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Generalisation of Roma onto Romanians:

Evidence of the *Outgroup Projection* Effect

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2

1 **Abstract**

2 Outgroup projection is the tendency to generalise among members of different  
3 outgroups as if their members were all alike. The present study analysed this almost  
4 unexplored phenomenon and tested whether intergroup threat enhances the tendency to  
5 generalise the members of a negatively-valued outgroup (i.e., Roma) onto another larger  
6 (partially) inclusive outgroup (i.e., Romanians). Evidence showed that Roma are  
7 generalised to Romanians to a higher extent under realistic and symbolic threat  
8 conditions. Outgroup projection is discussed in relation to the ingroup projection bias  
9 and the ingroup over-exclusion effect.

10 **Keywords:** outgroup projection, intergroup threat, prejudice, Roma,  
11 Romanians.

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1 Building on such initial evidence, the current study aimed at providing further  
2 evidence of the outgroup projection tendency considering whether perceived intergroup  
3 threat (Stephan & Stephan, 2000) might increase outgroup projection.

#### 4 **Generalisation Processes**

5 Rothbart, Fulero, Jensen, and Birrel (1978) showed the role of negative  
6 individual exemplars in shaping the perception of the group as a whole. They provided  
7 experimental evidence that group members who were most available in memory—being  
8 associated with extreme (deviant) negative behaviours—were disproportionately  
9 represented in the group impression. That is, participants overestimated the proportion  
10 of extreme negative behaviours performed by the group as a whole.

11 Whereas a considerable corpus of research is available on individual-to-group  
12 generalisation tendencies (e.g., Paolini, Crisp, & McIntyre, 2009), very few  
13 contributions report similar processes involving groups. One example is the work by  
14 Mummendey and colleagues (e.g., Mummendey & Wenzel, 1999) on the tendency to  
15 generalise distinct (positive) ingroup characteristics onto a superordinate category  
16 which includes both the ingroup and the outgroup. In this vein, the evidence collected  
17 by Albarello and Rubini (2011) suggested that, besides ingroup projection effects,  
18 *outgroup* projection tendencies can also be detected when negatively-valued minority  
19 outgroups are projected onto larger partially-inclusive outgroups.

#### 20 **Characteristics of Prejudice towards Roma and Romanians**

21 Anti-Roma hostility is very high in Italy (Claps & Vitale, 2011; ODIHR, 2008)  
22 where many cases of discrimination and aggression have been reported (Amnesty  
23 International, 2008). Not only Roma, but also the national group of Romanians suffer

1 widespread prejudice in Europe more generally (e.g., Ion, 2011), as well as in Italy  
2 specifically (ECRI, 2012). Interestingly, Woodcock (2007) highlighted that a consistent  
3 portion of Romanians attribute the discrimination they suffer to the association with the  
4 Roma subgroup. This is indeed what seems to happen in Italy, wherein the numerical  
5 relation is 1.6 Roma individuals to 100 Romanians (European Commission, 2014).  
6 Moreover, among Roma within the Italian territory, only a minority seems to have  
7 Romanian origins (European Commission, 2014).

8         Besides the aforementioned contribution by Albarello and Rubini (2011), who  
9 addressed the relation between prejudice towards Roma and Romanians, other recent  
10 research focused on the distinct nature of the prejudice towards Roma. Ljubic, Vedder,  
11 Dekker, and Geel (2012) compared anti-Roma prejudice to Islamophobia, anti-  
12 Semitism, and anti-Chinese feelings. They found that, besides some communalities in  
13 terms of general negative attitudes towards minorities, evaluations of Roma loaded  
14 together on a separate factor. In view of this evidence they concluded that anti-Roma  
15 prejudice is different from general prejudice towards minorities.

16         In another more recent study Ljubic, Vedder, Dekker, and Geel (2013) analysed  
17 the role of perceived threat, nationalistic feelings and integrative orientations towards  
18 Roma comparing a Dutch and Serbian sample of high-school students. They found that  
19 Dutch adolescents perceived Roma as both economically and symbolically threatening  
20 (Stephan & Stephan, 2000) and that such perceptions mediated the effects of integration  
21 preference and nationalism on Romaphobia. Serbians, on the other hand, reported lower  
22 levels of economic and symbolic threat compared to Dutch adolescents.

23         Thus research has highlighted a link between anti-Roma prejudice and the extent  
24 to which Roma elicit threat in other European national groups. In this vein, it would be

1 interesting to analyse the effects of intergroup threat on the tendency to project Roma  
2 onto Romanians, since no research to date has sought to relate these phenomena.

