian speakers, but in relation to the European countries of the study it can be said that there are only differences in the time that children spent in France. This result can be explained by two facts. First, Catalan speaking families live closer to their relatives than Castilian families (remember that more than 80% of these families have at least one of the parents from other regions of Spain). So, this means that Castilian families go to visit their relatives in bank holidays while Catalan families are less likely to. Second, as has been said in chapter 8, the province of Girona has a border with France, and in Girona it is very usual for families go to Perpignan to shop in the big hypermarket or to spend a day out, usually in bank holidays, due to the curious fact that both countries have bank holidays on the same dates.

## **10. DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY**

In this chapter, the main results of the current research will be presented in relation to the theoretical framework that has guided the study.

### **10.1 THE DEVELOPMENT OF NATIONAL IDENTITY IN CATALONIA**

It has been said in chapter 4 that children belong to several social groups, and their participation in all them develops their social identity. This social identity is not just singular, on the contrary, it is multiple in nature and the salience of a particular identity depends on context. This idea can explain why 6 years old children used national categories to describe themselves in our study. The context of the subjective identification task created by the rest of the cards presented to the child was clearly national (the majority of the cards had a national category). Children younger than 10-11 years old can use national categories to describe themselves if the national dimension is salient in the context of the interview. So, it can be said that the use of national categories is not a consequence of the process of inclusion-decentration defended by Piaget nor of Jahoda's concentric circles (concrete/abstract).

Neither of these two processes can explain why younger children, independently of linguistic situation, do not give more importance to their characteristic of being *Gironean* than to national identification (i.e. *Catalan* or *Spanish*). Again the importance of the context of the task is relevant to explain this result. The nature of the majority of the cards meant that in the context of the task, the national dimension was more salient for the children than the city belonging.

It would be possible to affirm that younger children of our sample are using the language to differentiate between people's nationalities, constructing linguistic categories and using them as national categories. This idea would bring us to the conclusion that younger children living in Girona selected the national categories



just because the words written on the cards coincided with the name of the language that they speak at home. If this conclusion was correct, the results should show that at 6 years old, Castilian speakers attributed more importance to the *Spanish* card than to the *Catalan* card and the inverse would be true for Catalan speakers. The results shown in Table 6.1 and Table 6.V demonstrate that Castilian speaking children aged 6 years old attribute the same level of importance to their characteristic of being Spanish as Catalan, and that the level of importance attributed to the characteristic of being Catalan is the same for all the linguistic groups. However, it has to be said that in Catalonia the term *Spanish* is not the same as the language because the majority of the people refer the language spoken in the Spanish state as Castilian not Spanish. So, it seems that younger children are not using the language spoken at home to choose the national cards to describe themselves, because in this context the selection of the *Spanish* card by the Castilian speakers and the equal level of importance of the *Catalan* card in all the linguistic groups cannot be explained.

Also, it can be seen how younger children are able to choose a card in the comparative national identification task (i.e. Catalan vs. Spanish), with all the complexity that this implies. It has also been seen that this identification changes with age only in the Catalan speakers group and in bilingual children, remaining stable with age in Castilian speaking children. The differences presented between the linguistic groups are present in all the ages, so children, even younger children, choose the card to describe themselves depending on the social family context where they are growing up.

The idea of a process of a parallel construction of the world, of simultaneously integrated knowledge, beliefs and feelings of the concrete or closer environment, and of the abstract or far away world, can better explain our data. Children learn and think about everyday life, about the characteristics of our environment, the information circulating in our social context, and the importance or otherwise of the different levels of knowledge, depending on the context. Children integrate the

information that is circulating in their environment and they construct a world that does not necessarily coincide with the adult world, but which helps the child to communicate and to understand the situations in which they are immersed. Children of younger ages are able to use national categories in the same way as older children (adolescents).

In addition to everything mentioned above, the children's age did not show any effect in the evaluation of the countries, in the favouritism effect, in the expression of affect towards the different nationalities nor in the preferences for their own groups. All the consistent differences in these measures were related with the linguistic situation in the children's home. But the study of the structures that underlie these phenomena presented a developmental trend that differentiates between the structures of the younger children (i.e. 6 and 9 years old) and the adolescents (i.e. 12 and 15 years old). To know the contents and meanings of these national categories used by the children and how these meanings and contents change with age needs more research in the future.

The structures underlying the image of, and the affect expressed towards the countries is sensitive to the social-political conflict at the age of 12 years old. At the ages of 6 and 9 years old, both structures locate Spain and Catalonia always being part of the same group. So, it can be said that when younger children have to express how they see (similarity) or how they feel towards (affect) Spanish and Catalan people, they use the same criterion, and these two groups are put together into the same group. But this situation changes completely when children are 12 years old, when children are more sensitive to the national-political conflict within the Spanish state. As it can be seen in Figures 8.IV and 8.IX at the age of 12 years old, children locate in different extremes of similarity and affect Spanish and Catalan people. At this age, children start to express the adult's idea present in the political discourse that Catalan and Spanish people are different. At the age of 15 years old this structure becomes more extreme in the sense that Catalan, Spanish and Andalusian people are not only in different groups but also in both extremes of

the graph, so the idea of the differentiation between Catalan, Spanish and Andalusian people is more accentuated. At the same time the expression of affect towards these nationalities becomes more complex. It can be seen in Figure 8.X that at this age the structure of affect is organised in two dimensions. The first dimension remains clearly “Catalan people/the other”, but in addition to this, the second dimension “political influence” shows the sensitivity of the adolescent to the complexity of the situation. For the first time the nationalities of Andalusia and Catalonia (jointly with Italy and France) are in the same group and in opposition to Spain (jointly with Germany and United Kingdom). It seems that adolescents configure the two groups in order to have in one extreme the nations (Spain) that hold a position of power over Catalonia and the nations that cannot (Andalusia), and under this structure the affect is expressed using the same criteria for Catalonia as for the second group, in opposition to the first group (i.e. the powerful countries).

In conclusion it can be asserted that children learn from a early age a kind of social knowledge, of common and practical sense that at the same time is shared with, and participates in the construction of reality. This is to say, children learn and construct social representations that become closer and closer to the adults’ social representation. It has been shown than younger children, with an adequate context can use the national categories in a similar way to older children but it also has to been studied if the meanings of these categories remain the same or change with age. Also, it has been shown how children’s representation becomes closer and closer to adult’s representation with age. It should not be forgotten that according to Wagner & Elejabarrieta (1994), Moscovici (1984), Jodelet (1989) and many others, social representations give to the individual a common knowledge specific to their group and others, and guide the members of the group to a common discursive space, without which communication in everyday life would be impossible. And children learn to use and negotiate the meaning of this world in their everyday experience with the closest adults to them, their parents. In this everyday experience, children negotiate the meaning of their national identification

and of others, the evaluation of the ingroup and the outgroups and the feelings towards them.

With the data presented in this study it would be easy to affirm that spatial and symbolic knowledge do not guide the process of national identity development and the representation of the own and of the other countries. The only consistent effect of these measures was related with the fact that obviously older children have more knowledge about the countries than younger. But the kind of measures used do not allow us to describe any process of acquisition of knowledge, maybe because our measures were too related with the knowledge transmitted by the school. New measures and more research is needed to know not only if the levels of children's representation described by Jahoda (1963), and Molero (1998) are present in Catalan children, but also to know if this process of development of symbolic knowledge guides, or is a consequence of, the development of national identity.

## **10.2 THE ROLE OF THE LANGUAGE SPOKEN AT HOME IN THE CONSTRUCTION OF NATIONAL IDENTITY**

From the conclusions of the first results chapter (i.e. Chapter 6) of this study it can be asserted that national identity in Catalonia is constructed around the nucleus of the language that children speak at home. Through all the study a consistent result can be seen, Castilian speaking children identify themselves as belonging to both national groups, that is Spanish and Catalan, and Catalan speakers identify themselves as only belonging to the Catalan group. Three main results help to maintain this conclusion.

First, Castilian speaking children attributed a high level of importance to the characteristics of being *Catalan* and *Spanish* while Catalan speaking children attributed high level only to their characteristic of being *Catalan*. Also, except at 12 years old, to be *Catalan* is more salient for the Catalan speakers than to be *Spanish* for the Castilian speaking children.

Second, in national identification tasks, while Castilian speaking children identify themselves as *both* (i.e. Spanish and Catalan), Catalan speakers identify as *Catalan* and bilingual children present a “U-shaped” pattern having 9 and 12 years old with more central scores (i.e. *both*).

Third, Castilian speaking children do not present favouritism effects between Spanish and Catalan people, but Catalan speakers clearly favour Catalan people more than Spanish people. Exactly the same situation is repeated in the measure of preferences, Castilian speaking children do not show any preference between Spanish and Catalan people, and Catalan speaking children show a clear preference for the Catalan people.

It has been said in chapter 3 that from the sociological discourse, the Catalan language is the differential trend of the Catalan community. Castilian speaking people, from a non-discriminatory environment, understand (or at least they understood during the 70's) that to learn Catalan or at least to favour their children learning Catalan language, is one more way (together with the improvement of the standard of living) towards integration in the Catalan community. This process of integration in the community implies the acceptance of the Catalan identity as a part of their own identity without renouncing their Spanish Identity. So, children who speak Castilian at home identify with the Catalan identity as a part of their own, together with the Spanish identity and without showing any preference or favouritism when these identities are compared. But in spite of this identification with the Catalan community, the contents, evaluation and feelings that Castilian speaking children present are significantly different to the Catalan speakers, so the question of what are the contents and feelings associated with this different Catalan identification becomes an interesting subject for future researches.

It should be noticed that despite the fact that it has been shown that the evaluation expressed of the Anglo-Saxon countries (i.e. Catalonia, Germany and United Kingdom) and the feelings expressed by the Catalan speaking children is clearly

different than the Castilian children, who like Spanish and Andalusian people more and evaluate them more favourably, some differences between both processes were found studying their factorial structures. The language spoken at home does not transmit the structure of similarities between the Spanish, Catalan and Andalusian nationalities (see section 8.2.2.1). This structure seems to be sensitive at the age of 12 years old to the socio-political context, “*tret diferencial català*” (Catalan differential characteristic), but not specifically transmitted at home, or at least not by the unique measure of this context that was used in this study, the family language. On the contrary the affect structure is transmitted by the family, or at least by the language spoken at home. Catalan speaking children are located in the Anglo-Saxon extreme while Castilian speaking children are located in the Latin countries extreme (i.e. Spain, Andalusia Italy and France).

So, the structure of affect towards the national groups is related with the family variable, and it would be very interesting to study the feelings parents of the children in the sample to be able to advance some kind of relationship between the beliefs and feelings of parents and their children. Recent research (Wilson 1998) shows that this relation is not direct or unidirectional, so it can be asserted that it is an important factor, but of course on its own does not explain the whole of the process of the development of national identity in children.

It is hoped that this study has gone towards furthering the understanding of the psychological mechanisms involved in the construction of national identity from childhood to adolescence. Children construct national realities and this process varies with age and with the political, cultural and linguistic environment in which they live and grow up. The whole study has prompted new objectives of research and interest for the complex and passionate phenomenon that is the acquisition of national identity.

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<b>12.APPENDICES</b> .....	163
Appendix 1: Interview Schedule.....	165
Appendix 2: Interview answer form.....	187
Appendix 3: Tables of Subjective Identification and National Identification.....	191
Appendix 4: Correspondence analysis by age.....	199
Appendix 5: Knowledge of countries.....	201
Appendix 6: National stereotypes, evaluations and feelings.....	205

## A-1. INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

### 1. INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR 6- AND 9-YEAR-OLDS

#### **Subject Details**

**Hi. My name is ....** (interviewer's name). **Can we begin by writing down your name and age? First of all, can you tell me what your name is? .... And when is your birthday?** etc.

Obtain sufficient information to be able to complete the following:

Date of interview:

Name of interviewer:

Child's full name:

Child's school:

Child's class:

Child's date of birth:

Child's age in years and months:

Child's gender:

Ordinal number of child being tested:

#### **Introduction**

**Now then, ....** (child's name), **I'm here today to talk to lots of children. I'm trying to write a book for children, and so to get my book just right, I thought I'd better come and talk to some children to find out what they know, think and feel about the things that I'm writing about. This means it's your own ideas and thoughts that count. There are no right and wrong answers, and if you're not sure about anything I ask you, just tell me. Do you think you'll be able to help me with that? That's great.**

#### **Section 1 -Subjective Identification and National Identification**

1.1 Interviewer spreads Card Set A out in front of the child in a different randomized order for each individual child.

**Have a look at these cards. All these words can be used to describe people. Which ones do you think could be used to describe you, which ones do you think you are. You can choose as many as you like. Shall I help you to read them?**

Put away the rejected cards; spread the cards that the child has selected in a random order on the table.



**So, all these cards describe you. But if you had to choose just one of these cards because it was the most important to you, which one would you choose?**

Remove chosen card from set.

**And which one is the next most important to you?**

Remove chosen card from set; repeat procedure until all cards except one have been chosen, using the following instructions:

**And out of these, which is the next most important to you?**

**And which one is the next most important to you?**

**And out of these ones that are left, which is the next most important to you?**

Record order of choice:

1st  
2nd  
3rd  
4th  
5th  
6th

1.2 Interviewer spreads Card Set B out from left to right in front of the child in the following order:

very Spanish [ ] little bit Spanish [ ] not at all Spanish [ ] don't know [ ] other:

**Which one of these do you think best describes you?**

1.3 Spread Card Set C out in front of the child in the following order:

very Catalan [ ] little bit Catalan [ ] not at all Catalan [ ] don't know [ ] other:

**Which one of these do you think best describes you?**

1.4 Spread Card Set D out in front of the child in the following order:

Catalan [ ] more Catalan than Spanish [ ] both Catalan and Spanish [ ] more Spanish than Catalan [ ] Spanish [ ] don't know [ ] other:

**And which one of these do you think best describes you?**

## Section 2 - Geographical Knowledge

Display the map of Europe on the table, and have a pencil available to give to the child.

**2.1 Now, I have a map of Europe here, the part of the world where Spain is. Can you show me where Spain is?** (For this and subsequent questions up to 2.7, the child needs to point to the correct country on the map.)

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**2.2 And {Italy}, can you show me where that is, or not?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**2.3 Now try to find {Great Britain} if you can.**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**2.4 Now {France}.**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**2.5 And where is {Germany}, can you show me that?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**2.6 Can you show me where Catalonia is?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**2.7 And can you show me where Andalucia is?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

N.B. To leave questions 2.6 and 2.7 at the end of the preceding sequence of questions, but counterbalance the order in which these final two questions are asked.

General point: For questions 2.8 to 2.21, use the name of the capital city that the child provides, and write it down.

**2.8 Now, let's talk a bit about the cities in these countries. What is the name of the capital of Spain?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**2.9 And using this pencil (give the pencil to the child), can you mark on the map where {Madrid}/..... is?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know   
good approx  other:

**2.10 Perhaps you know some other capitals, let's see. Can you tell me the name of the capital of {Italy}?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**2.11 Can you mark on the map where {Rome}/..... is?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know   
good approx  other:

**2.12 And the capital of {Great Britain}, do you know what it is, or not?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**2.13 Mark on the map where you think {London}/..... is.**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know   
good approx  other:

**2.14 Do you know the name of the capital of {France}, or not?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**2.15 Now, can you mark {Paris}/ ..... on the map?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know   
good approx  other:

**2.16 Can you tell me which is the capital of {Germany}?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**2.17 And mark on the map where {Berlin}/{Bonn}/ ..... is, or not?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know   
good approx  other:

N.B. accept both Berlin and Bonn as correct

**2.18 Can you tell me what the capital of {Catalonia} is?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**2.19 And where is {Barcelona}/ ..... on the map? Can you mark it?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know

good approx  other:

**2.20 And finally, can you tell me what the capital of {Andalucia} is?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**2.21 And where is {Sevilla}/ ..... on the map? Can you mark that for me?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know

good approx  other:

N.B.To leave questions 2.18 to 2.21 at the end of the preceding sequence of questions, but counterbalance the order in which 2.18/2.19 and 2.20/2.21 are asked.

### **Section 3 - Identification Of Flags**

Interviewer spreads Card Set E out in front of the child in a different randomized order for each individual child.

**3.1 Now I have some flags here. Can you find the Spanish flag?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**3.2 And the {Italian} flag, can you find it?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**3.3 Now try to find the {British} flag, can you?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**3.4 Do you know which one is the {French} flag?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**3.5 Can you tell me which one is the {German} flag?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**3.6 And the {Catalan} flag, can you find it?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**3.7 And do you know which one is the {Andalucian} flag?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

N.B. To leave questions 3.6 and 3.7 at the end of the preceding sequence of questions, but counterbalance the order in which these final two questions are asked.

### Section 4 - Identification of Famous People

**4.1 You have told me a lot of/some things about Spain, Italy, Great Britain, France and Germany. Do you also know the names of any famous people from these countries, which you may have heard of at school or at home?**

Record actual names of people given by the child below. Record all responses, including names of fictional and cartoon characters, etc.

ITALY    SPAIN    GREAT BRITAIN    FRANCE    GERMANY

correct.....

.....

wrong

.....

.....

**4.2 Now, can you tell me the names of famous people who come specifically from Catalonia and Andalucia? You can include people who you've mentioned already to me.**

ANDALUCIA            CATALONIA

correct

.....

.....

wrong

.....

.....

## Section 5 - National Stereotypes and Affect

### 5.1 Now then, let's do something different.

Take out card set H, arranged in a single pile, and show it to the child so that he/she can see the word on the first card; the order of the cards within the pile should be randomized separately for each individual child.

**Here are some cards with words on them that describe people. So, we can say that some people are** (word on first card). (Remove first card, and show the child the second card) **And some people are** (word on second card). (Remove second card) **And some people are** (word on third card). **Right? Now, what I want you to do is to go through all these words one by one, and I want you to sort out those words which you think can be used to describe Spanish people. Can you do that for me please?** (Give child the complete set of cards) **Sort out the words which you think describe Spanish people.** (Put a tick in the boxes below against those adjectives selected by the child).

Dirty.....[ ]	Clean.....[ ]
Friendly.....[ ]	Unfriendly.....[ ]
Clever.....[ ]	Stupid.....[ ]
Lazy.....[ ]	Hardworking....[ ]
Happy.....[ ]	Sad.....[ ]
Honest.....[ ]	Dishonest.....[ ]

Gather up the cards in a randomly ordered pile, ready for the next target nationality.

### 5.2 Now, I just want to ask you one more thing about Spanish people. Do you like or dislike Spanish people?

If child says like or dislike: **How much? Do you like/dislike them a lot or a little?**

like a lot [ ]   like a little [ ]   dislike a little [ ]   dislike a lot [ ]   don't know [ ]  
other:

N.B. Use "other" category when child expresses either ambivalent feelings, or expresses differences in feeling according to situation or individuals involved, etc. When using "other" category, record reply verbatim.

### 5.3 Right now, let's do the same thing again, but this time thinking about {French} people. (Give the child the set of randomly ordered cards). Can you sort out for me those words which you think can be used to describe {French} people?

Dirty.....[ ]	Clean.....[ ]
Friendly.....[ ]	Unfriendly.....[ ]
Clever.....[ ]	Stupid.....[ ]
Lazy.....[ ]	Hardworking....[ ]
Happy.....[ ]	Sad.....[ ]
Honest.....[ ]	Dishonest.....[ ]

Gather up the cards in a randomly ordered pile, ready for the next target nationality.

