

**THE EROSION OF STEREOTYPES THROUGH INTERCULTURAL  
EXCHANGE PROGRAMS: TESTING PETTIGREW'S CONTACT THEORY**

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# 1. ABSTRACT

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*The present research investigated the changing processes of perceiving and judging groups of different ethnic backgrounds. Of particular interest were the testing of the validity of Pettigrew's Intergroup Contact Model and identification of changes in the perception of Germans over time, the identification of the variables mediating the changing process, and the identification of a moderating effect of extroversion on the stereotypes. The study had a longitudinal design with the first measurement done before intercultural contact followed by the second during the stay in the host country and the third after the contact was completed. A sample comprising 120 Colombian exchange students formed the focus of the study. Results provide evidence that intergroup contact can lead to positive effects on outgroup bias, that changing behavior, ingroup reappraisal, and generating affective ties did not play a role as mediating variables, and that extroversion did not have a moderating effect on the attitude changing process.*

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*Das Forschungsprojekt untersuchte den Veränderungsprozess in der Wahrnehmung und Beurteilung von Gruppen unterschiedlicher ethnischer Herkunft. Von besonderem Interesse war es, das Pettigrew Intergruppen-Kontakt Model zu testen und Veränderungen in der Einstellung gegenüber Deutschen über die Zeit festzustellen. Ziel war es auch, die mediierenden Variablen des Einstellungsänderungsprozesses sowie Extraversion als moderierende Variable zu identifizieren. Die Studie umfasste eine längsschnittliche Untersuchung mit dem ersten Messzeitpunkt vor dem interkulturellen Kontakt und zwei Wiederholungen; eine während des Aufenthalts in Deutschland und eine bei der Rückkehr nach Kolumbien. Eine Stichprobe von 120 kolumbianischen AustauschschülerInnen wurde untersucht. Die Ergebnisse zeigen, dass sich persönliche Erfahrungen durch interkulturellen Kontakt auf Vorurteile positiv auswirken können. Jedoch sind Lernen über die Fremdgruppe, Verhaltensänderungen, Neuabschätzung der Eigengruppe und affektive Bindungen keine entscheidenden Mediatoren. Nicht zu letzt wurde bewiesen, dass Extraversion den Einstellungsänderungsprozess nicht moderiert.*

## ***2. INTRODUCTION***

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Learning a foreign language involves learning about the associated cultural background. The application of this educational principle is not easily achieved as the image of a foreign country is determined by a range of views and attitudes towards its people, their customs, and their way of life; views and attitudes that may be positive or negative.

What is actually learnt about the culture and its people? Does it make a difference if one experiences the country firsthand? For example, students learning a foreign language will normally build up a view of the foreign country and develop an attitude towards its people during their course of study. Since students will generally not have been to the foreign country themselves, their judgments about it are likely to be based on what they have heard and read about the culture and not on their own experience. As with all kinds of generalization, these views and attitudes are difficult to change. The question is how and to what extent can direct contact with a culture change these stereotypes and attitudes.

Intergroup relations have received extensive attention and have been investigated across different situations, groups, and societies. From research conducted to date, the most obvious conclusion is that increasing contact with the outgroup under certain conditions may lead to a reconstruction of the attitudes towards the culture.

This project is based on two of the most discussed socio-psychological theories regarding attitude change: the Contact Hypothesis (Allport 1954) and the Reformulated Version of the Contact Hypothesis (Pettigrew 1998). These theories will be presented and discussed in Chapter Three. According to these theories,

only under certain conditions intercultural contacts in the form of journeys or activities with foreigners might influence one's attitudes towards the foreign culture, and lead to a reconstruction of the attitudes towards the culture. Exchange programs, for example, meet most of these fundamental conditions and thus represent the perfect scenario for investigating intergroup relationships.

The research questions will be presented in Chapter Four. This study tested Pettigrew's model of intergroup contact in a natural setting. Furthermore, the study examined which variables mediated the changing process. Finally, the effects of extroversion as a moderator were tested in order to identify whether the direction and strength of the relation between independent variables was affected over time.

In the fifth chapter, the methodology of the study will be presented. Existing groups of students were chosen for this longitudinal study. The participants, 120 Colombian students between the ages of 15 and 17, were matched on one characteristic: students who participated in the exchange program with Germany. Students filled out a questionnaire before having contact with the outgroup, during the stay in the host country, and after returning to their home country.

The results of the study will be presented in the sixth chapter. A repeated-measure MANOVA and paired t-Test will show which of the main constructs changed over the three measurement points. The results obtained through multiple regression analysis will then be presented. This analysis tested Pettigrew's four interrelated mediation effects. Finally, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) with repeated measurement was conducted to identify a moderating effect of extroversion on the stereotypes.

In the seventh chapter the results will be discussed and interpreted. The degree to which the results corroborate Pettigrew's main suggestions, how and why contact leads to attitude change are the main points of the discussion. Finally, we

will propose some strategies that may help to reduce the negative aspects of the exchange program and increase positive contact effects.

## ***3. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND***

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### **3.1 THE NATURE OF FORMING GROUPS**

Throughout time, humans have exhibited a tendency to form groups (Brewer & Miller, 1996). Membership in a group can be limited on the basis of different characteristics (gender, age and race for example). Forming groups, has been a way for humans to classify the environment. We can thus propose that groups are the basic building blocks of society.

When people form groups, they tend to form closer ties to members of their own group and they tend to reject members of other groups. This is one of the main ways of classifying our social environment. We classify our environment into ingroups (groups to which we belong) and outgroups (groups to which we do not belong).

Individuals who belong to an outgroup are perceived to share similar characteristics, goals and other features. However, when it comes to our own ingroups, we like to think that our groups are composed of unique individuals who share one or two common characteristics. Thus we think that members of the outgroup are all similar, while our ingroup members are different.

Tajfel and Turner developed in 1979 a theory (The Social Identity Theory) to understand the psychological basis of intergroup discrimination. Tajfel et al (1971) attempted to identify the minimal conditions that would lead members of one group to discriminate in favor of the ingroup to which they belonged and against another outgroup. The tendency to think in this way has been referred to as “outgroup homogeneity”, “ingroup bias” or “favoritism”. This tendency has two major goals:

we simplify our social environment by categorizing others in that way, and we enhance our self concept by thinking that we do not belong to a homogeneous group.

These preferences for the ingroup and rejection of the outgroup form the basis for feeling negatively about other groups (prejudices) and believing that certain characteristics are associated with other groups (stereotypes). Later on we will come back to the Social identity Theory and describe it in detail.

### **3.1.1 DEFINING STEREOTYPES AND PREJUDICES**

The definitions regarding stereotyping and prejudice have changed over time. More important is that the definitions have simplified over the years.

The term stereotype was first used by journalist Walter Lippmann (1922) to describe the tendency of people to think of someone or something in similar terms and as having similar characteristics based on a common feature shared by each.

The content of stereotypes is essentially determined by the culture in which we live. This means that we pick out what our culture has already defined for us, and we tend to perceive that which we have picked out in the form of stereotypes. Stereotyping has a main function which is to help us identify which information in our environment is important and which is not.

Although Lippmann did not express any evaluation of the nature of stereotyping and many definitions of the term exist, researchers began to regard stereotypes as a very negative and lazy way of perceiving social groups. Later, researchers began to move away from the tendency of associating stereotyping with negative beliefs. A definition that moved away from this negative and evaluative assessment of stereotyping appeared for the first time. In his work "The Nature of Prejudice"

Allport (1954) defined a stereotype as an exaggerated belief associated with a category.

In the early 1970s, with the birth of social cognition, researchers began to consider stereotyping as an automatic categorization process. In short, researchers began to understand how the mind perceives and processes the information. Cognitive psychologists found that the human brain seems to use an almost automatic process to classify or categorize similar objects in our environment. This tendency occurs in the absence of learning, thus researchers needed to change their explanation of the nature of stereotyping. Stereotyping was no longer considered a lazy way of thinking, but rather as a natural consequence of cognition as stated by Allport in 1954.

Some other researchers in this area like Brigham (1971) defined stereotyping as a generalization made about a group concerning a trait attribution considered to be unjustified by an observer. The problem with this definition was the last part “considered unjustified by the observer”. A stereotype is any generalization about a group, regardless of whether an observer believes it is justified.

Other researchers have adopted Hamilton and Troiler’s (1986) definition of stereotype: “a cognitive structure that contains the perceiver’s knowledge, beliefs, and expectations about a human group”. This definition includes one’s knowledge and expectations about the group. These additional components make the definition too extensive and inconsistent with traditional definitions of a stereotype (Fiske, 1998).

Another popular definition of stereotypes, by Ashmore and Del Boca (1981), defines stereotypes as “a set of beliefs about the personal attributes of a group of people”. This definition is more consistent with the essence of many past

definitions by restricting the meaning of stereotype to a generalization about a group of people.

So far we have discussed the term stereotype, but what is the difference between “stereotype” and “prejudice”? To have a prejudice towards something or someone can mean many things. However, if we analyze the word literally, “prejudice” means having a prejudgment towards something or someone. Thus, prejudice implies an evaluation, either positive or negative, of a stimulus.

Early theorists tended to define prejudice in terms of its affective basis. Allport (1954) defined prejudice as an antipathy based on a faulty and inflexible generalization. This antipathy may be directed towards the whole group or towards a member of that group. From this classical perspective, prejudice is seen as a strong negative feeling about someone based on a generalization one has about that person’s group.

Researchers later abandoned the negative affective definition of prejudice in favor of more complex definitions of prejudice (Dovidio et al., 1996; Hamilton, Stroessner, & Driscoll, 1994; Stephan & Stephan, 1993). The problem with the earlier definition was the negative affective aspect since it is also possible to have positive prejudice in favor of our own groups (ingroup favoritism) (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Jones, 1997). Nevertheless, most researchers tend to focus on the negative type of prejudice.

During the 1960s and especially with the birth of social cognition in the early 1970s, researchers began to see prejudice as an evaluation of a stimulus (usually, a social group) meaning that prejudice is essentially an attitude, which therefore includes an affective as well as a cognitive and behavioral component (Dovidio & Gaertner, 1986; Dovidio et al., 1996; Harding, Proshansky, Kutner, & Chein, 1969; Jones, 1997). Prejudice can be based on affective (e.g. anger), cognitive (e.g.

beliefs linking hostility to the outgroup), or behavioral (e.g. avoidant or hostile) sources and can result in affective, cognitive or behavioral expressions. However, affect seems to be the most common and influential basis out of which most prejudices arise.

There are many approaches to define prejudice. However, there is little consensus and much disagreement over how “prejudice” should be defined exactly. There are many definitions of prejudice and they differ on many aspects. At this point it is important to note that there is no single correct definition of prejudice. The definitions differ depending on the specific questions one is looking at in his or her own research. However researchers agree on the following points:

- Prejudice occurs between groups
- Involves an evaluation (positive or negative) of a group
- Is a biased perception of a group
- Is based on real or imagined characteristics of the group.

Therefore, we can define prejudice as a biased evaluation of a group, based on real or imagined characteristics of the group members.

As we have described, there are many differences between stereotypes and prejudices, but there is also a link between the two. Stereotypes are strongly and automatically related to prejudices and form the cognitive basis of prejudice.

Thinking about a group will automatically bring up from memory a schema about that group. This schema includes the stereotypes, but also the affects, and behavioral tendencies towards that group (Collins & Loftus, 1975). This is based on the idea that an intergroup attitude comprises one’s beliefs about, evaluations of, and behavior towards a group.

The relationship between stereotypes and prejudice is not always strong, but is reliable (Dovidio, Brigham, Johnson, & Gaertner, 1996). This is reasonable, because affect and cognition represent different components of the same underlying attitudes, and because stereotypes are in part rationalizations for our prejudices (Jost & Major, 2001; Sinclair & Kunda, 2000).

### **3.1.2 THE FORMATION OF STEREOTYPES AND PREJUDICES**

As previously mentioned, the way researchers describe stereotyping and prejudice has changed dramatically over past decades. They moved away from a moral definition to a cognitive one, where stereotyping was no longer considered a lazy way of thinking but rather a result of cognition.

It was also mentioned that psychologists soon found out that the human brain automatically classifies and categorizes similar information in the environment. But why do humans categorize? The main reason is that humans have a cognitive system of limited capacity which cannot process all the information in the environment. As we need to understand the behavior of others, we have developed ways to simplify this process. The main way is to categorize. We categorize people, objects and ideas on the basis of shared features. In other words, we assume that things that are similar on the basis of one trait will be similar on the basis of others.

This process of categorization occurs so quickly that it becomes automatic and unconscious. We categorize people into broad categories (e.g. race, gender or age). This is the main way we categorize people because these are the most obvious characteristics of a person. These categories are referred to as “basic” or “primitive” categories. These basic categories have received much attention from researchers because they have strong influences on how the perceiver interprets

most of the information about a perceived individual (Fiske, Lin, & Neuberg, 1999; Hamilton & Sherman, 1994).

Categorization is not the only way of forming stereotypes. Children, for example, learn many of their values and attitudes through observation. This has been called social learning. Children learn what they see in their environment.

The media also influences the forming of stereotypes and prejudices. In the same way children internalize the values of their parents and environment, they internalize the information they receive from the media (movies, television and videos for example). Many types of stereotypes and prejudices are portrayed in the media, such as women as housewives and not as salaried employees.

The social identity approach (comprising social identity theory and self-categorization theory) is a highly influential theory of group processes and intergroup relations. According to Social Identity Theory or SIT (Taifel & Turner, 1979), we all need positive self regard and there are two essential ways of obtaining it: through one's own achievements and through association to a group held in high regard.

If I achieve my own goals, my self-esteem increases. If I cannot accomplish my own goals, I may nonetheless feel positive self regard by thinking about my social identity, that part of one's self concept based on one's membership in social groups. Thus, if my self-esteem is low, I may try to restore it by thinking that I belong to a group that is highly regarded in society. This theory emphasizes that people separate their social environment into "us" and "them" and that they tend to perceive their own groups as better than other groups. Therefore, we create a bias in favor of our own group (ingroup favoritisms) and tend to create negative evaluations about members of the outgroup. According to SIT this is the main way of forming prejudice towards outgroups.

The self-categorization theory (Turner et al., 1987) is similar to the SIT but is a more general theory of inter- and intra-group processes and places more emphasis on the cognitive processes involved. The self-categorization theory makes a distinction between the personal and collective identity. When personal identity is salient, a person's individual needs, standards, beliefs, and motives determine behavior. In contrast, when social identity is salient "people come to perceive themselves as more interchangeable exemplars of a social category than as unique personalities defined by their individual differences from others" (Turner et al., 1987, p. 50). Under these conditions, the collective needs, goals, and standards are primary as group properties are defined by differences from other groups.

For example: Verkuyten and Hagendoorn (1998) found that when individual identity was salient, individual differences in authoritarianism were the main predictor of the prejudice of Dutch students toward Turkish migrants. In contrast, when social identity (i.e., national identity) was made salient, ingroup stereotypes and standards predicted prejudicial attitudes. Thus, whether a person's personal or collective identity is more salient critically shapes how a person perceives, interprets, evaluates, and responds to situations and others.

### **3.1.3 WHY DO WE USE STEREOTYPES AND PREJUDICES?**

When Lippman defined the word "stereotype" in 1922, researchers first noted the efficiency of stereotyping. Stereotypes allow us to make judgments about a target person extremely quickly on the basis of very little information (e.g. race, gender or religion). This is very useful because we save cognitive energy.

Stereotypes are part of our cognitive system. Do they really save us cognitive energy? Many researchers have examined this assumption and the results suggest that stereotypes do indeed function as energy-saving tools in social perception.

### 3.2 REDUCING PREJUDICE

This section reviews the different theories concerning prejudice reduction. Stereotypes and prejudice attitudes are hard to change, first because they help us to easily classify the information in our environment, and second because they are reinforced by the society. Moreover, stereotypes persist in part because we are not aware that we are using them (they occur automatically and unconsciously). However, as we will see in this section, much research has been able to prove that attitude change towards outgroups is possible, at least in some situations and under certain conditions.

One of the most common socio-psychological theories regarding attitude change proposes that giving people information about the characteristics of the stereotyped group and having them interact with members of the stereotyped group will lead to a reduction of stereotypes and prejudices. This is known as the Contact Hypothesis (Allport 1954). The gist of this theory is that our stereotypes will be dismissed once we have the chance to learn about the outgroup.

Nonetheless, the Contact Hypothesis has been the subject of much criticism over the last half century. Therefore, we will discuss in section 3.2.2 how Pettigrew reformulated the Contact Hypothesis with the aim of overcoming these shortcomings.

