

The issue basis of citizens' ideological self-placement

Romain Lachat
Pompeu Fabra University
Barcelona, Spain
mail@romain-lachat.ch

January 2011

Abstract

The left–right scale is the concept most often used to describe political actors' positions. However, there is strong evidence that electoral competition in Western Europe is structured by two dimensions: economic and cultural. How can a single dimension be sufficient to orient oneself in a two-dimensional political space? This paper suggests a solution to this paradox: the left–right scale corresponds to a curve in a two-dimensional political space rather than to a straight line. The relationships between issue preferences and left–right positions are non-linear. The various left-wing positions, from extreme-left to centre-left, should differ strongly from one another in economic terms but be relatively similar as far as cultural issue preferences are concerned. The reverse pattern should characterize the range of right-wing ideological positions. This paper analyses the relations between citizens' left–right position and issue preferences in nineteen elections from five West European countries and finds strong support for the hypothesis of a curved left–right scale.

1. Introduction

The left–right scale is very salient in the political (science) discourse. It is the most universally used reference to qualify political positions (Benoit and Laver 2006), and it frequently is used by politicians, political pundits, political scientists, and citizens. The pervasiveness of the left–right scale lends support to the idea that citizens’ and parties’ political positions are structured by a single dimension. If citizens and political elites can meaningfully describe preferences and positions using the left–right scale, it means that the main political conflicts and issues should align on a single dimension.

However, the prevalence of the left–right concept and the assumption of a single dimension of political conflict seem to conflict with much evidence from research on the dimensionality of the political space. Several authors have demonstrated that two dimensions (at least) are necessary to explain the structure of political positions in Western Europe – at the level of parties (Hix 1999; Warwick 2002), voters (Kitschelt 1995; van der Brug and van Spanje 2009), or both (Kitschelt 1994; Kriesi et al. 2008). Most common in this literature is to distinguish between an economic and a cultural dimension (e.g., Kitschelt 1994). The exact definition of these economic and cultural dimensions may vary across countries and over time. Their content will be defined more precisely in section 2. At this stage, it is only important to notice that there are two distinct dimensions. Findings that the political space is structured by two largely independent dimensions lead to a puzzling situation. One may wonder how citizens can orient themselves in a two-dimensional political world by referring to a single dimension. If the economic and cultural dimensions are to a large extent independent from one another, the left–right scale should not be sufficient to describe political positions. On the other hand, if the left–right scale really captures the main conflicts structuring citizens’ issue preferences, then we should not find that these attitudes are indeed structured by two independent dimensions, as much research shows.

Can these contradictory views about the dimensionality of the political space be reconciled? In other words, can a one-dimensional and a two-dimensional representation of the political space be equally valid? This paper suggests that this is indeed possible. To do this, I draw on the ideas developed by Weisberg (1974). Weisberg has shown that the dimensionality of spatial representations may be ambiguous. Imagine a representation of political actors' positions in a two-dimensional Cartesian space in which the positions to be described form a curved line. The space in which the actors' positions are represented is two-dimensional, and both dimensions seem necessary to represent this curved alignment. However, the positions all lie on a line and may thus be considered to be on a single dimension (Weisberg 1974). In such a situation, the question of dimensionality is difficult to answer unequivocally. I suggest that this type of situation applies to citizens' left–right positions. This *hypothesis of a curved left–right scale* means that while the left–right scale is by nature unidimensional, its relationship with the economic and cultural issues that often are used to describe the dimensions of the political space is non-linear. A given change along the left–right scale does not always mean the same in terms of citizens' economic preferences or cultural preferences. This hypothesis follows from the observation that citizens' interpretation of the left–right divide is influenced by the conflicts and debates they observe in their political system (Inglehart and Klingemann 1976; Huber 1989). West European democracies in the 1990s and early 2000s – the countries and period on which this analysis is based – share a relatively similar structure of issue preferences and party competition: Left-wing parties tend to diverge mainly on economic issue preferences, while parties on the right differ from one another mainly in terms of their cultural issue positions (Kriesi et al. 2006, 2008). I expect these differences to be reflected in the character of citizens' left–right positions. More specifically, I expect the various left-wing positions, from extreme-left to centre-left, to differ strongly from one another in economic terms but to be relatively similar as far as cultural issue preferences

are concerned. The reverse pattern should characterize the range of right-wing ideological positions.

The next section briefly reviews the literature on the dimensionality of the political space. Section three turns to the relationship between left–right ideology and more specific political issues. It presents in more detail the hypothesis of a curved left–right scale. The data and the variables’ operationalization are introduced in section four, followed by the presentation of the main results. These offer strong support for the hypothesis of a curved left–right scale. In the nineteen election studies examined here, the relationship between left–right ideology, on the one hand, and the cultural and economic issues, on the other, is not the same for left-wing and right-wing citizens. The paper concludes by discussing the implications of these findings for our understanding of the left–right scale.