**5.4 That's very good. Now tell me, do you like or dislike {French} people?**

If child says like or dislike: **How much? Do you like/dislike them a lot or a little?**

like a lot [ ] like a little [ ] dislike a little [ ] dislike a lot [ ] don't know [ ]  
other:

**5.5 Right, next, can you think about {Italian} people for me? (Give the child the set of randomly ordered cards). Can you sort out for me those words which you think can be used to describe {Italian} people?**

Dirty.....[ ]	Clean.....[ ]
Friendly.....[ ]	Unfriendly.....[ ]
Clever.....[ ]	Stupid.....[ ]
Lazy.....[ ]	Hardworking....[ ]
Happy.....[ ]	Sad.....[ ]
Honest.....[ ]	Dishonest.....[ ]

Gather up the cards in a randomly ordered pile, ready for the next target nationality.

**5.6 Excellent. And tell me, do you like or dislike {Italian} people?**

If child says like or dislike: **How much? Do you like/dislike them a lot or a little?**

like a lot [ ] like a little [ ] dislike a little [ ] dislike a lot [ ] don't know [ ]  
other:

**5.7 Good. Now can you think about {British} people for me? (Give the child the set of randomly ordered cards). Can you sort out those words which you think can be used to describe {British} people?**

Dirty.....[ ]	Clean.....[ ]
Friendly.....[ ]	Unfriendly.....[ ]
Clever.....[ ]	Stupid.....[ ]
Lazy.....[ ]	Hardworking....[ ]
Happy.....[ ]	Sad.....[ ]
Honest.....[ ]	Dishonest.....[ ]

Gather up the cards in a randomly ordered pile, ready for the next target nationality.

**5.8 Very good. And do you like or dislike {British} people?**

If child says like or dislike: **How much? Do you like/dislike them a lot or a little?**

like a lot [ ] like a little [ ] dislike a little [ ] dislike a lot [ ] don't know [ ]  
other:

**5.9 Good. Let's now think about {German} people.** (Give the child the set of randomly ordered cards). **Can you sort out for me those words which you think can be used to describe {German} people?**

Dirty.....[ ]	Clean.....[ ]
Friendly.....[ ]	Unfriendly.....[ ]
Clever.....[ ]	Stupid.....[ ]
Lazy.....[ ]	Hardworking....[ ]
Happy.....[ ]	Sad.....[ ]
Honest.....[ ]	Dishonest.....[ ]

Gather up the cards in a randomly ordered pile, ready for the next target nationality.

**5.10 Very good. And do you like or dislike {German} people?**

If child says like or dislike: **How much? Do you like/dislike them a lot or a little?**

like a lot [ ] like a little [ ] dislike a little [ ] dislike a lot [ ] don't know [ ]  
other:

**5.11 Just a couple more to do now. Can you think about {Catalan} people for me?** (Give the child the set of randomly ordered cards). **Can you sort out those words which you think can be used to describe {Catalan} people?**

Dirty.....[ ]	Clean.....[ ]
Friendly.....[ ]	Unfriendly.....[ ]
Clever.....[ ]	Stupid.....[ ]
Lazy.....[ ]	Hardworking....[ ]
Happy.....[ ]	Sad.....[ ]
Honest.....[ ]	Dishonest.....[ ]

Gather up the cards in a randomly ordered pile, ready for the next target nationality.

**5.12 That's very good indeed. And can you tell me whether you like or dislike {Catalan} people?**

If child says like or dislike: **How much? Do you like/dislike them a lot or a little?**

like a lot [ ] like a little [ ] dislike a little [ ] dislike a lot [ ] don't know [ ]  
other:

**5.13 And finally, can you now think about {Andalucian} people?** (Give the child the set of randomly ordered cards). **Can you sort out for me those words which you think can be used to describe {Andalucian} people?**



Dirty.....[ ]	Clean.....[ ]
Friendly.....[ ]	Unfriendly.....[ ]
Clever.....[ ]	Stupid.....[ ]
Lazy.....[ ]	Hardworking....[ ]
Happy.....[ ]	Sad.....[ ]
Honest.....[ ]	Dishonest.....[ ]

Gather up the cards.

#### 5.14 That's really excellent. And do you like or dislike {Andalucian} people?

If child says like or dislike: **How much? Do you like/dislike them a lot or a little?**

like a lot [ ] like a little [ ] dislike a little [ ] dislike a lot [ ] don't know [ ]  
other:

N.B.To leave questions 5.11 to 5.14 at the end of the preceding sequence of questions, but counterbalance the order in which 5.11/5.12 and 5.13/5.14 are asked.

### Section 6 - National Self-Esteem

Throughout this section, the questions should use either the national identity term whichever has been ranked in question 1.1 as the more important by the child being interviewed; be consistent throughout this section, using the same constant term for all questions.

**Right. Let's talk about some other things now.**

#### 6.1 Can you tell me, what sort of things make you feel really glad or happy that you are {Spanish /Catalan}?

Record reply verbatim.

**I have a card here with some faces on it** (show Card I with the five "smiley" faces on it). **This face is very happy** (point to left face), **this one is quite happy** (point to next face), **this one is neither happy nor unhappy** (point to middle face), **this one is quite sad** (point to fourth face), **and the last one is very sad** (point to fifth face). **How about you? Which face shows how you feel most of the time?**

**So, you feel ..... most of the time? Good.**

#### 6.2 And, which face shows how you feel about being {Spanish/Catalan}?

very happy [ ] quite happy [ ] neutral [ ] quite sad [ ] very sad [ ]

### Section 7 - Child's Social Niche

**You are doing really well, and helping me a lot. We're almost finished now; I have just a few more questions for you.**

**7.1 Do you speak any other languages apart from {Castilian/Catalan}?**

no  yes , specify:

**7.2 What language (or languages) do you speak with your parents at home?**

Record reply verbatim.

**7.3 Have you ever been to any other countries?**

no  yes , specify:

If yes: **And how long were you in .... ?** (Record number of weeks)

If more than one other country visited: **How long were you in .... ?** (Record number of weeks)

If more than two other countries visited: **And how long were you in .... ?** (Record number of weeks)

Repeat until all other countries visited are exhausted.

**7.4 Can you tell me where your parents come from? Firstly, what about your mother, where does she come from?**

Catalonia  Other region within Spain  Other country

**7.5 And your father, where does he come from?**

Catalonia  Other region within Spain  Other country

**7.6 And where were you born? Can you tell me?**

Catalonia  Other region within Spain  Other country

**Thank you so much for all your help today. You've really helped me with my book. Thank you.**

## 2. INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR 12- AND 15-YEAR-OLDS

### Subject Details

**Hi. My name is .... (interviewer's name). Can we begin by writing down your name and age? First of all, can you tell me what your name is? .... And when is your birthday? etc.**

Obtain sufficient information to be able to complete the following:

Date of interview:

Nam of interviewer:

Child's full name:

Child's school:

Child's class:

Child's date of birth:

Child's age in years and months:

Child's gender:

Ordinal number of child being tested:

### Introduction

**Now then, .... (child's name), I'm here today to talk to lots of kids. I'm trying to write a book for young people, and so to get my book right, I thought I'd better come and talk to some people your age to find out what they know, think and feel about the things that I'm writing about. This means it's your own ideas and thoughts that count. There are no right and wrong answers, and if you're not sure about anything I ask you, just say so. I've also been talking to some children who are a lot younger than you, so some of the questions may sound very easy and a bit peculiar, while others may be harder. I hope that sounds all right, and you'll be able to help me with my book. Great, let's get started.**

### Section 1 - -Subjective Identification and National Identification

1.1 Interviewer spreads Card Set A out in front of the child in a different randomized order for each individual child.

**Have a look at these words that can be used to describe people. Which ones do you think could be used to describe you? You can choose as many as you like.**

Put away the rejected cards; spread the cards that the child has selected in a random order on the table.

**So, all these cards describe you. But if you had to choose just one of these cards because it was the most important to you, which one would you choose?**

Remove chosen card from set.

**And which one is the next most important to you?**

Remove chosen card from set; repeat procedure until all cards except one have been chosen, using the following instructions:

**And out of these, which is the next most important to you?**

**And which one is the next most important to you?**

**And out of these ones that are left, which is the next most important to you?**

Record order of choice:

1st  
2nd  
3rd  
4th  
5th  
6th

1.2 Interviewer spreads Card Set B out from left to right in front of the child in the following order:

very Spanish [ ] little bit Spanish [ ] not at all Spanish [ ] don't know [ ] other:

**Which one of these do you think best describes you?**

1.4 For Surrey/Dundee only and Girona/Malaga only, spread Card Set C out in front of the child in the following order:

very Catalan [ ] little bit Catalan [ ] not at all Catalan [ ] don't know [ ] other:

**Which one of these do you think best describes you?**

1.5 Spread Card Set D out in front of the child in the following order:

Catalan [ ] more Catalan than Spanish [ ] both Catalan and Spanish [ ] more Spanish than Catalan [ ] Spanish [ ] don't know [ ] other:

**And which one of these do you think best describes you?**

## Section 2 - Geographical Knowledge

Display the map of Europe on the table, and have a pencil available to give to the child.

**2.1 Now, I have a map of Europe here, the part of the world where {Italy} is. Can you show me where Spain is?** (For this and subsequent questions up to 2.7, the child needs to point to the correct country on the map.)

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**2.2 And {Italy}, can you show me where that is, or not?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**2.3 Now try to find {Great Britain} if you can.**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**2.4 Now {France}.**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**2.5 And where is {Germany}, can you show me that?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**2.6 Can you show me where {Catalonia} is?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**2.7 And can you show me where {Andalucia} is?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

N.B. To leave questions 2.6 and 2.7 at the end of the preceding sequence of questions, but counterbalance the order in which these final two questions are asked.

General point: For questions 2.8 to 2.21, use the name of the capital city that the child provides, and write it down.

**2.8 Now, let's talk a bit about the cities in these countries. What is the name of the capital of Spain?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**2.9 And using this pencil (give the pencil to the child), can you mark on the map where {Madrid}/..... is?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  good approx  other:

**2.10 Perhaps you know some other capitals, let's see. Can you tell me the name of the capital of {Italy}?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**2.11 Can you mark on the map where {Rome}/..... is?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  good approx  other:

**2.12 And the capital of {Great Britain}, do you know what it is, or not?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**2.13 Mark on the map where you think {London}/..... is.**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  good approx  other:

**2.14 Do you know the name of the capital of {France}, or not?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**2.15 Now, can you mark {Paris}/ ..... on the map?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  good approx  other:

**2.16 Can you tell me which is the capital of {Germany}?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**2.17 And mark on the map where {Berlin}/{Bonn}/ ..... is, or not?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  good approx  other:  
N.B. accept both Berlin and Bonn as correct

**2.18 Can you tell me what the capital of {Catalonia} is?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**2.19 And where is {Barcelona}/ ..... on the map? Can you mark it?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  good approx  other:

**2.20 And finally, can you tell me what the capital of {Andalucia} is?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**2.21 And where is {Sevilla}/ ..... on the map? Can you mark that for me?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  good approx  other:

N.B. To leave questions 2.18 to 2.21 at the end of the preceding sequence of questions, but counterbalance the order in which 2.18/2.19 and 2.20/2.21 are asked.

### **Section 3 - Identification Of Flags**

Interviewer spreads Card Set E out in front of the child in a different randomized order for each individual child.

**3.1 Now I have some flags here. Can you find the Spanish flag?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**3.2 And the {Italian} flag, can you find it?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**3.3 Now try to find the {British} flag, can you?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**3.4 Do you know which one is the {French} flag?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**3.5 Can you tell me which one is the {German} flag?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**3.6 And the {Catalan} flag, can you find it?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

**3.7 And do you know which one is the {Andalucian} flag?**

yes, correct  yes, wrong  don't know  other:

N.B.To leave questions 3.6 and 3.7 at the end of the preceding sequence of questions, but counterbalance the order in which these final two questions are asked.





## Section 5 - National Stereotypes and Affect

### 5.1 Now then, let's do something different.

Take out card set H, arranged in a single pile, and show it to the child so that he/she can see the word on the first card; the order of the cards within the pile should be randomized separately for each individual child.

**Here are some cards with words on them that describe people. So, some people are** (word on first card), **and some people are** (word on second card), **and so on** (show some of the cards to the child). **Now, what I would like you to do is to go through these cards, and sort out those words which you think can be used to describe Spanish people. Could you do that for me please?** (Give child the complete set of cards.) **Sort out those words which you think describe Spanish people.** (Put a tick in the boxes below against those adjectives selected by the child.)

Dirty.....[ ]	Clean.....[ ]
Friendly.....[ ]	Unfriendly.....[ ]
Clever.....[ ]	Stupid.....[ ]
Lazy.....[ ]	Hardworking....[ ]
Happy.....[ ]	Sad.....[ ]
Honest.....[ ]	Dishonest.....[ ]

Gather up the cards in a randomly ordered pile, ready for the next target nationality.

### 5.2 Now, I just want to ask you one more thing about {Italian} people. Do you like or dislike Spanish people?

If child says like or dislike: **How much? Do you like/dislike them a lot or a little?**

like a lot [ ]   like a little [ ]   dislike a little [ ]   dislike a lot [ ]   don't know [ ]  
other:

N.B. Use "other" category when child expresses either ambivalent feelings, or expresses differences in feeling according to situation or individuals involved, etc. When using "other" category, record reply verbatim.

### 5.3 Right, can you now do the same thing again, but this time thinking about {French} people. (Give the child the set of randomly ordered cards.) Can you sort out those words which you think can be used to describe {French} people?

Dirty.....[ ]	Clean.....[ ]
Friendly.....[ ]	Unfriendly.....[ ]
Clever.....[ ]	Stupid.....[ ]
Lazy.....[ ]	Hardworking....[ ]
Happy.....[ ]	Sad.....[ ]
Honest.....[ ]	Dishonest.....[ ]

Gather up the cards in a randomly ordered pile, ready for the next target nationality.

#### 5.4 Good. Now tell me, do you like or dislike {French} people?

If child says like or dislike: **How much? Do you like/dislike them a lot or a little?**

like a lot [ ] like a little [ ] dislike a little [ ] dislike a lot [ ] don't know [ ]  
other:

**5.5 Right, next, can you think about {Italian} people?** (Give the child the set of randomly ordered cards). **Can you sort out those words which you think can be used to describe {Italian} people?**

Dirty.....[ ]	Clean.....[ ]
Friendly.....[ ]	Unfriendly.....[ ]
Clever.....[ ]	Stupid.....[ ]
Lazy.....[ ]	Hardworking....[ ]
Happy.....[ ]	Sad.....[ ]
Honest.....[ ]	Dishonest.....[ ]

Gather up the cards in a randomly ordered pile, ready for the next target nationality.

#### 5.6 Very good. And tell me, do you like or dislike {Italian} people?

If child says like or dislike: **How much? Do you like/dislike them a lot or a little?**

like a lot [ ] like a little [ ] dislike a little [ ] dislike a lot [ ] don't know [ ]  
other:

**5.7 Good. Now can you think about {British} people?** (Give the child the set of randomly ordered cards). **Can you sort out those words which you think can be used to describe {British} people?**

Dirty.....[ ]	Clean.....[ ]
Friendly.....[ ]	Unfriendly.....[ ]
Clever.....[ ]	Stupid.....[ ]
Lazy.....[ ]	Hardworking....[ ]
Happy.....[ ]	Sad.....[ ]
Honest.....[ ]	Dishonest.....[ ]

Gather up the cards in a randomly ordered pile, ready for the next target nationality.

#### 5.8 Very good. And do you like or dislike {British} people?

If child says like or dislike: **How much? Do you like/dislike them a lot or a little?**

like a lot [ ] like a little [ ] dislike a little [ ] dislike a lot [ ] don't know [ ]  
other:

**5.9 Good. Let's now think about {German} people.** (Give the child the set of randomly ordered cards). **Can you sort out those words which you think can be used to describe {German} people?**

Dirty.....[ ]	Clean.....[ ]
Friendly.....[ ]	Unfriendly.....[ ]
Clever.....[ ]	Stupid.....[ ]
Lazy.....[ ]	Hardworking....[ ]
Happy.....[ ]	Sad.....[ ]
Honest.....[ ]	Dishonest.....[ ]

Gather up the cards in a randomly ordered pile, ready for the next target nationality.

**5.10 Very good. And do you like or dislike {German} people?**

If child says like or dislike: **How much? Do you like/dislike them a lot or a little?**

like a lot [ ] like a little [ ] dislike a little [ ] dislike a lot [ ] don't know [ ]  
other:

**5.11 Just a couple more to do now. Can you think about {Catalan} people?** (Give the child the set of randomly ordered cards). **Can you sort out those words which you think can be used to describe {Catalan} people?**

Dirty.....[ ]	Clean.....[ ]
Friendly.....[ ]	Unfriendly.....[ ]
Clever.....[ ]	Stupid.....[ ]
Lazy.....[ ]	Hardworking....[ ]
Happy.....[ ]	Sad.....[ ]
Honest.....[ ]	Dishonest.....[ ]

Gather up the cards in a randomly ordered pile, ready for the next target nationality.

**5.12 That's very good. And can you tell me whether you like or dislike {Catalan} people?**

If child says like or dislike: **How much? Do you like/dislike them a lot or a little?**

like a lot [ ] like a little [ ] dislike a little [ ] dislike a lot [ ] don't know [ ]  
other:

**5.13 And finally, can you now think about {Andalucian} people?** (Give the child the set of randomly ordered cards). **Can you sort out those words which you think can be used to describe {Andalucian} people?**

Dirty.....[ ]	Clean.....[ ]
Friendly.....[ ]	Unfriendly.....[ ]
Clever.....[ ]	Stupid.....[ ]
Lazy.....[ ]	Hardworking....[ ]
Happy.....[ ]	Sad.....[ ]
Honest.....[ ]	Dishonest.....[ ]

Gather up the cards.

**5.14 Good. And do you like or dislike {Andalucian} people?**

If child says like or dislike: How much? Do you like/dislike them a lot or a little?

like a lot [ ] like a little [ ] dislike a little [ ] dislike a lot [ ] don't know [ ]  
other:

N.B.To leave questions 5.11 to 5.14 at the end of the preceding sequence of questions, but counterbalance the order in which 5.11/5.12 and 5.13/5.14 are asked.

**Section 6 - National Self-Esteem**

Throughout this section, the questions should use either the national identity term whichever of these has been ranked in question 1.1 as the more important by the child being interviewed; be consistent throughout this section, using the same constant term for all questions.

**Right. Let's talk about some other things now.**

**6.1 Can you tell me, what sort of things make you feel really glad or happy that you are {Spanish/Catalan}?**

Record reply verbatim.

**I have some cards here (show Card Set J): very happy, quite happy, neither happy nor unhappy, quite sad and the last one is very sad.**

**6.2 And finally, which card shows how you feel about being {Spanish/Catalan}?**

very happy [ ] quite happy [ ] neutral [ ] quite sad [ ] very sad [ ]

**Section 7 - Child's Social Niche**

**We're almost finished now; I have just a few more questions.**

**7.1 Do you speak any other languages apart from {Castilian/Catalan}?**

no [ ] yes [ ], specify:

**7.2 What language (or languages) do you speak with your parents at home?**

Record reply verbatim.

**7.3 Have you ever been to any other countries?**

no  yes , specify:

If yes: **And how long were you in .... ?** (Record number of weeks)

If more than one other country visited: **How long were you in .... ?** (Record number of weeks)

If more than two other countries visited: **And how long were you in .... ?** (Record number of weeks)

Repeat until all other countries visited are exhausted.

**7.4 Can you tell me where your parents come from? Firstly, what about your mother, where does she come from?**

Catalonia  Other region within Spain  Other country

**7.5 And your father, where does he come from?**

Catalonia  Other region within Spain  Other country

**7.6 And where were you born? Can you tell me?**

Catalonia  Other region within Spain  Other country

**Thank you so much for all your help today. You've really helped me with my book. Thank you.**

**-2. INTERVIEW ANSWER FORM**

**INTERVIEW ANSWER FORM**

**PERSONAL DETAILS**

NAME	AND
SURNAME:.....	
ADRESS:.....	
.....	
.....	
AGE: ..... COURS:.....SEX:.....NºORDER:.....	
Birthday data: .....	
SCHOOL: .....	
INTERVIEWER: .....	DAY: .....
.....	