### 3 **Potential Moderators of the Generalisation among Different Outgroups**

4           Stephan and Stephan (2000) emphasized how threat, in addition to  
5 increased intergroup anxiety and negative stereotyping, predicts prejudice towards  
6 national outgroups in the U.S.A. The authors distinguished between *realistic threat*  
7 (i.e., threats to ingroup's existence, economic and political power, or physical or  
8 material well-being) and *symbolic threat* (i.e., threat related to outgroups'  
9 differential morals, values, beliefs and standards) and showed that both types of  
10 threat predict social prejudice towards immigrants.

11           More recently, Pereira, Vala, and Costa-Lopez (2010) further investigated  
12 the link between different types of threat and prejudice. Their results showed that  
13 realistic threat mediates the relationship between prejudice and opposition to  
14 immigration, whereas symbolic threat mediates the effects of prejudice on  
15 opposition to the naturalisation of outgroups. Such evidence suggests that  
16 perceived threat may lead to the legitimisation of discrimination. This is also  
17 supported by research showing that perceived intergroup threat aggravates the  
18 outcomes of intergroup relations (Pereira et al., 2010; Stephan & Stephan, 2000).

### 19 **The Current Research**

20           The present study investigates the phenomenon of outgroup projection,  
21 addressing perceived intergroup threat (Stephan & Stephan, 2000) as a factor that might  
22 enhance this tendency. The two groups of Roma and Romanians represent an interesting

1 case of possible outgroup projection since Roma are a very negatively-valued outgroup  
2 (Claps & Vitale, 2011; McGarry, 2012).

3 In order to assess the outgroup projection phenomenon, drawing on Rothbart et  
4 al.'s (1978, Exp. 3) procedure, participants were exposed to a set of images representing  
5 either a Roma or a Romanian individual and subsequently were asked to perform a  
6 memory task and to estimate the percentage of photographs of members of Roma out of  
7 the total amount of projected photographs. This procedure was chosen as exposure to  
8 facial cues leads very easily to category and stereotype activation (Mason, Cloutier, &  
9 Macrae, 2006). Since evidence exists that both symbolic and realistic threat can affect  
10 social discrimination (Pereira et al., 2010), and the present study investigates, for the  
11 first time, threat as a moderating factor in outgroup generalisation effects, both symbolic  
12 and realistic threat were included.

13 We expected that both types of threat would enhance participants' tendency to  
14 generalise Roma to Romanians (i.e., outgroup projection) leading to higher estimation  
15 of photographs of Roma out of the total amount of photographs they were exposed to.

## 16 Method

### 17 Participants and Design

18 Ninety-one undergraduate students ( $M_{\text{age}} = 20.37$ ,  $SD = 4.42$ ; females: 73.6%) at  
19 a University in Northern Italy participated in the study on voluntary basis. The study  
20 employed a univariate (threat condition: no-threat, realistic threat, symbolic threat)  
21 between-participants experimental design. Participants were randomly assigned as  
22 follows in the three experimental conditions:  $n_{\text{no-threat}} = 33$ ;  $n_{\text{realistic threat}} = 27$ ;  $n_{\text{symbolic threat}}$   
23  $= 31$ .

## 1 **Procedure and Materials**

2 Participants were tested in small groups of 5-7 in a laboratory. They were  
3 informed that the study focused on impression formation about members of national  
4 groups and of their subgroups. By projecting a slide, they were told that the session  
5 concerned the group of Romanians, some of whom could also be Roma.

6 We manipulated the presence of threat and whether it was realistic or symbolic  
7 following Stephan and Stephan's (2000) work. Namely, participants were exposed to no  
8 information in the no-threat control condition, or were presented with one of two pre-  
9 tested scenarios (see Albarello & Rubini, 2017) in which intergroup threat was primed  
10 as triggered by immigrants, a group in which Roma and Romanians are included. This  
11 was done to prime intergroup threat without referring to a specific group at stake.

12 The *realistic threat scenario* read: "Recent research by the national statistical  
13 institute showed that during the last year unemployment increased for Italians (+3%)  
14 and 176.000 Italians lost their jobs. Conversely, immigrants' (among whom Romanians  
15 are the most represented group) employment level increased (+200.000). Moreover,  
16 immigration led to increased costs for public health, education and welfare policies  
17 aimed at promoting immigrants' integration". The *symbolic threat scenario* read:  
18 "Recent research by the national statistical institute showed strong cultural differences  
19 between Italians and immigrants. Immigrants (among whom Romanians are the most  
20 represented group) have different habits, traditions, ideologies and moral values when  
21 compared to those of Italians. Immigrants are also radically different in terms of their  
22 life-styles, the ways in which they behave at work and also at home, for instance, in  
23 terms of the children's educational policies they endorse". Participants were then asked  
24 to report the extent to which they felt threatened by the groups at stake on a 7-point

1 scale from 1 (*not at all*) to 7 (*very much*). This measure constituted our manipulation  
2 check.