2. The dimensionality of citizens’ issue preferences

The left–right ideological scale is a central reference when describing the structure of citizens’ political attitudes. It often is the only dimension used to describe voters’ preferences. This scale has been described as a kind of ‘super-issue’ with a strong integrative capacity (Inglehart and Klingemann 1976; Fuchs and Klingemann 1989; van der Eijk et al. 2005), thus new issues tend to be integrated in this ideological conflict. All relevant political issues, be they of an economic or cultural nature, should align along the left–right scale. This implies that issue positions can to a large extent be inferred from left–right orientation (or vice-versa). The variety of political issues should boil down to a single dimension of political competition. The use of a left–right dimension of political competition is not only pervasive in the political science literature, but most citizens, at least in West European democracies, also are willing to position themselves on this scale (Inglehart and Klingemann 1976; Mair 2007), and citizens as well as political experts can use it to locate political parties. The meaning of the left–right scale is likely to vary across time and space (Fuchs and Klingemann 1989; Huber and

Inglehart 1995; Benoit and Laver 2006). For example, it may be more strongly influenced by economic orientations in some contexts than in others. However, in a variety of political contexts there seems to be a shared understanding of what left and right mean (Benoit and Laver 2006).

This dominance of the left–right concept appears however to conflict with findings on the dimensionality of the political space. Several studies have shown that two dimensions structure citizens’ attitudes toward political issues in West European democracies (Kitschelt 1994; Kriesi et al. 2008; van der Brug and van Spanje 2009). There is some variation across authors in the exact definition of these dimensions, but most scholars distinguish between an economic and a cultural or social-cultural dimension. The variation in the nature of these dimensions is mainly due to differences across countries and over time in the way in which the various issues are bundled. This is particularly true of the cultural dimension, the character of which has changed quite strongly over time (van Deth and Scarbrough 1995; Dalton 2002; Hooghe et al. 2002; Kriesi et al. 2008). However, for the countries and in the time period considered in this analysis (that is, France, Germany, the Netherlands, Switzerland, and the United Kingdom in the 1990s and early 2000s), the political space has been shown to be structured in a similar fashion (Kriesi et al. 2006, 2008). The economic dimension corresponds largely to the traditional class cleavage (Lipset and Rokkan 1967) and represents an opposition between the State and the market (Kitschelt 1994). The cultural dimension is mainly structured by issues of cultural liberalism, immigration, and European integration (Kriesi et al. 2006, 2008; van der Brug and van Spanje 2009).

3. The relation of left–right ideology and issue preferences

This apparent contradiction between the widespread use of a left–right scale and the findings of a two-dimensional political space is puzzling. The results pointing to a two-dimensional structure of voters’ attitudes mean that the economic and cultural issue dimensions are largely

independent from one another. It should not be possible to predict citizens' cultural preferences simply by knowing where they stand on economic matters. Thus, if voters' attitudes really are structured by two dimensions, one-dimensional models should be misleading. Reducing the diversity of political positions to a single scale implies a loss of important information. The left–right scale seems to be a meaningful device to describe political positions only if the two dimensions of the political space are strongly related. Yet, the widespread use of the left–right scale in politics and in political science clearly shows that this concept is still meaningful.

A crucial step towards solving this paradox, this article suggests, is to think about which assumptions are made when relating the left–right scale to more specific political issues. In the above reasoning, it was implicitly assumed that left–right and political issues are related in a linear way. That is, positions on the left–right scale are conceived of as a linear combination of attitudes towards more specific economic and cultural issues. This assumption is virtually always made when analyzing the relationship between left–right ideology and issue preferences (e.g., Budge and Robertson 1987; Huber 1989; Huber and Inglehart 1995). One of the implications of this assumption is that, in graphical terms, the left–right scale is represented as a straight line when drawn in a two-dimensional representation of the political space. This is illustrated in the left-hand panel of Figure 1, which represent a two-dimensional political space, with an economic and a cultural dimension. This is a relatively standard model of the political space, with dimensions similar to those defined by Kitschelt (1994) or Kriesi et al. (2008). In Figure 1, the left–right scale runs from a pro-State and culturally liberal position, corresponding to the left end of the scale, to a pro-market and culturally conservative profile that characterizes the right end of the scale. Depending on the relative importance of economic and cultural issues, the slope of this line could be flatter or steeper. But as long as left–right is represented by a straight line, it is implicitly assumed that it relates in a linear way to the more specific political issues defining the economic and cultural dimensions. The

left-hand panel of Figure 1 thus summarizes the paradox situation exposed above. If citizens' political preferences are meaningfully represented by such an ideological scale, they would indeed be one-dimensional. Such a left–right scale would capture most of the variation in citizens' political positions. The cultural and economic issues would be very strongly correlated with one another and they would not build two distinct dimensions.