**Section.1 Subjective identification and national identification**

1.1	<table border="1" style="display: inline-table; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> </tr> </table>								
1.2. Spanish	<input type="checkbox"/>	1.3. Catalan	<input type="checkbox"/>	1.4. Catalan- Spanish	<input type="checkbox"/>				

**Section 2. Geographical Knowledge**

**Countries**

1. yes, c    2. yes, inc.    3. don't know    4. Others

2.1 Spa	2.2 Ita	2.3 Fran	2.4 Bri	2.5 Ger	2.6 Cat	2.7 And
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

### Capitals

1.yes, c. 2.yes, inc. 0. don't know 1.first 2.secon 3.country 4. out country

2.8 Spa			2.9	
2.10 Ita			2.11	
2.12 Ger			2.13	
2.14 Bri			2.15	
2.16 Fran			2.17	
2.18 Cat			2.19	
2.20 And			2.21	

### Section 3. Flags

1. yes, c 2. yes, inc. 0. don't know

3.1 Spa		
3.2 Ita		
3.3 Bri		
3.4 Ger		
3.5 Fran		
3.6 Cat		
3.7 And		

## Section 4. Identificació de Gent famosa

Famosos/es	B	M		B	M		B	M	
4.1 Spanish									
4.2 Italians									
4.3 British									
4.4 French									
4.5 German									
Famosos/es	B	M		B	M		B	M	
4.6 Catalans									
4.7 Andalusian									



**Secció 5. Estereotips Nacionals i Preferències**

	SPA 6.1	ITA 6.3	BRI 6.5	FRAN 6.7	GER 6.6	CAT 6.11	AND 6.13
DIRTY-CLEAN							
FRENDLY-UNFRIENDLY							
CLEVER-STUPID							
LAZY-HARDWORKING							
HAPPY-SAD							
HONEST-DISHONEST							
<b>VALORACIÓ</b>	6.2	6.4	6.6	6.8	6.10	6.12	6.14

1. like a lot 2. like a little 3. Dislike a little 5. dislike a lot 0. don't know

**Secció 6. National self-esteem**

**1.1** .....

1. very happy 2. quite happy 3. neutral 4. quite sad 5. very sad

6.2 Com et sents de ser 1.1 .....	
--------------------------------------	--

**Secció 7. Child's social niche**

7.1 Idioma.....
-----------------

7.2 A casa parlem.....
------------------------

7.3	Viatges a altres països.....	setmanes.....
	Viatges a altres països.....	setmanes.....
	Viatges a altres països.....	setmanes.....
	Viatges a altres països.....	setmanes.....
	Viatges a altres països.....	setmanes.....

1. Catalonia 2. other region within Spain 3. other country

7.4 La mare és de		.....
7.5 El pare és de		.....
7.6 Jo he nascut a		.....

### A-3. TABLES OF SUBJECTIVE IDENTIFICATION AND NATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

**Table A-3.I Castilian children's Subjective Identification; Mean and standard deviations (correspond to Table 6.I)**

TOTAL	AGE				
	6	9	12	15	
<b>sex</b>	1	1	1	1	
<b>X=10.1 sd=2.20</b>	2 X=10.0	2 X=11.2	2 X=9.97	X=9.21	
<b>F=17.53</b>	3 sd=0.44	3 sd=0.13	sd=0.30	sd=0.54	
<b>P&lt;0.0005</b>	<b>a</b>	<b>a b c</b>	<b>b</b>	<b>c</b>	
<b>age</b>	4	1	3	2	
<b>X=9.9 sd=1.62</b>	5 X=10.9	6 X=10.0	4 X=9.62	3 X=9.68	
<b>F=12.336</b>	6 sd=0.2	7 sd=0.18	sd=0.29	sd=0.31	
<b>P&lt;0.006</b>	<b>a b c</b>	<b>a</b>	<b>b</b>	<b>c</b>	
<b>Gironean</b>	1	2	1	4	
<b>X=7.46 sd=3.45</b>	4 X=6.45	6 X=7.38	3 X=7.5	X=8.18	
<b>F=2.1609</b>	sd=0.84	10 sd=0.50	5 sd=0.49	sd=0.56	
<b>P&lt;0.5397</b>			6		
<b>Catalan</b>	5	3	5	2	
<b>X=8.02 sd=3.37</b>	8 X=8.86	7 X=7.23	8 X=8.8	5 X=7.34	
<b>F=8.18</b>	9 sd=0.62	11 sd=0.50	sd=0.46	sd=0.65	
<b>P&lt;0.0424</b>	<b>a</b>	<b>a b</b>	<b>b</b>		
<b>Spanish</b>	2	4	6	5	
<b>X=8.5 sd=3.69</b>	6 X=7.0	8 X=8.0	9 X=9.1	6 X=9.37	
<b>F=6.089</b>	10 sd=0.80	12 sd=0.6	sd=0.5	sd=0.6	
<b>P&lt;0.10</b>					
<b>European</b>	3	5	2	1	
<b>X=4.6 sd=3.00</b>	7 X=2.8	9 X=4.5	4 X=4.58	3 X=6.03	
<b>F=11.387</b>	8 sd=0.09	10 sd=0.40	7 sd=0.40	4 sd=0.50	
<b>P&lt;0.0098</b>	<b>a</b>	<b>b</b>	<b>c</b>	<b>a b c</b>	
	10	12	9		

\*The subindex a,b,c,d, etc. show between which age groups significant differences were found within each row.

\*\*The subindex 1,2,3, etc show between which categories significant differences were found within each columns.

sex	age	Catalan	European
a. u=243.0 p<0.001	a. u=272.5 p<0.005	a. u= 323.5 p<0.04	a. u=174.5 p<0.0007
b. u=528.0 p< 0.0006	b. u=252.5 p< 0.001	b. u= 627.0 p<0.01	b. u=494.5 p<0.03
c. u=384.0 p<0.001	c. u=190.0 p<0.003		c. u=493.0 p<0.03
Friedman prove			
6 years old	X <sup>2</sup> =45.0138 p<0.00001		
9 years old	X <sup>2</sup> =78.4455 p<0.00001		
12 years old	X <sup>2</sup> =48.8794 p<0.00001		
15 years old	X <sup>2</sup> =20.5967 p<0.001		

Wilcoxon	6 years old	9 years old	12 years old	15 years old
sex-age		z=3.9 p<0.0001		
sex-Gironean	z=2.5 p<0.0009	z=5.1 p<0.00001	z=3.1 p<0.001	
sex-Catalan		z=5.1 p<0.00001		
sex-Spansih	z=2.4 p<0.013	z=3.6 p<0.0002		
sex-European	z=4.0 p<0.0001	z=5.5 p<0.00002	z=5.1 p<0.00001	z=3.0 p<0.002
age-Gironean	z=3.3 p<0.008	z=3.6 p<0.0003	z=2.8 p<0.0004	
age-Catalan	z=2.7 p<0.0006	z=3.4 p<0.0005		z=2.5 p<0.01
age-Spansih	z=3.1 p<0.09	z=2.7 p<0.0006		
age-European	z=4.1 p<0.00001	z=5.3 p<0.00001	z=4.8 p<0.00001	z=3.7 p<0.0002
Gironean-Catalan			z=2.2 p<0.02	
Gironean-Spansih			z=2.3 p<0.03	
Gironean-European	z=2.8 p<0.005	z=3.4 p<0.0006	z=2.3 p<0.03	z=2.6 p<0.008
Spanish-Catalan				z=2.3 p<0.0201
Spanish-European	z=3.0 p<0.0022	z=3.7 p<0.0002	z=4.7 z=0.0001	z=3.2 p<0.0014
Catalan-European	z=3.7 p<0.0002	z=3.5 p<0.0004	z=4.7 p<0.0001	

**Table A-3.II Catalan children's Subjective Identification;  
Means and Standard deviation (correspond to Table 6.II.)**

TOTAL	AGE							
	1	6	1	9	1	12	1	15
<b>sex</b>	1		1		1		1	
<b>X=9.8 sd=2.18</b>	2	X=9.8	2	X=10.4	2	X=9.7	2	X=9.6
<b>F=8.99</b>	3	sd=0.27	3	sd=0.24	3	sd=0.24	3	sd=0.27
<b>P=0.0294</b>	4		4	<b>a b</b>	4	<b>a</b>		<b>b</b>
<b>age</b>	1		1		1		4	
<b>X=9.9 sd=1.41</b>	5	X=10.7	5	X=9.8	5	X=9.3	5	X=9.7
<b>F=39.75</b>	6	sd=0.13	6	sd=0.15	6	sd=0.15	6	sd=0.18
<b>P=0.00001</b>	7	<b>a b c</b>		<b>a d</b>	7	<b>b d</b>		<b>c</b>
	8				8			
<b>Gironean</b>	2		2		5		7	
<b>X=9.1 sd=2.94</b>	5	X=8.3	7	X=8.6	9	X=10.1	8	X=9.70
<b>F=8.57</b>	9	sd=0.40	8	sd=0.43	10	sd=0.23	9	sd=0.25
<b>P=0.0356</b>	10	<b>a</b>		<b>b</b>		<b>a b</b>		
<b>Catalan</b>	6		9		2		1	
<b>X=10.3 sd=2.25</b>	11	X=9.5	10	X=10.2	6	X=10.6	4	X=11.04
<b>F=24.15</b>	12	sd=0.31		sd=0.27	11	sd=0.22	7	sd=0.21
<b>P=0.00001</b>		<b>a b</b>		<b>c</b>	12	<b>a</b>	10	<b>b c</b>
							11	
<b>Spanish</b>	3		3		3		2	
<b>X=4.6 sd=3.03</b>	7	X=4.25	5	X=4.70	7	X=5.56	5	X=3.90
<b>F=14.765</b>	9	sd=0.33	7	sd=0.36	9	sd=0.40	8	sd=0.33
<b>P=0.0020</b>	12	<b>a</b>	10	<b>b</b>	12	<b>c</b>	11	<b>a b c</b>
	13				13		12	
<b>European</b>	4		4		4		3	
<b>X=5.8 sd=3.20</b>	8	X=3.30	6	X=5.50	8	X=7.47	6	X=7.46
<b>F=70.26</b>	10	sd=0.19	8	sd=0.41	10	sd=0.38	9	sd=0.30
<b>P=0.00001</b>	11	<b>a b c</b>	9	<b>a d e</b>	11	<b>b d</b>	10	<b>c e</b>
	13				13		12	

\*The subindex a,b,c,d, etc. show between which age groups significant differences were found within each row.

\*\*The subindex 1,2,3, etc show between which categories significant differences were found within each columns.

sex	age	Catalan	Gironean	Spanish	European
a. u=1558.0 p<0.0123	a.u=1417.0 p<0.00001	a. u=185.5 p=0.0031	a. u=1894.5 p=0.0073	a. u=1788.5 p=0.0001	a. u=1559.0 p=0.0001
b. u=1635.0 p<0.0090	b. u=1132.0 p<0.00001	b. u=1511.0 p=0.00001	b. u=1647.0 p=0.0392	b. u=1563.5 p=0.0025	b. u=1026.5 p=0.00001
	c.u=1648.5 p<0.00001	c. u= 1613.0 p=0.0007		c. u=1809.0 p=0.0118	c. u=750.0 p=0.00001
	d.u=1612.0 p<0.0237				d. u=1465.0 p=0.0033
					e. u=1439.5 p=0.0004

**Friedman prove**

6 years old  $X^2=171.3998$  p=0.00001

9 years old  $X^2=127.1578$  p=0.0001

12 years old  $X^2=112.8200$  p=0.00001

15 years old  $X^2=168.5389$  p=0.0001

Wilcoxon	6 years old	9 years old	12 years old	15 years old
sex-age	z=2.4 p<0.01	z=3.1 p<0.0019	z=2.57 p<0.01	
sex-Gironean	z=2.3 p<0.01	z=2.9 p<0.003		
sex-Catalan			z=2.8 p<0.004	z=3.9 p<0.0001
sex-Spansih	z=6.4 p<0.0001	z=6.0 p<0.00001	z=5.6 p<0.00001	z=6.59 p<0.00001
sex-European	z=7.2 p<0.0001	z=6.0 p<0.0001	z=3.6 p<0.0003	z=4.37 p<0.00001
age-Gironean	z=3.9 p<0.0001		z=3.1 p<0.001	
age-Catalan	z=2.2 p<0.02		z=4.2 p<0.00001	z=4.3 p<0.00001
age-Spansih	z=7.3 p<0.00001	z=6.4 p<0.00001	z=5.8 p<0.00001	z=6.9 p<0.00001
age-European	z=7.5 p<0.00001	z=5.8 p<0.0001	z=3.5 p<0.0003	z=4.9 p<0.00001
Gironean-Catalan				z=4.6 p<0.00001
Gironean-Spanish	z=5.7 p<0.0001	z=4.9 p<0.0001	z=6.3 p<0.0001	z=6.8 p<0.00001
Gironean-European	z=6.3 p<0.00001	z=3.8 p<0.0001	z=4.8 p<0.00001	z=4.9 p<0.0001
Spanish-Catalan	z=-6.6 p=0.00001	z=-6.4 p=0.00001	z=-6.5 p=0.00001	z=-7.0 p=0.00001
Spanish-European	z=-2.7 p=0.0068		z=-3.1 p=0.0017	z=-5.6 p=0.00001
Catalan-European	z=-6.9 p=0.00001	z=-6.1 p=0.00001	z=-5.9 p=0.00001	z=-6.6 p=0.00001

**Table A-3.III Bilingual children's Subjective Identification; Means and Standard deviation(correspond to Table 6.III.)**

TOTAL	AGE				
	6	9	12	15	
<b>sex</b>	1	1	1	1	
<b>X=10.3 sd=1.96</b>	2 X=11.1	2 X=10.5	2 X=10.3	X=9.2	
<b>F=7.8100</b>	3 sd=0.31	3 sd=0.27	sd=0.51	sd=0.63	
<b>P=0.0499</b>	<b>a</b>	<b>4</b>		<b>a</b>	
<b>age</b>	4	1	3		
<b>X=9.7 sd=1.61</b>	5 X=10.5	5 X=9.8	4 X=9.9	X=8.6	
<b>F=9.245</b>	6 sd=0.22	6 sd=0.26	sd=0.28	sd=0.60	
<b>P=0.0263</b>	<b>a</b>			<b>a</b>	
Gironean	1	2			
X=8.1 sd=3.51	4 X=7.00	7 X=7.95	X=8.55	X=9.0	
F=2.948	7 sd=0.98	8 sd=0.77	sd=0.74	sd=0.87	
P=0.3997					
Catalan	8	9	5	1	
X=9.7 sd=2.55	9 X=9.7	10 X=10.3	X=9.3	X=9.60	
F=3.175	sd=0.59	sd=0.48	sd=0.64	sd=0.74	
P=0.3654					
Spanish	2	3	1		
X=5.9 sd=3.47	5 X=4.8	5 X=5.5	3 X=6.7	X=6.6	
F=2.0074	8 sd=0.86	7 sd=0.74	5 sd=0.71	sd=1.01	
P=0.5709		9			
<b>European</b>	3	4	2	1	
<b>X=5.4 sd=3.40</b>	6 X=3.5	6 X=3.8	X=7.0	X=7.3	
<b>F=17.5845</b>	7 sd=0.58	8 sd=0.60	sd=0.74	sd=0.87	
<b>P=0.0005</b>	9 <b>a b</b>	10 <b>c d</b>	<b>a c</b>	<b>b d</b>	

\*The subindex a,b,c,d, etc. show between which age groups significant differences were found within each row.

\*\*The subindex 1,2,3, etc show between which categories significant differences were found within each column.

sex	age	European		
a. u=47.0 p<0.0091	a. u=45.5 p<0.0078	a. u=67.0 p<0.0068	b. u=43.5 p<0.0026	c. u=109.5 p<0.0041
		d. u=66.5 p<0.0014		
<b>Friedman prove</b>				
6 years old	X <sup>2</sup> =35.7019 p<0.00001			
9 years old	X <sup>2</sup> =41.2585 p<0.00001			
12 years old	X <sup>2</sup> =21.1974 p<0.0007			
15 years old	X <sup>2</sup> =8.1337 p<0.1490			
<b>Wilcoxon</b>	<b>6 years old</b>	<b>9 years old</b>	<b>12 years old</b>	<b>15 years old</b>
sex-age		z=2.7 p<0.006		
sex-Gironean	z=2.8 p<0.0004	z=2.2 p<0.02		
sex-Spansih	z=3.1 p<0.001	z=3.6 p<0.0002	z=3.1 p<0.006	
sex-European	z=3.2 p<0.001	z=3.9 p<0.0001	z=2.7 p<0.0068	
age-Gironean	z=2.4 p<0.01			
age-Spansih	z=3.1 p<0.009	z=3.3 p<0.0007	z=3.09 p<0.001	
age-European	z=3.23 p<0.001	z=3.9 p<0.0001	z=2.9 p<0.003	
Gironean-Spanish		z=2.1 p<0.03		
Gironean-European	z=2.3 p<0.01	z=3.15 p<0.001		
Spanish-Catalan	z=-2.4 p=0.0144	z=-3.4 p=0.00001	z=-2.2 p=0.0251	
Spanish-European				
Catalan-European	z=-3.1 p=0.0091	z=-3.8 p=0.0001		z=-2.1 p=0.0330

**Table A-3.IV 6 years old children's Subjective Identification; Means and Standard deviation(correspond to Table 6.IV.)**

TOTAL	LINGUISTIC SITUATION		
	Castillian	Catalan	Bilingual
<b>sex</b>			
<b>X=9.9 sd=0.44</b>	X=10.0	X=9.8	X=11.1
<b>F=5.73</b>	sd=0.44	sd=0.27	sd=0.31
<b>P=0.056</b>	<b>a</b>	<b>b</b>	<b>a b</b>
<b>age</b>			
X= 10.7 sd=1.09	X=10.9	X=10.7	X=10.5
F=1.30	sd=0.2	sd=0.13	sd=0.22
P=0.519			
<b>Gironean</b>			
X=7.7 sd=3.67	X=6.45	X=8.3	X=7.00
F=4.44	sd=0.84	sd=0.40	sd=0.98
P=0.108			
<b>Catalan</b>			
X=9.3 sd=2.73	X=8.86	X=9.5	X=9.7
F=1.76	sd=0.62	sd=0.31	sd=0.59
P=0.41			
<b>Spanish</b>			
<b>X=5.0 sd=3.26</b>	X=7.0	X=4.25	X=4.8
<b>F=10.25</b>	sd=0.80	sd=0.33	sd=0.86
<b>P=0.005</b>	<b>a</b>	<b>a</b>	
<b>European</b>			
X=3.2 sd=1.60	X=2.8	X=3.30	X=3.5
F=0.985	sd=0.09	sd=0.19	sd=0.58
P=0.610			

\* The subindex a,b,c,d, etc. show between which age groups significant differences were found within each row.

