INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP BASED FACTORS AFFECTING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED DISCRIMINATION AND WELL-BEING: THE SAMPLE OF TURKISH MINORITY IN BULGARIA

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LEMAN KORKMAZ

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| Approval of the Graduate School of | f Social Sciences | | |
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| | | Instr. Dr. Banu Supervis | · · |
| Examining Committee Members | | | |
| Prof. Dr. Nebi Sümer Assist. Prof. Dr. Olga Selin Hünler Instr. Dr. Banu Cingöz-Ulu | | | |

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ABSTRACT

INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP BASED FACTORS AFFECTING
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED DISCRIMINATION
AND WELL-BEING: THE SAMPLE OF TURKISH MINORITY IN BULGARIA

Korkmaz, Leman

M.S., Department of Psychology

Supervisor: Instr. Dr. Banu Cingöz Ulu

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The present study examined the influence of perceived discrimination on the subjective well-being of Turks in Bulgaria. Based on Meyer's (2003) Minority Stress Model, the role of group resources namely collective self esteem, Turkish identification and Bulgarian citizen identification and the role of personal resources namely self-efficacy, optimism and social support on subjective well-being as well as the moderating effects of these variables in the perceived discrimination - well-being relationship were investigated. The data were collected from a convenience sample of Turks in Bulgaria from three different cities (N = 296) through questionnaires in Turkish. The results showed that most individual and group-level resources predict dimensions of subjective well-being in the expected directions. Considering the influence of perceived discrimination, findings showed that perceived individual

discrimination predicted an increase on negative affect while perceived group discrimination predicted an increase on both negative and positive affect. In terms of the moderating effects of psychological resources, the results pointed that perceived discrimination predicted higher negative affect for people with high self-efficacy; perceived group discrimination predicted greater positive affect for strong Turkish identifiers and perceived individual discrimination was a significant and positive predictor of positive affect for people with low levels of social support. These findings were discussed based on the existing literature and in the specific context of the current sample.

Keywords: Perceived Discrimination, Subjective Well-Being, Personal and Group Resources, Turkish Minority in Bulgaria

ALGILANAN AYRIMCILIK VE İYİLİK HALİ ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİYİ ETKİLEYEN BİREY VE GRUP TEMELLİ FAKTÖRLER: BULGARİSTAN'DAKİ TÜRK AZINLIK ÖRNEKLEMİ

Korkmaz, Leman

Yüksek Lisans, Psikoloji Bölümü

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Bu çalışmada algılanan ayrımcılığın Bulgaristan'daki Türklerin iyilik hali üzerindeki etkisi incelenmiştir. Ek olarak, Meyer'in (2003) Azınlık Stresi Modeline dayanarak, grup kaynakları olarak sınıflandırılan kolektif öz-saygı, Türk ve Bulgaristan vatandaşlığı grup kimliklerinin ve birey düzeyindeki kaynaklar olarak sınıflandırılan öz-yeterlik, iyimserlik ve sosyal desteğin bireyin iyilik hali üzerindeki etkisi araştırılmıştır. Yürütülen çalışmada, adı geçen kaynakların algılanan ayrımcılık ve iyilik hali arasındaki ilişkiyi, aracı değişkenler olarak, nasıl etkiledikleri de test edilmiştir. Çalışmada kullanılan veri, Bulgaristan'ın üç farklı şehrinde, uygun örnekleme yöntemiyle, katılımcılara Türkçe ölçeklerin uygulanmasıyla elde

edilmiştir. Araştırma sonuçları, grup ve birey düzeyindeki kaynakların bireyin iyilik halini beklendiği gibi olumlu yönde etkilediğini göstermiştir. Algılanan ayrımcılığın iyilik hali üzerindeki etkisine bakıldığında ise, bireyin kendine yönelik algıladığı ayrımcılığın katılımcıların deneyimlediği negatif duyguları artırdığı, kendi gruplarına yönelik algıladıkları ayrımcılığın ise katılımcıların hem negatif hem de pozitif duygularındaki artışla ilişkili olduğu bulunmuştur. Psikolojik kaynakların aracı değişken olarak etkileri ele alındığında, yüksek öz-yeterliğe sahip kişilerde algılanan ayrımcılığın negatif duyguları artırdığı; yüksek düzeyde Türk kimliği ile özdeşleşen kişilerin gruplarına yönelik algıladıkları ayrımcılığın pozitif duygularını artırdığı ve düşük sosyal desteğe sahip kişilerin bireysel olarak kendilerine yönelik algıladıkları ayrımcılığın pozitif duyguları artırdığı bulunmuştur. Elde edilen bulgular çalışmanın örneklemi ve geçmiş çalışmalar dikkate alınarak tartışılmıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Algılanan Ayrımcılık, Öznel İyilik Hali, Bireysel Kaynaklar ve Grup Kaynakları, Bulgaristan Türkleri

To

My grandmother Zehra

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

| PLAGIARISM iii |
|---|
| ABSTRACTiv |
| ÖZvi |
| DEDICATIONviii |
| ACKNOWLEDGMENTS ix |
| TABLE OF CONTENTS xii |
| LIST OF TABLES xvi |
| LIST OF FIGURESxvii |
| CHAPTER |
| 1. INTRODUCTION |
| 2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK |
| 2.1 Turkish Minority in Bulgaria |
| 2.2 Perceived Discrimination and Subjective Well-Being: Perspective from Social Identity Theory and Minority Stress Model |
| 2.2.1 Perceived Discrimination |
| 2.2.2 Subjective Well-Being |
| 2.3 Individual and Group Based Resources: Perspective from Lazarus Stress and Coping Theory and Minority Stress Model |
| 2.3.1 Personal Resources |
| 2.3.1.1 Self-Efficacy 20 |

| 2.3.1.2 Optimism | 21 |
|---|----|
| 2.3.1.3 Social Support | 23 |
| 2.3.2 Group Resources | 25 |
| 2.3.2.1 Ethnic Group Identification | 26 |
| 2.3.2.2 Collective Self-Esteem | 28 |
| 2.3.2.3 Citizenship/National Identification | 29 |
| 2.4 Overview | 31 |
| 3. METHOD | 33 |
| 3.1 Participants | 33 |
| 3.2 Procedure | 36 |
| 3.3 Measures | 36 |
| 3.3.1 Subjective Well-Being Measures | 36 |
| 3.3.1.1 Satisfaction with Life | 37 |
| 3.3.1.2 Positive and Negative Affect | 37 |
| 3.3.2 Perceived Discrimination Measures | 38 |
| 3.3.3 Measures of Group Based Resources | 39 |
| 3.3.3.1 Turkish Identification and Collective Self-esteem | 39 |
| 3.3.3.2 Bulgarian Citizenship Identification | 41 |
| 3.3.4 Measures of Group Based Resources | 41 |
| 3.3.4.1 Generalized Self-efficacy | 41 |
| 3.3.4.2 Optimism | 42 |
| 3.3.4.3 Social Support | 43 |

| 4. RESULT | 44 |
|--|----|
| 4.1 Descriptive Information and Internal Consistency Coefficients of the Measures | 44 |
| 4.2 Inter- correlations among the Variables | 44 |
| 4.3 Predictive Power of Demographic Variables in Predicting Criterion Variables | 49 |
| 4.4 Predicting Subjective Well-Being | 50 |
| 4.4.1 The Role of Perceived Discrimination and Resources in Predicting Life Satisfaction | 52 |
| 4.4.1.1 The Role of Perceived Discrimination and Resources in Predicting Life Satisfaction | 52 |
| 4.4.1.2 The Role of Perceived Discrimination and Resources in Predicting Life Satisfaction | 54 |
| 4.4.2 The Role of Perceived Discrimination and Resources in Predicting Positive Affect | 55 |
| 4.4.2.1 The Role of Perceived Discrimination and Resources in Predicting Positive Affect | 56 |
| 4.4.2.2 The Role of Perceived Discrimination and Resources in Predicting Positive Affect | 60 |
| 4.4.3 The Role of Perceived Discrimination and Resources in Predicting Negative Affect | 63 |
| 4.4.3.1 The Role of Perceived Discrimination and Resources in Predicting Positive Affect | 63 |
| 4.4.3.2 The Role of Perceived Discrimination and Resources in Predicting Positive Affect | 66 |
| 5. DISCUSSION | 70 |
| 5.1 The Role of Demographic Variables in Predicting the Well-being of Turks in Bulgaria | 70 |

| 5.2 The Role of Perceived Discrimination in Predicting Subjective Well-Being | 75 |
|---|-----|
| 5.3 The Role of Resources in Predicting in Subjective Well-Being | 79 |
| 5.4 The Moderating Role of Resources on the Relationship between Perceived Discrimination and Subjective Well-Being | 82 |
| 5.4.1 Interaction between Perceived Discrimination and Self-Efficacy | 82 |
| 5.4.2 Interaction between Perceived Individual Discrimination and Social Support | 85 |
| 5.4.3 Interaction between Perceived Group Discrimination and Turkish Identity | 86 |
| 5.5 Importance, Limitations, and Future Directions | 88 |
| 5.5.1 Importance and Implications of the Study | 88 |
| 5.5.2 Limitations of the Study | 90 |
| 5.5.3 For Further Research | 91 |
| REFERENCES | 93 |
| APPENDICES | |
| A. The Questionnaire Package | 106 |