'Figure 1 about here'

However, following the ideas of Weisberg (1974) introduced above, a straight line is not the only possible alignment that can be qualified as one-dimensional. The right-hand panel of Figure 1 shows an alternative. Here, a curve runs from the upper left quadrant to the lower right one. The curve is almost horizontal in the left-hand portion and becomes very steep in the right-hand portion. If the left–right positions one wants to summarize are aligned in this way, they can be said to form a single dimension because they are located on the same line.

However, the cultural and economic issues would not merge into a single dimension.

Contrary to the scenario depicted in the left-hand panel, the relationship of this left–right scale with the economic and cultural issues is not linear. In the upper left quadrant, movements along this line imply important changes on the economic dimension but with virtually no changes on the cultural dimension. The reverse situation applies to the lower right quadrant. This also implies that the economic and cultural dimensions should be less strongly correlated than in the scenario depicted in the left-hand panel of Figure 1.

This *hypothesis of a curved left–right scale* has the potential to solve the paradox brought about by contradictory findings on the dimensionality of the political space. But why should left–right orientations relate in that specific way to citizens' economic and cultural issue preferences? Where do these non-linear relationships come from and why do I expect them to follow such a pattern? This hypothesis is based on the idea that citizens' interpretation of the

concepts of left and right depends on the conflicts they observe in their political system. ‘Left’ and ‘Right’ are abstract concepts. Their political meaning comes from the association between these abstract concepts and specific political positions advocated by political actors. The ‘meaning’ of the left–right scale should thus depend on the political parties and actors that claim or are ascribed these positions (Inglehart and Klingemann 1976; Huber 1989; Knutsen 1998). In many West European countries, the configuration of the main parties is increasingly triangular (Grunberg and Schweisguth 1997; Kriesi et al. 2008). Left-wing, moderate right-wing, and conservative right-wing parties form the three poles of this configuration. Left-wing and moderate right-wing parties differ strongly on economic terms but only moderately on cultural issues. They both tend to share culturally liberal positions. Moderate right-wing and conservative right-wing parties, in contrast, have relatively similar economic positions but differ strongly on cultural terms. In the five countries studied in this paper, the configuration of party positions in the 1990s and early 2000s corresponds to such a triangular shape (Lachat and Kriesi 2008). I expect the same pattern to be found when comparing the issue preferences of citizens taking different positions on the left–right scale. I refer to this as the *hypothesis of a curved left–right scale*. The shape of this ‘left–right curve’ should be such that the relations between ideological position and economic and cultural issues are not the same for left-wing and right-wing citizens. The differences between various positions on the left, such as between centre-left and far-left citizens, should be strongly related to economic issue preferences and more weakly related to cultural issue preferences. Among right-wing citizens, in contrast, the reverse situation should apply. Citizens on the far right should be culturally much more conservative than centre-right respondents. However, these two groups of citizens should have more similar economic preferences. For this hypothesis to be supported the ‘shape’ of the left–right scale does not need to correspond exactly to the picture in Figure 1; Figure 1 is meant only to be illustrative. The important message is simply that economic issue preferences have a *stronger impact on ideology among*

left-wing than right-wing respondents, whereas the impact of cultural issue preferences is *stronger on the right than on the left*.

4. Data and methods

To test the hypothesis of a curved left–right scale, I examine the relations between voters’ issue preferences and ideological self-placement in five countries: France, Germany, the Netherlands, Switzerland, and the United Kingdom. I rely on data from national election studies and analyze all national elections from the mid 1990s up to 2007. The choice of these countries and of this time period is influenced by findings of previous research on the dimensionality of the political space. As explained in the previous section, the expectation of a curved left–right scale is linked with the configuration of party positions. In the five countries analyzed here, this configuration has been shown to be triangular in the 1990s and early 2000s (Kriesi et al. 2008). I do not include elections held after 2007, as the financial crisis that started at the end of that year may have significantly altered the configuration of party positions.¹

For each of these election surveys, I analyze the relationships between citizens’ placement on the left–right scale and their attitudes towards a range of political issues. Citizens’ positions on the left–right scale were measured in a similar way in all five countries. In each survey, respondents were first told that left and right were concepts often used to describe political attitudes or classify political actors. They were then invited to indicate their own position on that scale. Answers were coded using seven-point scales (France 1995 and 2002), ten-point scales (the Netherlands 1994, 1998 and 2003; Germany 1994), or eleven-point scales (Swiss, British, and remaining Dutch, French, and German elections).