sex	Spanish
a. u=88.0 p<0.0268	a. u=521.0 p=0.0016
b. u=334.0 p	

**Table A-3.V 9 years old children's Subjective Identification; Means and Standard deviation(correspond to Table 6.V.)**

TOTAL	LINGUISTIC SITUATION		
	Castillian	Catalan	Bilingual
<b>sex</b>			
<b>X=10.7 sd=1.57</b>	X=11.2	X=10.4	X=10.5
<b>F=7.1855</b>	sd=0.13	sd=0.24	sd=0.27
<b>P=0.027</b>	<b>a b</b>	<b>a</b>	<b>b</b>
<b>age</b>			
X=9.9 sd=1.20	X=10.0	X=9.8	X=9.8
F=0.8574	sd=0.18	sd=0.15	sd=0.26
P=0.651			
<b>Gironean</b>			
X=8.08 sd=3.54	X=7.38	X=8.6	X=7.95
F=4.762	sd=0.50	sd=0.43	sd=0.77
P=0.0925			
<b>Catalan</b>			
<b>X=9.2 sd=3.00</b>	X=7.23	X=10.2	X=10.3
<b>F=27.6462</b>	sd=0.50	sd=0.27	sd=0.48
<b>P=0.0001</b>	<b>a b</b>	<b>a</b>	<b>b</b>
<b>Spanish</b>			
<b>X=5.9 sd=3.65</b>	X=8.0	X=4.70	X=5.5
<b>F=18.79</b>	sd=0.6	sd=0.36	sd=0.74
<b>P=0.0001</b>	<b>a b</b>	<b>a</b>	<b>b</b>
<b>European</b>			
<b>X=4.8 sd=3.12</b>	X=4.5	X=5.50	X=3.8
<b>F=6.8020</b>	sd=0.40	sd=0.41	sd=0.60
<b>P=0.0333</b>		<b>a</b>	<b>a</b>

\*The subindex a,b,c,d, etc. show between which age groups significant differences were found within each row.

sex	Catalan	Spanish	European
a. u=945.0 p<0.0132	a. u=580.0 p=0.00001	a. u=687.5 p=0.00001	a. u=457.5 p=0.0161
b. u=324.0 p<0.0393	b. u=199.50 p=0.0002	b. u=294.0 p=0.0147	

**Table A-3.VI 12 years old children's Subjective Identification; Means and Standard deviation(correspond to Table 6.VI.)**

TOTAL	LINGUISTIC SITUATION		
	Castillian	Catalan	Bilingual
sex			
X=9.9 sd=2.04	X=9.97	X=9.7	X=10.3
F=3.570	sd=0.30	sd=0.24	sd=0.51
P=0.1655			
age			
X=9.4 sd=1.66	X=9.62	X=9.3	X=9.9
F=4.122	sd=0.29	sd=0.15	sd=0.28
P=0.1273			
<b>Gironean</b>			
<b>X=9.05 sd=2.89</b>	X=7.5	X=10.1	X=8.55
<b>F=21.799</b>	sd=0.49	sd=0.23	sd=0.74
<b>P=0.00001</b>	<b>a</b>	<b>a b</b>	<b>b</b>
<b>Catalan</b>			
<b>X=9.8 sd=2.66</b>	X=8.8	X=10.6	X=9.3
<b>F=14.375</b>	sd=0.46	sd=0.22	sd=0.64
<b>P=0.0008</b>	<b>a</b>	<b>a b</b>	<b>b</b>
<b>Spanish</b>			
<b>X=7.0 sd=3.66</b>	X=9.1	X=5.56	X=6.7
<b>F=32.48</b>	sd=0.5	sd=0.40	sd=0.71
<b>P=0.00001</b>	<b>a b</b>	<b>a</b>	<b>b</b>
<b>European</b>			
<b>X=6.4 sd=3.43</b>	X=4.58	X=7.47	X=7.0
<b>F=16.345</b>	sd=0.40	sd=0.38	sd=0.74
<b>P=0.0003</b>	<b>a b</b>	<b>a</b>	<b>b</b>

\*The subindex a,b,c,d, etc. show between which age groups significant differences were found within each row.

Catalan	Gironean	Spanish	European
a. u=880.0 p=0.0004	a. u=702.5 p=0.00001	a. u=543.5 p=0.0001	a. u=809.0 p=0.0001
b. u=438.5 p=0.0152	b. u=473.5 p=0.0429	b. u=230.0 p=0.0027	b. u=263.0 p=0.0112

**Table A-3.VII 15 years old children's Subjective Identification; Means and Standard deviation(correspond to Table 6.VII.)**

TOTAL	LINGUISTIC SITUATION		
	Castillian	Catalan	Bilingual
sex			
X=9.4 sd=2.53	X=9.21	X=9.6	X=9.2
F=30.571	sd=0.54	sd=0.27	sd=0.63
P=0.751			
age			
X=9.5 sd=1.76	X=9.68	X=9.7	X=8.6
F=3.633	sd=0.31	sd=0.18	sd=0.60
P=0.1632			
<b>Gironean</b>			
<b>X=9.1 sd=2.72</b>	X=8.18	X=9.70	X=9.0
<b>F=5.33</b>	sd=0.56	sd=0.25	sd=0.87
<b>P=0.069</b>			
<b>Catalan</b>			
<b>X=9.8 sd=3.07</b>	X=7.34	X=11.04	X=9.60
<b>F=34.325</b>	sd=0.65	sd=0.21	sd=0.74
<b>P=0.00001</b>	<b>a b</b>	<b>a c</b>	<b>b c</b>
<b>Spanish</b>			
<b>X=5.8 sd=3.96</b>	X=9.37	X=3.90	X=6.6
<b>F=41.934</b>	sd=0.6	sd=0.33	sd=1.01
<b>P=0.00001</b>	<b>a b</b>	<b>a c</b>	<b>b c</b>
<b>European</b>			
<b>X=6.9 sd=2.97</b>	X=6.03	X=7.46	X=7.3
<b>F=3.65</b>	sd=0.50	sd=0.30	sd=0.87
<b>P=0.1610</b>			

\*The subindex a,b,c,d, etc. show between which age groups significant differences were found within each row.

Catalan	Spanish
a. u=378.0 p=0.00001	a. u=266.5 p=0.00001
b. u=149.5 p=0.0358	b. u=138.0 p=0.0178
c. u=311.5 p=0.0066	c. u=285.5 p=0.0031

Table A-3.VIII Spanish Identification (correspond to Table 6.IX.)

INTERACTION x=21.026 p=0.0500		AGE x=83.311 p=0.00001				
LINGUISTIC SITUATION x=68.536 p=0.00001		6 years old	9 years old	12 years old	15 years old	TOTAL
Castillian	X=2.44 1 Sd=0.21	X=2.46 1 Sd=0.10	X=2.49 1 Sd=0.08 2	X=2.38 1 Sd=0.11	X=2.45 1 Sd=0.05 2	
	Catalan	X=1.89 1 Sd=0.11 <b>a</b>	X=2.12 1 Sd=0.88 <b>b c</b>	X=1.87 1 Sd=0.06 <b>b d</b>	X=1.54 1 Sd=0.07 2 <b>a c d</b>	X=1.85 1 Sd=0.04 3
Bilingual	X=2.00 Sd=0.35	X=2.37 Sd=0.14	X=2.11 2 Sd=0.07	X=2.07 2 Sd=0.12	X=2.16 2 Sd=0.07 3	
<b>TOTAL</b>	X=2.01 Sd=0.09	X=2.28 A Sd=0.06 B	X=2.12 A Sd=0.05 C	X=1.83 B Sd=0.06 C		

\* The subindex 1,2,3, etc. show between which groups present significant differences respect the main effects of the variable linguistic situation.

\*\* The subindex A,B,C, etc. show between which groups present significant differences respect the main effects of the variable age.

\*\*\* The subindex 1,2,3 etc show between which linguistic groups significant differences were found within each column (age).

\*\*\*\* The subindex a,b,c, etc. show between which age groups significant differences were found within each row (linguistic group).

relationship between different groups of linguistic situation	RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DIFFERENT GROUPS OF AGE
1. u=8989.5 p=0.00001	A. U=6127.5 P=0.0237
2. u=2891.0 p=0.0017	B. U=4382.5 P=0.00001
3. u=5783.5 p=0.0010	C. U=5271.5 P=0.0006
Relationship between different groups of linguistic situation in each age	Relationship between different groups of age in each linguistic situation
6 1. U=396.0 p=0.0236	9 1. u= 825.0 p=0.013
12 1. u= 600.5 p=0.0001 2.u=239.5 p=0.0052	15 1. u=380.5 p=0.00001 2.u= 257.5 p=0.0024
	Castillian a. u=1786.5 p=0.0384
	Catalan b. u=1405.5 p=0.0235
	Bilingual c. u=1109.0 p=0.00001 d. u=3796.5 p=0.0007

Table A-3.IX Catalan Identification(correspond to Table 6.X.)

INTERACTION x=21.459 p=0.0441	AGE				
	6 years old	9 years old	12 years old	15 years old	TOTAL
<b>LINGUISTIC SITUATION</b> x=125.72 p=0.00001					
Castillian	X=2.53 1 Sd=0.18 2	X=2.20 1 Sd=0.10 2	X=2.16 1 Sd=0.09 2	X=2.24 1 Sd=0.12 2	X=2.22 1 Sd=0.05 2
Catalan	X=2.80 1 Sd=0.05	X=2.89 1 Sd=0.04	X=2.91 1 Sd=0.03 2	X=2.90 1 Sd=0.03	X=2.87 1 Sd=0.02 3
Bilingual	X=3.00 2 Sd=0.00	X=2.95 2 Sd=0.05	X=2.45 2 Sd=0.14	X=2.73 2 Sd=0.14	X=2.73 2 Sd=0.12 3
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>a b</b> X=2.74 Sd=0.05	<b>c</b> X=2.67 Sd=0.05	<b>a c</b> X=2.59 Sd=0.05	<b>b</b> X=2.71 Sd=0.04	

\* The subindex **1,2,3**, etc. show between which groups present significant differences respect the main effects of the variable linguistic situation.

\*\* The subindex 1,2,3 etc show between which linguistic groups significant differences were found within each column (age).

\*\*\* The subindex **a,b,c**, etc. show between which age groups significant differences were found within each row (linguistic group).

relationship between different groups of linguistic situation	RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DIFFERENT GROUPS OF AGE
---	--

**1. u=8010.0 p=0.00001**

**2. u=2395.5 p=0.00001**

**3. u=8175.5 p=0.0247**

Relationship between different groups of linguistic situation in each age				Relationship between different groups of age in each linguistic situation		
6	9	12	15	Castillian	Catalan	Bilingual
1. u=492.0 p=0.0014	1. u= 498.0 p=0.00001	1. u=504.0 p=0.0001	1. u=446.0 p=0.00001			<b>a. u=65.0</b> p=0.0028
2. u=65.0 p=0.0030	2.u=132.0 p=0.00001	2.u=382.05 p=0.00001	2.u= 127.0 p=0.0121			<b>b.u=71.5</b> p=0.0483
						<b>c. u=104.5</b> p=0.0022



**Table A-3.X Catalan vs. Spanish Identification(correspond to Table 6.XI.)**

INTERACTION x=45.197 p=0.0055	AGE x=36.465 p=0.0003				
	LINGUISTIC SITUATION x=192.97 p=0.00001	6 years old	9 years old	12 years old	15 years old
Castillian	X=2.95 1 Sd=0.29 2	X=3.34 1 Sd=0.16 2	X=3.33 1 Sd=0.15 2	X=3.26 1 Sd=0.13 2	X=3.26 1 Sd=0.08 2
Catalan	X=2.01 1 Sd=0.15	X=2.02 1 Sd=0.09 3 <b>a</b>	X=1.96 1 Sd=0.10 3 <b>b</b>	X=1.60 1 Sd=0.07 3 <b>a b</b>	X=1.89 1 Sd=0.05 3
Bilingual	X=2.00 2 Sd=0.53 <b>a b</b>	X=2.82 2 Sd=0.21 3 <b>a</b>	X=2.75 2 Sd=0.12 3 <b>b</b>	X=2.20 2 Sd=0.22 3	X=2.20 2 Sd=0.22 3
<b>TOTAL</b>	X=2.20 A Sd=0.13 B	X=2.60 A Sd=0.09 C	X=2.53 B Sd=0.09 D	X=2.12 C Sd=0.09 D	

\* The subindex 1,2,3, etc. show between which groups present significant differences respect the main effects of the variable linguistic situation.

\*\* The subindex A,B,C, etc. show between which groups present significant differences respect the main effects of the variable age.

\*\*\*The subindex 1,2,3 etc show between which linguistic groups significant differences were found within each column (age).

\*\*\*\* The subindex a,b,c, etc. show between which age groups significant differences were found within each row (linguistic group)

relationship between different groups of linguistic situation	RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DIFFERENT GROUPS OF AGE
1. u=5866.5 p=0.00001	A. U=5312.5 P=0.0028
2. u=2737.0 p=0.00001	B. U=5707.0 P=0.0079
3. u=5868.0 p=0.00001	C. U=5702.0 P=0.0011
	D. U=6109.5 P=0.0031

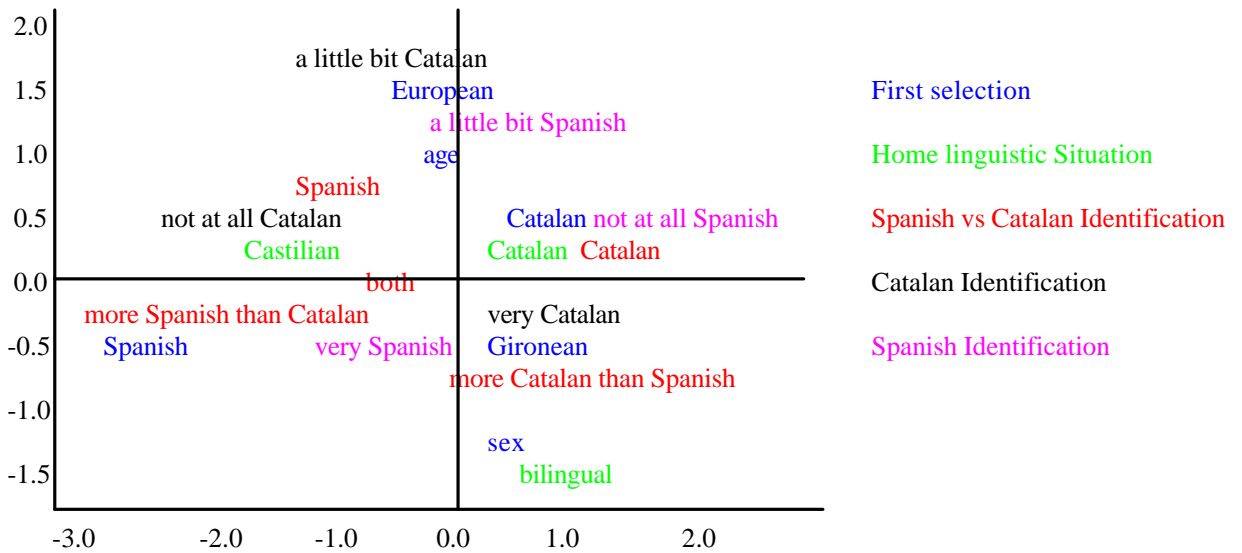
Relationship between different groups of linguistic situation in each age				Relationship between different groups of age in each linguistic situation		
6	9	12	15	Castillian	Catalan	Bilingual
1. u=412.0 p=0.0012	1. u= 402.0 p=0.0001	1. u= 448.0 p=0.00001	1. u=131.0 p=0.00001		a. u=1445.0 p=0.0005	a. u=82.0 p=0.0266
2. u=78.0 p=0.0330	2. u=293.0 p=0.0163	2. u=244.0 p=0.0052	2.u= 92.5 p=0.0004		b. u=1800.0 p=0.0107	b. u=70.5 p=0.0196
	3.u=331.0.5 p=0.0002	3. u=301.5 p=0.0001	3.u=332.0.5 p=0.0151			

**Table A-3.XI Wilcoxon results comparing Catalan and Spanish identification**

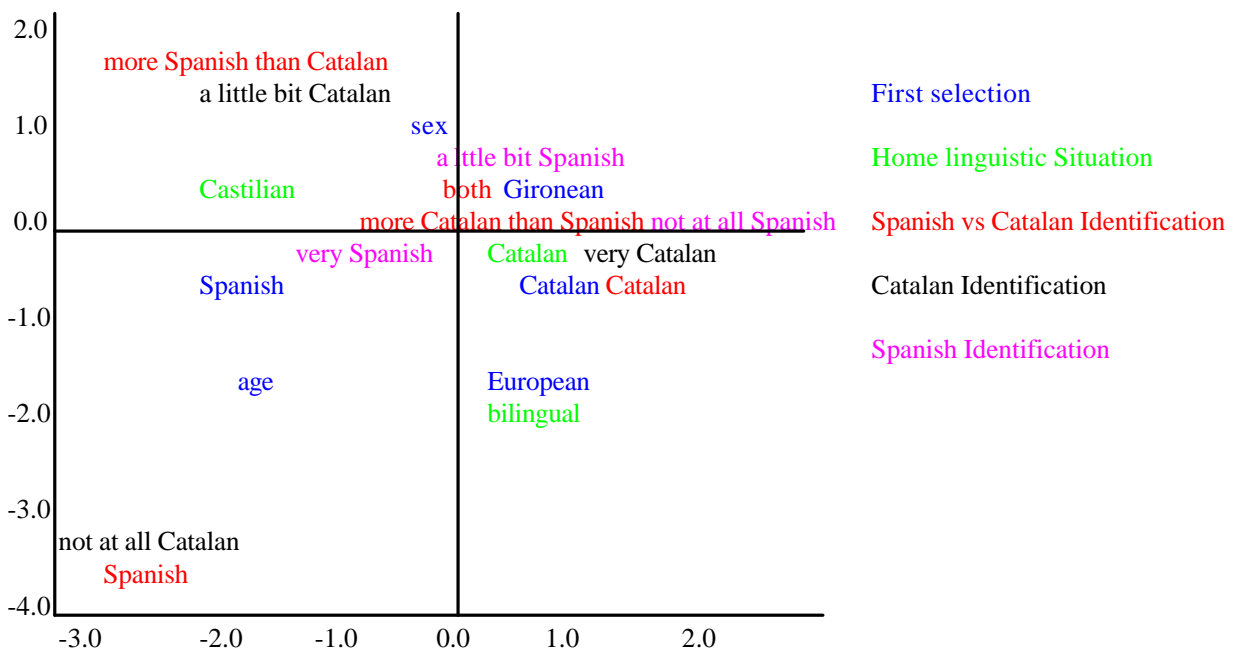
	6 years old	9 years old	12 years old	15 years old
Castilian speakers	z= 0.25 p<0.79	z= 1.49 p<0.13	z= 1.88 p<0.06	z= 0.59 p<0.55
Catalan Speakers	z= 5.12 p<0.001	z= 5.01 p<0.001	z= 6.68 p<0.001	z= 6.73 p<0.001
Bilingual speakers	z= 2.02 p<0.43	z= 2.66 p<0.001	z= 1.86 p<0.06	z= 2.52 p<0.01

**A-4. CORRESPONDENCE ANALYSIS BY AGE**

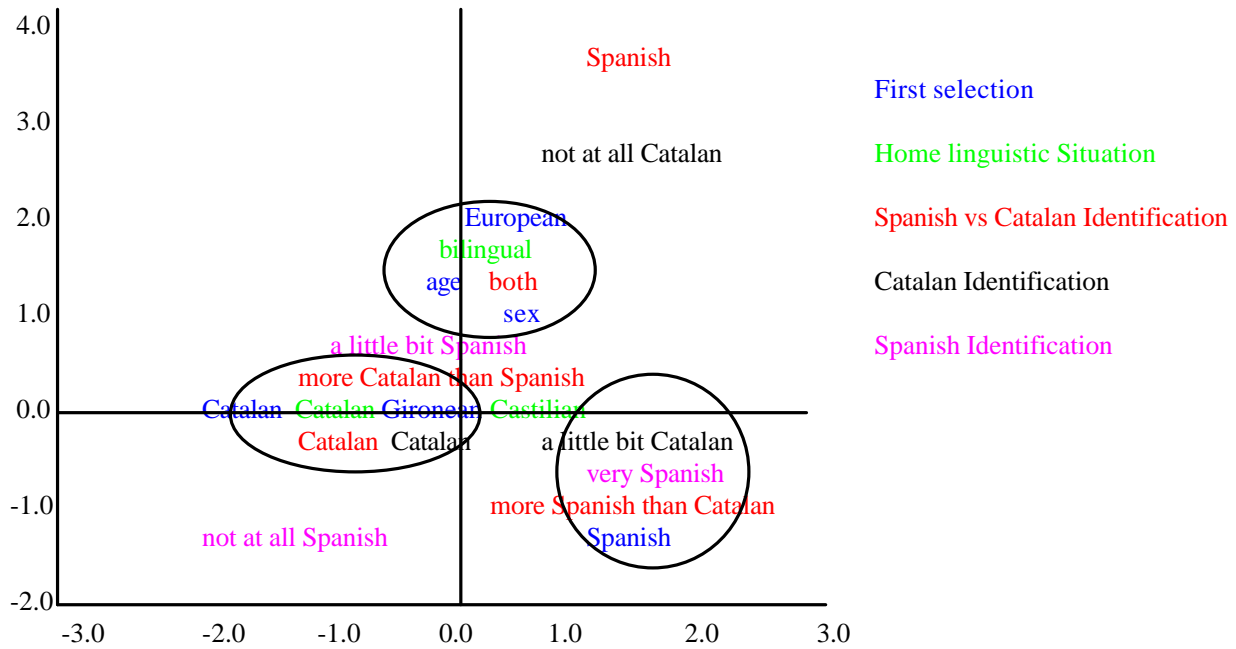
**Figure A-4.1 Correspondence analysis by 6 years old children**