LIST OF TABLES

TABLES

| Table 1. Frequencies and Percentages of Demographic Characteristics of the Participants | 35 |
|---|----|
| Table 2. Descriptive Information on the Measures of the Study | 44 |
| Table 3. Correlations Table for the Demographic Variables | 47 |
| Table 4. Correlation Table for the Criterion Variables | 48 |
| Table 5. Resources and Perceived Individual Discrimination Regressed on Life Satisfaction | 54 |
| Table 6. Perceived Group Discrimination and Resources Regressed on Life Satisfaction | 55 |
| Table 7. Resources and Perceived Individual Discrimination Regressed on Positive Affect | 58 |
| Table 8. Resources and Perceived Group Discrimination Regressed on Positive Affect | 62 |
| Table 9. Resources and Perceived Individual Discrimination Regressed on Negative Affect | 65 |
| Table 10. Resources and Perceived Group Discrimination Regressed on Negative Affect | 68 |

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURES

| Figure 1. Theoretical Model of the Study | 32 |
|---|----|
| Figure 2. Interaction between Perceived Individual Discrimination and Social Support on Positive Affect | 60 |
| Figure 3. Interaction between Perceived Group Discrimination and Turkish Identity on Positive Affect | 63 |
| Figure 4. Interaction between Perceived Individual Discrimination and Self-efficacy on Negative Affect | 66 |
| Figure 5. Interaction between Perceived Group Discrimination and Self-Efficacy on Negative Affect | 69 |

CHAPTER 1

1. INTRODUCTION

The aim of this thesis is to understand factors affecting the well-being of Turkish minority group in Bulgaria in line with a social psychological perspective. Even if the Bulgarian State has applied tolerant minority policies since 1990s, Turkish minority faced assimilation policies in the recent past. Although the conditions of Turks in Bulgaria have been analyzed from political and historical perspectives, research with a psychological level of analysis has been missing. Considering this gap in the literature, this study aims to investigate the factors affecting the well-being of Turks, the largest minority group, in Bulgaria.

In the current thesis, I first examine the concept of perceived discrimination and well-being based on the theoretical framework. Additionally, the moderating effect of personal and group based resources on the relation between perceived discrimination and well-being are explored. In the literature on stress, psychological resources have usually been the focus with a lack of attention on group related factors. Therefore, in the current study, in addition to the selected personal resources of individuals which are self-efficacy, optimism, and social support; group/ identity resources are also examined: Turkish identity, collective self esteem and Bulgarian citizenship identity constitute these group level resources.

Social Identity Theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) proposed that "social identity", which is related to a person's group membership, is an inseparable part of an individual's self concept. By this way, the theory states that self will be highly affected from both positive and negative judgments about a person's group membership as well as how a person is treated by others considering the group that she/he belongs. In the line with the theory, Minority Stress Model (Meyer, 2003) argued that the environment in which minority group members are discriminated and encounter with negative judgments about their group acts as a stressor that decreases the well-being of minority group members. Considering these claims, the current study aims to examine the role of perceived discrimination on well-being.

However in the current study, individuals are not assumed to be equally affected from perceived discrimination. In other words, factors leading to individual differences are also explored. Lazarus (1976) is one of the first who stated that individuals are not equally affected from stressors; in fact, he proposed that individuals vary in terms of their responses to stressors due to variations in their personal qualifications. Regarding this argument and the findings in the literature, this study focuses on three personal factors, namely self-efficacy, social support, and optimism and examines their role on the well-being of Turks in Bulgaria, especially when the minority group members face with discrimination.

Meyer (2003) also argued that analyzing personal resources of individuals without focusing on group-related factors will lead to a deficient understanding; group identity would also serve as a moderator or mediator affecting the relation between perceived discrimination and well-being. In line with his argument, this

thesis aspires to explore the moderating effects of ethnic identity and citizenship identity. To sum, this study examines both the main effects of personal and group resources on subjective well-being and the moderating role of these resources on the relationship between perceived discrimination and well-being.

Extending our analyses to personal and group based resources used by minority members leads to better comprehension of the factors that cause individual differences within a group. Resources might have a role in increasing the well-being and decreasing the vulnerability of minority group members to the effects of perceived discrimination. Therefore, focusing on psychological resources is crucial in order to improve effective prevention and intervention programs.

The present study was conducted in order to investigate the factors related to the subjective well-being of Turkish minority in Bulgaria. It is composed of five chapters. The first chapter consists of the introduction section, in the second chapter the theoretical framework is presented in the line with Social Identity Theory, Minority Stress Model and Lazarus' Stress and Coping Theory. The third chapter is the method section, and the fourth chapter consists of the results. Lastly, in chapter five, results are discussed in light of the relevant literature and strengths, implications, and limitations of the current study are presented.

CHAPTER 2

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Turkish Minority in Bulgaria

The Turkish minority group in Bulgaria is the focus of the current study. Before describing this group, it would be helpful to give a definition of the term "minority". Although there is no consensus on the definition of 'minority', Dayloğlu (2005) proposed four objective and one subjective criteria representing "ethnic minority" status. First, different from strangers, refugees or tourists, minority group members are citizens of the country. However considering the rest of the society, minorities have different ethnic, religious, or linguistic characteristics. As a subjective criterion, they have consciousness to preserve their ethnic, religious, and/or linguistic differences. Finally, the population of minorities has usually been less than the majority group and minority groups have not been at the dominant position in political, economic, cultural, and social areas.

Turks have always been a minority group in Bulgarian State and even today, as a largest minority group, Turks represent approximately 10% of Bulgaria's population. In fact, 750,000 Turks live in Bulgaria where the total population has been 7,928,901 (National Statistical Institute, 2001). Bulgarian Turks dominantly live in the north-east (i.e., Kurdzhali, Burgas) and south-east regions (i.e. Razgrad, Thargoviste) of Bulgaria (Engström, 2009).

The Bulgarian State has employed inconsistent minority policies regarding the conditions and rights of the Turkish minority in Bulgaria (Eminov 1997; Engström, 2009). Until 1990s, Bulgarian governmental policy mainly followed the nation-state policy which supports the 'one nation' ideology rather than ethnic and cultural diversity in a state (Eminov, 1997). In some periods the Bulgarian State had more tolerant minority policies, however in others, harsh assimilation policies were in practice towards the Turkish minority. On some extreme occasions, the Bulgarian governments forced Turks to migrate (Dayloğlu, 2005; Eminov, 1997). For instance, based on a contract between Turkey and Bulgaria, a total of 500,000 Turks were sent to Turkey in the years 1950 and 1968. Following the second migration wave in 1968 Turkish schools were closed, Turkish professors were accused with espionage and were penalized, speaking Turkish and wearing traditional Turkish clothes were prohibited. As a critical incidence, in 1984, as a part of an assimilation campaign named as "revival" by the Bulgarian Communist State, approximately 900,000 Turks were forced to change their Turkish names with Bulgarian ones (Akıllıoğlu, 1989; Cetin, 2008; Elchinova, 2001; Eminov, 1997). As a result of this severe form of assimilation policy, in 1989, 300,000 Turks migrated to Turkey (Tevfik, 2007). However following the fall of the communist regime, and the transition to a democratic one, assimilation policies were replaced by more tolerant and democratic minority policies. Cultural, traditional, and religious practices of Turkish minorities were reinstated (Engström, 2009). In March 1990, Turks and other Muslim minorities were officially allowed to reclaim their Turkish names (Nitzova, 1997;

Dayıoğlu, 2005). Following the change of the regime, approximately 150,000 Turks that migrated to Turkey returned back to Bulgaria (Tevfik, 2007).

The Turkish community has been treated in a better way steadily since the fall of the totalitarian regime in 1990 (Petkova, 2002). They now have rights for education, religion, and they participate in decision making. The political party named Movement for Rights and Freedoms (MRF) is mostly constituted by Bulgarian Turks. In 1991 elections, they won 23 seats and became the third largest political force in the Bulgarian Parliament (Dayloğlu, 2005; Engström, 2009).