Hewstone & Brown studied a particular type of intergroup contact: situations in which the members of different groups cooperate with each other. The Mutual Intergroup Differentiation Model (Hewstone & Brown, 1986) encourages groups to give emphasis to their mutual distinctiveness, but in the context of cooperative interdependence. Then, decategorization and recategorization approaches regarding prejudice reduction are presented, discussed, and compared.

Finally, we will introduce the Common Ingroup Identity Model, CIIM (Gaertner & Dovidio, 2000). In CIIM, a further form of categorization, which Pettigrew did not include in his model, the dual identity level of categorization is taken into consideration.

### 3.2.1 INTERGROUP CONTACT

One of the earliest solutions to problems of intergroup relations such as stereotypes, prejudice, and discrimination was the Contact Hypothesis (Williams 1947, Allport 1954). Allport proposed that increasing exposure to members of various groups could reduce the negative evaluations of that outgroup, thus reducing prejudices and stereotypes. However, researchers demonstrated that “simple contact” does not suffice to change attitudes towards an outgroup.

Allport recognized that there are many factors which affect the ingroup contact situation and determine whether the participant will or will not reduce prejudice towards the outgroup. These factors include the status of the members, the role of the contact, the social atmosphere, and the personality of the participants. Considering the importance of these factors, Allport specified that at least four fundamental criteria must be met so that positive intergroup contact occurs. These conditions are:

**Equal Status:** Both groups (ingroup and outgroup) need to expect and perceive equal status in the contact situation.

**Common Goals:** In order to reduce prejudice through contact, members of a group require a common goal. A good example of this is a football team, where players need each other to achieve their common goal of victory.

**Intergroup Cooperation:** Sherif (1966) demonstrated with his Robbers' Cave experiment that the achievement of common goals must be an interdependent effort without intergroup competition. Members of a group need to struggle cooperatively for common goals.

**Support of Authorities:** The final condition proposed by Allport is the support of a recognized authority which will help to facilitate the process of prejudice reduction. In other words with established norms and social sanction, intergroup contact occurs easily and more positive effects are obtained.

Since Allport proposed these four conditions, researchers have added new situational factors for optimal intergroup contact. Thus, Allport's hypothesis became an open-ended list of conditions for positive intergroup contact. Furthermore, the original contact hypothesis predicts when contact will lead to positive change, but it does not mention how the changing process occurs. These considerations provided a new direction for the reformulation of Allport's hypothesis. The need arose for a new and broader theory with an explicit specification of the processes involved in the reduction of prejudice.

### **3.2.2 PETTIGREW'S REFORMULATED CONTACT HYPOTHESIS**

Rather than add to a list of conditions, Pettigrew (1986, 1998) reformulated the contact hypothesis into a longitudinal model. This model is at a meso-level of analysis that fits between the microlevel context of the participants' experiences and characteristics and the macrolevel context of the larger societal setting of the situation. Pettigrew selected Allport's four facilitating conditions and added a fifth one, the friendship potential, as optimal situational factors for positive intergroup contact effects. Ingroup friendship is a very important aspect, since it potentially invokes all four mediating processes. This suggests that positive contact relates more strongly to long-term close relationships than to initial acquaintanceship.

Optimal intergroup contact requires time for cross-group friendship to develop. A long term perspective allows cross-group friendship to develop and the full decategorization, salient categorization, and recategorization sequence to develop.

The basic features of this reformulated version consist of (A) the essential and facilitating situational factors, (B) the participants' experiences and characteristics and (C, D, E) the time dimension (see Figure1).

Pettigrew also suggested that four interrelated processes mediate attitude change through contact: learning about the outgroup, changing behavior, generating affective ties, and intergroup reappraisal.

**Learning about the outgroup:** when members of an ingroup obtain new information about the outgroup and correct the negative views they had, contact should reduce prejudice. Available results support this process; but other theories contradict these findings. Researchers have found mechanisms that limit the learning process. Rothbart & John (1985) concluded disconfirming facts alter stereotypes if a) the outgroup behavior is strongly inconsistent with their stereotypes and strongly associated with their label, b) occurs often and in many situations, and c) the outgroup members are seen as typical. These restrictions eliminate most intergroup contact situations and, consequently, the learning process.

Nonetheless, learning new information about an outgroup can lead to the improvement of attitudes. Stephan & Stephan (1984) found that contact allowed Anglo students to learn more about the Chicano culture and in this way they had more positive attitudes towards their Chicano classmates.

**Changing behavior:** behavior change is often the originator of attitude change. New situations require conforming to new expectations. If these expectations

include acceptance of outgroup members, this behavior will have the potential to change attitudes.

**Generating affective ties:** emotions are very important in intergroup contact. When members of different groups encounter each other in an initial contact situation, the members of the group feel anxiety. Continued contact, however, reduces anxiety. Positive emotions produced by optimal contact can positively mediate intergroup contact effects.

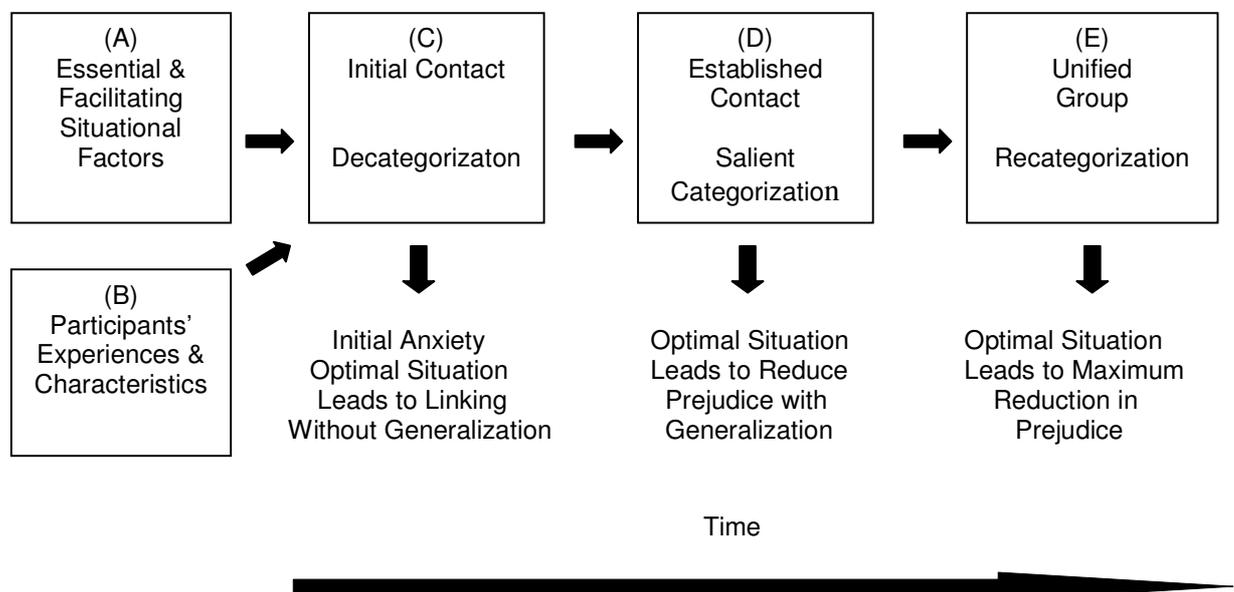
**Ingroup reappraisal:** positive intergroup contact provides insight about ingroups as well as outgroups. Thus, ingroup norms are no longer seen as the only way to deal with the social world. This new position can restructure the view of one's own ingroup and lead to a less limited view of outgroups in general. This process involves having less contact with the ingroup as a result of more contact with the outgroup.

The final aspect of Pettigrew's reformulated version is the incorporation of three types of generalization of contact effects: decategorization, salient categorization, and recategorization (Brewer & Miller, 1984; Gaertner et al., 2000; Hewstone & Brown, 1986). Pettigrew proposed that contact will have positive effects if these levels of categorization are salient at different stages of the contact process.

Pettigrew integrated these three levels of categorization into a time-sequence, within which different phases of contact are likely to be characterized by different salient levels of categorization.

First contact should elicit decategorization of group members (interpersonal level of categorization). In this stage of the process members of the groups view each other in terms of personality and characteristics, rather than group membership. Then salient categorization should occur (intergroup level of

categorization). At this point in the process, group members are aware that they belong to different groups and begin to appreciate the differences. The final level of categorization is the recategorization (superordinate level of categorization). In this phase of the process, a breakdown occurs in the “us vs. them” category which allows formation of a broader “we” category by making the members of both groups aware that they have more in common on a number of new dimensions than differences. The final stage of the process is assumed to induce a maximum reduction in prejudice.



**Figure 1: Pettigrew's (1998) Reformulated Contact Theory**

### **3.2.3 INTERGROUP CONTACT AND MUTUAL INTERGROUP DIFFERENTIATION**

Hewstone and Brown (1986) also developed a theoretical perspective on the reduction of prejudice, which suggests that contact should be “intergroup” and not “interpersonal”. They also propose that the ideal model of intergroup contact should be based on “mutual intergroup differentiation”.

The mutual intergroup differentiation model (Hewstone and Brown, 1986) emphasizes maintaining original group boundaries but restructuring the nature of the intergroup context within which group members relate. They recommend introducing cooperative activities in which members of different groups have different but complementary roles to contribute to common goals. In this way, groups can maintain positive distinctiveness while recognizing and valuing mutual assets and weaknesses within a context of an interdependent cooperative task or common goals. Also, by dividing the work in a complementary way to benefit from each group’s relative strengths and weaknesses, the members of each group can distinguish and appreciate the indispensable contribution of the other.

Such win-win cooperative relationships can initiate reciprocal positive feelings and stereotypes towards the members of the outgroup while stressing each group’s positive distinctiveness.

The purpose of the model is not to change the basic category structure of the intergroup contact situation, but rather to change intergroup relations from a perceived incompatibility to a positive interdependence within the intergroup contact context.

Evidence that supports this approach comes from the results of a study by Brown and Wade (1987) in which groups composed of students from two different

faculties worked in a cooperative effort to produce a magazine article. When the participants of the two groups were assigned separate roles (one group working on figures and layout, the other working on text), the contact experience had a more positive effect on intergroup attitudes than when the groups were not provided with different roles.

In general, there is enough evidence that cooperative interactions can reduce intergroup bias.

A further form of categorization, which neither Pettigrew nor Hewstone included in their models, is the dual identity level of categorization. Dual identity (Gaertner et al, 2000) represents a combination of salient categorization and recategorization, within which original group identities are maintained, though within the context of a superordinate identity (Hornsey & Hogg, 1999, 2000; cf Mummendey & Wenzel, 1999).

Gaertner and his colleagues (2000) specifically addressed the role of the levels of categorization in the contact-prejudice relationship in their Common Ingroup Identity Model (see Figure 2).

In CIIM, the four levels of categorization (Pettigrew's three plus the dual identity) act as mediators between antecedents (e.g. Allport's ideal conditions) and consequences (cognitive, affective, and behavioral effects).

### **3.2.4 THE COMMON INGROUP IDENTITY MODEL**

This model identifies potential antecedents and outcomes of recategorization, as well as mediating processes. Figure 2 summarizes the general framework and specifies the causes and consequences of a common ingroup identity.

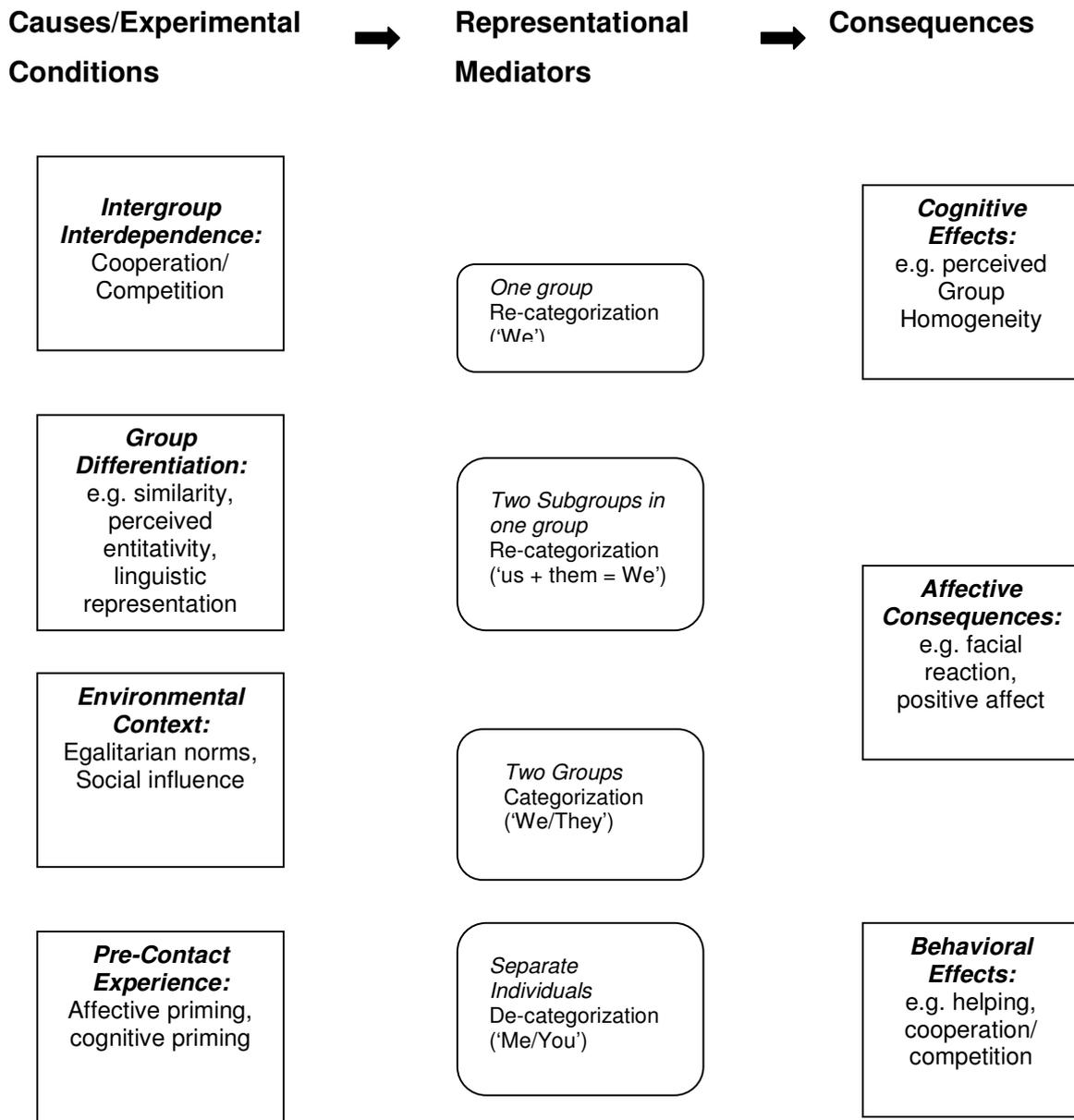
CIIM proposes that the different types of intergroup interdependence and cognitive, perceptual, linguistic, affective, and environmental factors can either independently or jointly change individuals' cognitive representations of the aggregate. These resulting cognitive representations (one group, two subgroups within one group, two groups, or separate individuals) are then proposed to result in the specific cognitive, affective and overt behavioral consequences (listed on the right). Thus, the casual factors listed on the left (which include factors specified by the Contact Hypothesis) are proposed to influence members' cognitive representations of the membership (center), which in turn mediate the relationship between the casual factors (left) and the consequences (right).

Additionally, this model proposes that common ingroup identity may be achieved by increasing the salience of existing common superordinate memberships (e.g. school, a company) or by introducing factors (e.g. common goals, fate) that are perceived as shared by the memberships.

Once outgroup members are perceived as ingroup members, there would be more positive thoughts, feelings and behaviors (listed on the right) towards the members of the outgroup by categorizing them now as ingroup members. These positive views towards outgroup members are not likely to be differentiated. Rather the model proposes that these more elaborated, personalized impressions of outgroup members can soon develop within the context of a common identity because the positive bias encourages more open communication and greater self-disclosing interaction between outgroup members. Thus, over time, a common identity is expected to promote personalization of the outgroup members and therefore the reduction of prejudiced attitudes.

The development of a common ingroup identity does not necessarily require each group to give up its own group identity completely. We can belong to different groups without perceiving others in a prejudicial way. Allport (1954) proposed,

“Concentric loyalties need to clash. To be devoted to a large circle does not imply the destruction of one’s attachment to a smaller circle” (p. 44).