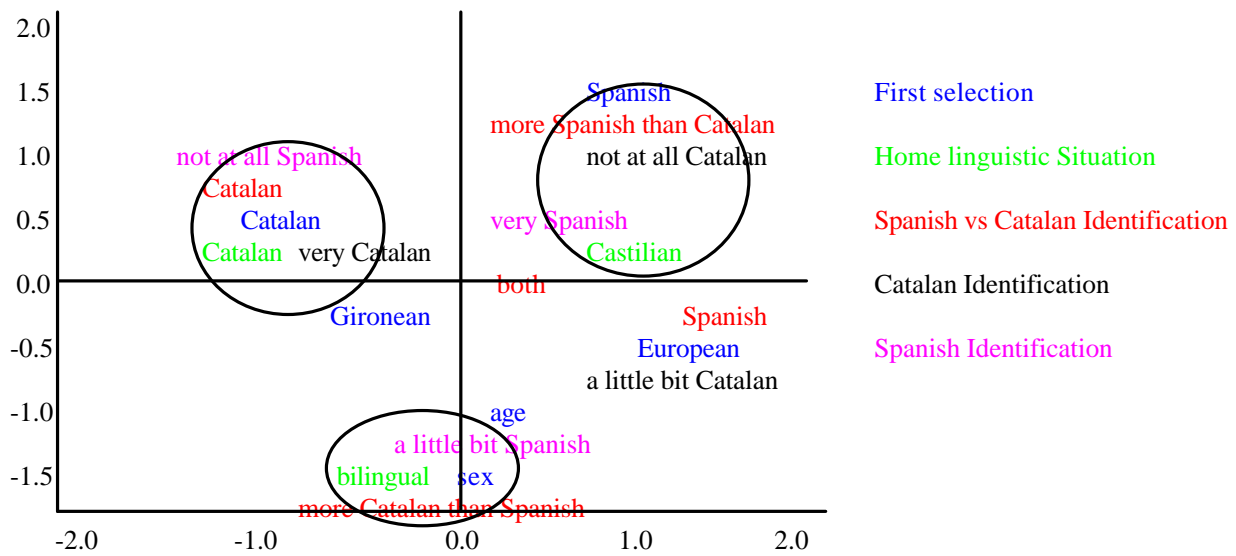
**Figure A-4. 2 Correspondence analysis by 9 years old children**



**Figure A-4. 3 Correspondence analysis by 12 years old children**



**Figure A-4. 4 Correspondence analysis by 15 years old children**



## A-5. KNOWLEDGE OF COUNTRIES

**Table A-5.I T-test Spatial geographical knowledge for Castilian speaking children.**

	Spain	Catalonia	Andalusia	France	Germany	Italy	United Kingdom
Spain	-----	t=5.86 p<0.0001	t= 5.76 p<0.0001	t=6.23 p<0.0001	t=6.79 p<0.0001	t=-10.09 p<0.0001	t=9.05 p<0.0001
Catalonia		-----	n.s.	n.s.	t=-3.07 p<0.03	t=-5.02 p<0.0001	t=-5.02 p<0.0001
Andalusia			-----	n.s.	n.s.	t=-5.41 p<0.0001	t=-4.90 p<0.0001
France				-----	t=2.57 p<0.01	t=-4.86 p<0.0001	t=-4.55 p<0.0001
Germany					-----	n.s.	t=-2.45 p<0.01
Italy						-----	
United Kingdom							-----

**Table A-5. II T-test Spatial geographical knowledge for Catalan speaking children**

	Spain	France	Catalonia	Germany	Italy	United Kingdom	Andalusia
Spain	-----	t=6.54 p<0.0001	t=9.00 p<0.0001	t=5.28 p<0.0001	t=-10.29 p<0.0001	t=10.16 p<0.0001	t=9.92 p<0.0001
France		-----	n.s.	n.s.	t=-3.60 p<0.0001	t=-5.90 p<0.0001	t=6.23 p<0.0001
Catalonia			-----	n.s.	n.s.	t=-3.90 p<0.0001	t=4.24 p<0.0001
Germany				-----	n.s.	t=-4.11 p<0.0001	t=4.13 p<0.0001
Italy					-----	t= 2.76 p<0.006	t= 3.00 p<0.003
United Kingdom						-----	n.s.
Andalusia							-----

**Table A-5. III T-test Spatial geographical knowledge for bilingual speaking children**

	Spain	France	Germany	Italy	Catalonia	United Kingdom	Andalusia
Spain	-----	t=3.11 p<0.003	t=2.73 p<0.008	t=-3.49 p<0.001	t=5.77 p<0.0001	t=4.67 p<0.0001	t=5.24 p<0.0001
France		-----	n.s.	n.s.	t=2.63 p<0.01	t=-3.15 p<0.002	t=4.04 p<0.0001
Germany			-----	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	t=3.02 p<0.004
Italy				-----	n.s.	n.s.	t=2.26 p<0.027
Catalonia					-----	n.s.	n.s.
United Kingdom						-----	n.s.
Andalusia							-----

**Table A-5. IV T-test capital cities' name knowledge for Castilian speaking children.**

	Madrid	Barcelona	Seville	Paris	Bonn	Rome	London
Madrid	_____	t=30.2 p<0.003	t= 2.58 p<0.01	t=4.99 p<0.0001	t=4.22 p<0.0001	t=-7.16 p<0.0001	t=6.09 p<0.0001
Barcelona		_____	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	t=-3.50 p<0.001	t=-3.71 p<0.0001
Seville			_____	n.s.	n.s.	t= -3.01 p<0.003	t=-3.16 p<0.002
Paris				_____	n.s.	t= -2.33 p<0.02	t=2.23 p<0.02
Bonn					_____	n.s.	t=-2.24 p<0.02
Rome						_____	n.s.
London							_____

**Table A-5. V T-test capital cities' name knowledge for Catalan speaking children.**

	Madrid	Barcelona	Paris	Bonn	Rome	London	Seville
Madrid	_____	t=3.04 p<0.003	t=6.21 p<0.0001	t=4.63 p<0.0001	t=-7.73 p<0.0001	t=7.00 p<0.0001	t=7.30 p<0.0001
Barcelona		_____	t=2.96 p<0.003.	t=-2.79 p<0.006	t=-4.31 p<0.0001	t=-4.72 p<0.0001	t=2.52 p<0.004
Paris			_____	n.s.	n.s.	t=-2.74 p<0.006	t=3.74 p<0.0001
Bonn				_____	n.s.	n.s.	t=2.90 p<0.004
Rome					_____	n.s.	t=2.83 p<0.0001
London						_____	n.s.
Seville							_____

**Table A-5. VI T-test capital cities' name knowledge for Bilingual speaking children.**

	Madrid	Bonn	Barcelona	Rome	Paris	Seville	London
Madrid	_____	n.s.	t=3.51 p<0.001	t=-3.21 p<0.0001	t=3.52 p<0.001	t=2.98 p<0.004	t=3.55 p<0.001
Bonn		_____	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Barcelona			_____	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Rome				_____	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Paris					_____	n.s.	n.s.
Seville						_____	n.s.
London							_____

**Table A-5. VII T-Test knowledge of flags for Castilian speaking children**

	Catalonia	Spain	United Kingdom	Germany	Andalusia	France	Italy
Catalonia	-----	t=2.17 p<0.32	t=3.43 p<0.001	t=5.30 p<0.0001	t=5.64 p<0.0001	t=5.77 p<0.0001	t=6.73 p<0.0001
Spain		-----	t=2.00 p<0.048	t=4.14 p<0.001	t=4.50 p<0.0001	t=4.50 p<0.0001	t=5.32 p<0.0001
United Kingdom			-----	t=2.44 p<0.016	t=2.40 p<0.018	t=2.72 p<0.007	t=3.14 p<0.002
Germany				-----	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Andalusia					-----	n.s.	n.s.
France						-----	n.s.
Italy							-----

**Table A-5. VIII T-test knowledge flags for Catalan speaking children**

	Catalonia	Spain	United Kingdom	France	Italy	Germany	Andalusia
Catalonia	-----	t=2.71 p<0.007	t=4.29 p<0.001	t=7.43 p<0.0001	t=8.40 p<0.0001	t=8.63 p<0.0001	t=8.58 p<0.0001
Spain		-----	t=2.87 p<0.004	t=6.01 p<0.0001	t=7.02 p<0.0001	t=7.27 p<0.0001	t=7.29 p<0.0001
United Kingdom			-----	t=3.36 p<0.001	t=4.05 p<0.000	t=4.52 p<0.0001	t=4.64 p<0.0001
France				-----	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Italy					-----	n.s.	n.s.
Germany						-----	n.s.
Andalusia							-----

**Table A-5. IX T-test knowledge flags for Bilingual speaking children**

	Catalonia	Spain	United Kingdom	Italy	Germany	France	Andalusia
Catalonia	-----	n.s.	t=3.56 p<0.001	t=4.88 p<0.0001	t=4.23 p<0.0001	t=4.73 p<0.0001	t=4.63 p<0.0001
Spain		-----	t=2.98 p<0.004	t=4.51 p<0.0001	t=3.88 p<0.0001	t=4.37 p<0.001	t=4.28 p<0.0001
United Kingdom			-----	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Germany				-----	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Andalusia					-----	n.s.	n.s.
France						-----	n.s.
Italy							-----

**Table A-5. X T-Test Famous people Castillian children**

	Spain	Catalonia	Andalusia	Italy	United Kingdom	France	Germany
Spain	-----	t=7.48 p<0.0001	t=10.95 p<0.0001	t=11.75 p<0.0001	t=12.41 p<0.0001	t=14.67 p<0.0001	t=14.77 p<0.0001
Catalonia		-----	t=4.11 p<0.0001	t=6.25 p<0.0001	t=7.15 p<0.0001	t=9.11 p<0.0001	t=9.07 p<0.0001
Andalusia			-----	n.s.	t=3.08 p<0.002	t=5.48 p<0.0001	t=5.72 p<0.0001
Italy				-----	t=3.10 p<0.002	t=4.82 p<0.0001	t=5.08 p<0.0001
United Kingdom					-----	t=2.63 p<0.01	t=3.10 p<0.002
France						-----	n.s.
Germany							-----

**Table A-5. XI T-Test Famous people Catalan children**

	Catalonia	Spain	Italy	United Kingdom	Andalusia	France	Germany
Catalonia	-----	n.s.	t=13.54 p<0.0001	t=14.59 p<0.0001	t=14.94 p<0.0001	t=16.44 p<0.0001	t=16.17 p<0.0001
Spain		-----	t=13.07 p<0.0001	t=14.86 p<0.0001	t=15.78 p<0.0001	t=16.83 p<0.0001	t=16.47 p<0.0001
Italy			-----	t=3.58 p<0.001	t=4.75 p<0.0001	t=6.80 p<0.0001	t=7.07 p<0.001
United Kingdom				-----	n.s.	t=2.36 p<0.009	t=2.61 p<0.009
Andalusia					-----	n.s.	n.s.
France						-----	n.s.
Germany							-----

**Table A-5. XII T-Test Famous people bilingual children**

	Spain	Catalonia	Andalusia	Italy	United Kingdom	France	Germany
Spain	-----	t=4.06 p<0.0001	t=6.04 p<0.0001	t=7.75 p<0.0001	t=8.14 p<0.0001	t=8.78 p<0.001	t=9.34 p<0.0001
Catalonia		-----	n.s.	t=4.16 p<0.0001	t=4.54 p<0.0001	t=5.80 p<0.0001	t=6.08 p<0.0001
Andalusia			-----	t=2.07 p<0.042	t=2.59 p<0.012	t=4.07 p<0.0001	t=4.66 p<0.0001
Italy				-----	n.s.	t=3.98 p<0.0001	t=4.21 p<0.0001
United Kingdom					-----	t=2.41 p<0.019	t=3.35 p<0.001
France						-----	n.s.
Germany							-----

## A-6. NATIONAL STEREOTYPES, EVALUATIONS AND FEELINGS

**Table A-6. I Catalan speakers national stereotypes; percentage of answers**

<b>6 years old</b>	<b>Italy</b>	<b>France</b>	<b>Spanish</b>	<b>Britain</b>	<b>Germany</b>	<b>Catalonia</b>	<b>Andalusia</b>
neither	13.2%	10.5%	11.8%	11.8%	7.9%	7.9%	9.2%
dirty	17.1%	15.8%	13.2%	10.5%	21.1%	0%	19.7%
both	17.1%	6.6%	9.2%	9.2%	10.5%	6.6%	15.8%
clean	52.6%	67.1%	65.8%	68.4%	60.5%	85.5%	55.3%
neither	14.5%	10.5%	14.5%	11.8%	13.2%	9.2%	14.5%
unfriendly	18.4%	7.9%	7.9%	7.9%	9.2%	2.6%	18.4%
both	21.1%	28.9%	27.6%	26.3%	22.4%	18.4%	31.6%
friendly	46.1%	52.6%	50.0%	53.9%	55.3%	69.7%	35.5%
neither	19.7%	15.8%	21.1%	9.2%	17.1%	6.6%	11.8%
stupid	7.9%	6.6%	6.6%	5.3%	13.2%	3.9%	14.5%
both	13.2%	14.5%	9.2%	10.5%	11.8%	7.9%	13.2%
clever	59.2%	63.2%	63.2%	75.0%	57.9%	81.6%	60.5%
neither	14.5%	11.8%	14.5%	11.8%	13.2%	6.6%	13.2%
lazy	15.8%	11.8%	11.8%	10.5%	17.1%	5.3%	18.4%
both	23.7%	25.0%	18.4%	14.5%	18.4%	11.8%	27.6%
hardworking	46.1%	51.3%	55.3%	63.4%	51.3%	76.3%	40.8%
neither	7.9%	9.2%	7.9%	10.5%	9.2%	3.9%	11.8%
unhappy	11.8%	6.6%	9.2%	6.6%	17.1%	6.6%	15.8%
both	28.9%	21.1%	27.6%	26.3%	27.6%	14.5%	26.3%
happy	51.3%	63.2%	55.3%	56.6%	46.1%	75.0%	46.1%
neither	36.8%	31.6%	30.3%	36.8%	27.6%	30.3%	30.3%
dishonest	17.1%	17.1%	9.2%	7.9%	22.4%	9.2%	19.7%
both	14.5%	6.6%	17.1%	9.2%	13.2%	7.9%	18.4%
honest	31.6%	44.7%	43.4%	46.1%	36.8%	52.6%	31.6%

<b>9 years old</b>	<b>Italy</b>	<b>France</b>	<b>Spanish</b>	<b>Britain</b>	<b>Germany</b>	<b>Catalonia</b>	<b>Andalusia</b>
neither	27.4%	24.2%	17.7%	24.2%	30.6%	6.5%	30.6%
dirty	11.3%	8.1%	4.8%	6.5%	17.7%	0.0%	24.2%
both	8.1%	12.9%	6.5%	8.1%	8.1%	3.2%	4.8%
clean	53.2%	54.8%	71.0%	61.3%	43.5%	90.3%	40.3%
neither	21.0%	21.0%	16.1%	21.0%	32.3%	11.3%	29.0%
unfriendly	11.3%	14.5%	11.3%	12.9%	12.9%	0.0%	11.3%
both	8.1%	11.3%	6.5%	11.3%	9.7%	6.5%	9.7%
friendly	59.7%	53.2%	66.1%	54.8%	45.2%	82.3%	50.0%
neither	43.5%	41.9%	35.5%	30.6%	40.3%	22.6%	43.5%
stupid	4.8%	1.6%	3.2%	6.5%	6.5%	0.0%	4.8%
both	8.1%	6.5%	6.5%	4.8%	6.5%	3.2%	4.8%
clever	43.5%	50.0%	54.8%	58.1%	46.8%	74.2%	46.8%
neither	25.8%	19.4%	19.4%	27.4%	35.5%	14.5%	30.6%
lazy	16.1%	16.1%	4.8%	8.1%	9.7%	1.6%	11.3%
both	11.3%	21.0%	19.4%	17.7%	22.6%	16.1%	24.2%
hardworking	46.8%	43.5%	56.5%	46.8%	32.3%	67.7%	33.9%
neither	32.3%	27.4%	16.1%	25.8%	35.5%	14.5%	22.6%
unhappy	8.1%	8.1%	6.5%	4.8%	8.1%	0.0%	8.1%
both	17.7%	6.5%	12.9%	11.3%	9.7%	11.3%	6.5%
happy	41.9%	58.1%	64.5%	58.1%	46.8%	74.2%	62.9%
neither	54.8%	54.8%	38.7%	37.1%	50.0%	24.2%	54.8%
dishonest	11.3%	12.9%	12.9%	9.7%	17.7%	4.8%	11.3%
both	12.9%	11.3%	4.8%	11.3%	9.7%	8.1%	12.9%
honest	21.0%	21.0%	43.5%	41.9%	22.6%	62.9%	21.0%



**Table A-6. II Catalan speakers national stereotypes; percentage of answers**

<b>12 years old</b>	<b>Italy</b>	<b>France</b>	<b>Spanish</b>	<b>Britain</b>	<b>Germany</b>	<b>Catalonia</b>	<b>Andalusia</b>
Neither	22.4%	26.9%	23.9%	28.4%	46.3%	20.9%	29.9%
dirty	6.0%	14.9%	13.4%	9.0%	9.0%	3.0%	22.4%
Both	6.0%	4.5%	10.4%	6.0%	4.5%	9.0%	9.0%
Clean	65.7%	53.7%	52.2%	56.7%	40.3%	67.2%	38.8%
Neither	17.9%	13.4%	22.4%	23.9%	37.3%	6.0%	22.4%
Unfriendly	4.5%	20.9%	10.4%	10.4%	17.9%	0.0%	14.9%
Both	9.0%	7.5%	10.4%	7.5%	4.5%	7.5%	6.0%
Friendly	68.7%	58.2%	56.7%	58.2%	40.3%	86.6%	56.7%
Neither	50.7%	43.3%	47.8%	31.3%	40.3%	23.9%	55.2%
stupid	3.0%	7.5%	10.4%	1.5%	4.5%	3.0%	10.4%
Both	1.5%	1.5%	4.5%	1.5%	1.5%	0.0%	1.5%
Clever	44.8%	47.8%	37.3%	65.7%	53.7%	73.1%	32.8%
Neither	22.4%	19.4%	4.5%	22.4%	20.9%	3.0%	23.9%
lazy	7.5%	7.5%	17.9%	11.9%	10.4%	7.5%	19.4%
Both	6.0%	6.7%	26.9%	4.5%	6.0%	23.9%	11.9%
Hardworking	64.2%	67.2%	50.7%	61.2%	62.7%	65.7%	44.8%
Neither	32.8%	41.8%	22.4%	38.8%	29.9%	19.4%	25.4%
Unhappy	10.4%	6.0%	7.5%	4.5%	11.9%	0.0%	13.4%
Both	7.5%	7.5%	9.0%	7.5%	4.5%	6.0%	3.0%
Happy	49.3%	44.8%	61.2%	49.3%	53.7%	74.6%	58.2%
Neither	44.8%	44.8%	26.9%	47.8%	44.8%	26.9%	43.3%
Dishonest	9.0%	11.9%	17.9%	6.0%	10.4%	3.0%	11.9%
Both	4.5%	6.0%	13.4%	3.0%	3.0%	4.5%	3.0%
Honest	41.8%	37.3%	41.8%	43.3%	41.8%	65.7%	41.8%