Moreover, the political agenda of Bulgaria including minority rights have also been highly influenced by the European Union. In order to be eligible for membership, Bulgaria signed the Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities in 1997. This convention extends and protects the rights of ethnic minorities (Engström, 2009). Yet the attitudes of Bulgarians towards Turks and their relationships are still complex issues (Engström, 2009). In the social area, intermarriages are rare between Turks and Bulgarians (Engström, 2009). In the political area, there is a right-wing political party named Attack Political Party (ATAKA) that embraces policies opposed to Turks and Roma minorities, and tries to restrict minority rights (Engström, 2009; Hürriyet Dünya, 2009). In the 2009 parliamentary elections, as a fourth party ATAKA won 21 seats while MRF won 38 seats. Although the success of MRF is to the benefit of minorities, according to report of the Bulgarian Helsinki committee, the profile and success of MRF increase resentment and negative attitudes of ethnic Bulgarians towards Turks (Engström, 2009).

As mentioned above, Turks encountered assimilation policies of Bulgarian State in the recent past. Even today, there are both positive and negative political events considering rights of Turks (Engström, 2009). Therefore, it is important to investigate the social life and daily living experiences of Turks in Bulgaria. Laws protect the rights of minorities and prohibit discriminatory acts towards Turks. However without taking personal evaluations of the group members we can not conclude that minorities are equally treated. Moreover, the actual acts of discrimination or their more subtle effects need to be researched.

These more recent political events highlight the need of psychosocial research focusing on discrimination and the well-being of Turks in Bulgaria, however there are no such studies to the best of my knowledge. For this reason, in the line with Social Identity Theory and Minority Stress Model, the present study approaches the issue from a social-psychological perspective and takes Turkish minority group members' subjective evaluations of their experiences of discrimination.

Social Identity Theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) proposed that besides their individual properties people treat each other considering their group memberships. Studies that were conducted in the frame of the theory have concluded that compared to majority groups, minority group members more frequently face discriminatory treatments. Taking this one step further, Minority Stress Model (Meyer, 2003) focused on the consequences of discrimination and pointed that studying discrimination that minority groups encounter are crucially important because discriminatory treatments toward minority group members directly and adversely influence the well-being of these individuals. Therefore, this study was conducted to

investigate the role of perceived discrimination on the well-being of Turks in Bulgaria.

2.2 Perceived Discrimination and Subjective Well-Being: Perspective from Social Identity Theory and Minority Stress Model

As a prominent theory, Social Identity Theory (SIT) provides a theoretical base to explain both intergroup relations and the relation of an individual with his/her group (Tajfel, & Turner, 1979). 'Social identity' is the key concept of the theory: it refers to the self image of an individual that drives from his/her internalized group membership (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Turner, 1999; Turner et al., 1994). As it is understood from the definition, the theory extends our understanding on psychological processes regarding the representation of self within the group.

A group can be defined as a social category classifying and ordering social environment and also providing a system for individuals that they use while defining themselves. SIT accepts that individuals desire to maintain a positive self-concept: consequently, as a part of their 'selves' they look for maintaining positive and unique social identity, in turn they want their group to be evaluated in a positive way (Turner, 1999; Taylor & Maghaddam, 1994). However social identity does not always benefit the self-concepts of individuals because social categorizations are not always associated with neutral or positive values. In some cases group membership is associated with negative values (Tajfel, 1982).

According to both SIT and Social Categorization Theory, by comparing ingroup and out-groups in terms of their value-attached attributions, group members try to decide on the status and prestige of their own group. Favorable comparisons

bring positive social identity. However, unsatisfactory inferences which are derived from comparisons favoring the out-group rather than in-group, result in a negative social identity. Negative social identity does not positively contribute to the self concept of an individual and may lead to feelings of deprivation with negative emotions such as anger or resentment (Mummendey, et al., 1999). In this condition individuals may distance themselves from their groups (Branscombe & Ellemers, 1998) or may try to make their group more positively distinct (Tajfel &Turner, 1979).

Social categories are important not only because individuals define themselves considering the 'place' of their group in society (Dohrenwend & Dohrenwend, 1970; Turner et al., 1982) but also because they are defined and treated by others in terms of the social categories that their group belong to (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Turner (1999) stated that especially when group membership is salient, members react to each other not according to their personal identity but according to their social category in society.

Social identity is highly associated with stratifications in society. SIT has aimed to extend our knowledge about real life intergroup processes and intergroup relations with a special emphasis on socially stratified societies (Turner, 1999). Due to these stratifications, distinct groups have encountered with different experiences and treatments. For example, some groups have privileges and advantages over others due to stratifications in society, whereas some groups are exposed to stressful experiences such as discrimination (Branscombe & Ellemers, 1998).

From the framework of Social Identity Theory, it is obvious that social stratifications in society do not benefit minority groups. As Verkuyten and Lay (1998) stated, minorities are generally not respected by the majority group and they face with unfavorable stereotypes and discriminatory acts. Studies have consistently shown that compared to majority groups, minority groups perceive more personal and group discrimination (Operario & Fiske, 2001; Dion & Kawakami, 1996; Jackson, Williams, & Torres, 2003). These findings have also demonstrated that minority/disadvantaged groups are aware of the negative attitudes against their social identity. Regarding assimilation policies in the recent past of Bulgaria and the minority position of Turks, in order to better understand the meaning and consequences of status differences and perceived discrimination, it is important to study identity related factors from the framework of Social Identity Theory.

At this point, the psychological consequences of status differences for minority group members and their reactions to the challenges caused by their social identities are two important issues that need to be discussed. There are models in group studies focusing on consequences of the social structure in which minority members are exposed to stressful experiences like discrimination. Dohrenwend and Dohrenwend (1970) suggested that people at the bottom of social stratification face with more stressful experiences than those at the top because of higher frequency of social stressors. Social stressors are conditions in the social environment leading to physical and psychological problems (Meyer, 2003). As an elaboration of social stress, by focusing specially on minority groups, Meyer (2003, p. 675) defined *minority stress* as "an excess stress to which individuals from stigmatized social

categories are exposed as a result of their social, often a minority position". Minority stress was described as, a) unique stress: compared to dominant group members, it brings additional stress and adaption effort for stigmatized group members b) chronic stress: it is based on stable cultural and social structure, and c) socially structured stress: social processes, institutions, and structures cause this stress rather than individual related events. Due to its' effect on well-being, studying minority stress is important, especially for minorities like Turks in Bulgaria, which were targets of discriminatory policies/acts in the recent past.

From a historical perspective, although the influence of environmental factors on stress was mentioned, the stress concept had usually been analyzed by emphasizing individual level factors. Until recently, social sources of stress have not been systematically studied. However both Minority Stress Model (Meyer, 2003) and Biopsychosocial Model (Clark et al., 1999) put racism/discrimination within the stress framework and define prejudice and discrimination as a stress factor. Many studies also illustrated the adverse effects of prejudice and discriminatory acts on well-being and psychological and physiological health of minority members. (Veenhoven, 1984; Verkuyten & Nekuee, 1999; Jasinskaja-Lahti, Liebkind, & Perhoniemi, 2006; Torres, 2009). Minority Stress Model does not aim to replace individual-level stressors with social ones, but rather highlights different sources of stress at individual and group level and points that discrimination may act as a stressor for minority members.

2.2.1 Perceived Discrimination

As mentioned above, Social Identity Theory argued that perceived discrimination adversely affects social identity and in turn the self-concept of individuals. Minority Stress Model evaluates perceived discrimination as a stress factor affecting the well-being of minority groups adversely. In the present study, in the line with these theories, the relationship between perceived discrimination and well-being was examined. In this section, the concept of perceived discrimination and its effects on well-being are elaborated.

Due to the ambiguity and uncertainty surrounding the concept, defining and measuring discrimination is a difficult and complex issue. It is hard to establish discrimination in an objective manner, therefore the judgment of discrimination is usually based on subjective evaluations (Major & Sawyer, 2009). As a subjective judgment, perceived discrimination refers to the perception of the level or the frequency of discriminatory treatments that individuals (or groups) have been exposed to. From the target's perspective, an attribution to discrimination includes two components: (1) she/he should decide that the treatment she/he encounters is related to her/his social or group identity, (2) she/he should decide that the treatment she/he faces is unfair and undeserved (Major & Sawyer, 2009).