**Figure 2: The Common Ingroup Identity Model (Gaertner et al., 2000)**

### **3.3 INTERNATIONAL STUDENT EXCHANGE**

An international student exchange program is a program in which a student, typically in secondary or higher education, lives in a foreign country to learn language and culture. The original idea was that countries would temporarily “exchange” students. An exchange student lives with a host family, who are usually unpaid volunteers and can be a traditional family, a single parent, or a couple with no children at home. Host families are vetted by the organization coordinating the program.

Student exchanges became popular after World War II, and have the aim of helping to increase the participants' understanding and tolerance of other cultures, and improving their language skills and broadening their social horizons. An exchange student typically stays in the host country for a short period of time (some weeks) or a long period of time (6 to 12 months).

Many schools and youth organizations in the last decade have offered international exchange programs for children and adolescents. International student mobility has been an important indicator for the degree of internationalization in education. Today international exchange programs have moved from unorganized study abroad to a variety of organized programs (Kehm, 2005). All over the world, exchange student programs are becoming increasingly common. Many programs have emerged to bring people together to promote understanding between cultures and for the well-recognized educational benefits that exchange students gain.

According to Thomas (2005) the aim of student mobility is: to provide students from different countries with the opportunity to become personally acquainted, to fully immerse themselves in a foreign living environment, and to familiarize themselves with another country, its people, customs and culture. The objectives of familiarization with a new culture are to increase sympathies, to encourage

students to develop an interest in the host culture and to foster an exchange. A deeper understanding of an outgroup, their living environment and culture is cultivated; national and cultural differences are recognized and tolerated; and prejudices and stereotypes are reduced. This greater understanding then enables students to initiate a relationship of trust and affection. Furthermore, international experiences help students to gain a variety of qualifications (for example: improving a foreign language). If all these changes occur, there might be a rapprochement across national borders, tolerance and friendship between people, and understanding between cultures.

### **3.3.1 Types of Student Exchange Programs**

#### ***Long-term exchange***

A long-term exchange is considered an exchange which is designed to last six to 10 months or up to one full year. Participants are to attend high school in their host countries. Students are expected to integrate themselves into the host family, immersing themselves in the local community and surroundings, and upon their return to their home country are expected to incorporate this knowledge into their daily lives. The exchange consists of the foreign student and the host parents or host family sharing culture and comparing daily life and habits while building a natural friendship that will endure beyond the actual exchange year. The focus is on improving international relations and cultural understanding.

An example of this kind of exchange program is the Congress-Bundestag Youth Exchange. The Congress-Bundestag Youth Exchange (Parlamentarisches Patenschafts-Programm) is a youth student exchange program founded in 1983 (Deutscher Bundestag, 2004). The program, which is dually sponsored by the United States Congress and the German Bundestag, funds exchange programs for German and American students through grants to private exchange organizations in both countries. The funding in the USA is administered by the Bureau of

Educational and Cultural Affairs of the United States Department of State on behalf of the United States Congress.

The program was established to celebrate the 300th anniversary of German settlement of the United States and has been renewed by both legislative bodies since its inception. Thus far, more than 17,000 German and American students have completed their exchange through the program, which provides a full exchange year complete with orientation and language programs and travel opportunities within Germany and the United States.

The scholarship program is merit-based and is funded based on congressional district for Americans and Bundesland for Germans. It consists of a High School program (currently administered by five organizations in the United States: AFS, ASSE, AYUSA, CIEE, YFU), a Young Professionals program (administered exclusively by CDS International) and a Vocational Student program (administered by Nacel Open Door).

### ***Short-term exchange***

A short-term exchange usually takes place during the summer months when school is not in session. Participants concentrate on the language of their host country with heavy emphasis on sightseeing and learning about the culture.

Another alternative of short-term exchange program is summer camp, which combines language learning and camping. Though language camps take many forms, their basic purpose is to provide knowledge about the foreign culture, their language, and their customs, primarily through instruction by and interaction with native speakers. Summer camps basically educate students about another culture through recreation. An example of summer camps is Workcamps Kolping (Kolping Jugendgemeinschaftsdienste, 2009). Workcamps allow students to experience another country and its culture. Students work in small groups (8 – 12 participants)

together with people of the host culture on a social or ecological project. In this way they learn the everyday life of the host culture and gain an insight of it.

### ***University exchange***

A university exchange occurs when sister universities trade students, or through special programs such as ERASMUS and SOKRATES. Students attend university classes and often live in dormitories. These exchanges can last anywhere from a single semester to an entire education.

ERASMUS is an exchange programme of the European Union. It has supported European student exchange and mobility since 1987 and is considered one of the most successful mobility programmes ever. Some its main objectives are:

- to improve the quality and to increase the volume of student and teaching staff mobility throughout Europe, so as to achieve at least 3 million student and teacher exchanges by 2012,
- to improve the quality and increase the amount of multilateral cooperation between higher education institutions in Europe,
- to improve and increase cooperation between higher education institutions and enterprises and,
- to spread innovation and new pedagogic practice and supports between universities in Europe.

In 1987 when the European Union had only 12 member states, about 3,000 students received mobility grants to study for a period of six to 12 months at a host university in another European member state. The number of students participating increased as the numbers of member states increased and by the year 2000 more than 100,000 students received an ERASMUS grant every year to study abroad

(cf. Teichler et al. 2001). Student mobility within the ERASMUS programme is based on a number of measures that intend to reduce barriers to mobility:

- Higher education institutions exchanging students have institutional cooperation agreements.
- Students are sent out with a learning agreement which regulates what kinds of courses they study at the host university and which supports recognition after their return.
- Study abroad is measured within the framework of the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS), a system of credit point accumulation which contributes to the recognition of all courses by the home university of studies.

The Kassel Centre for Research on Higher Education and Work has carried out several studies (Teichler, Maiworm 1994 and Maiworm, Teichler 1996) regarding the impact and outcome of temporary study abroad in Europe (within the ERASMUS programme). The results can be summarized as follows:

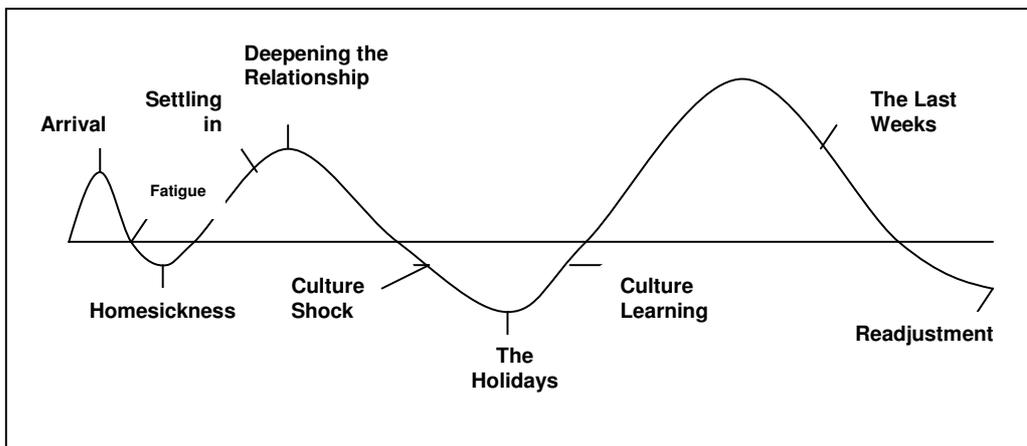
- Mobility has a “warming up” effect on subsequent education.
- ERASMUS students improve their language proficiency, developed their personality and enhanced culture.
- ERASMUS students perceived their study abroad as helpful in obtaining the first job and relevant to the job.
- The results also indicate a strong impact of study abroad on international professional mobility.

The ERASMUS programme has contributed and continues to contribute to an ever-growing number of persons in Europe who are prepared and willing to be internationally mobile after graduation. Further studies (Teichler et al. 2001, Jahr et al. 2001) have also shown that student and professional mobility after graduation contributes little to vertical dimensions (e.g. status and income) of

professional success, but they greatly contribute to horizontal dimensions (e.g. international job assignments).

### 3.4 The Exchange Program and its Adjustment Cycle

Though every exchange student has a different set of experiences, many of them share similar actions and reactions. The result is a general prototype of emotional ups and downs over the time of the exchange program. This pattern is called “The Adjustment Cycle” (see Figure 3).



**Figure 3: The Exchange Program and its Adjustment Cycle (Hansel, 2007)**

#### 3.4.1 Arrival Excitement and Fatigue

A student’s arrival in the host country may be accompanied by excitement or anxiety. Even for students who arrive full of enthusiasm, soon after arrival they may soon feel exhausted by all the new information in their new environment. An additional problem may be trying to speak and understand the new language.

The length of this arrival fatigue varies. For some students it is brief; for others it may last some weeks. How long the fatigue last depends upon the ease of the

relationship with the host family, the student's ability to adapt to new situations, the student's language proficiency and other social and cognitive factors.

### **3.4.2 Homesickness**

After experiencing an exhausting phase, students normally feel homesickness when confronted with a new situation and new information. Episodes of homesickness are not a serious problem. It becomes a problem, however, when students idealize their country and believe that everything at home is better than in the host country.

### **3.4.3 Settling In**

Not everything in the host country will cause adjustment problems. Most students discover similarities between themselves and their hosts, and the differences they encounter tend to be interesting rather than problematic, at least at first. This is also called the "honeymoon" phase of cross-cultural adjustment. Not all students experience a comfortable settling-in period. For some students encountering so many differences at one time is very difficult. Even those students who find a number of similarities between the two cultures will face occasional frustration and confusion. The difficulties students face during this period often stem from their expectations about the cultural experience. Some students do not expect many differences, or have learned about the culture in school or from books. When they start to settle into the host culture, they realize that it is not entirely what they expected.

### **3.4.4 Deepening the Relationship**

It is hard for exchange students and host families to avoid making mistakes in developing new relationships. But when students and host families develop an

atmosphere of trust and respect, these mistakes seem like small misunderstandings and should not prevent them from becoming closer. This is also the time during which the family and student must deal with many basic issues and rules that govern family life. The rules the host family sets are rooted in the values of the host culture. Since the exchange student is unfamiliar with these values, following the family rules will not always be natural. As the relationship deepens, the student will understand better the rules and culture and what the family expects of their members. Students will then feel more comfortable with the rules and will start feeling like a member of the family.

### **3.4.5 Cultural Shock**

Many students find at the beginning of the exchange programs many similarities between the two cultures. It is often comfortable to focus on what seems familiar and to pay less attention to the differences. But as time passes, the enthusiasm about trying new things disappears and the things that seemed “just like home” are not really the same. Students may now be confused by what people say to them. The feelings of confusion about the host culture can sometimes be so uncomfortable that students will experience what is called “culture shock”. Culture shock is a normal reaction to the stress and confusion that people often feel when trying to adapt to a foreign culture.

Though the intensity with which each student experiences culture shock differs, all exchange students face new circumstances and challenges that can be difficult and upsetting. Some of these come early in the experience. Often, students do not recognize the most profound cultural differences until somewhat later in their exchange program, when students are beginning to learn and understand the culture. These differences can be the most difficult and bring on a more intense feeling of culture shock than some of the earlier experiences. There are five basic dimensions of culture shock that affect most students in some measures.

- a) Identity:** Your identity is who you are as an individual, but also a part of the culture and society to which you belong. Other people from your culture identify you by your position in that culture and expect you to behave according to the role or position you have. When students live in another culture as exchange students, they may suddenly find that their position in the society is different and that different behavior may be expected. Students are likely to find their old image of themselves threatened or changed. As students develop a new image, they will find it does not match the old one. This situation may be stressful.
- b) Dependence:** Especially for students who are already independent in their home countries, being an exchange student means being dependent on others, especially at the beginning. Students may for instance be dependent on a family member to get to school. Being dependent on others may make an exchange student feel like a child again at a time in life when he/she wants to be treated like an adult.
- c) Anger:** Frustration and anger are typical reactions to the confusion of being in a new culture. Since students do not completely understand what is happening in their new environment and cannot foresee what will occur, they feel are less in control of the circumstances than they would at home. Students may then feel rejected by their families or by new friends who do not seem to understand them, and this may make them angry. Students may also feel frustrated by difficulties at school.
- d) Mourning:** As a result of all these changes, combined with the sadness students may feel about leaving their families and friends and the general homesickness students may feel, they are likely to experience a period of grief or mourning.

**e) Recovery:** As time passes, students will feel better and will be able to deal with the differences. They will learn more about themselves and about their own culture. Being away of home may help students to contrast their own culture with the new one. Students learn new ways of behaving and new perspectives on life and the world around them. They enter a period of recovery from culture shock. At this point, students feel more confident and have gained new abilities to function in their new environment.

### **3.4.6 The Holidays**

In almost every culture there are special holidays that are important social celebrations. A holiday celebration is a new and unfamiliar situation to the exchange student. They feel enthusiastic about the holiday, but indeed it will be difficult for them to feel part of the event. Another sort of holiday experience, however, is when exchange students are living in cultures where their own important holidays are not celebrated or are celebrated very differently. Students frequently feel lonely and sad because they are missing an important occasion back home.

### **3.4.7 Culture Learning**

Once students have recovered from culture shock, the confidence they have gained helps them to face new challenges. At this point, they are prepared to learn more about the new culture, themselves and their own culture as well. Though they may feel sadness, anger or frustration from time to time, the difficulties of adjustment are generally past. Cultural learning consists of absorbing the experience of a new culture and responding appropriately to it, evaluating it carefully, adapting as necessary, and adopting new ways of behaving and thinking that are desirable. It involves being able to appreciate and value the differences and at the same time reaffirming one's own individual and cultural identity. Cultural

learning consists of two factors: confidence that students have to try new situations and the insight they have gained through deepening the relationship with their host families and friends. At this stage, they are really participating in the culture and not just observing it.

#### **3.4.8 The Last Weeks**

In the weeks before returning home, students have mixed feelings. Confusion is again normal. While students are happy and excited about seeing their family and home country again, it is also difficult to leave their new family and life in the host country. In addition, many students are suddenly busy with invitations and special activities scheduled for the end of the exchange program. These events and the conflicting emotions they stir up leave many students exhausted.

## ***4. ENVIRONMENT OF THE SAMPLE***

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This study was developed with the cooperation of a German school in Barranquilla, Colombia. In the following part we will present some of the most important aspects regarding the school's history, the educational system, the exchange program, and the cultural work with students. This outline will provide the reader with an idea of the environment of the sample.

### **4.1 HISTORICAL OVERVIEW: GERMAN SCHOOL; BARRANQUILLA/COLOMBIA 1912-2007**

The German School of Barranquilla, Colombia, was founded in 1912 by a group of German citizens. The school was officially inaugurated 9<sup>th</sup> February 1913; during its first two years the school did not have its own building, but in 1929 with the financial support and funds from the German community, its construction was begun.

In February 1956 after World War II and after 14 years of inactivity, the German School resumed its activities with 255 children. In 1960 the director of the school, Mr. Wilhelm Schurbusch died and a new director, Mr. Manfred Peter, took over. In 1962 the German School received approval from the National Ministry of Education in Colombia to grant the high school diploma; in 1963 the school moved to a new, better- equipped building located in the northern part of the city. The German director of the school, Mr. Manfred Peter, returned to Germany in 1978 and a new school director, a Spanish citizen Mr. Severino Lobo became the new school administrator.

In 2002 the school moved again to a bigger building located on the outskirts of the city. The school currently has more than 1000 students and is under the administration of German citizens.

#### **4.2 GERMAN AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN THE GERMAN SCHOOL BARRANQUILLA/COLOMBIA.**

Since the founding of the German school, transmitting the German language and its culture was one of its main goals. Ever since its founding and until the 1960s, almost all the subjects were taught in German. The reason for this was that almost all the students were first language German speakers. In 1971 there was a radical change. In November 1970 a group of members from the Central Administration of German Schools came from Cologne, Germany, and made an evaluation of its educational system. This team reported that the German school in Barranquilla was no longer bilingual but rather a national private school with intensive teaching of German as a foreign language.

Since then, this form of education has been maintained at the German School in Barranquilla. In other words, it can be stated that the German School in Barranquilla is a kind of international school that includes teaching German as a foreign language within the curriculum. For example, German as a foreign language means that the language will be taught as a subject in the classroom, just like Biology, Mathematics, or Science.

#### **4.3 TEACHING GERMAN, THE TEACHER AND THE STUDENT**

The foreign language (German) is introduced at an early level; children start learning German in the first grade (elementary) and continue until the twelfth grade (high school). Its weekly intensity is as follows: five hours at the elementary level, six hours at the high school level, and seven hours during senior year.