¹ This study does not include Austria, the sixth country covered by Kriesi et al. (2008), as the available election surveys in Austria did not include any item on left–right self-placement.

Comparing attitudes—or relationships between attitudes and ideology—across such surveys is not straightforward. While questions about left–right orientations are formulated in roughly similar terms across countries, more specific attitudinal items may vary widely. A direct comparison of attitudes is therefore difficult. Comparisons can be made easier by grouping issue items into more general categories, such as support for European integration, attitudes towards immigration, or support for the welfare state. One or more indicators for such categories are available in a large number of election studies. This approach allows one to build a smaller number of summary indicators and is the strategy used in this study.²

I distinguish between eight categories of issues.³ Two categories correspond to economic attitudes: support for the welfare state and for economic liberalism. Six categories tap cultural issues: support for cultural liberalism, European integration,⁴ restrictive immigration, national defence, law and order, and culture.

² An alternative procedure would be to go even further in the process of aggregating issue questions and to build only two issue dimensions, corresponding to the economic and cultural dimensions of the political space. This would mean that left-right positions are compared to only two summary dimensions. A possible advantage of this procedure is that it would parallel more closely a two-dimensional representation of the political space as illustrated in Figure 1. However, it also requires making the assumption that specific issue categories are related in a linear way to these summary economic and cultural dimensions. This assumption, however, cannot be tested, because the underlying economic and cultural dimensions cannot be measured directly. As a consequence, any findings based on this alternative procedure could be put into question.

³ This is based on a schema suggested by Kriesi et al. (2008). Four of the categories defined by these authors are not used here: ‘Budgetary rigor’ is part of the group of economic issues, but there are no corresponding indicators for the election studies considered here. ‘Infrastructure’ and ‘Institutional reform’ are not easily categorized as economic or cultural. ‘Environmental protection’ is also difficult to classify. It is usually more strongly related to economic than cultural issues. But there are exceptions, and the issue is definitely not part of traditional economic issues.

⁴ While attitudes toward European integration have both economic and cultural components, previous analyses have shown that they align most strongly with the cultural dimension (Hooghe et al. 2002; Kriesi et al. 2008).

When one of these issue categories is represented by a single indicator in an election study, the standardized version of that indicator is used to measure voters' attitudes. When several indicators are available, I summarize them with a principal-component factor analysis. With few exceptions, these analyses result in a single factor. When a given set of indicators appears to form two dimensions, the corresponding subsets of items are factor analyzed separately to build two summary measures. This happens mostly with the category 'cultural liberalism', for which a second category is necessary in six elections. The indicators for the category 'restrictive immigration' also form two dimensions in the 1998 Dutch election study. The list of items used to operationalize each of these categories and the results of the corresponding factor analyses are available in an online appendix.⁵ Depending on the country and election survey, from two to eight issue categories are measured (counting the eventual second summary index for immigration and cultural liberalism). All variables are coded so that a higher value means stronger support for the goal by which the category is labelled (for welfare state, for economic liberalism, etc.).

In the majority of cases, left–right positions and issue questions come from a post-election survey or from the same wave of a panel study.⁶ When data stem from multiple waves of a panel study, left–right self-placement is measured after or at the same time as issue positions. The 2001 British election panel study is the only exception: Left–right orientations are measured in the second wave, whereas issue preferences are based on questions from a posterior self-completion questionnaire. Thus, in that case the dependent variable is measured before the independent variables. Conclusions based on that study should be taken with a grain of salt.

⁵ The online appendix is available at http://www.romain-lachat.ch/papers/left_right_appendix.pdf.

⁶ Table A1 in the online appendix gives an overview over the election studies used and indicates in which waves issue preferences and left–right positions were measured.

I use regression models to analyse whether the relation between issue preferences and ideological orientation differs between left-wing and right-wing citizens. While the hypothesis was introduced with a graphical representation, using such figures to test it would be of a limited utility. It would mean selecting only two issue categories for each figure and would represent only an approximate test of the hypothesis. Thus, I focus instead on the central implication of the hypothesis of a curved left–right scale, that is, on the expected differences in the relation of issues and ideology between left-wing and right-wing citizens. To this end, the left–right scale is regressed on issue preferences separately for respondents on each side of the ideological scale. The dependent variable in these models is thus a ‘half left–right scale’. This is a three-point scale in the 1995 and 2002 French election studies and a five-point scale in all other cases.⁷ As this variable is ordinal, the models are estimated with ordered probit regressions. An alternative estimation method is truncated regression, as only respondents in a certain range of values of the left–right scale are included in each model. Accordingly, all models also are estimated as truncated regressions. The two procedures lead to identical conclusions.