Another important point regarding perceived discrimination literature is the personal/group discrimination discrepancy (PGD). The personal/group discrimination discrepancy refers to the tendency of disadvantaged group members to report higher levels of discrimination against their group in general than against themselves personally as members of that group (Taylor, Wright, Moghaddam, &

Lalonde, 1990, cited in Taylor, Wright, & Ruggiero, 1991). Although the discrepancy is less for high identifiers, there is still a significant difference in terms of reports on perceived group level and individual level discrimination. Both majority and minority group members report a discrepancy between their personal experiences and their group's exposure to discrimination (Operario & Fiske, 2001). These findings point to the pervasiveness of the phenomenon across different groups. There is an explanation considering the reason of the discrepancy: being a target of discrimination decreases feelings of control over one's environment. Consequently, even if individuals acknowledge and report discrimination towards their group, in order to preserve feelings of security and control, they minimize the personal prejudice that they experience (Ruggiero & Taylor, 1997). Beyond the underlying factors of discrepancy, since the processes of two levels of perceived discrimination might differ, like in the present study, researchers could measure discrimination at both levels.

For minority group members, discrimination usually becomes a fact of everyday life (Operario & Fiske, 2001). Discrimination is regarded as an important stressor causing adverse health consequences. Higher level depression, mental illnesses and lower level well-being among minority members support this idea (see Jasinskaja-Lahti et al., 2006; Jasinskaja-Lahti, Liebkind, & Perhoniemi, 2006; Noh et al.,1999; Torres, 2009). Therefore, there is an evidence to believe that being subject to discrimination, both as an individual and as a group will influence the well-being of minority members, such as Turks in Bulgaria. Before I return to a discussion of

other factors that may influence well-being of minority members, a more detailed discussion of the concept of well-being is warranted.

2.2.2 Subjective Well-Being

Many theoretical frameworks have aimed to conceptualize "well-being". For instance, telic theories evaluate well-being as an achievement of certain goals, while personality theories describe the concept as a heritable trait (Diener & Ryan, 2009). Although different theoretical approaches extend our understanding on well-being, there is no consensus on the exact definition of well-being, which unifies the different approaches in the field (Diener, Oishi, & Lucas, 2003).

In the current study, well-being is defined and measured using Deiner et al.'s (1985) conceptualization. The authors stated that as a multidimensional concept, subjective well-being refers to person's cognitive and affective evaluations of his/her life. Rather than any objective criteria, conceptualization of well-being is based on subjective evaluations; hence the use of 'subjective' in defining well-being. In fact, subjective well-being includes positive affect, negative affect, and life satisfaction dimensions (Diener et al., 1985; Myers & Diener, 1995). Greater subjective well-being is associated with higher life satisfaction, more frequent positive affect, and less frequent negative affect (Diener, 1994; Myers & Diener, 1995).

Life satisfaction is the cognitive dimension of subjective well-being. It refers to the extent to which individuals are satisfied with their life (Diener et al., 1985). As understood, rather than objective criteria, internal judgments on satisfaction level are taken for granted while defining and measuring the concept. Negative and positive

affect are the affective components of well-being and they consist moods and emotions. Negative affect is defined as an aversive mood state, including anger, fear, guilt, disgust, and distress that an individual experience. Positive affect is conceptualized as feelings of emotions such as enthusiasm, pride, and positive affect associated with pleasurable involvement to environment and high energy (Watson et al., 1988).

Greater well-being is evaluated as the 'key component of quality of life' and it leads to better functioning at individual and societal levels (Diener & Ryan, 2009). People who were high on well-being were physically healthier (Roysamb et al., 2003), they were more productive and creative in their works (Staw, Sutton, & Pelled, 1994), and they more frequently engaged in volunteer and prosocial activities (Krueger, Hicks, & McGue, 2001). In this sense, subjective well-being seems to be required for "good life and good society" (Diener, Oishi, & Lucas, 2003).

Diener and Ryan (2009) reviewed the studies examining effects of demographic variables on well-being. On the emotional dimensions of well-being, although women experience more intense emotions, women and men do not substantially differ on well-being. Higher religiosity/ spirituality significantly predict higher well-being. Higher income is also positively associated with well-being in under-developed countries and for wealthy people. For developed nations, the strength of association between well-being and income diminishes. Nonetheless, wealthy people were slightly happier than others (Diener et al., 1985).

However, compared to demographic variables, individual difference variables were better predictors of well-being (Diener & Diener, 1993). For example, benefits of social support (DeGarmo & Martinez Jr., 2006), self-efficacy (Ben-Zur, 2003; Swenson & Prelow, 2005) and optimism (Scheier & Carver, 1987; Ben-Zur, 2003) have been shown. Therefore, in any minority group, well-being is expected to be related to individual differences or personal variables to some extent. However, studies have also highlighted the importance of group-level factors in predicting well-being of minority group members, such as identification with national (Eyou, Adair, & Dixon, 2003) and ethnic groups (Branscombe, Schmitt, & Harvey, 1999; Outten et al.,2009) that a person belongs to were found as significant predictors of well-being. Therefore, when investigating subjective well-being in a minority group, we need to approach the issue from both the personal and group level factors that might play a role.

2.3 Personal and Group Based Resources: Perspective from Lazarus' Stress and Coping Theory and Minority Stress Model

As mentioned above, besides physical and individual stressors, in some cases, individuals face with psychosocial stressors such as ethnic discrimination affecting well-being of individual adversely (Lazarus, 1976; Meyer, 2003). However studies have also shown that individuals are not equally affected from prejudice, there are mediating and/or moderating factors affecting the relation between perceived discrimination and an individual's well-being. Psychosocial stressors force a person to evaluate situation in terms of threat and harm. If people feel capable to overcome the adverse effect of an event, perceived threat or harm will be minimal or absent. In

other words, when people feel more competent to cope with discrimination, they will be less vulnerable to the stressor (Lazarus, 1976). In fact, Lazarus has stressed the interaction between environmental factors and dispositional characteristics of a person in predicting the reaction/responses to stressors.

Considering findings on social stressors and stress- ameliorating factors, Meyer (2003) developed the Minority-Stress Model. The model more specifically focuses on social stress factors affecting minority group members, and emphasizes the person-environment interaction while coping with discrimination and prejudice. Meyer suggests that social stress that minority group experience because of their social status leads to adverse health consequences. Moreover, parallel to Lazarus' suggestions (1970, 1976) the model points that minority group members are not passively affected from perceived discrimination but they respond to prejudice and discrimination with coping. Personal coping mechanisms, which are used by all individuals such as personality factors, also benefit minority members while coping with discrimination. However, besides personal resources, the model suggests that group membership becomes an important resource that protects an individual from the negative effects of discrimination. Many studies have supported this argument indicating that identification with one's group serves as a psychological resource that protects an individual from the adverse effects of stressors (Branscombe, Schmitt, & Harvey, 1999; Outten et al., 2009; Wakefield & Hudley, 2007). For example, Branscombe et al. (1999) found that minority group identification predicted higher personal and collective self-esteem and lower negative affect for African Americans. They concluded that identification decreased the negative effect of racial prejudice

on well-being. Another study also indicated the relation of identification and well-being, the study conducted with Black American participants showed that high group identification predicts minority members' sense of efficacy in coping with discrimination at both individual and group levels, which in turn predicts their well-being (Outten et al., 2009).

By focusing on group based stress ameliorating factors, Meyer (2003) did not aim to favor group based resources but he pointed that, all level of resources from individual to the group are in cooperation while coping with stress. Even if the distinction between two types of resources is complicated, Meyer mentions the importance of the distinction between group and personal resources. He states that even if a person is resourceful in terms of individual coping characteristics when group based resources are absent there will be deficient coping or vice versa.

For the present study, the influence of a number of personality factors (i.e., individual-level resources) such as self-efficacy and optimism and group-level factors, such as in-group identification are investigated in terms of their influence on the well-being of Turks in Bulgaria. Moreover, the moderating effects of these resources on the relation between perceived discrimination and well-being are also explored, expanding on what Meyer has proposed. In the following section, more detailed information about these selected variables is presented.

2.3.1 Personal Resources

Lazarus (1976, p.58) who made great contributions to the stress literature defined individual resources as: "Personal resources based on the individual's skills,

knowledge, history of success in pervious crises, and generally positive beliefs about his or her fate, all contribute to a sense of security and reduce the likelihood of threat".

Stress theories have focused on individual differences in the perception of and reaction to stress. They have examined individual difference in motivations, intelligence, skills, and cognitive abilities and so on. For example, hardiness, negative affectivity, locus of control has been investigated as individual difference variables. Besides their direct effects, perceived control and negative affectivity have also been considered as mediators or moderators (Cooper & Dewe, 2004). Lazarus (2007) stated that not all, but many person-related factors affect the coping process of individual. Exploring these factors that ameliorate the adverse effects of stressful events is important in terms of improving the well-being, mental and physical health of individuals. Compared to external resources such as race and income, happiness was found more strongly associated with person-related factors such as self-esteem, sense of control, optimism, and social support (Myers & Diener, 1995; Diener & Fujita, 1995).