Books, teaching materials, quantity, quality of the examinations and the methodology used to teach German as a foreign language are coordinated and organized in meetings of the German Department held five to six times per year. The teachers are qualified and trained to teach German as a second language and twice a year they participate in other educational seminars at the Pedagogical Center in Bogotá.

The school currently employs about 20 qualified teachers, 50% of whom are German. At the German School in Barranquilla teachers feel committed to teach German in a creative and communicative way. When teachers choose class themes, they are oriented towards the needs and interests of the students.

The following concepts play an important role: group and partner work, scenic games, discussions, oral presentations, word games, creative writing, texts with spaces for completion, unscrambling words, exercises and many more.

The traditional frontal instruction in the German class is a thing of the past. The students should be stimulated during the whole class to ask questions, express their own ideas and sometimes to portray the role of the teacher. In this way the students are involved in an intensive and varied development of the class. This entertains the students and allows them to learn in a different way.

When teaching social aspects, literature and German culture, teachers try to transmit a realistic image of Germany. Critical topics such as prejudice against foreigners or east-west problems that emerged after Germany's reunification are transmitted objectively. Teachers always conclude that students prefer topics such as recreation and sports, youth in Germany or short stories.

Below you will find a table with the structure of the German teaching plan from 2<sup>nd</sup> through 12<sup>th</sup> grade.

**Table 1: Structure of the German Teaching Plan at the German School in Barranquilla/Colombia**

Grade	Nr. of groups (Students)	Hour intensity	Material, Books and/or observations
2 <sup>nd</sup>	6 (15/16)	5	Wer? Wie? Was? 1
3 <sup>rd</sup>	6 (12)	5	Wer? Wie? Was? 1
4 <sup>th</sup>	6 (14)	6	Wer? Wie? Was? 2
5 <sup>th</sup>	5 (14/15)	6	Wer? Wie? Was? 2
6 <sup>th</sup>	4 (12/13)	6	Lernt mit uns 3 – www 3
7 <sup>th</sup>	3 (13/14)	6	Lernt mit uns 4 – www 3/4
8 <sup>th</sup>	3 (13/16)	6	Lernt mit uns 5 – www 4
9 <sup>th</sup>	3 (16)	6	Own material including Social aspects, Grammatik zum Üben (GzÜ)
10 <sup>th</sup>	2 (19)	6	Own material including Social aspects and German literature, Student Exchange Program with Germany.
11 <sup>th</sup>	2 (17/19)	7	“Die Geschichte handelt von...” own material including Social aspects and German literature, Grammatik zum Üben (GzÜ).
12 <sup>th</sup>	3 (15/11/17)	7	Own material including Social aspects and German literature, Grammatik zum Üben (GzÜ), Test of German as a foreign language II.

#### **4.4 THE STUDENT EXCHANGE PROGRAM AND THE GENERAL CULTURAL WORK**

When students reach 10<sup>th</sup> Grade they are able to participate in a school exchange program with Germany. This has been a school tradition for many years and is undoubtedly the climax of a school career at the German School in Barranquilla. Students are properly prepared for a stay of three to four months abroad. These children are exposed to many German social themes, movies, and

lots of conferences. The German teachers and the secretary of the German Department contribute to this preparation as well.

All student participants must prepare a folder with information about Colombia (history, culture, economy, the German School, tourism, geography, social aspects, government, education, and folklore). These files will be given to their host families, teachers and schoolmates. All the participating students must attend classes at a local school in Germany and at the end of the exchange program the schools must submit a report and certification about the students' performance during their stay in Germany.

During their stay in Germany the students must also prepare another folder about Germany. It should include the following: the most interesting aspect about the place where they lived, a description of the host family's life, differences between the school systems in Germany and Colombia, a list of the most commonly used expressions, a list of positive and negative things of the country, analysis of a text in essay form, and a description of a painting or sculpture seen during a museum visit.

Besides the student exchange program, the German School organizes some cultural activities that promote assimilation of the German language and culture. Examples of these activities are: celebration of October 3<sup>rd</sup>, Christmas party, Bavarian night, German food festival, chorus festival, a monthly German page (in German) in the local newspaper, and German courses for adults.

#### **4.4.1 Requirements for Participation in the Exchange Program with Germany**

There are some formal requirements that students must fulfill in order to participate in the exchange program. Students have to be at least 14 years old and should have reached 10<sup>th</sup> level in order to qualify for the school exchange program

with Germany. Students must attend a high school in Germany (10<sup>th</sup> level) and take part in regular lessons (mathematics, literature, science, sport, history, English, etc...). The German school will send a report for each student. Furthermore, families must be able to afford the cost of the program.

The personal requirements are very important as well. Students must ask themselves if they are mature and prepared to face the new experience abroad. Another relevant question is why the student wants to participate in the exchange program. The student himself should be motivated to participate in the exchange program and not feel forced by someone else.

#### **4.4.2 The Role of the Student in the Family**

The German school places students in a German family because the family is the heart of a culture, and students will learn most in its setting. The second reason is the family can offer students support as they try to cope with many changes they will face during their stay abroad.

The exchange student and host-family relationship is not one that has a long precedent in most cultures. Frequently students and their families begin their experience by trying to fit each other into roles that are familiar to them. Most often these roles are inappropriate. Some of these roles are the following: An exchange student is not a houseguest or a boarder. Nor is the student a housekeeper or babysitter. It could be said that students are in a way like a member of the family and both the host parents and students assume responsibilities appropriate to those roles.

#### **4.4.3 The Role of the Student in the Community**

The German school tries to convey to the students the importance of their role in the host family and community. Students are prepared and know that they will be seen as a representative of Colombia. Students will be asked about their life at home, government, customs, etc. Students are trained and prepared to answer such questions directly and seriously.

Sometimes the role as an exchange student in the community can overwhelm students. They may be asked to give speeches to the school and organizations about their country. Being an exchange student means sharing themselves with the new culture and its members,

#### **4.5 TEST OF GERMAN AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE**

The diploma of German as a foreign language granted by the Ministers' Council of German Education is an official German document for the students who study German abroad; it has the same level and difficulty all over the world.

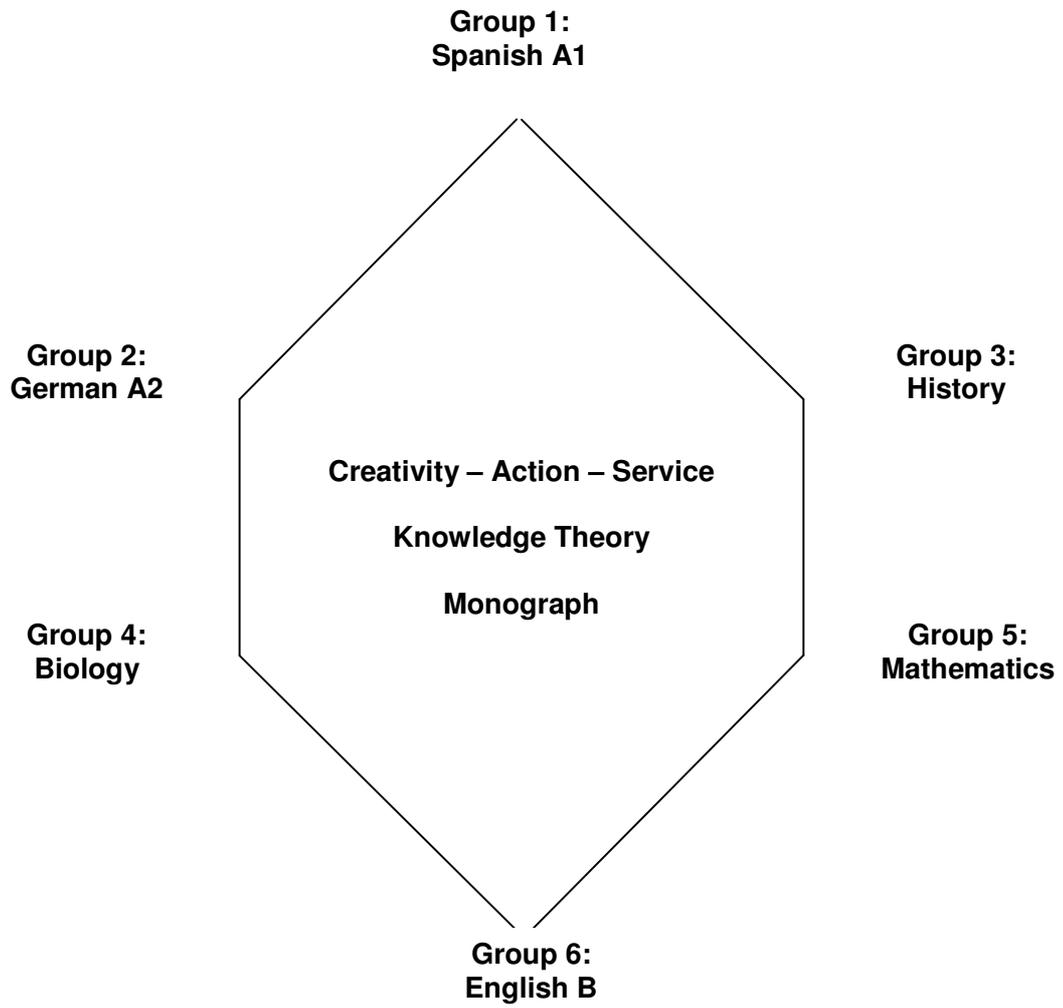
Each year in September students from the 9th grade take the test of German as a foreign language (level I); this diploma certifies students' knowledge of German in order for them to be admitted at a "Studiencollege" in Germany. The 11th grade students write the test (level II) which certifies German knowledge so that those students can be admitted to a German university.

#### **4.6 THE INTERNATIONAL BACHELOR**

In 2002 the German School of Barranquilla entered into a joint venture with the German government to implement the program International bachelor in the eleventh and twelfth grades. The first tests at the end of the year 2004 were so

successful that the teachers of the preparatory course were surprised. All the study plans were designed in agreement with the national requirements of the ICFES (Colombian Institute for the Development of Higher Education).

The first group of students from IB was not very big, and in the past two years the number of students has decreased for several reasons. However, some students stayed and not only raised the school to an international level, but they also motivated many students to join the program. Nowadays the school has two IB groups in the eleventh degree programme and only one group pursuing the national high school degree.



**Figure 4: Structure of the International Bachelor Program at the German School**

## ***5 PREVIOUS RESEARCH***

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Two areas to be considered when discussing the effect of exchange programs are research findings focused on exchange programs and on the reduction of prejudice. Therefore, we will first present some of the most representative conclusions of investigations made into the general effects of exchange programs and will then go on to present studies regarding the influence of student exchange programs on attitudes and reduction of prejudice.

Until now, very few investigations into the effects of intercultural exchange programs have been made. From the previous results it can be concluded that there are general differences between short-term exchange programs (programs that last few days to two weeks) and long-term exchange programs (programs that last at least three months to one year). The differences are the motivation of the students, the intercultural learning experiences, the acculturation process, the improvement of language proficiency, the attitudes towards the foreign culture, the stereotypes and prejudice towards the outgroup, the dynamic of social relationships, the reintegration process, and the long term effects of exchange programs (Thomas, 2005).

However, it is still unknown whether the changing processes in long-term exchange programs are the same as in short-term exchange programs. Another issue that needs more attention is the specific difference between long-term and short-term effects of student exchange programs. It could be assumed that the emotions and personal experiences involved in the intercultural learning experience have more relevant effect than the length of the exchange.

One representative study in the area of student exchange programs is entitled "Wine is for drinking, water is for washing: Student opinions about international

exchange programs” (Van Hoof & Verbeeten 2005). This study concentrated on the relevance of the international experience. The study was done among students who participated in student exchange programs in the United States and other parts of the world. Students who participated in exchange programs agreed that the experience was positive and that international exchange programs have high relevance.

From the literature on this topic it can be concluded that the most common benefit of student exchange programs is the exposure to different social and cultural environments (Arndt, 1984; Calleja, 1995; Lamey, 1990; Saliba, 1995; Swanson, 1969). Another result is that living in another culture changes one’s stereotypes and prejudice towards the host culture (Stangor, Jonas, Stroebe, & Hewstone, 1994) and that it presents one with an alternative view of the world (Remy, Nathan, Becker, & Torney, 1975). Exchange students acquire a “new-found recognition of the extent to which their own cultural values differ from those of their host country” (Roberts, 1998). Furthermore, it has been found that exchange students tend to be a little more mature than students who did not take part in an exchange program (Frisch, 1990).

Thomas (2005) has also investigated many areas of international student exchange programs. In one of his studies, he conducted a systematic survey regarding students’ experiences and the lasting effects of the exchange experience. The results of the study showed that intercultural exchange experiences, occurring within the framework of an international exchange program, have a lasting effect on young students’ personality development and the course of their lives. Also, it was shown that the participants are able to report their exchange experiences as well as its effects. The experiences acquired during the exchange program were linked to vital incidents in the person’s life. The following are some of the long-term effects that were identified: increase in self-efficacy (a high assessment of the self-efficacy leads a person to seek new challenges), increase

in self-decentralization (meaning the willingness and ability to accept different and foreign aspects for example: understanding others' points of view, increased readiness to learn new things or interest in other perspectives of the world), individual variations in the chronology of influential effects (a process of self-decentralization is activated, meaning that students activate the search for new experiences). This process of self-decentralization is a long-term process and not just limited to the exchange itself (Thomas, 2005).

Another area related to this topic that has received extensive attention is Allport's contact hypothesis. Although some of the previous research concluded that situations without the key conditions will lead to negative effects, most studies report positive contact effects even in situations lacking the key conditions.

Some of the studies have concentrated on interracial workers in South Africa (Bornmann & Mynhardt 1991), German-Turkish school children (Wagner et al. 1989) and Chinese students in the U.S. (Chang 1973). Research has also involved attitudes toward a wide range of targets beyond ethnic groups: elderly (Caspi 1984, Drew 1988), homosexuals (Eskilson 1995, Herek & Capitanio 1996), the mentally ill (Desforges et al 1991) and victims of AIDS (Werth & Lord 1992).

One of the most representative studies regarding the influence of student exchange programs on attitudes and national stereotypes is "Influence of Student Exchange on National Stereotypes, Attitudes and Perceived Group Variability" conducted by Stangor et al. in 1996. This research project studied changes in stereotypes, attitudes, and perceived variability of national groups within a sample of U.S. college students who spent one year either in West Germany or in Great Britain.

Stroebe (1988) also made important contributions with his study "Familiarity may breed contempt: The impact of student exchange on national stereotypes and

attitudes". This study explored the impact of exchange programs on U.S. students' stereotypes and attitudes toward European nations.

These studies have found evidence that, as predicted by the contact hypothesis, the amount of contact is a strong predictor of subsequent improvement in students' attitudes or stereotypes toward the host nation.

Furthermore, recent research has proved that intergroup contact reduces implicit prejudice among minority groups and not among majority groups. This was demonstrated by Henry & Hardin (2006). In two comparable experiments they examined intergroup contact and prejudice between Blacks and Whites and between Christians and Muslims. In the experiments, the implicit prejudice of Blacks toward Whites (not Whites toward Blacks) and Muslims toward Christians (not Christians toward Muslims) was reduced as a result of contact as friends.

The four optimal conditions for positive contact are well-known and have been tested by many researchers. However, the subjective perception of contact has seldom been considered in empirical research. Van Dick et al. (2004) introduced a new variable into research on intergroup relations: the perceived importance of intergroup contact. The results of their study showed that perceived importance is indeed a predictor of prejudice reduction.

Recent studies (Paolini et al., 2004; Stephan et al., 2002; Voci & Hewstone, 2003) have also demonstrated that intergroup anxiety plays a crucial role in mediating the relationships between intergroup contact and prejudice. Reducing anxiety thus makes intergroup contact more effective in terms of lessening prejudice.

Moreover, Pettigrew and Tropp (2006) carried out a meta-analytic test of the intergroup contact theory. The results of this study (using 713 independent

samples from 515 studies) indicate that increasing intergroup contact is generally associated with a reduction of prejudice. Their findings also provide evidence that intergroup contact can contribute to reductions in prejudice across a variety of groups and contexts not necessarily limited to racial and ethnic samples. Additionally, the results suggest that establishing Allport's optimal contact conditions in the contact situation generally increases the positive effects of intergroup contact. They also believe that optimal conditions for contact should be conceptualized as functioning together rather than as separate factors.

Pettigrew and Tropp (2008) have tested the mediation effects and addressed the issue: how does contact reduce prejudice? Their study "How does intergroup contact reduce prejudice? Meta-analytic tests of three mediators" reveal that mediational effects for three mediators: enhancing knowledge about the outgroup, reducing anxiety about intergroup contact, and increasing empathy and perspective taking.