3         At this point participants were presented with a sequence of 20 slides (for 2  
4 seconds each), each presenting a photo of either a Roma ( $n = 10$ ) or a Romanian ( $n =$   
5 10) male. The categorical label (“Roma” or “Romanian”) was added to the pictures in  
6 order to allow participants to see which category each exemplar belonged to. After  
7 presentation of all the photographs, participants were presented with a paper-and-pencil  
8 questionnaire in which they were asked to estimate the percentage of Roma individuals  
9 out of the total amount of presented photographs. The response represented our measure  
10 of outgroup projection. For instance, if a participant answers 100% (i.e., 20 photographs  
11 of Roma), the answer highlights a strong outgroup projection; if the answer is 0% (i.e.,  
12 0 photographs of Roma), there is no outgroup projection.

13         ***Pre-testing Roma and Romanians photographs.*** Thirty-two photographs of  
14 Roma and Romanian adult males, all front-view, without glasses or hat, and without  
15 facial hair, were retrieved from the web. The photographs were pre-tested on an  
16 independent sample of Italian undergraduate university students ( $N = 30$ ,  $M_{\text{age}} = 21.33$ ;  
17  $SD = 4.82$ ; females: 56.7%). Participants were asked to decide whether the portrayed  
18 person was a Roma, a Romanian, or both. Only the photographs on which all  
19 participants (i.e., 100%) agreed in assigning the portrayed person to either Roma or  
20 Romanians were retained. Among these ( $N = 23$ : 11 of Roma and 12 of Romanians),  
21 only 10 photographs of Roma and 10 photographs of Romanians were randomly  
22 chosen. An additional independent sample ( $N = 63$  Italian undergraduate university  
23 students,  $M_{\text{age}} = 22.29$ ,  $SD = 2.49$ ; females: 63.3%) rated the likeability of each  
24 photograph, the physical attractiveness of the portrayed person, and the extent to which

1 it elicited pleasant emotions, on 7-point rating scales from 1 (*not at all*) to 7 (*very*  
2 *much*). Participants also estimated the age of the portrayed person. All these ratings  
3 were obtained on single items for each of the ten photographs of Roma and of  
4 Romanians separately. Mean scores of the photographs of Roma and of Romanians  
5 were computed for likeability ( $\alpha = .80$ ), physical attractiveness of the portrayed person  
6 ( $\alpha = .79$ ), and pleasantness of the emotions elicited by the photograph ( $\alpha = .62$ ).

7         The independent samples *t*-test (target belongingness: Roma, Romanian) showed  
8 no difference in terms of *likeability* ( $M_{\text{Roma}} = 3.83$ ,  $SD = 0.64$ ;  $M_{\text{Romanians}} = 3.72$ ,  $SD =$   
9  $1.04$ ),  $t(61) = -0.61$ ,  $p = .606$ ,  $\eta^2 = .004$ . Importantly, mean scores did not differ from  
10 the mid-point of the scale for either the Roma or the Romanian targets— $t(29) = -1.47$ ,  $p$   
11  $= .153$ ,  $d = 0.27$ , and,  $t(32) = -1.57$ ,  $p = .126$ ,  $d = 0.05$ , respectively—indicating a  
12 medium level of likeability.

13         *Attractiveness* of the portrayed person did not vary as a function of target's  
14 group membership ( $M_{\text{Roma}} = 3.79$ ,  $SD = 0.73$ ;  $M_{\text{Romanians}} = 3.96$ ,  $SD = 0.52$ ),  $t(61) = 1.08$ ,  
15  $p = .285$ ,  $\eta^2 = .019$ . The average score of Roma did not differ from the mid-point of the  
16 scale,  $t(29) = -1.59$ ,  $p = .123$ ,  $d = 0.09$ . The same finding emerged for Romanians,  $t(32)$   
17  $= -0.45$ ,  $p = .655$ ,  $d = 0.08$ .

18         *Pleasantness of the emotions elicited* by the photographs did not differ between  
19 Roma and Romanians ( $M_{\text{Roma}} = 4.02$ ,  $SD = 0.35$ ;  $M_{\text{Romanians}} = 3.86$ ,  $SD = 0.49$ ),  $t(61) = -$   
20  $1.43$ ,  $p = .157$ ,  $\eta^2 = .033$ . Importantly, the scores for both Roma and Romanians again  
21 did not differ from the mid-point of the scale, respectively,  $t(29) = 0.31$ ,  $p = .757$ ,  $d =$   
22  $0.06$ , and,  $t(32) = 1.59$ ,  $p = .123$ ,  $d = 0.28$ .



1 the total number of presented photographs (respectively,  $p = .038$ , and  $p = .022$ ). The  
2 two threat conditions did not differ from each other ( $p = 1.00$ ).

3 Thus, in line with expectations, under threatening conditions, participants  
4 estimated a higher percentage of the negatively-valued outgroup of Roma than in the  
5 no-threat condition.