5. Results

Tables 1 to 5 present the estimated coefficients and fit statistics of the ordered probit regressions, country by country. A few general tendencies can be identified when comparing the results of the different elections. I will first comment on these and draw some general conclusions. The results will then be discussed in more detail, country by country. What is perhaps most striking when looking at these results is the strong difference between the two models estimated for each election. In all but one election, some issue categories have a significant impact on ideological orientations in one group of voters but not in the other.

⁷ When the left–right scale has an uneven number of categories, respondents in the middle category are excluded from these analyses.

Furthermore, such differences most often point to substantially large contrasts. It is not just that a given issue category has a weakly significant impact in one group and an almost significant impact in the other. Quite to the contrary, one can often observe that the variables with the strongest effects in one group are almost entirely irrelevant in the other group of voters. The first election presented in Table 1, the 1995 French presidential election, is a case in point. Economic liberalism is the variable with the strongest impact among left-wing respondents but it has no impact among right-wing voters. The reverse pattern applies to the effect of attitudes toward immigration. In this case, it appears that economic issue preferences exert a strong impact among left-wing respondents but not among right-wing citizens. The latter are, however, strongly influenced by their preferences about immigration policy. This is just one example of a pattern that can be observed in a large number of elections.

These results offer strong support for the premise that the determinants of ideological positioning are not the same for left-wing and right-wing citizens. Do these differences generally match the expected contrast between economic and cultural attitudes? As far as economic attitudes are concerned, the observed differences largely fit with this paper's hypothesis. Economic attitudes have a very strong impact on the ideological positioning of left-wing respondents (i.e., whether these citizens position themselves on the centre left or on the far left). Among right-wing respondents, in contrast, economic attitudes usually have no impact. The contrast is less sharp for cultural issue categories; their impact on ideological positioning usually is strong among both left-wing and right-wing respondents. However, it often is not the same categories of issues that matter most for left-wing and right-wing respondents. It cannot be concluded that cultural issue preferences are only relevant among right-wing respondents, but the role of the various cultural issue categories still varies between the two groups of citizens.

The goodness-of-fit of the estimated models may appear to be relatively low. This is in part a consequence of the estimation method. One should not interpret these values as the explained

variance from ordinary least squares (OLS) regressions (these would be substantially higher if the model was estimated with that method).⁸ Another reason for the relatively low goodness-of-fit is simply that the association between issues and ideology is weaker once the sample is split into two groups. Clearly, there may be strong differences between left-wing and right-wing citizens, but the focus of the present study is on the variation *within* each of the two ideological groups.⁹

‘Tables 1–5 about here’

Considering the French case in more detail, Table 1 shows that the expected contrast in the effect of economic issue preferences occurs in all elections. Their impact is strong among left-wing respondents but not significant among right-wing citizens. In the latter group, ideological orientations are strongly influenced by attitudes toward immigration and by preferences on law and order and on European integration (in 2007). At first glance, the 2007 election may give the impression of smaller differences than in earlier elections. The categories of national identity (a subgroup of cultural liberalism) and European integration have a significant impact in both models. However, note that the effect of attitudes toward Europe is positive in one case and negative in the other. Those with negative attitudes toward the European Union tend to be further to the right if they are right-wing citizens and further to the left if they are left-wing citizens! A similar pattern is observed in 1995 with the category law and order. These attitudes matter for all voters, but the relationship with left–right self-placement clearly is non-linear.

⁸ Estimating the same models with OLS regression results in values of the R^2 statistic that are typically 2.5 or 3 times higher than those of Tables 1–5.

⁹ When estimating the same models with both subsamples together, the R^2 of OLS regressions (a metric with which most readers are likely to be familiar) is 9 times higher on average than the values of Tables 1–5.

In Germany (Table 2), the contrast in the effect of economic preferences is very strong in 1994, 1998, and 2002 and exhibits a pattern similar to that of France. In 2005, however, the results are more surprising. Attitudes toward the welfare state matter for all voters, but the direction of the effect is reversed. On the left, as on the right, supporters of a more generous welfare state are further away from the ideological centre. This could mean that right-wing extremism in Germany combines cultural conservative positions with economic protection (not unlike the ‘welfare chauvinist’ strategy identified by Kitschelt 1995). However, because this supposition is based on a single case and on one in which the model’s explanatory power is particularly weak, this conclusion is only tentative. The 2005 German election is also the only one in all five countries in which such an asymmetric effect is observed with respect to economic issue preferences. Turning to cultural issue preferences, the contrast between left-wing and right-wing citizens is less sharp. Attitudes toward immigration are related to the ideological position of both groups of voters. For right-wing citizens, it actually is the only issue category that has a systematic impact on ideological positions. Among left-wing citizens, on the other hand, anti-immigration is the only one among several issue categories that affect ideological self-placement.