Findings from longitudinal studies (Eller & Abrams, 2004) point to the crucial importance of intergroup friendship and underline the mediating roles of learning about the outgroup, changing behavior, and generating affective ties, but not ingroup reappraisal in Pettigrew's model.

An overview of the research literature makes it obvious that most of the studies developed thus far have focused on identifying attitude changes. However, there exists little data exist on other key issues. Firstly there is still a need to investigate how the recategorization generalizes to attitudes toward the whole outgroup. Second, how and why the four contact processes of change are activated and become important at each stage is still not understood. Furthermore, intergroup contact requires more extensive longitudinal research in order to understand if changes achieved by contact persist or desist.

In the next two chapters we will describe the main goals of the study and the methodology used to achieve these goals.

## ***6. RESEARCH QUESTION***

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This research examined one of the most discussed models of intergroup contact (Pettigrew 1998) based on the Socio-psychological theory regarding attitude change “The Contact Hypothesis” (Allport 1954). Pettigrew’s Model has not been examined longitudinally, except for Eller & Abrams (2003) which examined two measurement points but ignored what happens after contact has ceased.

In the present study, the first task was to test Pettigrew’s model and identify changes in perceptions toward the host culture over three measurement points (T1= before having contact, T2= during the contact, T3= after the contact).

Secondly, we analyzed which variables mediated the changing process: a) learning about the outgroup, b) generating affective ties, c) ingroup reappraisal, and d) changing behavior.

Finally, the effects of extroversion as a moderator were tested in order to identify whether the direction and strength of the relation between independent variables were affected over time.

# 7. METHOD

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## 7.1 DESIGN

In this longitudinal study existing groups of students were chosen on the basis of a single characteristic: participation in an exchange program.

## 7.2 VARIABLES

**7.2.1 Dependent variables:** Stereotypes and attitudes toward Germans and levels of categorization.

**7.2.2 Independent variables:** Quantity and quality of the contact. The amount of contact was an important variable, since it predicted whether contact could have different effects over time. This study considered the type of the contact with members of the outgroup as an indicator of better contact effects under certain conditions (contact as friends).

**7.2.3 Mediating variables:** Learning about the outgroup, changing behavior, generating affective ties and intergroup reappraisal were integrated as mediating variables, which may explain the effects of different kinds of contact.

**7.2.4 Moderating variable:** This moderating variable may explain whether personality traits may have an effect on the attitude changing process.

Extroversion implies an energetic approach toward the social and material world and includes traits such as sociability, activity, assertiveness, and positive emotionality (John & Srivastava, 1999). As you can see the definition of

extroversion includes many aspects and conditions (i.e. having positive feelings, seeking contact with others and enjoying human interaction) that are necessary for positive intergroup contact. Based on this assumption the researcher decided to test the influence of extroversion as a moderating variable.

**7.2.5 Sociodemographic variables:** gender, age, socioeconomic status, language level, reasons for visiting the host country and school grades. These variables provided us with some basic information about the participants.

### 7.3 PARTICIPANTS

The study was based on 120 students between 15 and 17 years of age attending the 10th and 11th grade at a German School in Colombia (see Tables 7 and 8). Two groups of students participating in a student exchange program took part in the study. For this study the two cohorts of exchange students were placed together as one cohort. We tested the comparability of the two cohorts based on the demographic variables and determined that there were no differences between the cohorts. The tables below summarize the results.

At this point I would like to make you aware of some important aspects of the environment of the sample that may have influenced the attitude changing process. Some of these characteristics are: the learning of German is introduced at an early level, 50% of the teachers with whom students have contact are Germans, students get a lot of input about the German culture, and finally students are well prepared for the exchange program.

As you can notice these students are familiar with the German contact situation which may have made initial contact easier. Furthermore these students are highly motivated to take part on the exchange program. It has been proved that having a high motivation is crucial for intergroup contact. These two aspects may explain

why these students quickly changed their attitudes toward the outgroup. Based on this it is important to notice that the effects observed may not be applicable to different intergroup contexts.

### ***Gender and Reason for visiting the host Country***

A chi-quadrat test showed that there are little differences for the variable “gender” ( $z = 5,01$ ;  $df = 1$ ;  $p < .05$ ) and no differences for the variable “reason for visiting the host country” ( $z = 3,52$ ;  $df = 2$ ;  $p = .17$ ) between the cohorts.

**Table 2: Distribution of “Gender” for the two Cohorts**

Cohort	Gender		TOTAL
	Masculine	Feminine	
1 (n=53)	29	24	53
2 (n=67)	23	44	67
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>52</b>	<b>68</b>	<b>120</b>

**Table 3: Distribution of “Reasons for visiting the Host Country” for the two Cohorts**

Cohort	Reasons			TOTAL
	Have Family in Germany	Was selected by school	Other	
1 (n=53)	1	44	8	53
2 (n=67)	7	50	10	67
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>94</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>120</b>

### ***Socioeconomic Status, Grades, and Language Level***

A Mann-Whitney-U-Test showed that there are no differences of socioeconomic status ( $u = 1729,5$ ;  $p = .77$ ), degree ( $u = 1663,0$ ;  $p = .51$ ), and language level ( $u = 1602,5$ ;  $p = .30$ ) between the cohorts.

## **Age**

A t-Test demonstrated that there are only minor age differences ( $t= 2,24$ ;  $df= 118$ ;  $p<= .05$ ) between the cohorts.

**Table 4: Distribution of “Age” for the two Cohorts**

<b>Cohort</b>	<b>Age</b>
1 (n=53)	15.09 (.295)
2 (n=67)	14.,96 (.367)
<b>TOTAL</b>	

## **7.4 PROCEDURE**

We began by contacting the school and explaining the purpose of the project and asking for permission to conduct the study with the students. Initial contact was made with the students in February 2005 when the researcher conducted a pretest. The purpose of the pretest was to assess the quality of the instrument, that is, to measure the accuracy of the questionnaire.

A mini-sample was required for the pretest. For the purpose of this study the researcher worked with 18 Students at the German School in Colombia. A frequency analysis was conducted on the data collected during the pretest. An “item-analysis” gave us an overview of the answers and showed how the values were distributed. In this way we could identify difficulty indices in the questions.

The collection of the data was divided into three phases and two groups of participants (see design for data collection Tables 5 and 6). We proceeded to select those students who were preparing to travel to the target country. In October 2005 we went to three different classrooms (see Tables 7 and 8) and gave the questionnaires to the students during the last 15 minutes of the lesson. The

researcher explained the purpose of the study to the students and read the instructions for the survey, after which each student filled out the questionnaire on his/her own.

The second phase of the data collection took place In December 2005 (one month after the students' arrival in the host country). In this phase the researcher contacted each of the students and filled out the questionnaire via telephone. In this phase the questionnaire was filled out via telephone because the students were located in different regions of Germany, making it difficult to meet them personally and keep their responses anonymous.

The third and final phase of the data collection took place in February 2006 (one month after the student had returned to Colombia). In this stage we proceeded in the same way as in the first stage of the data collection. The three phases were repeated as described with the second group of participants.

**Table 5: Design for Data Collection Group 1 (Oct. 2005 – February 2006)**

	Colombia	Germany	Colombia
	Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3
	Oct. 2005	Dec. 2005	Feb. 2006
First Group (n= 53)	X	X	X

X: measurement

**Table 6: Design for Data Collection Group 2 (July 2006 – December 2006)**

	Colombia	Germany	Colombia
	Stage 1	Stage 2	Stage 3
	July 2006	Sept. 2006	Nov. 2006
Second Group (n=67 )	X	X	X

**Table 7: Number of Participants Group 1 (Oct. 2005 – February 2006)**

	Nr. of students
Class 11 a	13
Class 11 b	13
Class IB	27
<b>Total</b>	<b>53</b>

**Table 8: Number of Participants Group 2 (July 2006 – December 2006)**

	Nr. of students
Class 10 a	18
Class 10 b	22
Class IB	27
<b>Total</b>	<b>67</b>

## 7.5 MEASUREMENTS

The questionnaire comprises three parts. The first part consists of a list of trait descriptions related to Germans. The second part comprises eleven questions related to the students' personal experiences with Germans, and finally, the third part asks for some basic information about the participants.

### 7.5.1 *Dependent Variables*

As in many of the classic stereotype studies, this study used a list of trait descriptions (Stroebe et al., 1988) to assess students' stereotypes toward the German culture. (Example: when you think about Germans, the following characteristics come to mind: intelligent, cultivated, outgoing, etc.) The list contained 25 characteristics (see Appendices A and B), scored on a scale from 1 (totally disagree) to 6 (totally agree).

This study measured the emotions using items developed by Stephan and Stephan (1985). This scale consists of 10 items, in which five of them represent positive emotions, and the other five negative emotions. Participants reported how they would feel when interacting with a German. Item responses ranged from 1 (not at all) to 6 (extremely).

To assess the different levels of categorization during the contact, this study followed previous research (Gaertner, Dovidio, & Bachman, 1996) that used single-item measures following questions such as: when you have contact to a German you perceive them as: a) unique individuals, b) as people completely different from your own, c) as people with whom you share a common group membership, d) as people from a different group that, at the same time, share a common group membership with you. Scaling ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree).

### ***7.5.2 Independent Variables***

**a)** The quantity of the contact was measured by asking about the amount of contact with Germans at different places (school, home, and daily life). Scaling ranged from 1 (never) to 6 (always). The following questions were used in order to measure the quantity of the contact:

- How often have you had contact with a German in the last month?
- How often in the last month did you watch German movies, listen to German music, read German newspapers, and speak German?

**b)** The quality of the contact was measured by asking the participants to indicate how they felt when interacting with Germans. Scaling ranged from 1 (extremely uncomfortable) to 6 (extremely comfortable). Another question used to measure this variable was:

- Do you experience this contact as pleasant? (never – always).

### **7.5.3 Mediating Variables**

- a)** Learning about the outgroup was assessed by asking the participants how much they had learned about the German culture by watching movies, listening to music, reading newspapers, speaking the language (scaling ranged from nothing to everything).
  
- b)** Generating affective ties was conceptualized as increasing interpersonal proximity measured with the Inclusion of Other in the Self (IOS) scale (Aron, Aron, & Smollan 1992). In the IOS scale we asked the participants to think of a group of Germans and then select the pair of circles that best describes their relationship to that group of persons. The scale consists of five pair of circles, in which the self and the others in each pair of circles come closer and closer together.
  
- c)** Ingroup reappraisal was assessed by asking about national identification. In other words this variable was conceptualized as changing the participants' national identification. The scale consists of twelve items and the scaling ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). National identification/pride was assessed using the following items: "I am a person who feels strong ties to [ingroup country]" (Smith & Tyler, 1997), "I'm proud to be [of ingroup nationality]" (Hamberger & Hewstone, 1997), "I often regret that I am [of ingroup nationality]" (reversed item; Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992), and "In general, I'm glad to be [of ingroup nationality]" (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992). The need to defend one's own country was measured with: "If someone were to insult [ingroup country], I would take it personally" (Sánchez & Fernández, 1993), "I am a person who makes excuses for being [of ingroup nationality]" (reversed item; Smith & Tyler, 1997), "I often talk about [ingroup] as a great people" (Smith & Tyler, 1997), and "It doesn't bother me when people are critical of [ingroup country]" (reversed item). Public collective self-esteem was

assessed using the following three items by Luhtanen and Crocker (1992): 1) “Overall, [ingroup members] are considered to be good by other countries”; 2) “In general, other countries respect [ingroup members]”; 3) “In general, other countries think that [ingroup members] are unworthy” (reversed item); and a further item, “Overall, [ingroup members] are liked by other countries”. Responses were scored on 7-point scales (strongly disagree—strongly agree), with higher scores indicating higher public collective self-esteem.

- d)** Changing behavior was conceptualized as having more contact with Germans. For example in order to have contact with a German you need to make a call, talk to him/her, go to the cinema, or engage in some kind of activities with him/her. These aspects of participants’ behavior changed over the course of the study. Changing behavior was measured by asking about the amount of contact with Germans at different places (school, home, and daily life).

#### ***7.5.4 Moderating Variable***

Extroversion was measured with a scale from NEO Five-Factor-Inventory (NEO-FFI) (Costa & McCrae 1993). This scale consists of 12 items in which the participants need to rate views about themselves. Scaling ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree). The following questions were used within the scale: I enjoy having people around me..., I enjoy talking with other people...

#### ***7.5.5 Sociodemographic Characteristics***

In this last part of the questionnaire we asked the participants to provide us with some basic personal information. Since the questionnaire was (meant to be) completely anonymous and confidential, we did not ask for the names, but for the initials of the parents’ names. Other variables measured were: gender, age, socioeconomic status, language level, grades, and reasons for visiting the country.

## **8. RESULTS**

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### **8.1 DIMENSIONALITY AND RELIABILITY**

#### **8.1.1 Stereotypes**

A principal component factor analysis with varimax rotation revealed that the list of items load onto five factors. The fifth factor had to be excluded in order to maximize reliability. The three items loading onto the fifth factor (outgoing, enjoy life, and arrogant,) with an alpha coefficient of .38 were included to the second and third factors because the loading was significant for these factors as well.

Eight items (intelligent, cultivated, conforming inverse, honest, industrious, competitive, scientifically minded and efficient) load onto the first factor, "Developed" with an alpha coefficient of .85.

Six items (friendly, emotional, passionate, likable, open minded, and outgoing) load onto the second factor, "Open to Contact" with an alpha coefficient of .73. The third factor, "Self Oriented" consists of six items (selfish, individualistic, ambitious, materialistic, hostile, and arrogant) with an alpha coefficient of .65. Onto the fourth factor, "Traditional" load four items (religious, family oriented, conservative, and traditional) with an alpha coefficient of .64.

**Table 9: Factor Loadings of the Items on the Stereotype Scale**

	<b>Factor 1 “Developed”</b>	<b>Factor 2 “Open to Contact”</b>	<b>Factor 3 “Self Oriented”</b>	<b>Factor 4 “Traditional”</b>
Intelligent	<b>,833</b>	,041	-,098	,011
Cultivated	<b>,547</b>	,147	,110	,063
Conforming Inverse	<b>-,614</b>	,103	,078	-,030
Honest	<b>,694</b>	,125	-,193	,193
Industrious	<b>,697</b>	,121	-,020	,090
Competitive	<b>,572</b>	,204	,318	-,065
Scientifically Minded	<b>,666</b>	,221	,200	,137
Efficient	<b>,777</b>	,166	-,018	,099
Outgoing	-,238	<b>,364</b>	-,356	-,218
Friendly	,212	<b>,763</b>	-,122	,038
Emotional	-,112	<b>,624</b>	,071	,189
Passionate	,304	<b>,610</b>	,018	,067
Likable	,411	<b>,703</b>	-,144	-,064
Enjoy life	,201	<b>,231</b>	-,214	-,003
Open Minded	,371	<b>,529</b>	-,197	-,318
Arrogant	-,042	-,106	<b>,357</b>	,128
Selfish	-,261	-,118	<b>,634</b>	-,005
Individualistic	,239	-,456	<b>,474</b>	-,206
Ambitious	,343	,104	<b>,625</b>	-,213
Materialistic	-,219	,011	<b>,762</b>	,005
Hostile	,194	-,214	<b>,552</b>	,137
Religious	-,087	,110	,154	<b>,726</b>
Family Oriented	,212	,371	-,143	<b>,455</b>
Traditional	,402	,101	-,142	<b>,578</b>
Conservative	,153	-,077	-,094	<b>,751</b>

### **8.1.2 Ingroup Reappraisal**

The principal component factor analysis with varimax rotation showed that the “Ingroup Reappraisal” items load onto one seven-item factor and one three-item factor. Items load onto the first factor, “Proud of the Nation” with an alpha coefficient of .80. Items load onto the second factor, “Admitted by others” with an alpha coefficient of .71.

**Table 10: Factor Loadings of the Items on the Ingroup Reappraisal Subscales**

	<b>Factor 1 “Proud of the Nation”</b>	<b>Factor 2 “Admitted by Others”</b>
I am a person who feels strong ties to Colombia	<b>,637</b>	-,025
I often regret that I am Colombian	<b>,784</b>	-,029
I am a person who makes excuses for being Colombian	<b>,851</b>	-,063
I am proud to be Colombian	<b>,901</b>	,054
I often talk about Colombians as great people	<b>,431</b>	,094
In general, I am glad to be Colombian	<b>,859</b>	,153
If someone were to insult Colombia, I would take it personally	<b>,669</b>	,074
Overall, Colombians are considered to be good by other countries	,136	<b>,732</b>
Overall, Colombians are liked by other countries	,136	<b>,760</b>
In general, other countries respect Colombians	,131	<b>,802</b>

The Ingroup Reappraisal scale (both subscales together) includes twelve items. In order to maximize reliability of the scale, two items were excluded. The alpha coefficient is .79.