In the area of stress research, individual differences have usually been defined as 'personal vulnerability' or 'resistance to external sources of stress' (Cassidy, 2009). Perceived social support, perceived control, and optimism are some of the themes which have been identified as resources providing resistance to external stressors (Cassidy, 2009). Besides Lazarus's individual-difference and resource explanation for stress-coping mechanisms, there is also the Biopsychosocial Model (Clark et al., 1999). The model especially focuses on the negative effect of racism

and emphasizes coping responses of minority group members which are influenced by psychological and behavioral factors such as anger expression and perceived control. The suggestion points that adaptive coping responses would possibly influence perceived discrimination and stress responses.

In the current study, individual related factors that might influence the responses of minority group members to discrimination were taken as coping resources and the role of these personal resources on the well-being of Bulgarian Turks is investigated. Furthermore, the interaction effects of the personal resources with perceived discrimination in predicting well-being are examined. The next section presents the three individual level resources namely self-efficacy, optimism, and social support that are employed in the present study.

2.3.1.1 Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is part of a broad literature including concepts such as agency, mastery, and control. These concepts are usually used interchangeably (Gecas, 1989). Gecas (1989, p. 292) described self-efficacy as "people's assessments of their effectiveness, competence and causal agency". Bandura (1999) described the concept as feeling confident and agent about the attainability of an outcome. Self-efficacy is an important personality disposition with favorable outcomes on psychological health and well-being, (Bandura, 1999; Ben-Zur, 2003). For example, greater self-efficacy predicts lower depressive symptoms and problem behaviors such as drug use and physical aggression of African American youth (Swenson & Prelow, 2005).

Mastery or self-efficacy was described as a personality characteristic that constitutes a psychological resource enabling an individual to better cope with stressful events (Bandura, 1999; Pearlin & Schooler, 1978). Findings demonstrate that a sense of high efficacy lowers the stress caused by threatening events (Bandura, 1999) such as earthquakes (Sumer et al., 1999) and job stressors (Grau, Salanova, & Peiró, 2001). In other words, studies illustrated that stressors have less negative impact on those who are high on self-efficacy.

Studies have also exemplified the buffering effect of self-efficacy on the relation between perceived discrimination and well-being. Research pointed that when discrimination experiences are frequent, high self-efficacy reduces the reported stress problems (Jackson, Williams, & Torres, 2003). Therefore self-efficacy seems to be a personal resource factor that most likely minimizes the harmful effects of stress by instilling feelings of control and mastery over one's environment.

However researchers also suggested that when the control over the events is limited, self-efficacy might not function as a coping resource. For instance, the research conducted with cancer patients indicated that self-efficacy does not function as a coping factor ameliorating the course of disease due to limited control one has over the disease (Cassileth et al., 1985, cited in Gecas, 1989). By taking into account these findings, for Turks in Bulgaria, the moderating role of self-efficacy on the relation between perceived discrimination and well-being will be explored in this study.

2.3.1.2 Optimism

Besides self-efficacy, a second personal resource in predicting well-being of Turks in Bulgaria is optimism. Optimism is defined as "generalized expectations that good things will happen" (Scheier & Carver, 1987). Optimism is evaluated as the crucially important personality disposition benefiting the physical health (Üstündağ-Budak & Mocan-Aydın, 2005) and the well-being of individuals (Scheier & Carver, 1987; Ben-Zur, 2003). Studies exploring effects of optimism in coping processes demonstrated that optimism is also important resource while coping with stressful events (Scheier & Carver, 1993). In fact optimism and mastery were found as strong personal resources while coping with traumatic stress following events such as earthquakes (Sümer et al., 1999), disengagement (Ben-Zur, 2008) and abortion (Cozzarelli, 1993).

Besides its direct effect on well-being, the indirect effect of optimism were also studied (Cassidy, 2009). As a result of negative thinking, people may think that they can not respond to life stress; yet optimists better resist to stressful life events through using better coping strategies such as emphasizing positive sides of stressful events and using problem-focused coping strategies (Danoff-Burg, Prelow, & Swenson, 2004; Scheier, Weintraub, & Carver 1986).

Although we acknowledge the negative effect of discrimination and positive effect of optimism, the interaction between two variables has not been extensively explored. One study examining moderating effect of optimism on the relation between discrimination and cardiovascular responses - blood pressure and heart rate measures were used to measure physiological reactivity- demonstrated that contrary

to the expectations, high optimists were more affected from recalling discriminatory events and they recovered more slowly compared to low optimists. In fact, compared to low optimists, high optimists reacted excessively to discrimination (Richman et al., 2007). The result was interpreted as the inconsistency between perceived discrimination and expectations of high optimists (Richman et al., 2007).

Considering the literature, optimism seems to be one of the personal resources which generally buffer the adverse effect of a stressor. However, considering some of the findings on moderating effect of optimism we might also expect an exacerbating effect of optimism on the relation between perceived discrimination and well-being.

2.3.1.3 Perceived Social Support

The third personal resource variable highlighted in this thesis is social support. Social support is defined as "perceived or actual instrumental and/or expressive provisions supplied by the community, social networks, and confounding partners" (Lin, 1986, cited in Zimet et al., 1988). Perceived social support was described as a subjective evaluation on the adequacy of social support. Since mid-1970s there has been great interest on the ameliorating effects of social support. Researchers found that social support favorably affects psychological and physical health and buffers against the negative effects of stressful life events (Zimet et al., 1988). Lazarus (1976) argued that besides personality characteristics, social support itself could act as a personal resource by reducing the effect of harm and threat.

Perceived social support was accepted as a type of personal resource in the current study: although the perception of social support is based on actual interactions, ultimately individuals construct this perception within their inner world. Additionally, compared to objective social support, subjective social support that is based on the perception of an individual was a better predictor of differences in stress levels (Sarason et al., 1990, cited in Cassidy, 2009).

Studies with minority or disadvantaged groups demonstrate the main effect of social support on well-being (DeGarmo & Martinez Jr., 2006; Jasinskaja-Lahti et al., 2006; Sayar, 2006). For immigrant groups in Finland, social support from host networks predicted less psychological stress (Jahsinkaja-Lahti et al., 2006), and for Latino youth, parental support predicted higher academic well-being (DeGarmo & Martinez Jr., 2006). Furthermore, social support was found as an effective coping resource decreasing the negative influence of adverse life events. Studies conducted with minority adolescents indicate that perceived discrimination negatively affects well-being (DeGarmo & Martinez Jr., 2006) and leads to depressive symptoms and conduct problems (Brody et al., 2006). However, social support buffers the negative effects of perceived discrimination and it is associated with greater well-being in minority adolescents (DeGarmo & Martinez Jr., 2006). Another study conducted with immigrants in Finland also demonstrated that perceived discrimination negatively affected well-being, yet social support coming from host networks, and relatives and friends living in the immigrants home' countries play a protective role for those who had faced with discrimination (Jasinskaja-Lahti, et al., 2006).

Consequently, social support seems to be an important personal-resource factor to be considered when studying the well-being of minority or disadvantaged groups that have faced discrimination, such as the Turkish minority in Bulgaria.

2.3.2 Group Resources

As mentioned above, besides individual level resources, there are also group-level resources that need to be considered when the issue at hand is the well-being of minorities. Especially important is identity, which is not only a cause of stress (i.e., discrimination by majority) but can also be a resource for coping with stress. For instance people that strongly identify with their ethnic groups reported higher life satisfaction and self-esteem (Outten et al., 2009) and besides, identification with the in-group served as a coping resource by decreasing the negative influence of perceived discrimination on well-being. In other words, people who strongly identify with their ethnic group were affected less from the negative consequences of perceiving oneself as target of prejudice (Branscombe, Schmitt, & Harvey, 1999). Meyer (2003) theorized that social identity / minority group membership is positively associated with health of minority members. Identity may also protect individuals from the negative influence of stressors by interacting with stressful factors. In fact identity was defined as a source of strength that ameliorates the impact of stress on individual (Meyer, 2003).

Meyer (2003) argued that the distinction between individual and group based resources is often ignored in literature. However the distinction is important, because even if an individual benefits from efficient personal coping abilities when group

resources are absent, she/he will have deficient coping. Moreover, focusing only individual factors may lead to losing sight of the whole picture by seeing individual as the cause and the solution of the stress. This may lead to blaming the individual (Cassidy, 1999) and perhaps less than effective solutions to the problem.

Minority Stress Model does not clearly explain the content of group resources, but highlights that group resources are associated with group's self-enhancing attitudes, values and structures that minority group members can use. These values, structures, and attitudes may include pride, in-group bias, or collective self-esteem. Minority Stress Model (Meyer, 2003) views identity as a modifier in the stress process that weakens the adverse effects of stress. The model also evaluates identification as an antecedent of community level coping; in fact the model associated higher identification with other sources of strength such as social support and group cohesiveness. Therefore, the first group-level resource that may improve the well-being of minority group members taken here is ethnic group identification.