## 6 Discussion

7 The research presented here aimed at deepening knowledge on the unexplored  
8 phenomenon of *outgroup projection* (see Albarello & Rubini, 2011) considering the  
9 outgroup of Roma and the larger partially-inclusive outgroup of Romanians. The  
10 gathered evidence highlighted that outgroup projection was enhanced under threat  
11 conditions. We found that, under perceived threat, people estimated higher percentages  
12 of photographs of Roma out of the total amount of presented photographs. In other  
13 words, when they felt threatened people generalised to a higher extent a negatively-  
14 valued minority outgroup like Roma to a larger partially-inclusive and less negatively-  
15 valued outgroup like Romanians. These findings go beyond the evidence provided by  
16 Rothbart et al. (1978)—who showed generalisation of negative individual cases to the  
17 entire group—by showing that under threat this phenomenon also affects entire  
18 outgroups that are part of a larger inclusive outgroup.

19 We found no difference between the realistic and the symbolic threat conditions.  
20 As confirmed by the manipulation check, participants in the relevant conditions reported  
21 higher perceived threat than when no threatening information was provided. Very likely  
22 perceived threat led participants to focus more strongly on the negative characteristics  
23 of Roma (see Albarello & Rubini, 2011) and, as a consequence, a higher tendency to  
24 overestimate the proportion of Roma faces was observed.

## 1 **The Outgroup Projection Phenomenon**

2           One may wonder what the outgroup projection means and what its consequences  
3 might be. A suggestion may come from the *ingroup* projection effect (Mummendey &  
4 Wenzel, 1999), which is due to a motivation to enhance one's ingroup through the claim  
5 of higher prototypicality of the ingroup over the superordinate positively-evaluated  
6 common group, thus maintaining intergroup differentiation (Mummendey & Wenzel,  
7 1999). The *outgroup* projection tendency, instead, can be conceived as an opposite facet  
8 of the generalisation tendency, since it relies on projecting a negative outgroup  
9 prototype onto a larger inclusive outgroup. In this vein, it forms an enhanced *negativity*  
10 *bias* which leads to the over-exclusion of all outgroupers (e.g., Romanians)  
11 encompassed in the groups at stake. In this way, both the ingroup and the outgroup  
12 projection biases contribute to strengthening intergroup boundaries and may negatively  
13 impact intergroup relations. Additionally, by projecting negative characteristics of a  
14 minority outgroup onto a larger outgroup, the tendency is also to exacerbate the  
15 negativity of the target of the projection (here the Romanians).

## 16 **Limitations and Future Directions**

17           In this research we tackled the phenomenon of outgroup projection by  
18 considering Roma and Romanians, two groups that are currently suffering severe  
19 discrimination in Europe. Reality suggests that the outgroup projection phenomenon can  
20 be applied to other groups beyond the ones we considered here. One clear example is  
21 the generalisation of the Islamic extremist onto Muslims as a whole or Arabs in general.  
22 Further research should replicate these results extending this finding to different social  
23 groups, across various social contexts.

1            Besides this, it should be underlined that evidence partially supported the  
2 expectation that threat would lead to overestimation of Roma onto Romanians, since in  
3 the no-threat condition participants underestimated the percentage of Roma photographs  
4 (i.e., 37%). Indeed, their judgement might be enough accurate since it is in line with the  
5 evidence of Roma as a minority group within the larger group of Romanians in  
6 Romania (i.e., 8.63% according to a Romanian 2011 census) as well as in Italy (i.e.,  
7 1,6%; European Commission, 2014). Another explanation of this finding could be that  
8 our participants (i.e., university students) might be less prejudiced than other individuals  
9 because they are more exposed to democratic principles and social inclusion values.  
10 Moreover, under no-threat they might have adjusted their answers to social desirability  
11 norms. In contrast, the emotional activation elicited by threat manipulations (for a  
12 neurophysiological account of fear elicited by threat, see Mobbs et al., 2007) might have  
13 reduced such control over their answers, thus enabling appearance of the outgroup  
14 projection bias to a higher extent. Future work should tackle more closely the emotional  
15 underpinnings of the relation between threat and outgroup projection tendencies.

16            Besides this, since we aimed at tackling the overestimation of members of a  
17 negatively valued group onto another one, this study employed a single measure of  
18 projection, adapting the procedure employed by Rothbart et al. (1978). Future research  
19 could complement the present findings by employing additional measures of projection.  
20 One of these could be perceived prototypicality of members of one outgroup in  
21 comparison to the other. This index could give information on the social cognitive  
22 consequences of outgroup projection. Future research should also consider whether this  
23 tendency is moderated by relevant individual characteristics such as social dominance  
24 orientation (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999).

1           In sum, although this contribution relies on a single study, we believe that the  
2 phenomenon of outgroup projection can serve to go deeper into the understanding of  
3 generalization outcomes within intergroup relations.

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