<b>15 years old</b>	<b>Italy</b>	<b>France</b>	<b>Spanish</b>	<b>Britain</b>	<b>Germany</b>	<b>Catalonia</b>	<b>Andalusia</b>
Neither	57.7%	43.7%	56.3%	36.6%	42.3%	32.4%	66.2%
dirty	18.3%	8.5%	14.1%	4.2%	18.3%	2.8%	21.1%
Both	2.8%	2.8%	2.8%	2.8%	2.8%	4.2%	2.8%
Clean	21.1%	45.1%	26.8%	56.3%	36.6%	60.6%	9.9%
Neither	22.5%	26.8%	14.1%	28.2%	35.2%	14.1%	21.1%
Unfriendly	16.9%	36.6%	28.2%	22.5%	23.9%	1.4%	12.7%
Both	4.2%	5.6%	5.6%	5.6%	4.2%	5.6%	2.8%
Friendly	56.3%	31.0%	52.1%	43.7%	36.6%	78.9%	63.4%
Neither	53.5%	43.7%	60.6%	50.7%	57.7%	32.4%	71.8%
stupid	7.0%	15.5%	9.9%	1.4%	7.0%	1.4%	9.9%
Both	4.2%	9.9%	4.2%	5.6%	5.6%	2.8%	2.8%
Clever	35.2%	31.0%	25.4%	42.3%	29.6%	63.4%	15.5%
Neither	45.1%	38.0%	11.3%	29.6%	19.7%	2.8%	22.5%
lazy	19.7%	9.9%	35.2%	5.6%	16.9%	8.5%	39.4%
Both	2.8%	4.2%	9.9%	2.8%	2.8%	5.6%	5.6%
Hardworking	32.4%	47.9%	43.7%	62.0%	60.6%	83.1%	32.4%
Neither	36.6%	50.7%	40.8%	36.6%	40.8%	22.5%	29.6%
Unhappy	2.8%	12.7%	5.6%	22.5%	14.1%	1.4%	2.8%
Both	5.6%	2.8%	4.2%	4.2%	4.2%	2.8%	4.2%
Happy	54.9%	33.8%	49.3%	36.6%	40.8%	73.2%	63.4%
Neither	52.1%	50.7%	43.7%	56.3%	57.7%	31.0%	49.3%
Dishonest	28.2%	15.5%	22.5%	7.0%	14.1%	1.4%	9.9%
Both	5.6%	4.2%	8.5%	4.2%	4.2%	5.6%	4.2%
Honest	14.1%	29.6%	25.4%	32.4%	23.9%	62.0%	36.6%

**Table A-6. III Castillian speakers national stereotypes; percentage of answers**

<b>6 years old</b>	<b>Italy</b>	<b>France</b>	<b>Spanish</b>	<b>Britain</b>	<b>Germany</b>	<b>Catalonia</b>	<b>Andalusia</b>
neither	22.7%	22.7%	18.2%	22.7%	31.8%	0.0%	13.6%
dirty	18.2%	13.6%	13.6%	22.7%	9.1%	0.0%	18.2%
both	18.2%	9.1%	9.1%	9.1%	9.1%	4.5%	9.1%
clean	40.9%	54.5%	59.1%	45.5%	50.0%	95.5%	59.1%
neither	18.2%	9.1%	18.2%	18.2%	13.6%	13.6%	9.1%
unfriendly	22.7%	9.1%	4.5%	13.6%	22.7%	22.7%	22.7%
both	31.8%	45.5%	36.4%	27.3%	13.6%	27.3%	31.8%
friendly	27.3%	36.4%	40.9%	40.9%	50.0%	36.4%	36.4%
neither	40.9%	27.3%	22.7%	27.3%	36.4%	22.7%	31.8%
stupid	9.1%	31.8%	4.5%	4.5%	9.1%	0.0%	9.1%
both	18.2%	4.5%	22.7%	27.3%	4.5%	9.1%	13.6%
clever	31.8%	36.4%	50.0%	40.9%	50.0%	68.2%	45.5%
neither	18.2%	18.2%	9.1%	0.0%	18.2%	18.2%	9.1%
lazy	18.2%	13.6%	4.5%	27.3%	18.2%	0.0%	22.7%
both	13.6%	18.2%	22.7%	22.7%	18.2%	13.6%	13.6%
hardworking	50.0%	50.0%	63.6%	50.0%	45.5%	68.2%	54.5%
neither	22.7%	9.1%	18.2%	4.5%	9.1%	9.1%	22.7%
unhappy	9.1%	18.2%	4.5%	13.6%	18.2%	9.1%	0.0%
both	18.2%	27.3%	18.2%	31.8%	22.7%	22.7%	31.8%
happy	50.0%	45.5%	59.1%	50.0%	50.0%	59.1%	45.5%
neither	45.5%	45.5%	27.3%	50.0%	45.5%	54.5%	45.5%
dishonest	22.7%	18.2%	22.7%	9.1%	13.6%	13.5%	13.6%
both	13.6%	4.5%	18.2%	22.7%	9.1%	4.5%	9.1%
honest	18.2%	31.8%	31.8%	18.2%	31.8%	27.3%	31.8%

<b>9 years old</b>	<b>Italy</b>	<b>France</b>	<b>Spanish</b>	<b>Britain</b>	<b>Germany</b>	<b>Catalonia</b>	<b>Andalusia</b>
neither	28.6%	35.7%	16.7%	38.1%	35.7%	9.5%	23.8%
dirty	16.7%	7.1%	7.1%	9.5%	23.8%	2.4%	11.9%
both	7.1%	9.5%	0.0%	4.8%	2.4%	11.9%	11.9%
clean	47.6%	47.6%	76.2%	47.6%	38.1%	76.2%	52.4%
neither	26.2%	26.2%	14.3%	33.3%	35.7%	16.7%	23.8%
unfriendly	16.7%	16.7%	9.5%	14.3%	23.8%	4.8%	14.3%
both	14.3%	19.0%	16.7%	7.1%	16.7%	11.9%	11.9%
friendly	42.9%	38.1%	59.5%	45.2%	23.8%	66.7%	50.0%
neither	42.9%	52.4%	28.6%	33.3%	45.2%	19.0%	33.3%
stupid	11.9%	2.4%	2.4%	4.8%	7.1%	4.8%	9.5%
both	0.0%	11.9%	9.5%	4.8%	4.8%	2.4%	2.4%
clever	45.2%	33.3%	59.5%	57.1%	42.9%	73.8%	54.8%
neither	31.0%	19.0%	14.3%	19.0%	38.1%	14.3%	16.7%
lazy	11.9%	11.9%	7.1%	14.3%	16.7%	7.1%	16.7%
both	21.4%	31.0%	19.0%	19.0%	11.9%	21.4%	21.4%
hardworking	35.7%	38.1%	59.5%	47.6%	33.3%	57.1%	45.2%
neither	40.5%	23.8%	9.5%	26.2%	28.6%	9.5%	31.0%
unhappy	14.3%	28.6%	2.4%	11.9%	23.8%	9.5%	11.9%
both	9.5%	7.1%	19.0%	16.7%	14.3%	9.5%	19.0%
happy	35.7%	40.5%	69.0%	45.2%	33.3%	71.4%	38.1%
neither	42.9%	52.4%	35.7%	42.9%	40.5%	38.1%	31.0%
dishonest	21.4%	9.5%	19.0%	11.9%	19.0%	4.8%	26.2%
both	7.1%	16.7%	14.3%	7.1%	19.0%	11.9%	4.8%
honest	28.6%	21.4%	31.0%	38.1%	21.4%	45.2%	38.1%

**Table A-6. IV Castillian speakers national stereotypes; percentage of answers**

<b>12 years old</b>	<b>Italy</b>	<b>France</b>	<b>Spanish</b>	<b>Britain</b>	<b>Germany</b>	<b>Catalonia</b>	<b>Andalusia</b>
Neither	41.9%	30.2%	32.6%	32.6%	55.8%	30.2%	51.2%
dirty	4.7%	11.6%	7.0%	16.3%	11.6%	9.3%	4.7%
Both	2.3%	2.3%	4.7%	0.0%	0.0%	4.7%	0.0%
Clean	51.2%	55.8%	55.8%	51.2%	32.6%	55.8%	44.2%
Neither	32.6%	25.6%	11.6%	18.6%	25.6%	20.9%	9.3%
Unfriendly	9.3%	16.3%	2.3%	20.9%	25.6%	4.7%	7.0%
Both	4.7%	9.3%	11.6%	0.0%	4.7%	4.7%	2.3%
Friendly	53.5%	48.8%	74.4%	60.5%	44.2%	69.8%	81.4%
Neither	46.5%	46.5%	30.2%	39.5%	48.8%	30.2%	46.5%
stupid	7.0%	9.3%	2.3%	14.0%	9.3%	4.7%	4.7%
Both	2.3%	2.3%	4.7%	2.3%	7.0%	9.3%	2.3%
Clever	44.2%	41.9%	62.8%	44.2%	34.9%	55.8%	46.5%
Neither	37.2%	30.2%	14.0%	32.6%	32.6%	30.2%	30.2%
lazy	4.7%	14.0%	11.6%	11.6%	23.3%	9.3%	7.0%
Both	7.0%	9.3%	25.6%	2.3%	2.3%	16.3%	4.7%
Hardworking	51.2%	46.5%	48.8%	53.5%	41.9%	44.2%	58.1%
Neither	41.9%	41.9%	20.9%	30.2%	44.2%	32.6%	25.6%
Unhappy	18.6%	4.7%	0.0%	16.3%	23.3%	0.0%	4.7%
Both	7.0%	4.7%	16.3%	7.0%	9.3%	14.0%	2.3%
Happy	32.6%	48.8%	62.8%	46.5%	23.3%	53.5%	67.4%
Neither	55.8%	53.5%	37.2%	51.2%	55.8%	41.9%	41.9%
Dishonest	11.6%	7.0%	9.3%	16.3%	18.6%	16.3%	2.3%
Both	7.0%	2.3%	9.3%	7.0%	2.3%	9.3%	2.3%
Honest	25.6%	37.2%	44.2%	25.6%	23.3%	32.6%	53.5%

<b>15 years old</b>	<b>Italy</b>	<b>France</b>	<b>Spanish</b>	<b>Britain</b>	<b>Germany</b>	<b>Catalonia</b>	<b>Andalusia</b>
Neither	56.3%	43.8%	37.5%	37.5%	53.1%	34.4%	37.5%
dirty	12.5%	15.6%	6.3%	12.5%	18.8%	0.0%	15.6%
Both	6.3%	6.3%	6.3%	6.3%	6.3%	6.3%	3.1%
Clean	25.0%	94.4%	50.0%	34.4%	21.9%	59.4%	43.8%
Neither	25.0%	18.8%	9.4%	43.8%	40.6%	9.4%	21.9%
Unfriendly	9.4%	56.3%	0.0%	15.6%	31.3%	12.5%	0.0%
Both	6.3%	6.3%	6.3%	6.3%	6.3%	3.1%	3.1%
Friendly	59.4%	18.8%	84.4%	34.4%	21.9%	75.0%	75.0%
Neither	50.0%	37.5%	78.1%	25.0%	53.1%	34.4%	75.0%
stupid	9.4%	31.3%	0.0%	9.4%	3.1%	3.1%	3.1%
Both	9.4%	12.5%	6.3%	9.4%	18.8%	6.3%	3.1%
Clever	31.3%	18.8%	15.6%	56.3%	25.0%	56.3%	18.8%
Neither	43.8%	53.1%	6.3%	25.0%	15.6%	6.3%	6.3%
lazy	25.0%	9.4%	9.4%	0.0%	18.8%	3.1%	50.0%
Both	12.5%	6.3%	25.0%	6.3%	12.5%	9.4%	6.3%
Hardworking	18.8%	31.3%	59.4%	68.8%	53.1%	81.3%	37.5%
Neither	37.3%	56.3%	12.5%	40.6%	40.6%	28.1%	12.5%
Unhappy	3.1%	9.4%	0.0%	21.9%	25.0%	3.1%	0.0%
Both	6.3%	6.3%	9.4%	6.3%	3.6%	3.1%	6.3%
Happy	53.1%	28.1%	78.1%	31.3%	28.1%	65.6%	81.3%
Neither	46.9%	56.3%	21.9%	53.1%	62.5%	37.5%	31.3%
Dishonest	34.4%	18.8%	6.3%	12.5%	6.3%	0.0%	3.1%
Both	6.3%	6.3%	12.5%	6.3%	9.4%	3.1%	3.1%
Honest	12.5%	18.8%	59.4%	28.1%	21.9%	59.4%	62.5%

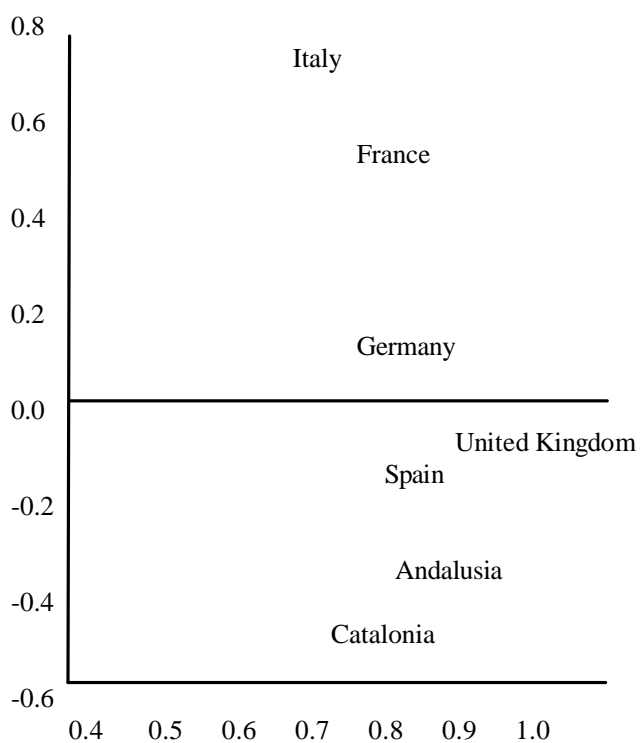
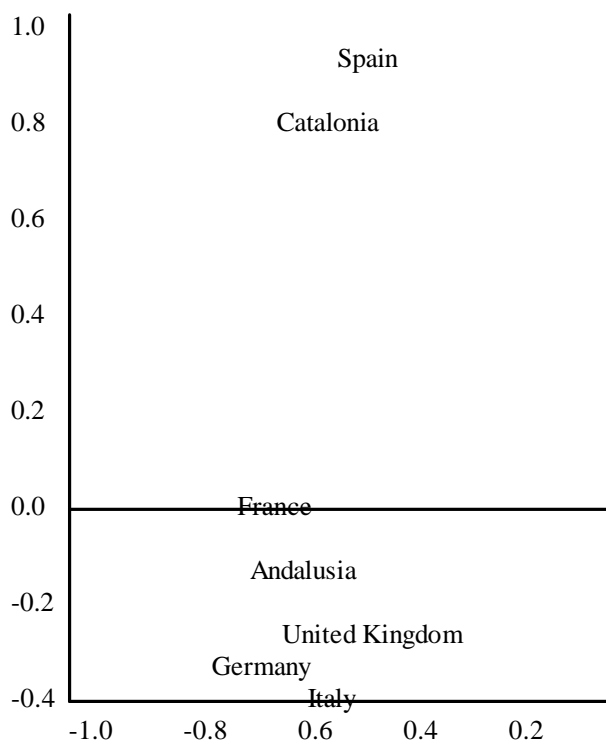
**Table A-6. V Bilingual national stereotypes; percentage of answers**

<b>6 years old</b>	<b>Italy</b>	<b>France</b>	<b>Spain</b>	<b>Britain</b>	<b>Germany</b>	<b>Catalonia</b>	<b>Andalusia</b>
neither	21.4%	0.0%	0.0%	14.3%	7.1%	7.1%	0.0%
dirty	14.3%	21.4%	7.1%	0.0%	14.3%	0.0%	21.4%
both	7.1%	21.4%	7.1%	14.3%	21.4%	14.3%	35.7%
clean	57.1%	57.1%	85.7%	71.4%	57.1%	78.6%	42.9%
neither	21.4%	21.4%	21.4%	14.3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
unfriendly	14.3%	7.1%	0.0%	7.1%	7.1%	7.1%	14.3%
both	42.9%	21.4%	35.7%	35.7%	42.9%	35.7%	42.9%
friendly	21.4%	50.0%	42.9%	42.9%	50.0%	57.1%	42.9%
neither	21.4%	14.3%	14.3%	21.4%	21.4%	0.0%	7.1%
stupid	7.1%	0.0%	0.0%	7.1%	7.1%	7.1%	14.3%
both	7.1%	21.4%	21.4%	14.3%	14.3%	14.3%	21.4%
clever	64.3%	64.3%	64.3%	57.1%	57.1%	78.6%	57.1%
neither	28.6%	0.0%	7.1%	14.3%	14.3%	0.0%	7.1%
lazy	0.0%	35.7%	7.1%	0.0%	14.3%	7.1%	14.3%
both	35.7%	21.4%	14.3%	42.9%	28.6%	50.0%	35.7%
hardworking	35.7%	42.9%	71.4%	42.9%	42.9%	42.9%	42.9%
neither	7.1%	14.3%	14.3%	14.3%	7.1%	0.0%	0.0%
unhappy	35.7%	21.4%	7.1%	7.1%	14.3%	14.3%	21.4%
both	14.3%	35.7%	21.4%	35.7%	50.0%	42.9%	50.0%
happy	42.9%	28.6%	57.1%	42.9%	28.6%	42.9%	28.6%
neither	42.9%	42.9%	35.7%	28.6%	35.7%	21.4%	35.7%
dishonest	28.6%	14.3%	21.4%	7.1%	7.1%	7.1%	21.4%
both	14.3%	7.1%	14.3%	21.4%	50.0%	21.4%	28.6%
honest	14.3%	35.7%	28.6%	42.9%	7.1%	50.0%	14.3%
<hr/>							
<b>9 years old</b>	<b>Italy</b>	<b>France</b>	<b>Spanish</b>	<b>Britain</b>	<b>Germany</b>	<b>Catalonia</b>	<b>Andalusia</b>
neither	36.4%	18.2%	18.3%	27.3%	27.3%	13.6%	22.7%
dirty	13.6%	4.5%	4.5%	18.2%	13.6%	4.5%	22.7%
both	13.6%	13.6%	9.1%	18.2%	9.1%	9.1%	9.1%
clean	36.4%	63.6%	68.2%	36.4%	50.0%	72.7%	45.5%
neither	31.8%	27.3%	18.2%	22.7%	36.4%	13.6%	31.8%
unfriendly	4.5%	18.2%	4.5%	22.7%	4.5%	0.0%	18.2%
both	13.6%	18.2%	22.7%	9.1%	27.3%	13.6%	13.6%
friendly	50.0%	36.4%	54.5%	45.5%	31.8%	72.7%	36.4%
neither	31.8%	50.0%	31.8%	50.0%	50.0%	22.7%	36.4%
stupid	18.2%	0.0%	0.0%	13.6%	9.1%	0.0%	4.5%
both	13.6%	18.2%	9.1%	9.1%	9.1%	18.2%	18.2%
clever	36.4%	31.8%	59.1%	27.3%	31.8%	59.1%	40.9%
neither	27.3%	27.3%	18.2%	4.5%	31.8%	18.2%	27.3%
lazy	13.6%	13.6%	9.1%	40.9%	4.5%	0.0%	13.6%
both	13.6%	13.6%	13.6%	13.6%	27.3%	13.6%	9.1%
hardworking	45.5%	45.5%	59.1%	40.9%	36.4%	68.2%	50.0%
neither	31.8%	22.7%	22.7%	22.7%	27.3%	27.3%	31.8%
unhappy	13.6%	22.7%	4.5%	18.2%	13.6%	9.1%	13.6%
both	18.2%	18.2%	22.7%	18.2%	27.3%	9.1%	22.7%
happy	36.4%	36.4%	50.0%	40.9%	31.8%	54.5%	31.8%
neither	22.7%	40.9%	45.5%	50.0%	50.0%	27.3%	40.9%
dishonest	22.7%	22.7%	9.1%	22.7%	4.5%	9.1%	9.1%
both	13.6%	9.1%	9.1%	13.6%	13.6%	9.1%	13.6%
honest	40.9%	27.3%	36.4%	13.6%	31.8%	54.5%	36.4%