The contrast in the effect of economic issue preferences is somewhat weaker in the Netherlands than in France and Germany (Table 3). Attitudes toward the welfare state and economic liberalism influence ideological self-positioning among all voters in 1994, 1998, and 2006. The relation is stronger for left-wing than right-wing citizens in 1998 and 2006. In 2002 and 2003, economic attitudes are unrelated to the ideological positioning of right-wing citizens, as expected. The contrast between the two groups of citizens is weaker than expected as far as economic attitudes are concerned, but the contrast is in the hypothesized direction. A similar conclusion can be drawn with respect to cultural issue preferences. Attitudes toward cultural liberalism and immigration tend to be relevant for both groups of voters, but these effects tend to be stronger on the right than on the left. Furthermore, the effect of cultural

issue preferences generally is weaker than that of economic issue preferences among left-wing citizens, while the reverse pattern is present among voters located on the right-hand half of the ideological spectrum.

In Switzerland (Table 4), the relation of economic attitudes and ideology varies between left-wing and right-wing citizens. Preferences regarding economic liberalism and the welfare state have a weaker impact on the right than on the left (1999 and 2007 elections) or no impact at all among right-wing citizens (1995 and 2003). This pattern resembles that seen in the Netherlands data and it lends additional support to the hypothesis of a curved left–right scale. Regarding cultural issue categories, the estimated coefficients reveal important differences between the two groups of voters. Similar to what we observed in the other countries, the ideological position of both groups of voters relates to cultural attitudes, but generally not to the same ones. Among right-wing citizens, left–right positioning is mainly related to preferences about cultural liberalism and immigration. On the left, a surprisingly strong influence of attitudes toward national defence is evident; this category plays a very marginal role in the other countries analysed. In the 1995 and 1999 Swiss elections, these attitudes have about the same impact on the ideological positioning of left-wing citizens as preferences regarding the welfare state. This surprising result is likely a consequence of the popular votes on issues of national defence since the late 1980s.¹⁰ Another surprising result appears in the 2007 election. Attitudes toward immigration have a strong impact in both groups of citizens, but not in the same direction. Respondents supporting a restrictive immigration policy tend to be further on the right among right-wing citizens and further on the left among left-wing citizens. The non-linearity in the issue–ideology relation is thus particularly clear in this instance.

¹⁰ Most famous among these is the popular initiative for the abolition of the Swiss army. This initiative was endorsed by many left-wing parties and movements, and it was supported by more than a third of the electorate in a 1989 popular vote. See, e.g., Church (2004).

In the United Kingdom, finally, left–right ideology is related to a smaller number of issue categories (Table 5). Citizens on the left are influenced mainly by their economic attitudes, as seen clearly in the 2001 and 2005 data. In 1997, the estimated coefficients are not significant at conventional levels, but they display relatively large point estimates. This points to the problem of multicollinearity: Attitudes towards the welfare state and economic liberalism are strongly correlated, which makes it difficult to disentangle their respective effects and leads to larger standard errors. When the same model is estimated after removing one of these two variables, the remaining indicator of economic preferences has a strong and significant impact.¹¹ The only other variable that is significantly related to the ideological self-placement of left-wing citizens is the attitude toward national defence in the 2005 election. In that case, the corresponding indicators are related to Britain’s involvement in the war in Iraq.¹² This relationship with left-wing ideology is likely a product of the particularly strong association between the Iraq War and Tony Blair (Clarke et al. 2009). This effect of attitudes toward the Iraq War is the only exception to what is otherwise a very clear contrast between left-wing and right-wing respondents. Ideological placement in the former group of respondents depends only on economic attitudes (with the exception just mentioned). Among right-wing citizens, in contrast, left–right self-placement is related to cultural issue categories only. Attitudes toward European integration are relevant in all three elections, whereas attitudes toward cultural liberalism and immigration also have an impact in 2001 and 2005, respectively.

As summarized at the beginning of this section, these results offer strong support for the hypothesis of a curved left–right scale. The contrast between the two groups of respondents is

¹¹ When the variable Welfare state is removed, the estimated coefficient of attitudes toward economic liberalism is significant at the 1 per cent level ($\beta=0.21$, $p=0.006$). When removing the variable Economic liberalism, the coefficient of the variable Welfare state is also significant at the 1 per cent level ($\beta=-0.24$, $p=0.008$).