### 8.1.3 Emotions

The emotion items load onto two five-item factors. The first factor “Positive Emotions” (comfortable, accepted, confident, secure, and relaxed) with an alpha coefficient of .82 and the second factor “Negative Emotions” (apprehensive, nervous, suspicious, threatened, and awkward), with an alpha coefficient of .58. As shown in the table below, two of the items (nervous and awkward) load higher onto the first factor. As expected the loadings are negative. As the loadings on the second factor are also high enough we decided for one positive and one negative factor.

**Table 11: Factor Loadings of the Items on Emotions**

	<b>Factor 1 “Positive Emotions”</b>	<b>Factor 2 “Negative Emotions”</b>
Apprehensive	-0,49	<b>,594</b>
Nervous	-,628	<b>,411</b>
Suspicious	,069	<b>,677</b>
Awkward	-,598	<b>,467</b>
Threatened	-,029	<b>,624</b>
Comfortable	<b>,732</b>	-,061
Accepted	<b>,643</b>	,264
Confident	<b>,755</b>	,023
Secure	<b>,811</b>	-,093
Relaxed	<b>,816</b>	,000

The ten item scale has an alpha coefficient of .76.

### 8.1.4 Extroversion

Following Costa & McCrae (1993) extroversion is one of the five most important personality characteristics (besides neuroticism, openness, tolerance, and conscientiousness). For our study we used the twelve extroversion items of the original NEO-FFI questionnaire. The reliability of the original scale is given for the whole sample (n=2112), for men (n=966), and for women (n=1076) (see table 12).

**Table 12: Original Alpha Coefficients of the Extroversion factor**

Scale	Whole Sample (n=2112) $\alpha$	Men (n= 966) $\alpha$	Women (n= 1076) $\alpha$
Extroversion	.80	.79	.80

The alpha coefficient of the scale for the present study is .73. The internal consistency of the scale in this study is therefore just slightly less than the original scale.

## 8.2 CHANGES OVER TIME

A repeated-measures MANOVA was conducted to examine whether stereotypes, national identification, emotions, and levels of categorization changed over time. The study covers changes over the three stages of the contact (T1: before contact, T2: during contact, and T3: after contact). The Bonferroni adjustment procedure was used to control for alpha-inflation.

The results of the analysis are summarized in table 13. Furthermore, paired t-Test was conducted in order to determine whether the average difference between the three points of measurement (T1-T2; T2-T3; T1-T3) was equal to zero.

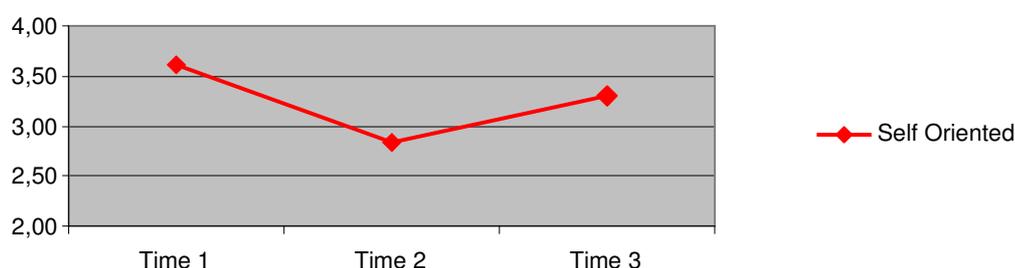
**Table 13: Means and Standard Deviations of the Main Constructs at the three Points of Measurement**

<b>Measure</b>	<b>Time 1 (N=98)</b>	<b>Time 2 (N=98)</b>	<b>Time 3 (N=98)</b>	<b>F</b>	<b>p</b>	<b><math>\eta^2</math></b>
<b>Stereotypes Subscale “Self Oriented”</b>	3.62 (.69)	2.85 (.84)	3.31 (.83)	40,4	<.01	.29
<b>Stereotypes Subscale “Developed”</b>	4.50 (.88)	4.52 (.60)	4.34 (.79)	2,20	n.s	.02
<b>Stereotypes Subscale “Traditional”</b>	3.73 (.89)	3.90 (.89)	3.70 (.97)	2,09	n.s	.02
<b>Stereotypes Subscale “Open to Contact”</b>	3.93 (.79)	4.04 (.70)	3.97 (.97)	0,73	n.s	.01
<b>Ingroup Reappraisal Subscale “Proud of Nation”</b>	5.13 (.87)	5.34 (.54)	5.25 (.81)	6,09	<.01	.06
<b>Ingroup Reappraisal Subscale “Admitted by Others”</b>	3.05 (.97)	3.46 (.81)	3.18 (.93)	8,46	<.01	.08
<b>Emotions Subscale “Positive Emotions”</b>	4.53 (.71)	4.81 (.81)	4.95 (.71)	11,6	<.01	.11
<b>Emotions Subscale “Negative Emotions”</b>	4.65 (.70)	5.09 (.69)	5.06 (.66)	18,1	<.01	.16
<b>“Decategorization”</b>	3.35 (1.49)	3.29 (1.55)	2.86 (1.42)	4,94	<.01	.05
<b>“Salience of Categories”</b>	3.66 (1.25)	4.14 (1.15)	4.03 (1.36)	5,32	<.01	.05
<b>“Recategorization”</b>	4.30 (1.16)	4.47 (1.28)	4.42 (1.15)	0,80	n.s	.01

Note: The values given are the mean and the standard deviation (in brackets).

### 8.2.1 Stereotypes

The analysis revealed that the main effect of time was significant ( $F= 9,23$ ;  $p= <.01$ ;  $\eta^2= .16$ ). Univariate comparisons revealed that there was only a significant effect of time for the subscale “Self Oriented” ( $F= 40,40$ ;  $p= <.01$ ;  $\eta^2= .29$ ). Although there was a weak correlation between the three measurement points (see table 23 for relevant correlations), the negative views decreased from T1 to T2 and increased from T2 to T3. Students reduced their negative views towards Germans during their stay in the host country. Germans were perceived as less self oriented during T2. Though these views increased after the contact was over (T3), the scores were not as high as before having contact (T1). A paired t-Test showed that the three points of measurement differ from each other in a significant way (see Table 14).



**Figure 5: Changes of the Stereotype Subscale “Self Oriented” over time**

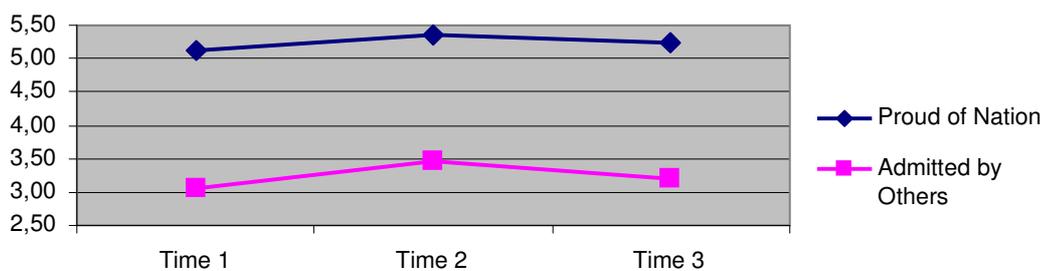
**Table 14: Paired t-Test of the Stereotype Subscale “Self Oriented”**

	<b>t</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>p</b>	<b>d</b>
<b>T1-T2</b>	8,68	107	<.01	1.01
<b>T2-T3</b>	-5,43	97	<.01	-.55
<b>T1-T3</b>	3.51	99	<.01	.36

These results provide support of the results obtained by repeated-measures MANOVA and annul the assumption that the changes over time were due to the change of method during the measurement point two (interview via telephone instead of paper pencil instrument) and not because of the effects of contact.

### 8.2.2 Ingroup Reappraisal

The main effect of time for ingroup reappraisal was significant ( $F= 6,2$ ;  $p= <.01$ ;  $\eta^2= .06$ ). There was a significant univariate effect of time on the subscale “Proud of Nation” ( $F= 6,09$ ;  $p= <.01$ ;  $\eta^2= .06$ ) and on the subscale “Admitted by Others” ( $F= 8,46$ ;  $p= <.01$ ;  $\eta^2= .08$ ). Participants showed more pride on their nationality and felt more admitted by the outgroup at T2; both variables decreased at T3 although the scores were not as high as before having contact with Germans. However the overall effect for the subscale “Admitted by others” was not strong enough over time. This means that the changes cannot be considered representative (see paired t-test Table 16).



**Figure 6: Changes of the Ingroup Reappraisal Subscales “Proud of Nation” and “Admitted by Others” over time**

**Table 15: Paired t-Test of the Ingroup Reappraisal Subscale “Proud of Nation”**

	<b>t</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>p</b>	<b>d</b>
<b>T1-T2</b>	-3,98	107	<.01	-.33
<b>T2-T3</b>	1,60	97	n.s.	.13
<b>T1-T3</b>	-1,87	99	<.05	-.15

The results of the paired t-test show that there were significant changes from T1 to T2 but not from T2 to T3. Moreover there was a significant main effect from T1 to T3. This confirms once again that changes occurred over time were a consequence of the effects of contact and not because of the change of method during the measurement point two.

**Table 16: Paired t-Test of the Ingroup Reappraisal Subscale “Admitted by Others”**

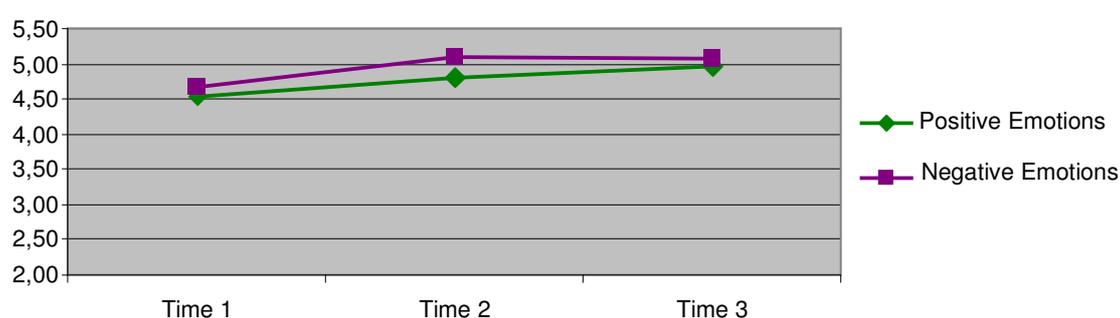
	<b>t</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>p</b>	<b>d</b>
<b>T1-T2</b>	-3,96	107	<.01	-.45
<b>T2-T3</b>	-1,27	99	<.01	-.13
<b>T1-T3</b>	2,73	97	n.s.	.29

A significant effect was observed from T1 to T2 and for T2 to T3. However the main effect (T1 to T3) did not remain significant. The changes over time were not strong enough.

### **8.2.3 Emotions**

A significant main effect of time on emotions was also observed ( $F= 10,9$ ;  $p= <.01$ ;  $\eta^2= .10$ ). There was a significant univariate effect of time for the subscales “Positive Emotions” ( $F= 11,6$ ;  $p= <.01$ ;  $\eta^2= .10$ ) and on the subscale “Negative Emotions” ( $F= 18,1$ ;  $p= <.01$ ;  $\eta^2= .15$ ). Subjects had more positive emotion and

less negative emotion from T1 to T3 when interacting with Germans. The correlation between the measurement points is weak (see table 23); however the changing process is significant. Emotions towards people from the host nation became less negative between T1 and T2, and instead of decreasing they became more positive at T3. Furthermore the paired t-test confirmed that the emotions differ from each other at the three stages in a significant way (see Tables 17 and 18).



**Figure 7: Changes of the Subscales “Positive Emotions” and “Negative Emotions” over time**

**Table 17: Paired t-Test of the Emotions Subscale “Positive Emotions”**

	t	df	p	d
<b>T1-T2</b>	-2,60	107	<.01	-.33
<b>T2-T3</b>	-1,59	97	n.s.	-.18
<b>T1-T3</b>	-5,01	99	<.01	-.60

**Table 18: Paired t-Test of the Emotions Subscale “Negative Emotions”**

	<b>t</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>p</b>	<b>d</b>
<b>T1-T2</b>	-4,88	107	<.01	-.63
<b>T2-T3</b>	,29	97	n.s.	.04
<b>T1-T3</b>	-6,12	99	<.01	-.61

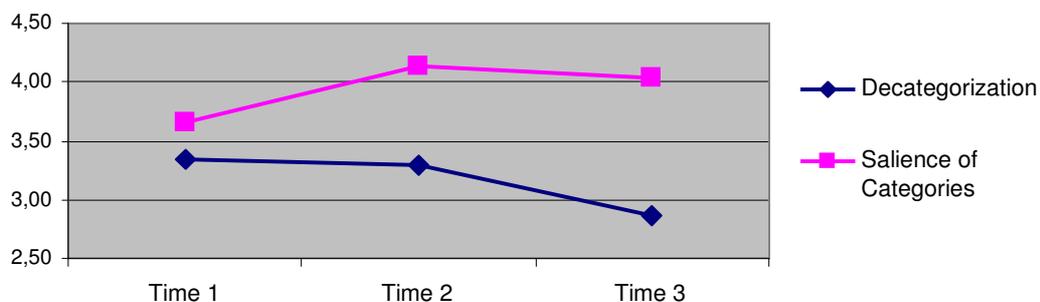
Table 17 and 18 show the results obtained by doing a paired t-test for the subscales positive and negative emotions. There was a significant effect from T1 to T2 ( $t = -4,88$ ;  $df = 108$ ;  $p = <.01$ ). The results for the pairs T2 - T3 were not significant which is not relevant because the total effect over time T1 to T3 ( $t = -6,12$ ;  $df = 99$ ;  $p = <.01$ ) remains significant meaning that the effect over time occurred as a consequence of the contact and not because of the change of method during measurement point two.

#### **8.2.4 Levels of Categorization**

The main effect of time for two levels of categorization was significant ( $F = 3,16$ ;  $p = <.01$ ;  $\eta^2 = .22$ ). There was a significant univariate effect of time on the following levels of categorization: “Decategorization” ( $F = 4,94$ ;  $p = <.01$ ;  $\eta^2 = .05$ ) and “Salience of Categories” ( $F = 5,32$ ;  $p = <.01$ ;  $\eta^2 = .05$ ), but not on “Recategorization”. Participants start seeing members of the outgroup as people completely different from them (interpersonal level of categorization) and this decreases significantly. Paired t-Tests show that there were significant effects from T2 to T3 ( $t = ,83$ ;  $df = 97$ ;  $p = <.01$ ) and the effect remains significant from T1 to T3 ( $t = -2,16$ ;  $df = 99$ ;  $p = <.01$ ).

During the next stage of the process (the intergroup level of categorization), we found significant effects for “Salience of Categories” from T1 to T2 ( $t = -3,62$ ;  $df = 107$ ;  $p = <.01$ ). The effects are not significant from T2 to T3 which is not relevant

because the effect remains significant after the contact is over T1 to T3 ( $t = -2,16$ ;  $df = 99$ ;  $p = <.01$ ).



**Figure 8: Changes of "Levels of Categorization" over time**

**Table 19: Paired t-Test of Levels of Categorization Subscale "Decategorization"**

	t	df	p	d
T1-T2	,054	107	n.s.	-.06
T2-T3	2,86	97	<.01	.31
T1-T3	3,02	99	<.01	.35

**Table 20: Paired t-Test of Levels of Categorization Subscale "Saliency of Categories"**

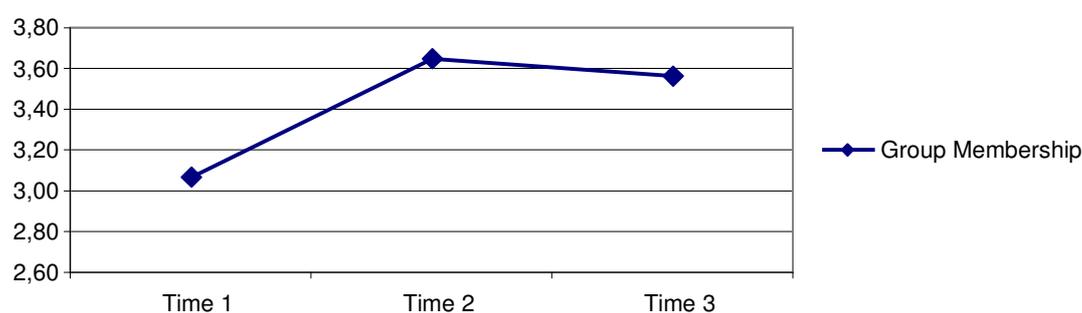
	t	df	p	d
T1-T2	-3,62	107	<.01	-.45
T2-T3	,83	97	n.s.	.01
T1-T3	-2,16	99	<.01	-.26

### 8.2.5 Affective Ties

An ANOVA with repeated measurements shows significant changes over time ( $F= 24,1$ ;  $df=2$ ;  $p= <.001$ ,  $\eta^2= .20$ ). Students increased interpersonal proximity to the outgroup from T1 to T2 ( $t= -.70$ ;  $df= 107$ ;  $p= <.01$ ) and this holds for T1 to T3 ( $t= -4.56$ ;  $df= 99$ ;  $p= <.001$ ). Students felt closer to Germans during their stay in the host country and the score remains significant over time.