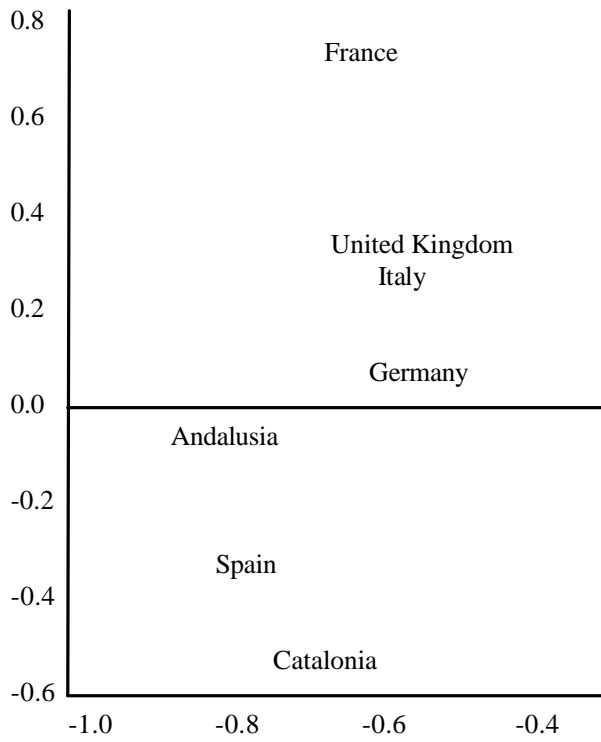
**Table A-6. VI Bilingual national stereotypes; percentage of answers**

<b>12 years old</b>	<b>Italy</b>	<b>France</b>	<b>Spanish</b>	<b>Britain</b>	<b>Germany</b>	<b>Catalonia</b>	<b>Andalusia</b>
Neither	40.0%	35.0%	30.0%	20.0%	20.0%	30.0%	25.0%
dirty	5.0%	10.0%	30.0%	5.0%	30.0%	5.0%	0.0%
Both	10.0%	10.0%	10.0%	10.0%	15.0%	10.0%	10.0%
Clean	45.0%	45.0%	30.0%	65.0%	35.0%	55.0%	65.0%
Neither	35.0%	25.0%	20.0%	35.0%	40.0%	25.0%	15.0%
Unfriendly	15.0%	15.0%	10.0%	15.0%	25.0%	15.0%	5.0%
Both	10.0%	10.0%	15.0%	10.0%	15.0%	10.0%	10.0%
Friendly	40.0%	50.0%	55.0%	40.0%	20.0%	50.0%	70.0%
Neither	45.0%	45.0%	60.0%	35.0%	65.0%	40.0%	65.0%
stupid	5.0%	15.0%	0.0%	5.0%	0.0%	0.0%	10.0%
Both	10.0%	5.0%	5.0%	10.0%	5.0%	5.0%	5.0%
Clever	40.0%	35.0%	35.0%	50.0%	30.0%	55.0%	20.0%
Neither	30.0%	20.0%	10.0%	10.0%	25.0%	30.0%	10.0%
lazy	10.0%	10.0%	20.0%	10.0%	20.0%	10.0%	10.0%
Both	15.0%	15.0%	30.0%	15.0%	25.0%	10.0%	15.0%
Hardworking	45.0%	55.0%	40.0%	65.0%	30.0%	50.0%	65.0%
Neither	40.0%	40.0%	30.0%	35.0%	55.0%	20.0%	35.0%
Unhappy	5.0%	10.0%	5.0%	5.0%	5.0%	5.0%	5.0%
Both	5.0%	10.0%	15.0%	10.0%	5.0%	15.0%	15.0%
Happy	50.0%	40.0%	50.0%	50.0%	35.0%	60.0%	45.0%
Neither	35.0%	25.0%	25.0%	25.0%	55.0%	25.0%	25.0%
Dishonest	25.0%	20.0%	10.0%	10.0%	20.0%	0.0%	5.0%
Both	5.0%	5.0%	10.0%	5.0%	0.0%	0.0%	10.0%
Honest	35.0%	50.0%	55.0%	60.0%	25.0%	75.0%	60.0%

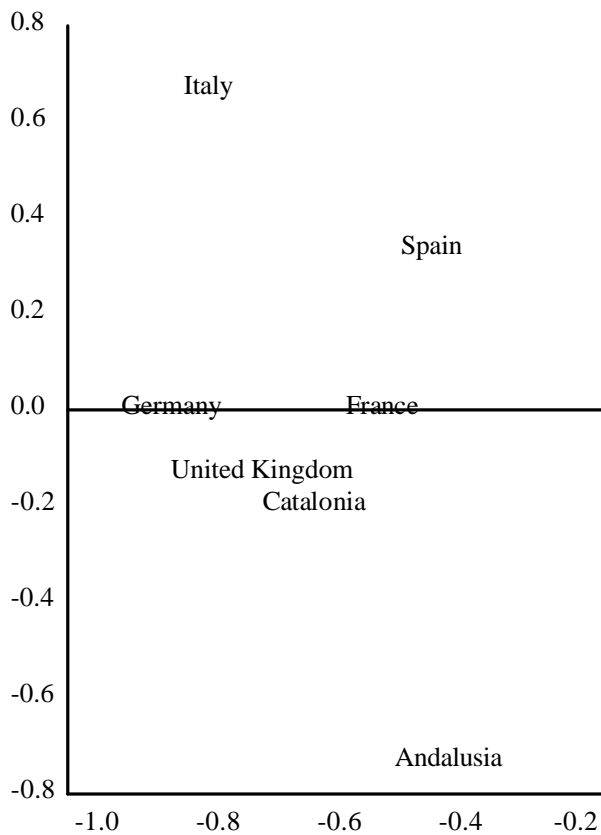
<b>15 years old</b>	<b>Italy</b>	<b>France</b>	<b>Spanish</b>	<b>Britain</b>	<b>Germany</b>	<b>Catalonia</b>	<b>Andalusia</b>
Neither	40.0%	40.0%	33.3%	26.7%	60.0%	33.3%	53.3%
dirty	20.0%	6.7%	13.3%	6.7%	6.7%	0.0%	20.0%
Both	60.7%	6.7%	6.7%	6.7%	6.7%	0.0%	0.0%
Clean	33.3%	46.7%	46.7%	60.0%	26.7%	66.7%	26.7%
Neither	26.7%	26.7%	20.0%	46.7%	26.7%	20.0%	0.0%
Unfriendly	13.3%	26.7%	6.7%	6.7%	33.3%	13.3%	6.7%
Both	6.7%	6.7%	6.7%	6.7%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Friendly	53.3%	40.0%	66.7%	40.0%	40.0%	66.7%	93.3%
Neither	73.3%	53.3%	53.3%	53.3%	53.3%	33.3%	73.3%
stupid	6.7%	6.7%	13.3%	13.3%	6.7%	0.0%	6.7%
Both	0.0%	13.3%	6.7%	6.7%	6.7%	6.7%	0.0%
Clever	20.0%	26.7%	26.7%	26.7%	33.3%	60.0%	20.0%
Neither	53.3%	26.7%	13.3%	13.3%	13.3%	13.3%	20.0%
lazy	20.0%	13.3%	26.7%	6.7%	13.3%	6.7%	33.3%
Both	6.7%	6.7%	26.7%	13.3%	13.3%	0.0%	13.3%
Hardworking	20.0%	53.3%	33.3%	66.7%	60.0%	80.0%	33.3%
Neither	46.7%	60.0%	33.3%	46.7%	26.7%	26.7%	26.7%
Unhappy	13.3%	13.3%	6.7%	26.7%	26.7%	6.7%	0.0%
Both	0.0%	6.7%	6.7%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	6.7%
Happy	40.0%	20.0%	53.3%	26.7%	46.7%	66.7%	66.7%
Neither	40.0%	60.0%	33.3%	46.7%	53.3%	26.7%	20.0%
Dishonest	6.7%	6.7%	6.7%	0.0%	6.7%	0.0%	20.0%
Both	6.7%	6.7%	6.7%	0.0%	0.0%	6.7%	0.0%
Honest	46.7%	26.7%	53.3%	53.3%	40.0%	66.7%	60.0%

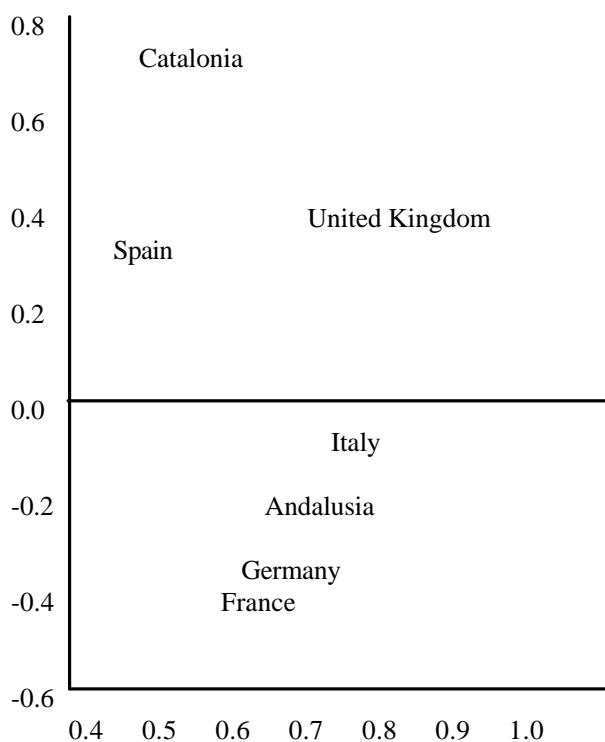
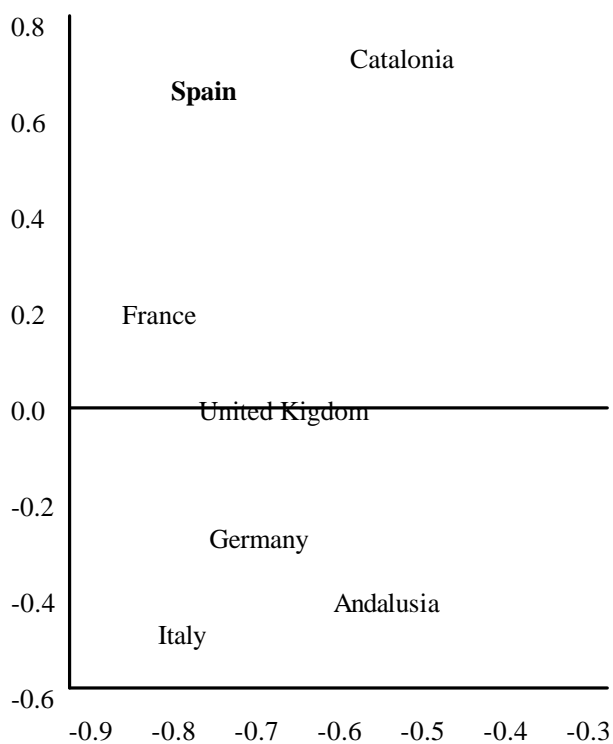
**Figure A-6. I. 6 year olds Castilian speakers similarity Pricals analysis****Figure A-6. II 9 year olds Castilian speakers similarity Pricals analysis**

**Figure A-6. III 12 year olds Castilian speakers similarity Pricals analysis**



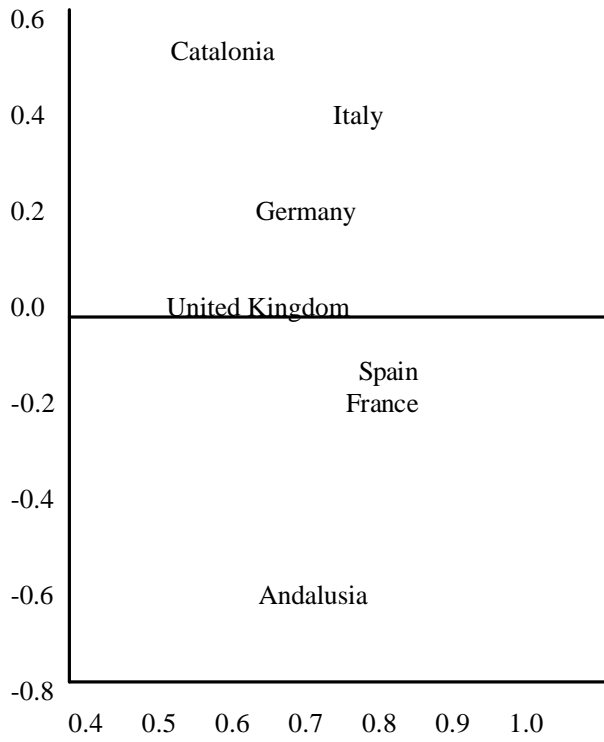
**Figure A-6. IV 15 year olds Castilian speakers similarity Pricals analysis**



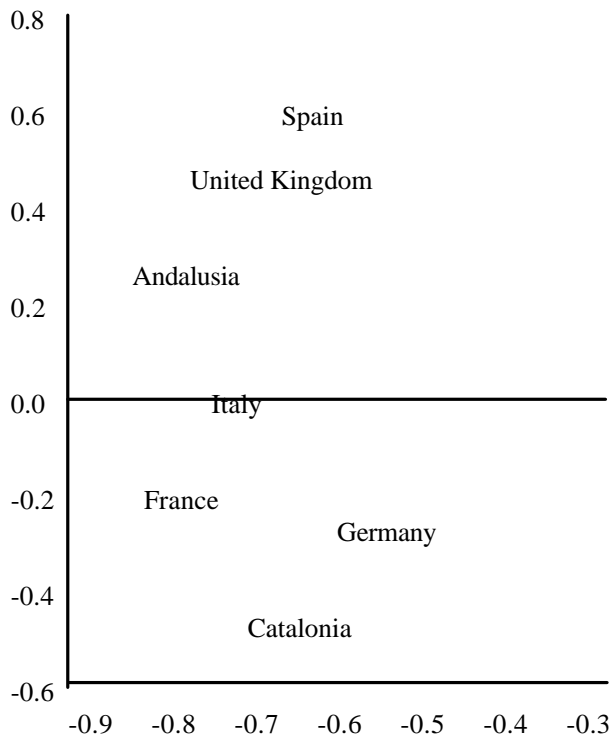
**Figure A-6.V 6 year olds Catalan speakers similarity Pricals analysis****Figure A-6. VI 9 year olds Catalan speakers similarity Pricals analysis**



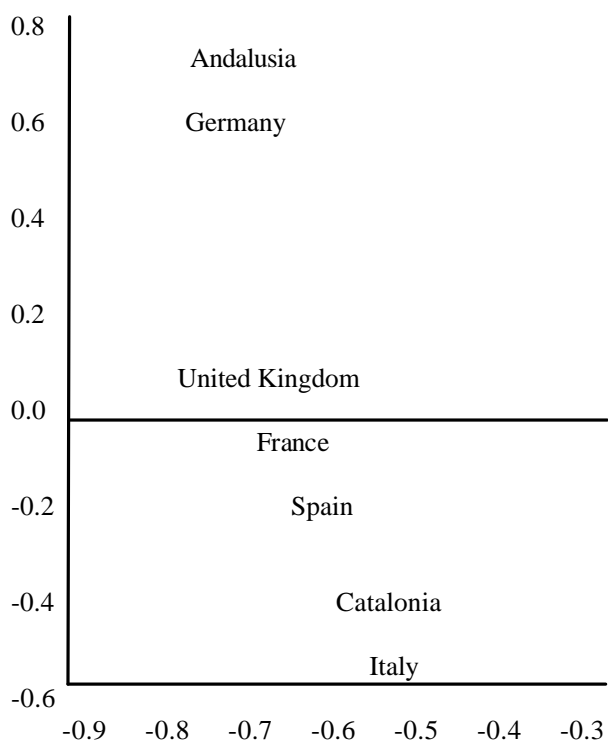
**Figure A-6. VII 12 year olds Catalan speakers similarity Pricals analysis**



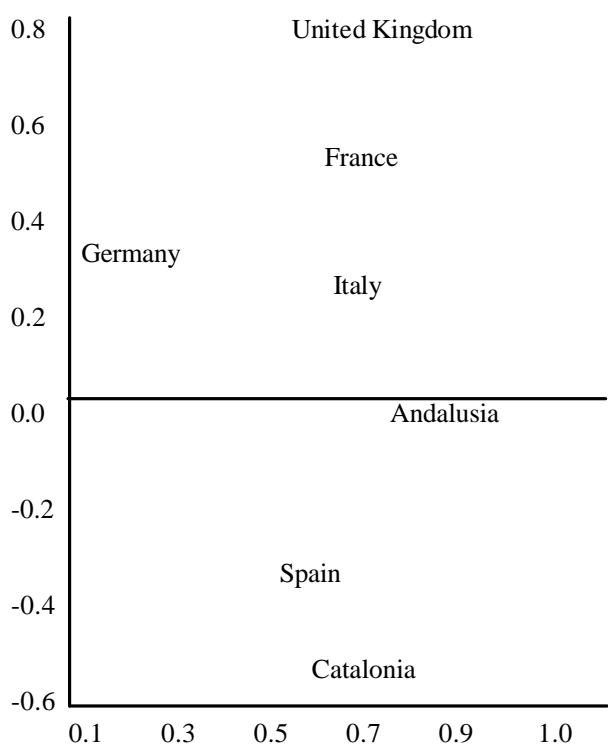
**Figure A-6. VIII 15 year olds Catalan speakers similarity Pricals analysis**



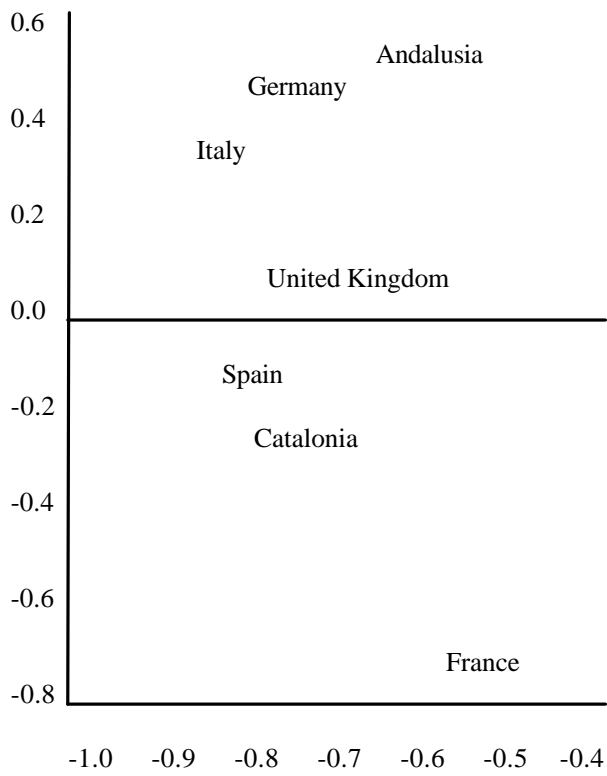
**Figure A-6.IX 6 year olds Bilingual similarity Pricals analysis**