¹² Cf. Table B53 in the online appendix.

particularly strong with respect to economic issues. In a large majority of cases, attitudes toward the welfare state and toward economic liberalism are significantly related to ideology among left-wing citizens but not among right-wing citizens. As far as cultural issue preferences are concerned, most of the elections show that they are related to ideology among all voters. However, in most cases it is not the same issue categories that matter for left-wing and right-wing citizens. Altogether, these results clearly support the idea that the relations between issue preferences and ideology are non-linear. These analyses were replicated with truncated regression models, and the results of the two estimation procedures are virtually identical as far as the direction, significance, and relative size of the coefficients are concerned.¹³

6. Discussion

This paper offers a picture of the left–right scale that differs in several respects from its traditional conception. As mentioned in the introduction, it is often assumed that the left–right dimension integrates a large number of more specific economic and cultural issues. The findings presented here do not question this integrative property of left–right ideology. The analyses confirmed that ideological preferences are related to a variety of different issues. Each of the issue categories used in the analyses was related to left–right ideology in one or several elections. At the same time, however, this study has shown that these relations usually are non-linear. The issues that influence left–right self-placement generally are not the same among left-wing and right-wing citizens. Attitudes toward the welfare state, for example, often are related to the ideological self-placement of left-wing citizens. Respondents on the far left tend to support the welfare state more strongly than centre-left citizens. In contrast, among right-wing citizens there usually is no such relationship. Moderate right-wing citizens are not more or not less in favour of the welfare state than those on the far right.

¹³ Results from the truncated regression models are available in the online appendix.

The hypothesis of a curved left–right scale is largely supported by the analyses reported in this study. This has important implications for the analysis of ideology and issue preferences. In particular, it means that it may be problematic to infer issue preferences from left–right self-placement or vice-versa. Changes along the left–right scale do not always mean the same in terms of issues. If the left–right scale corresponded to the traditional interpretation, a move toward the right end of the ideological scale in a given context would always mean the same in terms of issue preferences. In a situation in which left–right ideology is associated with attitudes toward economic liberalism, a move toward the right would always imply a more positive attitude toward economic liberalism, whatever the starting position and the size of the move. In a situation similar to that of the 1995 French election, in contrast, a move toward the right cannot be interpreted in a straightforward way in terms of changing attitudes toward economic liberalism. The two are related among left-wing citizens but not among right-wing citizens. Being more on the right, thus, has no unequivocal meaning in terms of issue positions. It always depends on which positions are compared. Far-right voters are more on the right than both left-wing and moderate right-wing voters. Although they are likely to be economically more liberal than the former, their economic attitudes should not differ much from that of the latter group.

These findings mean that one must be cautious when inferring differences in issue preferences from ideological differences. They also point to potential problems in the reverse exercise. If the relations of issue preferences and ideology are non-linear, it is potentially misleading to infer ideological preferences from one's issue positions. Changes in the attitudes toward a specific issue may be associated with changes in ideological preferences for some voters but not for others. Continuing with the example of the 1995 French election, differences in attitudes toward economic liberalism are likely to be associated with ideological differences among left-wing citizens. In this group, those who are less in favour of economic liberalism tend to locate themselves further on the left. In contrast, among right-wing citizens, changes

in preferences toward economic liberalism are not likely to have any consequence in terms of one's ideological self-placement.

Of course, these potential problems in the analysis of citizens' ideological preferences do not mean that measures of left–right self-placement are problematic per se. Quite to the contrary, the above results underscore the integrative capacity of the left–right dimension. Citizens' ideological positions seem to reflect both the two-dimensional nature of the political space and what seems to be a unidimensional 'space' of electoral competition. This result is encouraging from the standpoint of democratic representation. The unidimensionality of electoral competition is considered to be a central condition for a functioning system of political representation (Thomassen 1994; Thomassen and Schmitt 1997; Mair 2008). If several dimensions structure voters' preferences and party positions, it becomes difficult for parties to claim a clear mandate from their electorate (Mair 2008). The two-dimensionality of the political space in Western Europe, as emphasized by several studies, could thus be a negative development. By showing how a single left–right dimension can be reconciled with a two-dimensional political space, the present study undermines the fears of a dysfunctional political representation in West European countries.