2.3.2.1 Ethnic Group Identification

Ethnicity was defined as "ascribed or self-identified affiliation typically based on aspects of one's family heritage, shared language, culture, or nationality" (Wakefield & Hudley, 2007). By emphasizing subjective criteria, Cokley (2007, p. 225) defined ethnic identity as "the subjective sense of ethnic group membership that involves self-labeling, sense of belonging, preference for the group, positive evaluation of the ethnic group, ethnic knowledge, and involvement in ethnic group activities" (cited in Brondolo et al., 2009). While personal identity is related with

individuals' view of themselves, social identity is associated with individuals' view of the group to which they belong (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992).

As mentioned in the previous section on identity and well-being relation, minority identity is positively related with discrimination hence negatively related with well-being. Even though minority identity is associated with stress and, it has also been functioning as a coping resource (Meyer, 2003; Branscombe, Schmitt, & Harvey, 1999). Research on psychologically protective effect of ethnic identification has recently begun to take place in literature (Mossakowski, 2003). For instance, strong and positive ethnic identification is related to a decrease in depressive (Mossakowski, 2003) and psychosomatic symptoms (Eyou, Adair, & Dixon, 2003); and an increase in self esteem (Phinney, Cantu, & Kurtz, 1997) and well-being (Branscombe, Schmitt, & Harvey, 1999; Outten et al., 2009) as well as the social psychological adjustment and academic success of adolescents (Wakefield & Hudley, 2007).

In addition, a protecting effect of identification against the negative influence of discrimination has also been found (Outten et al., 2009; Wakefield & Hudley, 2005). Wakefield & Hudley (2005) investigated the responses of African American adolescents to racial discrimination through hypothetical scenarios. They found that participants with achieved ethnic identity did not respond to unequal treatments with a passive or an aggressive way but with more appropriate and active coping skill. Additionally, Outten et al. (2009) demonstrated that identification increased well-being of Black Americans. The authors argued that identification with the group is associated with a person's sense that they and their group can effectively cope with a

disadvantaged position. In the light of these findings the role of ethnic identity on well-being and the moderating role ethnic identity over the relationship between perceived discrimination and well-being will be explored in this study.

2.3.2.2 Collective Self-Esteem

In investigating the self-concept and social behavior of individual, focusing only individual aspects of the self provide us with only a partial understanding (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992). Similar to personal self-esteem, there is a stable individual difference in collective self-esteem. Collective self-esteem is defined as a tendency to evaluate one's own group in a positive way and an emotional attachment to one's group (Crocker & Luhtanen, 1990; Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992). Collective self-esteem has two dimensions: public collective self esteem, which is related to evaluation of individual on how others view one's social group, and private collective self-esteem, which is associated with an individual's own evaluation of his/her own group (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992). As understood, collective selfesteem is a component of the degree of identification with one's group. Indeed, collective self-esteem is an affective component of identification. The characteristics of a person are related to personal identity, whereas the characteristics of a group are associated with collective identity (Crocker & Luhtanen, 1990). Crocker and Luhtanen (1990) posited collective self-esteem to be an indicator of positive social identity.

Similar to ethnic group identification, collective self-esteem, and life satisfaction are highly associated (Verkuyten & Lay, 1998). Moreover, after personal

self-esteem was controlled collective self-esteem was still a significant and positive predictor of psychological well-being of Blacks and Asians (Crocker et al., 1994). This finding suggests that group related sources might have a predictive power over and above individual resources. The mediating role of collective self-esteem on the relationship between perceived discrimination and distress among men was also shown (Cassidy et al., 2004). Moreover research conducted with African American youth demonstrated the buffering effect of race pride: for adolescents who have been exposed to race pride messages, perceived discrimination did not negatively predict self-esteem as was the case for adolescents who have not been subject to such messages (Harris-Britt, Valrie, & Kurtz-Costes, 2007).

2.3.2.3 Citizenship/National Identification

A third group-level resource that is considered for the current thesis is national or civic identity. National identity involves "feelings of belonging to, and attitudes toward, the larger society" (Phinney et al., 2001) and the concept implies an ability of living as a part of a larger society (Eyou, Adair, & Dixon, 2003). In the literature, compared to ethnic identity, there has been less attention to conceptualize and examine national identity. However in heterogeneous societies, ethnic identity is not the only group identity that is available (Phinney, Cantu, & Kurtz, 1997); in multiethnic nations, regardless of their ethnic identity, minorities also develop a national identity.

Considering minority groups in the line with Social Identity Theory, we might expect that identification with the powerful/dominant group which is the nation in a

nation-state would benefit self-concepts of minority group members (Phinney, Cantu, & Kurtz, 1997). National identity was generally mentioned and studied within the frame of "Acculturation Theory" focusing on both ethnic and national identity (Berry et al., 1987). Research that was conducted in the line with Acculturation Theory showed that integrated individuals, who are high on both national and ethnic identity, benefit from positive psychological outcomes such as higher self-esteem (Eyou, Adair, & Dixon, 2003, Phinney et al., 2001). Conversely, ethnic group members who were low on both national and ethnic identity reported lowest level psychological adaptation (Phinney et al., 2001)

Although acculturation studies focused on the positive effects of national identity, there are studies that show variations across cultures. The study which was conducted with African Americans, Latinos, and Whites demonstrated that while ethnic identity was a contributor to higher self esteem for both majority and minority groups, national identity was found as significant predictor of self-esteem only for the Whites, but not for the two minority groups (Phinney, Cantu, & Kurtz, 1997). Phinney et al. (2001) conditioned that there are factors leading to variations in strength of national identity such as official policy and attitudes of host country towards minority members.

As a minority group with a history including ethnic conflicts, it is important to take Turkish minority group members' national identification into account because it might have a bearing on their well-being. It seems plausible that stronger national identification is positively associated with the well-being of Turks in Bulgaria. However considering the interaction between national identity and perceived

discrimination, it is difficult to make an exact prediction. Citizenship identification is associated with adapting to the larger society, in this sense Bulgarian citizenship identity may buffer against the negative effects of discrimination. For strong national identifiers, however discrimination might be an inconsistent event with their expectations from host culture, therefore might exacerbate the negative effects of discrimination. In this study, the effect of national identity will be explored.

2.4 Overview

As previously mentioned, the aim of the current study is to examine the role of perceived discrimination on well-being, along with the direct and indirect effects that individual and group resources might have. The individual resources include self-efficacy, optimism, and social support and the group resources include Turkish identification, collective self-esteem and Bulgarian citizenship identification.

Subjective well-being is operationalized through life satisfaction, positive affect, and negative affect.

In other words, first perceived discrimination at individual and group levels and resources at individual and group levels will predict the three aspects of subjective well-being. Second, individual level resources and group level resources may moderate the effects of perceived discrimination on life satisfaction, positive affect and negative affect.

Hypothesis 1: Both individual and group level resources will have predictive power on subjective well-being. In terms of individual resources, greater self-efficacy, optimism, and social support will predict greater well-being. In terms of

group resources, stronger Turkish identification, higher collective self-esteem, and stronger Bulgarian citizenship identification will predict greater well-being.

Hypothesis 2: Perceived discrimination at the group and individual levels will predict subjective well-being. Perceiving discrimination towards oneself and towards one's in-group will predict a decrease well-being.

Hypothesis 3: Both individual and group level resources will interact with perceived individual discrimination and perceived group discrimination while predicting well-being.