**Table 21: Changes of “Affective Ties” over time**

	T1	T2	T3	F	P	$\eta^2$
<b>Affective Ties</b> (n= 98)	3,07 (0.77)	3,65 (0.73)	3,56 (0.76)	24,1	<.01	.20



**Figure 9: Changes of “Affective Ties” over time**

**Table 22: Paired t-Test of Levels of “Affective Ties”**

	t	df	p	d
<b>T1-T2</b>	-7.0	107	<.01	-0.80
<b>T2-T3</b>	1.15	97	n.s.	0.12
<b>T1-T3</b>	-4.56	99	<.01	-0.59

Table 23: Correlations

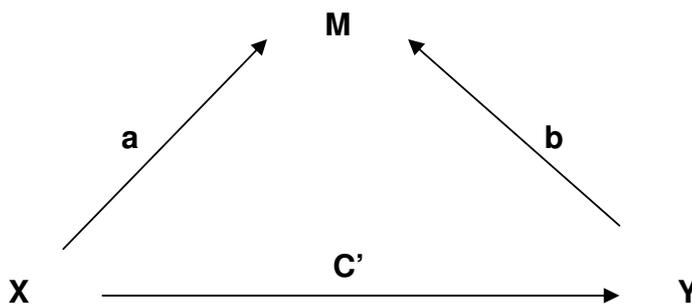
	Time 1	Time 2
<b>Self Oriented</b>		
<i>Phase 1</i>		
<i>Phase 2</i>	0.33**	
<i>Phase 3</i>	0.46**	0.50**
<b>Proud of Nation</b>		
<i>Phase 1</i>		
<i>Phase 2</i>	0.67**	
<i>Phase 3</i>	0.69**	.70**
<b>Admitted by Others</b>		
<i>Phase 1</i>		
<i>Phase 2</i>	0.38**	
<i>Phase 3</i>	0.49**	0.43**
<b>Positive Emotions</b>		
<i>Phase 1</i>		
<i>Phase 2</i>	0.23*	
<i>Phase 3</i>	0.28**	0.39**
<b>Negative Emotions</b>		
<i>Phase 1</i>		
<i>Phase 2</i>	0.19	
<i>Phase 3</i>	0.51**	0.28**
<b>Decategorization</b>		
<i>Phase 1</i>		
<i>Phase 2</i>	0.31**	
<i>Phase 3</i>	0.34**	0.43**
<b>Salience of Categories</b>		
<i>Phase 1</i>		
<i>Phase 2</i>	0.23*	
<i>Phase 3</i>	0.28**	0.34**

\*p &lt; 0.05, \*\*p &lt; 0.01

### 8.3 MEDIATION EFFECT

Mediation effects were tested in order to understand the mechanism through which contact affects stereotypes, prejudice and emotions. Multiple regressions were conducted to test Pettigrew's four interrelated mediation effects: learning about the outgroup, changing behavior, generating affective ties, and intergroup reappraisal. For this study we specifically used the method presented by Baron and Kenny (1986) and Judd and Kenny (1981).

The steps employed to estimate the mediation effects are in accordance with those developed by Baron Kenny (1986) and Judd and Kenny (1981).



**Figure 10: Mediation Effect Model according to Baron Kenny (1986) and Judd and Kenny (1981)**

- a) First, we tested the correlation of the initial variable with the outcome. We used (Y) as criterion variables and (X) as predictors (estimated and tested path C). This step established that there is an effect that may be mediated.
- b) We next tested the correlation of the initial variable with the mediator. We used (M) as criterion variables and (X) as predictors (estimated and tested path a).

- c) We examined whether the mediator affected the outcome variable. (Y) was used as criterion variables and (X and M) as predictors (estimated and tested path b).

The first step was done for the following variables: stereotypes, positive and negative emotions, group membership, decategorization and salience of categories. For all these variables we found a correlation of the initial variable with the outcome. However there was no correlation of the initial variables with the mediating variables proposed by Pettigrew. Learning about the outgroup, changing behavior, generating affective ties, and intergroup reappraisal did not mediate the changing process.

#### **8.4 MODERATION EFFECT**

The effects of extroversion as a moderator were tested in order to identify whether the direction and strength of the relation between independent variables from T1 to T3 were affected. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) with repeated measurement was conducted to identify a moderating effect of extroversion on the stereotypes.

First, we dichotomized the variable extroversion in low and high and correlated the groups in order to find differences between extroverted and introverted students.

The results provided evidence that there was no significant interaction between changes of stereotype over time and extroversion. Extroversion has no moderating effect on stereotypes.

## ***9. DISCUSSION***

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This research project tested Pettigrew's reformulated model of the intergroup contact hypothesis. The study enabled us to identify changes in perceptions of Colombian students towards Germans over time. Additionally, we studied the variables mediating the changing process. Finally, the effects of extroversion as a moderator were tested.

The present results provide support for the expectation that having intercultural contact with the outgroup has an effect on the views and attitudes of ingroup members towards the host culture.

From the first analysis it can be inferred that the contact with the outgroup helped Colombian students to improve their negative views towards Germans. This corroborates Allport's propositions that increasing contact with members of an outgroup will reduce prejudice views. This is also consistent with previous research (e.g., Pettigrew & Tropp 2006; Stangor et al., 1996; Stroebe et al., 1988). Results from these studies clearly indicate that intergroup contact typically reduces intergroup prejudice. We could state that Colombian students profit from the exposure to the German social and cultural environment and positively changed their view towards the host culture. This is also consistent with results from (Arndt, 1984; Calleja, 1995; Lamey, 1990; Saliba, 1995; Swanson, 1969) and (Stangor, Jonas, Stroebe, & Hewstone, 1994).

Moreover, the results showed that having intercultural contact had an effect on the national identification of Colombian students. As a result of having less contact with the ingroup and positive contact with the outgroup, the national pride of participants changed and provided students with insight about Colombians

(ingroup) as well as Germans (outgroup). As a consequence of this new perspective Colombian norms were no longer seen as the only way to deal with the social world. This new position restructured the view of the own group (Colombians) and led to a less limited view of Germans in general.

There was also evidence that participants increased their positive emotions and reduced negative emotions over time when interacting with Germans. Once students arrived in Germany an adjustment cycle began (Hansel, 2007). At the beginning they felt anxious about the new situation (known as "Arrival Excitement and Fatigue" Hansel, 2007), but as soon as they started discovering similarities with the host culture and increased interpersonal proximity to Germans, students adjusted and settled in. The reduction of negative feelings and increase of positive feelings were probably the result of the settling in or phase of cross-cultural adjustment (Hansel, 2007). According to our findings, recent studies (Paolini et al., 2004; Stephan et al., 2002; Voci & Hewstone, 2003) have also demonstrated that reducing negative feelings (e.g. anxiety, feelings of threat) mediates the relationships between intergroup contact and prejudice. Thus, reducing negative feelings and increasing positive feelings in the contact situation with Germans represented an important way of diminishing prejudice.

During the stay in the host country, students increased their proximity to the outgroup and had the notion of closeness and inclusion of Germans in their own group. The more contact participants had with Germans as friends, the more comfortable they felt when interacting with Germans. These results are consistent with Pettigrew's argument that friendship potential is one of the optimal situational factors which mediates positive intergroup contact effects. Findings from longitudinal studies support these result. In 2004 Eller & Abrams also pointed to the crucial importance of intergroup friendship for positive intergroup contact effects.

This process of increasing proximity to the outgroup and including them in your own group is also described by Hansel (2007). At this point of the contact process students and members of the host culture (family members, school peers, friends, etc...) develop an atmosphere of trust and respect and nothing should prevent them from becoming closer. This stage is called "Deepening the Relationship" (Hansel, 2007). As the relationship deepens, students have a better understanding of the culture and consequently feel closer to Germans. This is also confirmed by Thomas (2005). Thomas states that through familiarization (and increased proximity to the outgroup) with the new culture, students develop a deeper understanding of the outgroup, their environment and culture, and prejudice and stereotypes decrease.

Another aspect suggested by Pettigrew in his model is that contact leads to different levels of categorization over time. The analysis confirmed this and revealed that at the beginning of their stay in Germany (T2) students start seeing members of the outgroup as people completely different from them. However, this decreases significantly over time. At this stage of the process Colombian students start a decategorization in which they see Germans in terms of personality and characteristics, rather than members of an outgroup. This is in line with Pettigrew's suggestions and with Eller and Abrams (2004) findings. They also found that contact at (T2) was characterized by the interpersonal level of categorization.

After contact with Germans was established, the salience of category's level increased significantly. Participants were aware that they belonged to a different group and appreciated the differences. This corroborates Pettigrew's model, which predicts that the different levels of categorization should become salient as contact continues. This is also called "Cultural Learning" (Hansel, 2007). At this point in the contact process students start absorbing the experience of the new culture and responding appropriately to it. The cultural learning involves being able to

appreciate and value the differences between both groups which is also proposed by Pettigrew as one of the main aspects of the level “Salience of Categories”.

In contrast to our findings, Eller and Abrams (2004) found that the interpersonal level of categorization remained strongest over time.

At this point in the process participants probably started reducing prejudice. However, the group does not reach the last stage of the process which is the level of recategorization. During this phase of the process a breakdown of “us vs. them” category occurs in order to allow formation of a broader “we” category. Members of both groups are aware that they have more in common in a number of new dimensions than differences. This final stage of the process is assumed to induce a maximum reduction in prejudice. This may explain why students do not reduce their prejudice to a maximum and why the changes do not persist after contact was over (T3).

Another point of interest in this study was to analyze which variables mediated the changing process. Multiple regression analysis revealed that there was no correlation of the initial variables with the mediating variables proposed by Pettigrew. Learning about the outgroup, changing behavior, generating affective ties, and intergroup reappraisal did not mediate the changing process. This evidence is not far away of findings from Eller & Abrams (2003) who found that ingroup reappraisal has no mediation effect on the criterion variables. As an explanation of these results, they suggest that ingroup reappraisal might need time to exert its full influence in promoting better intergroup relations.

I personally think that these findings (no mediation effects) are not a reason for concern. A justification for these results could be that the changing process was mediated by other mediating variables that were not included in this study. As a consequence it could be proposed to investigate further mediation variables for this specific “Colombian-German” contact situation.

Furthermore, the effects of extroversion as a moderator were tested. The results showed that there was no significant interaction between changes over time and extroversion. This means that personality traits like extroversion and introversion do not play a role in the attitude changing process.

One of Allport's propositions was that motivation plays a crucial role in the reduction of prejudice. The will to participate in an intercultural exchange program is an essential predictor of prejudice reduction. Additionally, contemporary research has examined further mediators on contact effects. This is the case of Van Dick et al. (2004) who introduced and tested a new variable: the perceived importance of intergroup contact. In this study Van Dick (2004) demonstrated that intergroup contact can be perceived as either more important or less important, which in turns determines intergroup evaluations. Our study provides some evidence that corroborates this notion. Students of the German school in Colombia go through years of preparation and are motivated to take part in this exchange program. The exchange program with Germany is considered by students as the highlight of their school career. Thus, for Colombian students the intercultural contact with Germans has a high relevance. Students consider the intercultural contact as relevant, because the contact serves their personal goals (for example: knowing a new culture, improving their language skills). This explains why Colombian students are less prejudiced and why the perceived importance of the exchange program reduces prejudice.

Allport also proposed four optimal contact conditions that are crucial for the reduction of prejudice: equal status, common goals, cooperation, and the support of authorities. This study confirms once again that certainly these fundamental criteria must be met so that positive intergroup contact occurs. Colombian students could easily establish contact and reduce prejudiced views toward Germans, because they had the support of a recognized authority (in this specific case the German School). Results from a meta-analysis (Pettigrew & Tropp 2006) offer

important support regarding the role of Allport's fundamental conditions in reducing prejudice through intergroup contact. Their findings also suggest that institutional support may be an especially important condition for facilitating positive contact effects. Although authority support appears to play an important role, this condition should not be implemented in isolation.

Other fundamental conditions that played important roles were those of equal status of members of both groups (Colombians and Germans) as well as a common goal. Both groups were students interested in exchanging intercultural experiences and willing to learn about the culture and people. Taken together, these results show that Allport's fundamental conditions are necessary in order to improve the positive effects of intergroup contact. Furthermore, it is important to mention that optimal conditions for contact are best conceptualized as functioning together rather than as separate factors.

One could say that Colombian students are to some degree dependent on Germans (host family and school friends). Germans provide Colombian exchange students with all the information they need to familiarize themselves with the new culture, school system, transportation, language, etc. Thus, Colombian students can be considered to be the minority group, whereas Germans are the majority group. Previous research (Henry & Hardin, 2006) suggests that intergroup contact predicts reduced implicit prejudice toward outgroups, but only for the lower-status (minority) groups. Although we did not test this suggestion, we could hypothesize that in our study the minority group, as predicted by Henry & Hardin, reduced prejudice towards Germans. Further research would be needed to determine whether the majority group reduced prejudice towards Colombians.

## 9.1 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The first limitation is posed by the fact that we could not create a control group. There were not enough participants that matched the characteristics to form a control group. The control group would have played an important role in this research, because it would have served the purpose of determining if attitude and stereotype changes towards Germans can also occur in the absence of intercultural contact (e.g. students accessing more detailed information about the culture, would have developed a deeper understanding of the culture and the people etc...).

Since time was also limited, we could not follow up the changes after the third measurement point. Some of the results of the current study indicate that the changes which occurred over the time considered in the study did not persist after contact was over. Another methodological limitation was that we could not collect further data about the changing process (i.e. interview the students in order to get more detailed information about the attitude changing process).

A third limitation is that there are many more mediators and moderators that exist in the relationship between intergroup contact and prejudice beyond those tested in this study.

A final concern for this study was the fact that the responses to the questionnaires during the second measurement point (T2) were obtained via telephone. The reason for this was that students were located in many different parts of Germany making contact difficult. The last evaluation committee strongly criticized the changed of method during measurement point two (T2). The fact that the researcher was listening to the answers may have influenced the accuracy of the results for measurement point two since the participant was not anonymous. The direct contact with the investigator may have prompted participants to respond

in accordance with norms of social desirability, which may have prevented them from answering the questionnaire without having the feeling of being judged. As a result of this critique further analysis were conducted. The results of paired t-Tests provided support to the results obtained by repeated-measures MANOVA and annul the assumption that the changes over time were due to the change of method during the measurement point two (interview via telephone instead of paper pencil instrument) and not because of the effects of contact. Another aspect that may have influenced the responses was the fact that the interviewer has the same nationality of the students. However this was not controlled.

## **9.2 FURTHER RESEARCH**

Despite these limitations, several important implications for future research can be drawn from these results. In the current study, three measurement points were used to identify changes over time. Further research is needed to identify what happens after contact is ended and to determine whether the changes persist or desist. A follow up after the third measurement point may provide more evidence on the development of the changing process.

Research is also required to obtain more evidence that explains the role of the mediating variables and which mediators lead to positive effects. No mediation effects were found for this group. It is highly recommended that the role of further possible mediating variables be investigated.

In addition, it is necessary to determine the effects of long-term intergroup contact. For this, broader longitudinal research is needed. I specifically propose to determine the lasting effects of contact. Are participants capable of reflecting on the experiences they had made during the exchange and its effects on their lives? Thomas (2005) found that intercultural experiences had left distinct impressions and these were linked to vital incidents in the person's life.

Another possibility would be to investigate the effects of long term contact. How does the process develop when participants keep on contact with the outgroup (i.e. students that come to Germany to live and study)? Do students reduce prejudice to a maximum and what happens after this occurs? Could it be possible to create a common identity with the outgroup.