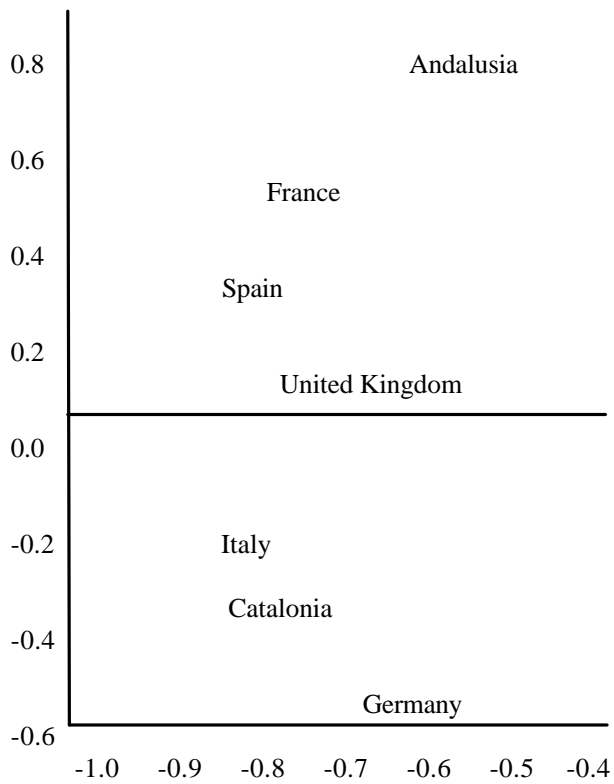
**Figure A-6. X 9 year olds Bilingual similarity Pricals analysis**

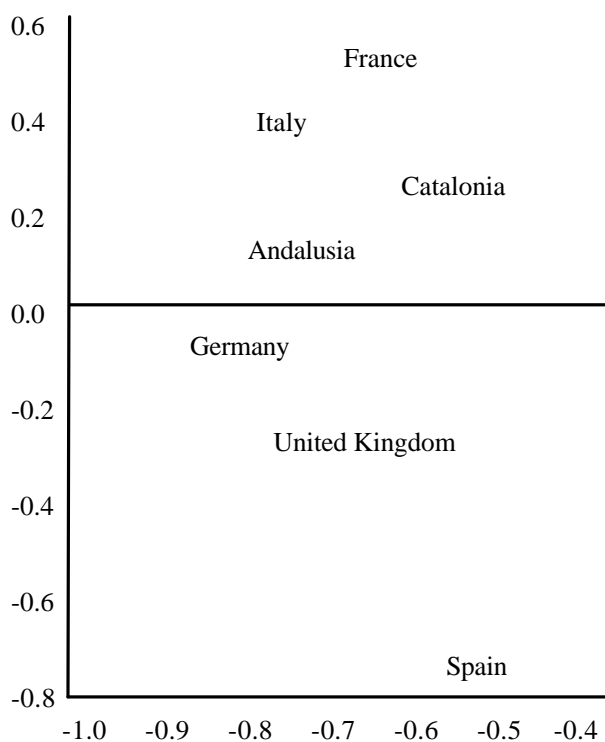
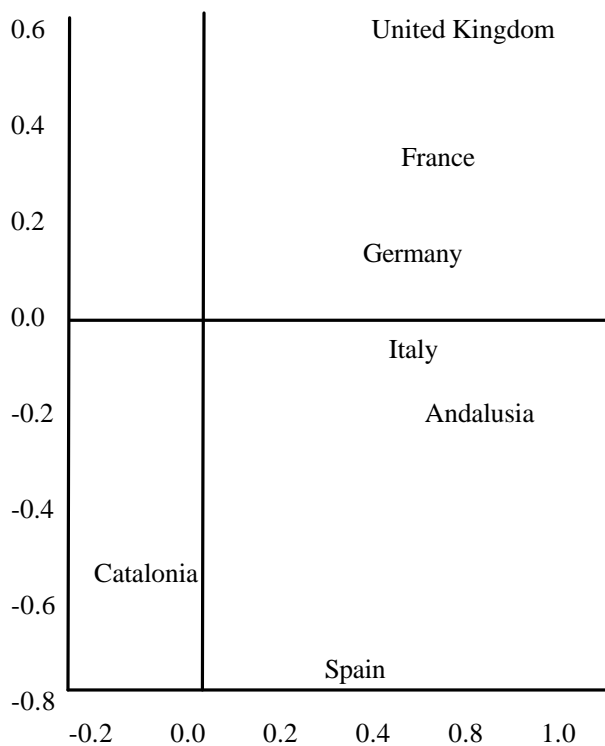


**Figure A-6. XI 12 year olds Bilingual similarity Pricals analysis**

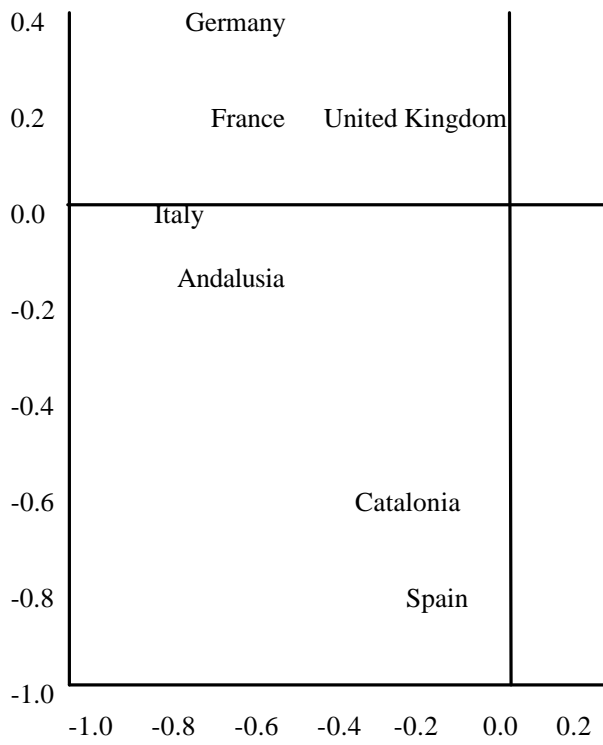


**Figure A-6. XII 15 year olds Bilingual similarity Pricals analysis**

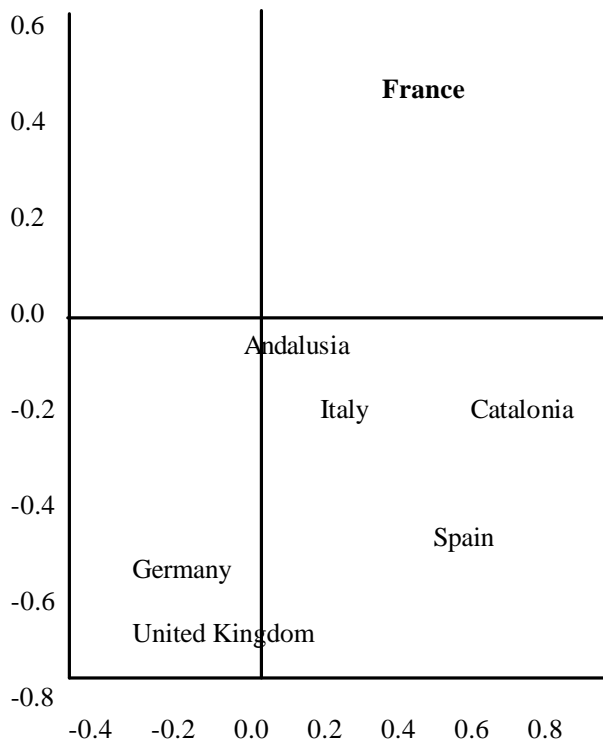


**Figure A-6. XIII 6 year olds Castilian speakers feelings Pricals analysis****Figure A-6. XIV 9 year olds Castilian speakers feelings Pricals analysis**

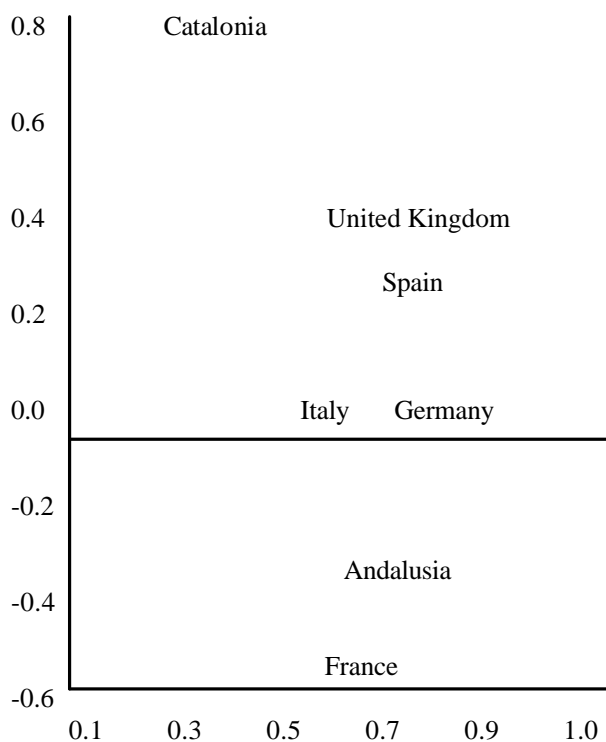
**Figure A-6. XV 12 year olds Castilian speakers feelings Pricals analysis**



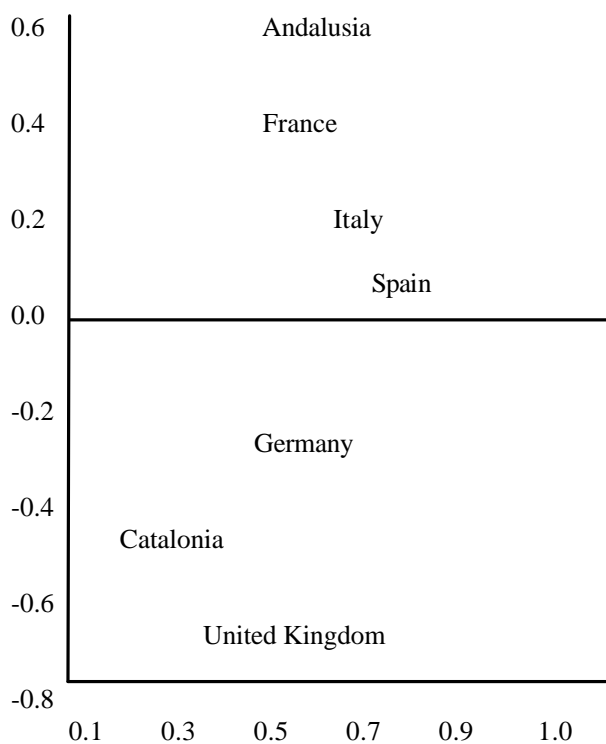
**Figure A-6. XVI 15 year olds Castilian speakers feelings Pricals analysis**



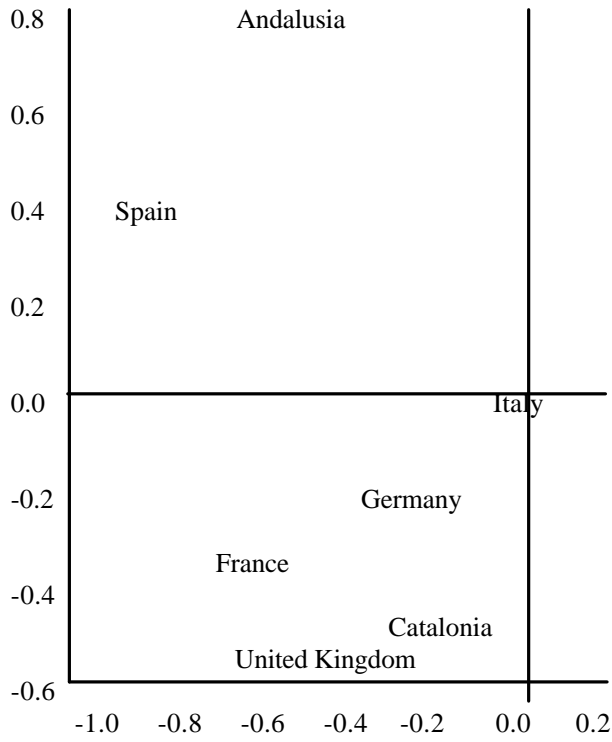
**Figure A-6.XVII 6 year olds Catalan speakers feelings Pricals analysis**



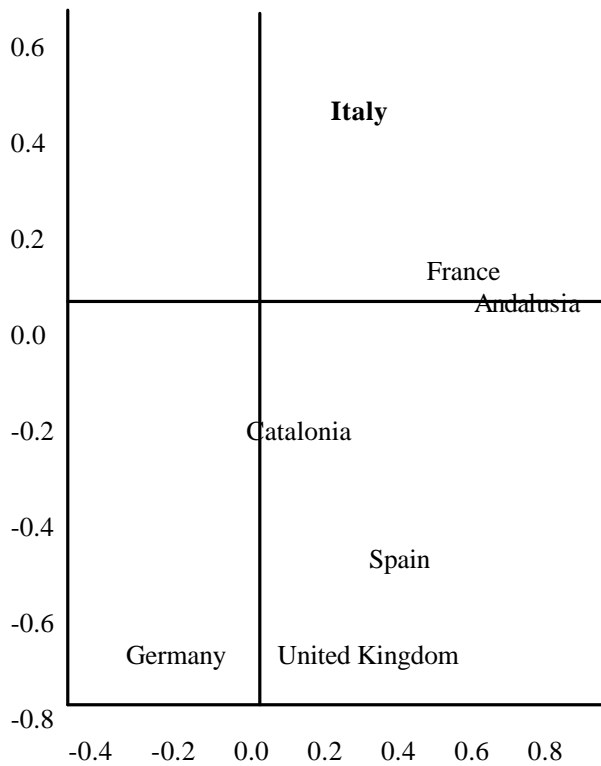
**Figure A-6. XVIII 9 year olds Catalan speakers feelings Pricals analysis**



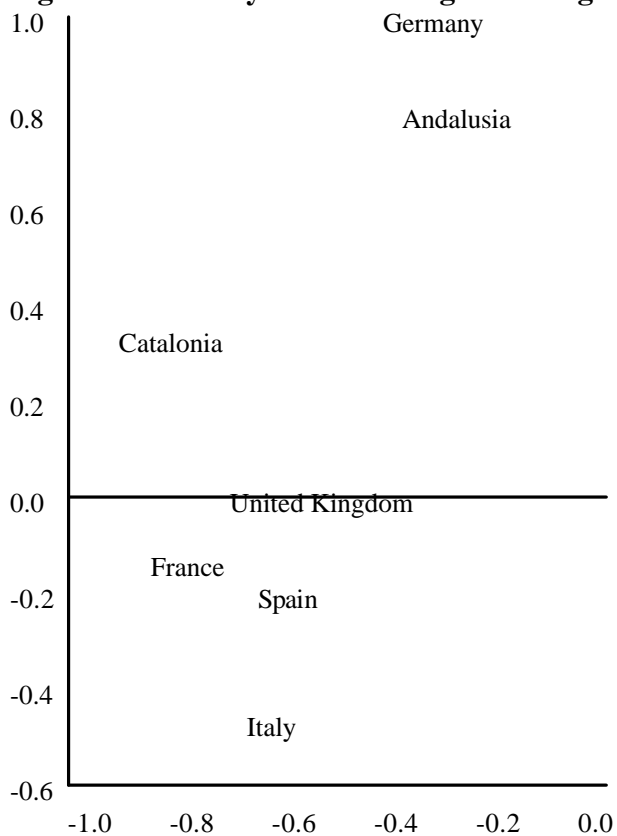
**Figure A-6. XIX 12 year olds Catalan speakers feelings Pricals analysis**



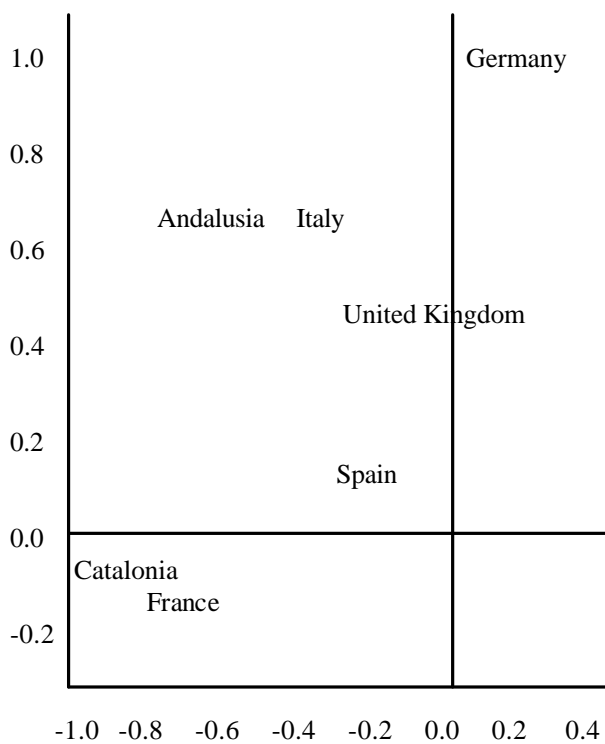
**Figure A-6. XX 15 year olds Catalan speakers feelings Pricals analysis**



**Figure A-6.XXI 6 year olds Bilingual feelings Pricals analysis**

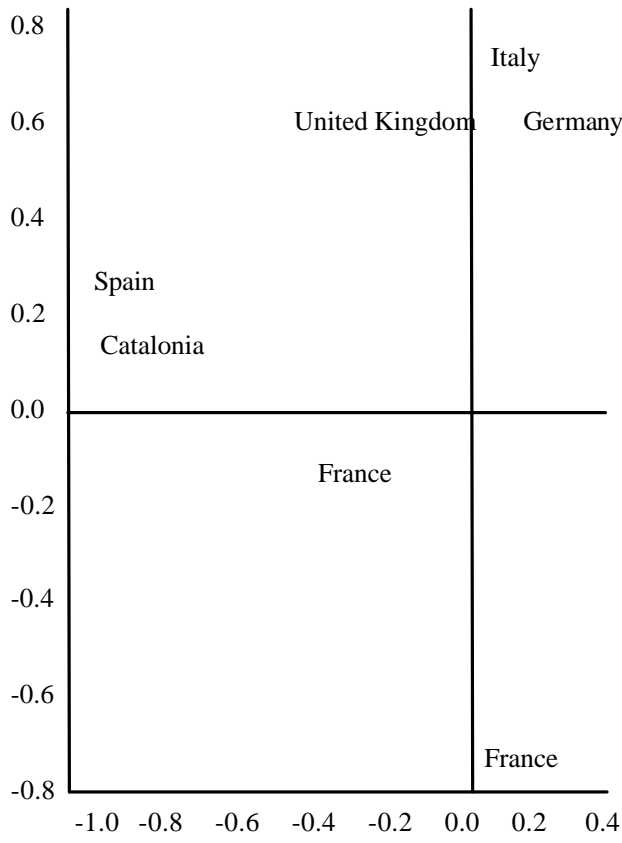


**Figure A-6. XXII 9 year olds Bilingual feelings Pricals analysis**





**Figure A-6. XXIII 12 year olds Bilingual feelings Pricals analysis**



**Figure A-6. XXIV 15 year olds Bilingual feelings Pricals analysis**