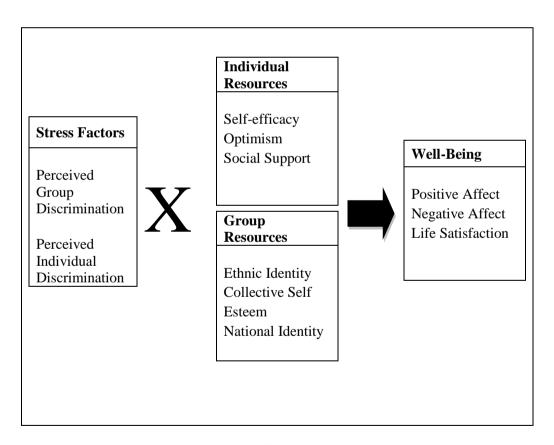


Figure 1: Theoretical Model of the Study

CHAPTER 3

3. METHOD

3.1 Participants

Three hundred and twenty-two participants filled a questionnaire package. Twenty-six of these participants were omitted from further analysis due to missing data. In the resulting sample, including 296 participants, there were 160 women (57.3) %) and 119 men (42.7%). The mean age of respondents was 29.93 (SD = 12.34, range = 18-70 years). The present study was conducted in Shumen and Targovishte which are located in south east region of Bulgaria and these cities have higher Turkish population. Some portion of the data gathered from the capital city, Sofia, and in this city the proportion of Turks were smaller (National Statistical Institute, 2001). Education level of participants ranged from literate to postgraduate and 99 (33.7%) of participants reported that they were students (Thirty-seven of them were high school students and 72 of them were university students). Besides student participants, the majority of participants (31.3%) graduated from high school. In fact, the mode for education level was high school. In Bulgaria, the average income per household was 813 levas (406 Euro) for December 2009 (National Statistical Institute, 2010). In this sense, economic status of participants ranged between low and high, the mode of and mean of economic status demonstrated that the majority of this sample belonged to low or average economic status. Most of the participants

were Muslims (N = 292, 98.6%). Two hundred and five participants (71.2%) reported that they have never migrated to Turkey before and 83 of them (28.8%) have migrated to Turkey before. Approximately half of the participants (45.7%) reported that they spent most their lives in a village, the other half reported the place they lived the longest were towns (27.1%) or cities (27.1%). Demographic characteristics of the sample were summarized in Table 1.

Table 1. Frequencies and Percentages of Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

| | Frequency (N) | Percent (%) |
|----------------------------|---------------|-------------|
| Gender | | |
| Female | 160 | 42.7% |
| Male | 119 | 57.3% |
| Education Level | | |
| Literate | 5 | 1.7% |
| Primary School | 2 | 0.7% |
| Secondary School | 26 | 8.8% |
| High School | 63 | 21.4% |
| Vocational High School | 29 | 9.9% |
| University | 57 | 19.4% |
| Graduate Education | 13 | 4.4% |
| High School Student | 37 | 12.6% |
| University Student | 62 | 21.1% |
| City of Residence | | |
| Targovishte | 142 | 53% |
| Shumen | 45 | 16.8% |
| Sofia | 48 | 17.9% |
| Other | 33 | 12.3% |
| Income | | |
| 300 Leva and under | 39 | 13.9% |
| 300-500 Leva | 67 | 23.9% |
| 500-1000 Leva | 111 | 39.6% |
| 1000-1500 Leva | 22 | 7.9% |
| 1500-2000 Leva | 19 | 6.8% |
| 2000-3000 Leva | 11 | 3.9% |
| 3000 Leva and above | 11 | 3.9% |
| Place lived the longest | | |
| Village | 133 | 45.7% |
| Town | 79 | 27.1% |
| City | 79 | 27.1% |
| Migration to Turkey Before | | |
| Yes | 83 | 28.8% |
| No | 205 | 71.2% |
| Religion | | |
| Muslim | 292 | 98.6% |
| None | 3 | 1% |
| Other | 1 | 0.3% |

3.2 Procedure

The questionnaire was administered to sample in three different locations of Bulgaria. In fact, the majority of the data were gathered from participants living in Targovishte (53%), and the rest gathered from Shumen (16, 8%) and Sofia (17, 9%). The data were collected with snowball sampling method. Questionnaires were distributed in various ways, such as by using networking, including organizations (university/ high school organizations, mosques etc.), by visiting places such as cafes and villages where Turkish population density is high. Questionnaires were conducted in Turkish language and all respondents participated voluntarily in the study (see Appendix A).

Considering ethical concerns, Ethic Committee Approval had been obtained from Middle East Technical University prior to data collection.

3.3 Measures

Respondents completed a 6-page long questionnaire including three sections. In the first section demographic questions were asked. In the second section, labeled as "Turks in Bulgaria", scales measuring group and identity resources and perceived discrimination were included. In the final section, labeled as "personal characteristics", scales measuring personal resources and subjective well-being were included. All scales were given in the same order.

3.3.1 Subjective Well-Being Measures

Subjective well-being is a multidimensional concept including both affective and cognitive evaluations. The cognitive aspect of well-being was operationalized

with Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) and the affective aspect was operationalized through Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS).

3.3.1.1 Satisfaction with Life

Life satisfaction was measured with 5-item Satisfaction with life scale (SWLS) developed by Diener, Emmons, Larsen and Griffin (1985). The scale looks for subjective and general evaluations of individuals about their own life. An example item of the scale would be "I am satisfied with life". In this sense, the scale measures cognitive aspects of subjective well-being concept. The Turkish translation of the scale was completed by Köker (1991) and Cronbach's Alpha for Turkish version was .89. In the current study, Cronbach's Alpha was .83 and factor analysis with oblimin rotation resulted in one factor solution explaining 50.2 % of the total variance. The end points of the scale ranged from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree" and higher scores indicated greater life satisfaction. The mean score for the 5 items were taken as the composite measure of satisfaction with life.

3.3.1.2 Positive and Negative Affect

Affective component of subjective well-being was measured by The Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1998). The scale includes two subscales. The positive affect scale (PA) comprises of 10 positive mood-related adjectives such as determined and strong, and negative affect scale (NA) comprising 10 negative mood-related adjectives such as "guilty" or "nervous". Gençöz (2000) who adapted to scale to Turkish found reliabilities of PA and NA as .83 and .86.

In the study, participants were asked to rate how frequently they experience the given emotion in a general time frame. The answers ranged from 1 = "never" to 5 = "always". Greater scores on positive affect items indicated higher positive affect and greater scores on negative affect items indicated higher negative affect. Composite measures of the scales were calculated by taking the mean scores of each scale. To examine the factor structure of the scale, principle axis factoring with oblimin rotation was conducted. Different from the original factor structure, factor analysis resulted in 6 factors with eigenvalues greater than 1; similar factor structures have been reported in other studies conducted with a Turkish sample (Gençöz, 2000; Kankotan, 2008). The analysis was performed once more by forcing a two factor solution because of 2-factor structure of the original scale (Gençöz, 2000). The results indicated that it would be best to exclude 2 items ("Excited", "Irritable") either due to cross-loading or low overall loadings on either of the factors. Factor analysis was re-conducted with the remaining 18 items and all items loaded on their respective factors as expected. The two factor structure explained 28.9% of the total variance. Internal consistencies occurred as .77 for PA and .75 for NA.

3.3.2 Perceived Discrimination Measures

Perceived discrimination was measured with Perceived Discrimination Scale including two sub-scales named as Perceived Group Discrimination Scale and Perceived Individual Discrimination Scales. Four-item Individual Discrimination Scale measured how often an individual personally faces with discrimination. Seven-item Perceived Group Discrimination Scale measured perception of people about

how often their ethnic group members face with discrimination in different situations. Perceived discrimination scale including two sub-scales was developed by Ruggiero and Taylor (1995) and adapted to Turkish by Baysu (2007) with reliabilities of .85 and .73. In the current study, Cronbach's alpha for the 7-item Perceived Group Discrimination Scale (two items added from -Coymak, 2009) was .84 and of the value for the Individual Discrimination Scale was .79. An example item for the group discrimination scale would be the item "Are people from your ethnic group ever discriminated against in neighborhood unit" and an example item for individual discrimination would be an item "I feel disapproved because of my ethnic identity". The end points of each scale ranged from 1 = "never" to 5 = "always". Higher scores on perceived discrimination at the group and individual levels indicated greater perceived discrimination. Composite measures of the scales were calculated by taking the mean scores of each scale. Principle factor analysis with direct oblimin rotation was performed to analyze the theoretical distinction between two subscales. The analysis resulted in two factors and all the relevant items loaded on their respective expected scales. The two factors explained 46 % of the total variance and results pointed the high correlation between factors, r = .65.

3.3.3 Measures of Group Based Resources

3.3.3.1 Turkish Identification and Collective Self-Esteem

Ethnic identification was measured by three sub-scales evaluating cognitive and affective components of identification. Luhtanen and Crocker's Importance of Identity Scale (1992) was used to evaluate cognitive component of Turkish

identification. An example item for the scale would be "I am proud to be a Bulgarian Turk". Affective component of Turkish identification was assessed by Collective Self-Esteem Scale (CSE) (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992). Even though the CSE scale originally has four sub-scales only the two of them were included in the current study. These are public and private collective self esteem scales. Example items are "In general, others think that the social groups I am a member of, are unworthy" and "I feel good about the social group I belong to" respectively. These scales were translated and adapted to Turkish by Baysu (2007) and their reported reliabilities were .74, .73, and .82 for Importance of Identity, Public Collective Self-Esteem and Private Collective Self-Esteem scales respectively.