### **9.3 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

This longitudinal study tested Pettigrew's model in the natural setting of a student exchange program. Pettigrew's model has not previously been tested longitudinally. Three measurement points were used. The results showed that intergroup contact, within the context of an exchange program can have positive effects on attitudes and views towards Germans.

The results give insight to different stages of the changing process and also into crucial aspects for prejudice reduction. The analyses corroborate Pettigrew's model. However some findings are not consistent with some of Pettigrew's arguments. Learning about the outgroup, changing behavior, ingroup reappraisal, and generating affective ties did not mediate the changing process. Moreover, the results confirm that personality traits like extroversion and introversion are not relevant for intergroup contact and the reduction of prejudice. Finally, the results suggest that long term intergroup contact is crucial, firstly to establish contact, and secondly to develop the full sequence of the categorization process.

These results provide new evidence that corroborate Pettigrew's reformulated version of the contact hypothesis. Moreover, the study provides us with new crucial aspects of the relationship between two different ethnic groups. On the basis of these results we are now in a position to suggest some practical strategies that could contribute to the development of new educational programs for a better understanding and critical tolerance towards foreign cultures. These strategies can

help to reduce negative aspects of the exchange program and increase the probability of having a successful experience.

Firstly, it is important to work on education and cultural orientation prior to departure. Based on the results of different research Allport proposed that education has a marked effect on tolerance. Perhaps education lessens feelings of insecurity and anxiety and helps raise the level of tolerance toward different ethnic groups. Therefore, it is highly recommended to invest time on educational programs that prepare students for the contact and make them aware of the differences, and provide them with some information about norms, conventions, and values of the target culture. This cultural work and educational program should continue after the exchange program is over so that the changes are not negated.

Secondly, students need to go through a selection process in which the school can determine which students are ready for an intercultural experience. In this selection process the school should try to find out about the student's motivation, ability to adapt to new situations, ability to manage conflicts in a productive way, how they deal with difficult situations, homesickness and separation from the family. Students who are mature and psychologically prepared to be confronted with situations such as these will be able to get over the initial anxiety quickly and establish contact with members of the outgroup.

It would also be very helpful to create an authority figure in Germany to serve as a student counselor during the stay in the host country. This counselor would primarily look after the fulfillment of norms as well as impose social sanctions. In addition, the counselor would act as a "troubleshooter," helping students with daily problems and adapting to the new life. In this way the counselor facilitates the entry of exchange students into the new life and helps them to overcome stressful situations that are typical of the new contact situations.

The host family is another important aspect of such exchange programs. Schools need to select the families carefully. The host families need to meet the following criteria: all family members should be German, the family must be able to financially afford a new family member and should provide the student with his/her own bed, closet, and place to do homework (schoolwork). But most important is the openness and cultural interest of the family. It would be recommendable to interview the family before accepting it as a host family. In this interview the counselor should ask about the motivation for having an exchange student. A high motivation could promote the development of an atmosphere of trust and respect thus facilitating a faster deepening of the relationship between both groups. Furthermore, a high motivation will facilitate the friendship potential which is one of the optimal situational factors for positive intergroup contact effects.

The exchange program should be arranged such that students have direct intergroup contact with outgroup members and not with ingroup members. This implies placing students in many different parts of Germany thereby avoiding having many Colombian students in the same town or school. Having less contact with the ingroup and more contact with the outgroup will provide students with insight about the outgroup. This new position can restructure the view of the own ingroup and lead to a less limited view of the outgroup.

Finally, it would be beneficial to extend the time of the exchange program. Pettigrew proposes in his model that the friendship potential can produce positive effects. However, optimal intergroup contact requires time for cross-group friendships to develop. A long term perspective allows cross-group friendships to develop and the full decategorization (which is the phase where both members of both groups see each other in terms of personality and characteristics, rather than members of an outgroup), salient categorization (which is the stage of the process where participants are aware that they belong to a different group and start appreciating the differences), and recategorization (final stage which leads to a

maximum reduction of prejudice) sequences to develop. The results of this study show that students do not reach the last level of the categorization process. This means that students do not reduce prejudice to a maximum. Perhaps the reason for this is that the program does not extend over a sufficient period of time. It would be recommendable to extend the exchange program by two to three months. In this way participants would have more time to develop the full sequence of the categorization process.

Many of these pedagogical strategies are aimed at improving the intercultural experience between Colombian and German students. In other words they are specific for the Colombian exchange program with Germany. However many of them could be also relevant for other intercultural exchange programs which seek to provide a successful intercultural experience.

Some general strategies that are applicable to all kinds of exchange program are: a) education and cultural orientation previous to the contact situation. Proper education about the host culture has a clear influence on tolerance toward different ethnic groups, b) a careful selection process of students who will take part on the exchange program. Students should be mature and psychologically prepared for an intercultural experience, c) to have an authority who serves as a student counselor in the host country and who acts as a troubleshooter, d) to have a high motivation to participate in the exchange program. A high motivation facilitates the friendship potential which is one of the optimal situational factors for positive intergroup contact effects, e) promoting long-term exchange programs. A long term perspective will allow students to fully immerse themselves in the foreign living environment and to intensify the relationship with members of the host culture.

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# ***APPENDIX A***

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**Questionnaire in English**



Universität Hamburg

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### **ATTITUDE QUESTIONNAIRE**

The following questionnaire includes some questions related to the views of Colombian students towards the German culture. The questionnaire comprises three parts. First, we are interested in your opinion about characteristics related to Germans and their culture. Then, we would like to hear something about your personal experience with Germans and finally, we would like you to give us some basic information about yourself.

Please fill in this questionnaire alone and don't discuss your answers with your friends. Your participation is greatly valued; the more students participating in this survey, the more useful the results will be. The questionnaire remains completely anonymous and confidential. Therefore you can express your views freely and honestly.

To encourage as many students as possible to take part in this study, everyone who completes a questionnaire will be entered into a prize draw. The winner will be announced via E-mail and will be sent a personal check of € 50.

If you would like any kind of feedback or if you have any comments, please feel free to e-mail Olga Visbal at '[olvisbal@web.de](mailto:olvisbal@web.de)'.

Please make sure to complete all sections of this questionnaire!

Thank you very much for your participation!







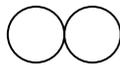


... people completely different from your own	Strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	0	Strongly agree
... people with whom you share a common group membership	Strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	0	Strongly agree
... as people from a different group that, at the same time, share a common group membership with you	Strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	0	Strongly agree

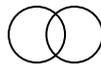
i. Think about a group of Germans. Which pair of circles best describes your group membership with that group?



self other



self other



self other



self other



self other

j. Views about yourself...

I enjoy having people around me...	Strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	Strongly agree
I easily laugh...	Strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	Strongly agree
I do not consider myself as particular cheerfully...	Strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	Strongly agree
I enjoy talking with other people...	Strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	Strongly agree
I like to be in the center of an event...	Strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	Strongly agree
I usually prefer to do things alone...	Strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	Strongly agree
I often have the feeling that I have to much Energy...	Strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	Strongly agree
I am a happy and in a good mood person...	Strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	Strongly agree
I am not optimist...	Strongly disagree	0	0	0	0	0	Strongly agree



### 3. Personal Information

**Mother's initials:** \_\_\_\_\_ **Father's initials:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Sex:**  man  woman

**Age:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Socioeconomic status:**

- High  Middle low  
 Middle high  Low  
 Middle

**Level of German Language:**

- No knowledge at all  Good  
 Not good  Excellent  
 Medium

**My school grades are:**

- Excellent  Bad  
 Good  Very Bad  
 Regular

**Reasons for visiting Germany:**

- Have family in Germany  Personal Reasons  
 Was selected by the school to participate in the exchange program  Other  
 Was not selected by the school to participate in the exchange program and will go by my own

# ***APPENDIX B***

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**Questionnaire in Spanish**



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### **ENCUESTA DE ACTITUDES**

Este cuestionario contiene algunas preguntas relacionadas con las opiniones y actitudes de estudiantes Colombianos hacia la cultura Alemana. El cuestionario consta de tres partes. La primera parte incluye una lista con ciertas características relacionadas con los alemanes y la cultura alemana. Después encontrará preguntas relacionadas con las experiencias personales que usted haya tenido con alemanes y con la cultura alemana. Finalmente encontrará una parte que incluye información personal.

Por favor, complete esta encuesta solo, sin la ayuda de otros y sin discutir sus respuestas con sus amigos. Su participación es muy importante. Mientras más gente participe en la encuesta más útiles serán sus resultados. El cuestionario es completamente anónimo y confidencial. Por esta razón usted puede expresar sus opiniones libremente y honestamente.

No podemos pagar por su participación dado que se trata de un proyecto de una universidad financiada con fondos públicos. Pero habrá un premio sorteado entre todos los que completen el formulario. Se comunicará el nombre de la persona ganadora por E-mail y le será enviado un cheque personal de € 50.

Si tiene alguna pregunta o desea hacer algún comentario sobre la encuesta puede contactar por E-mail con: Olga Visbal `olvisbal@web.de`.

¡Por favor complete todas las partes de esta encuesta!

¡Muchas gracias por su participación en esta encuesta!

## 1. Características de los alemanes y la cultura alemana

¿Cuáles de las siguientes características describen lo que usted piensa sobre los alemanes? Marque el círculo que corresponda con su opinión.

Inteligente	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo					
Cultos	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo					
Descomplicados	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo					
Religiosos	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo					
Conformistas	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo					
Arrogantes	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo					
Familiares	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo					
Honestos	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo					
Disfrutan la vida	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo					
Conservadores	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo					
Egoístas	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo					
Individualistas	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo					
Ambiciosos	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo					
Materialistas	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo					
Amigables	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo					
Industrializados	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo					











### 3. Información personal

**Iniciales de la madre:** \_\_\_\_\_ **Iniciales del padre:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Sexo:**  masculino  femenino

**Edad:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Estatus Socioeconómico:**

- Alto  Medio bajo  
 Medio alto  Bajo  
 Medio

**Nivel de Alemán:**

- Conocimientos nulos  Bueno  
 Malo  Excelente  
 Medio

**Mis notas en la escuela son:**

- Excelentes  Malas  
 Buenas  Muy Malas  
 Regulares

**Motivos por los que visitará Alemania:**

- Tengo familia en Alemania  Motivos personales  
 Fui seleccionado por el colegio para participar en el intercambio estudiantil  Otros  
 No fui seleccionado por el colegio para participar en el intercambio estudiantil, pero viajaré por mi cuenta

# ***APPENDIX C***

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**Example of a filled questionnaire (First measurement point T1)**

## 1. Características de los alemanes y la cultura alemana

¿Cuáles de las siguientes características describen lo que usted piensa sobre los alemanes? Marque el círculo que corresponda con su opinión.

Inteligente	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo
Cultos	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo
Descomplicados	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo
Religiosos	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo
Conformistas	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo
Arrogantes	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo
Familiares	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo
Honestos	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo
Disfrutan la vida	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo
Conservadores	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo
Egoístas	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo
Individualistas	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo
Ambiciosos	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo
Materialistas	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo
Amigables	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo
Industrializados	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo

Emocionales	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo
Competitivos	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo
Tradicionales	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo
Investigativos	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo
Apasionados	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo
Eficientes	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo
Agresivos	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo
Agradables	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo
Mente abierta	Totalmente en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	Totalmente de acuerdo

## 2. Experiencias con Alemanes y su cultura

En esta parte queremos preguntarle acerca de sus experiencias personales con alemanes, por favor marque la casilla que mejor describe su opinión.

**d.** Con qué frecuencia ha tenido contacto con un alemán en el último mes...

... en el colegio?	Nunca	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Siempre
... en casa?	Nunca	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Siempre
... en su vida diaria?	Nunca	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Siempre

**e.** Percibe que este contacto es entre iguales?

Nunca	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Siempre
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**f.** Experimenta este contacto como placentero?

Nunca	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Siempre
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**d.** Con qué frecuencia en el último mes ha...

...visto películas alemanas?	Nunca	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	Siempre
...escuchado música alemana?	Nunca	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	Siempre
...leído periódicos alemanes?	Nunca	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Siempre				
... hablado alemán?	Nunca	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	Siempre

**e.** Cuanto ha aprendido sobre la cultura alemana en el último mes...

...viendo películas alemanas?	Nada	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Todo lo que se
...escuchando música alemana?	Nada	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Todo lo que se
...leyendo periódicos alemanes?	Nada	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Todo lo que se
... hablando alemán?	Nada	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	Todo lo que se

**f.** Opiniones sobre su propia nacionalidad...

Soy una persona que se siente fuertemente atada a Colombia	Muy en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	Muy de acuerdo				
En general, otros países piensan que los colombianos son indignos	Muy en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Muy de acuerdo

A veces me arrepiento de ser colombiano	Muy en desacuerdo	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Muy de acuerdo
No me molesta cuando la gente critica a Colombia	Muy en desacuerdo	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Muy de acuerdo
Por lo general los colombianos son bien vistos por otros países	Muy en desacuerdo	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Muy de acuerdo
Me da vergüenza ser colombiano	Muy en desacuerdo	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Muy de acuerdo
Me siento orgulloso de ser colombiano	Muy en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	Muy de acuerdo
En general, los colombianos son queridos por gente de otros países	Muy en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Muy de acuerdo
Si alguien insulta a Colombia es como si me insultaran a mí	Muy en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	Muy de acuerdo
En general, la gente de otros países respeta a los colombianos	Muy en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Muy de acuerdo
Muchas veces digo que los colombianos somos un gran pueblo	Muy en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	Muy de acuerdo
En general, me siento feliz de ser colombiano	Muy en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	Muy de acuerdo

**g.** Cómo se siente cuando interactúa con alemanes...

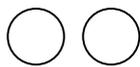
... en el colegio?	Extremadamente incómodo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Extremadamente cómodo
... en casa?	Extremadamente incómodo	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Extremadamente cómodo
... en su vida diaria?	Extremadamente incómodo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Extremadamente cómodo

**j.** Cuando tiene contacto con alemanes, en general los percibe como...

... individuos únicos	Muy en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Muy de acuerdo
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... personas completamente diferente a mi	Muy en desacuerdo	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Muy de acuerdo
... personas con las cuales comparto un mismo grupo social	Muy en desacuerdo	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Muy de acuerdo
... personas que pertenecen a otro grupo, pero que al mismo tiempo, comparten características en común conmigo	Muy en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Muy de acuerdo

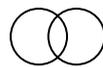
i. Piense en un grupo de alemanes. Qué par de círculos describe mejor su pertenencia a ese grupo?



yo otros



yo otros



yo otros



yo otros



yo otros

j. Opiniones sobre usted mismo...

Disfruto tener personas a mí alrededor...	Muy en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	Muy de acuerdo
Me río con facilidad...	Muy en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	Muy de acuerdo
No me considero una persona alegre...	Muy en desacuerdo	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Muy de acuerdo
Disfruto hablar con otras personas...	Muy en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	Muy de acuerdo
Me gusta ser el centro de atención...	Muy en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Muy de acuerdo
Usualmente prefiero hacer cosas solo...	Muy en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Muy de acuerdo
Frecuentemente siento que tengo mucha energía...	Muy en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Muy de acuerdo
Soy una persona alegre y de buen humor...	Muy en desacuerdo	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	Muy de acuerdo



### 3. Información personal

**Iniciales de la madre:** FS      **Iniciales del padre:** JC

**Sexo:**       masculino       femenino

**Edad:** 15

**Estatus Socioeconómico:**

- Alto       Medio bajo  
 Medio alto       Bajo  
 Medio

**Nivel de Alemán:**

- Conocimientos nulos       Bueno  
 Malo       Excelente  
 Medio

**Mis notas en la escuela son:**

- Excelentes       Malas  
 Buenas       Muy Malas  
 Regulares

**Motivos por los que visitará Alemania:**

- Tengo familia en Alemania       Motivos personales  
 Fui seleccionado por el colegio para participar en el intercambio estudiantil       Otros  
 No fui seleccionado por el colegio para participar en el intercambio estudiantil, pero viajaré por mi cuenta

## **EIDESSTATTLICHE ERKLÄRUNG**

Hiermit erkläre ich, dass ich die Arbeit selbständig und ohne fremde Hilfe verfasst sowie andere als die von mir angegebenen Quellen und Hilfsmittel benutzt habe.

Die wörtlich und inhaltlich übernommenen Stellen habe ich als solche kenntlich gemacht.

**Hamburg, den** \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_  
Unterschrift

## **EIDESSTATTLICHE ERKLÄRUNG**

Hiermit erkläre ich and Eides statt, dass ich mich anderwärts noch keiner Doktorprüfung unterzogen oder mich um Zulassung zu einer Doktorprüfung bemüht habe.

**Hamburg, den** \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_  
Unterschrift