7. References

- Benoit, Kenneth and Michael Laver (2006). *Party Policy in Modern Democracies*. London: Routledge.
- van der Brug, Wouter and Joost van Spanje (2009). “Immigration, Europe and the 'new' cultural dimension”, *European Journal of Political Research* 48(3): 309-334.
- Budge, Ian and David Robertson (1987). “Comparative Analyses of Post-War Election Programmes”, in Ian Budge, David Robertson and Derek Hearl (eds). *Ideology, Strategy and Party Change: Spatial Analyses of Post-War Election Programmes in 19 Democracies*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 388-416.
- Church, Clive H. (2004). *The Politics and Government of Switzerland*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Clarke, Harold D., David Sanders, Marianne C. Stewart and Paul F. Whiteley (2009). *Performance Politics and the British Voter*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Dalton, Russell J. (2002). *Citizen Politics: Public Opinion and Political Parties in Advanced Industrial Democracies*. Third Edition. New York: Chatham House.
- van Deth, Jan W. and Elinor Scarbrough (eds) (1995). *The Impact of Values*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- van der Eijk, Cees, Hermann Schmitt and Tanja Binder (2005). “Left-Right Orientations and Party Choice”, in Jacques Thomassen (ed.). *The European Voter. A Comparative Study of Modern Democracies*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp. 167-191.
- Fuchs, Dieter and Hans-Dieter Klingemann (1989). “The Left-Right Schema”, in M. Kent Jennings and Jan W. van Deth (eds). *Continuities in Political Action. A Longitudinal Study of Political Orientations in Three Western Democracies*. Berlin: de Gruyter, pp. 203-234.
- Grunberg, Gérard and Etienne Schweisguth (1997). “Vers une tripartition de l'espace politique”, in Daniel Boy and Nonna Mayer (eds). *L'électeur a ses raisons*. Paris: Presses de la Fondation Nationale des Sciences Politiques, pp. 179-218.

- Hix, Simon (1999). "Dimensions and alignments in European Union politics: Cognitive constraints and partisan responses", *European Journal of Political Research* 35: 69-106.
- Hooghe, Liesbet, Gary Marks and Carole J. Wilson (2002). "Does Left/Right Structure Party Positions on European Integration?" *Comparative Political Studies* 35(8): 965-989.
- Huber, John D. (1989). "Values and partisanship in left-right orientations: measuring ideology", *European Journal of Political Research* 17: 599-621.
- Huber, John and Ronald Inglehart (1995). "Expert Interpretations of Party Space and Party Location in 42 Societies", *Party Politics* 1(1): 73-111.
- Inglehart, Ronald and Hans-Dieter Klingemann (1976). "Party Identification, Ideological Preference and the Left-Right Dimension among Western Mass Publics", in Ian Budge, Ivor Crewe and Dennis Farlie (eds). *Party Identification and Beyond. Representations of Voting and Party Competition*. London: Wiley & Sons, pp. 243-273.
- Kitschelt, Herbert (1994). *The Transformation of European Social Democracy*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kitschelt, Herbert in collaboration with Anthony J. McGann (1995). *The Radical Right in Western Europe*. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press.
- Knutsen, Oddbjørn (1998). "The Strength of the Partisan Component of Left-Right Identity: A Comparative Longitudinal Study of Left-Right Party Polarization in Eight West European Countries", *Party Politics* 4(1): 5-31.
- Kriesi, Hanspeter, Edgar Grande, Romain Lachat, Martin Dolezal, Simon Bornschier and Timotheos Frey (2006). "Globalization and the transformation of the national political space: Six European countries compared", *European Journal of Political Research* 45(6): 921-956.
- Kriesi, Hanspeter, Edgar Grande, Romain Lachat, Martin Dolezal, Simon Bornschier and Timotheos Frey (2008). *West European Politics in the Age of Globalization*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Lachat, Romain and Hanspeter Kriesi (2008). "Supply side: the positioning of the political parties in a restructuring space", in Hanspeter Kriesi et al. (eds). *West European Politics in the Age of Globalization*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 267-295.
- Lipset, Seymour M. and Stein Rokkan (eds) (1967). *Party Systems and Voter Alignments*. New York: The Free Press.
- Mair, Peter (2007). "Left-Right Orientations", in Russell J. Dalton and Hans-Dieter Klingemann (eds). *The Oxford Handbook of Political Behavior*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp. 206-222.
- Mair, Peter (2008). "The Challenge to Party Government", *West European Politics* 31(1-2): 211-234.
- Thomassen, Jacques (1994). "Empirical Research into Political Representation: Failing Democracy or Failing Models?" in M. Kent Jennings and Thomas E. Mann (eds). *Elections at Home and Abroad: Essays in Honor of Warren Miller*. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press, pp. 237-265.
- Thomassen, Jacques and Hermann Schmitt (1997). "Policy Representation", *European Journal of Political Research* 32(2): 165-184.
- Warwick, Paul V. (2002). "Toward a Common Dimensionality in West European Policy Spaces", *Party Politics* 8(1): 101-122.
- Weisberg, Herbert F. (1974). "Dimensionland: An Excursion into Spaces", *American Journal of Political Science* 18(4): 743-776.