In the present study, in order to better understand the structures of the scales, factor analysis was conducted. Result of principle factor analysis with direct-oblimin indicated that Importance of Identity Scale with four items explained 30 % of total variance. Considering Collective Self-Esteem Scale, Private Collective Self Esteem sub-scale lead to problematic result due to the cross loading of items. After dropping the problematic item ("Overall, I often feel that social groups of which I am a member of are not worthwhile") two-factor solution of principle factor analysis with direct-oblimin rotation supported the suggested distinction between Private and Public Self-Esteem Scales. Two factor solution explained the 39.5% of the total variance. Cronbach's alpha for the Collective Self-Esteem scale with 7-items was .63, that of Importance of Identity Scale with 4 items was 61.

The answers of the scales measuring cognitive and affective dimensions of ethnic identification ranged from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree", and

greater scores on the scales indicated greater identification and greater collective self-esteem. The mean score for the 4 items of Importance of Identity Scale were taken as the composite measure of Turkish identification and, the mean scores of 7 items of Collective Self Esteem Scales were taken as the composite measure of collective self-esteem.

3.3.3.2 Bulgarian Citizenship Identification

Bulgarian citizenship identification was measured by Luhtanen and Crocker's (1992) Importance of Identity Scale. The 5 item-scale was adapted to Turkish by Baysu (2007) and she found a Cronbach's alpha of.81 after dropping one reverse-scored item. In present study, the same reverse item of the scale was also dropped because of its adverse effect on the reliability and validity of the scale: the item weakly correlated with other items of the scale and did not load on the expected factor. Cronbach's alpha of scale with the remaining 4 items was .67 and principle axis factoring yielded one factor explaining 34.6 % of the total variance. "I am proud to be a Bulgarian citizen" would be an example item of the scale. The end points of the scale ranged from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree" and greater scores indicated higher Bulgarian citizenship identification. The mean score for the 4 items were taken as the composite measure of Bulgarian citizenship identification.

3.3.4 Measures of Individual Based Resources

3.3.4.1 Generalized Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy was measured with Generalized Self-efficacy Scale. The scale including twenty items was firstly developed in 1979, but in 1981, Jarusalem and

Schwarzer reduced the number of items to 10 and formed the current version of the scale. Internal consistency of the 10 item-scale ranged between .75 and .91 (Scholz, Doña, Sud, & Schwarzer, 2002). The scale was adapted to Turkish by Yesilay, Schwarzer and Jerusalem (1996). Cronbach's Alpha in the current sample was .84 and principle axis factoring with oblimin rotation resulted in one factor solution explaining 34.5 % of total variance. An example item of the scale would be "I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events". The end points of the scale ranged from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree" and higher scores indicated greater self-efficacy. The mean score for the 10 items were taken as the composite measure of generalized self-efficacy.

3.3.4.2 Optimism

Optimism was measured with 12 items Life Orientation Scale (LOT) including 4 filler items. For the original scale, Cronbach's Alpha was found as .76 (Sheier & Carver, 1987). Aydin and Tezer (1991) adapted the scale to Turkish with α = .68. Example item of the scale would be "I always look on the bright side of things". The end points of the scale ranged from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree" and higher scores indicated greater optimism. Principle axis factoring with oblimin rotation resulted in 3 factors. Factor analysis was reperformed with 7 items after one of the reverse items that decreased reliability of scale was excluded. The results pointed to a two-factor solution where reverse items loaded under the second factor. In the current study, due to reliability problems, I decided to exclude the reverse items from further analysis therefore optimism was

evaluated by 4 positively worded items. Principle axis factoring pointed one factor solution for these 4 items, which explained 32.8 % of the total variance. Cronbach's alpha reliability of the scale was.65. The mean score for the 4 items were taken as the composite measure of satisfaction with life.

3.3.4.3 Social Support

Twelve-item Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support was used to measure the perceived sufficiency of social support from friends, family and significant others. The scale was originally developed by Zimet, Dahlen, Zimet and Farley (1988) and was translated to Turkish by Eker and Arkar (1995). The Cronbach's alpha was .88 for the original scale and .89 for Turkish version of the scale. In the current study, the alpha was .90 for the 12 items. Factor analysis with oblimin rotation showed three factors: support from friends, family and significant others. The end points of the scale ranged from 1= strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree and greater scores indicated higher perceived social support. The mean score for the 12 items were taken as the composite measure of social support.

CHAPTER 4

4. RESULTS

4.1 Descriptive Information and Internal Consistency Coefficients of the Measures

The means, standard deviations, ranges, and internal consistency coefficients of the scales are provided in Table 2.

Table 2. Descriptive Information on the Measures of the Study

| Scales | Mean | SD | Alpha Coefficiency |
|---|------|-----|-----------------------|
| Life Satisfaction | 3.02 | .89 | .83 |
| Positive Affect | 3.65 | .60 | .77 |
| Negative Affect | 2.38 | .53 | .75 |
| Perceived Group- Discrimination | 2.67 | .83 | .84 |
| Perceived Individual- Discrimination | 2.15 | .81 | .79 |
| Turkish Identification | 3.70 | .77 | .61 |
| Collective Self-Esteem | 3.51 | .60 | .63 |
| Bulgarian-Citizenship Identification | 3.11 | .81 | .67 |
| Optimism | 3.67 | .71 | .65 |
| Self-Efficacy | 3.70 | .59 | .84 |
| Social Support | 3.99 | .72 | .90 |

4.2 Inter-correlations among the Variables

In order to investigate the relationships between variables, correlation analyses were performed. Firstly correlations between demographic variables and criterion variables were examined (see Table 3), and then correlations among criterion variables were analyzed (see Table 4).

Considering correlations between demographic variables and dependent measures, as seen in Table 3, the level of income and the degree of religiousness were positively associated with life satisfaction. The level of income, religiousness, Turkish and Bulgarian language competency were positively correlated with positive affect. Gender was positively correlated with negative affect (i.e. women reported more negative affect); age, education and Bulgarian language competency were negatively associated with the negative affect.

Among the demographic variables, both Bulgarian and Turkish language competency were associated with greater number of criterion variables of the study. Competency on host culture language was positively correlated with self-efficacy and social support and all group resources. Competency on Turkish was positively related with collective self-esteem and self-efficacy. These correlations highlight that language competency might be an important demographic resource that influence the well-being of minority groups that need to be taken into account.

Regarding correlations between criterion variables, zero-order correlations indicated strong associations between individual level resources ranging between .54 and .33. Group level resources were also positively correlated with each other ranging between .16 and .48. Additionally personal resources and group resources were significantly and positively correlated with each other ranging between .12 and .25. In terms of the correlations with the dependent variables, personal resources correlated with all dimensions of subjective well-being. All group resources were positively associated with life satisfaction. Ethnic identification and collective self-esteem was positively correlated with positive affect. Collective self-esteem was

negatively correlated with negative affect. These findings pointed that compared to group level resources, individual level resources correlated more strongly with the dimensions of well-being.

Perceived discrimination at both group and individual level were positively correlated with negative affect, however different from expectations, the variables were not significantly associated with positive affect, and life satisfaction dimensions of well-being. Besides, group and individual level perceived discrimination were negatively correlated with citizenship identification and collective self-esteem. As expected, the correlation between two levels of perceived discrimination was also strong.

47

Table 3. Correlation Table for the Demographic Variables

| | Citizen ID | Ethnic ID | Collective Self-Esteem | Optimism | Self Efficacy | Social Support | PD Individual | PD Group | Life Satisfaction | Positive Affect | Negative Affect |
|-------------------------|---------------|--------------|---------------------------|----------|------------------|-------------------|------------------|-------------|----------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| Age | .23** | .15* | 02 | .05 | .08 | .08 | .02 | 15* | .00 | 07 | 17** |
| Gender | .03 | 05 | .04 | 08 | 01 | .07 | 11 | 05 | .00 | 04 | .17** |
| Education | .04 | .17* | 02 | .02 | .04 | .21** | 08 | .07 | .09 | .01 | 14* |
| Life place | 03 | .09 | 10 | 05 | .06 | .09 | .04 | .11 | .01 | .05 | .02 |
| City | 16* | 00 | 22** | 02 | 09 | 01 | .01 | .17* | .02 | .08 | .04 |
| Migrate | .12* | .04 | .11 | .01 | 00 | 01 | 00 | 06 | .04 | .05 | 02 |
| Income | 03 | .12 | .06 | .03 | .14* | .13* | 06 | .08 | .22** | .16** | 10 |
| Religiousness | .05 | .00 | .23** | .04 | .10 | .07 | 02 | 04 | .23** | .08 | 10 |
| Turkish Competency | 11 | .04 | .16** | 03 | .14* | .07 | 08 | 05 | 00 | .21** | 15* |
| Bulgarian Competency | .19** | .14* | .18** | .11 | .14* | .12* | 173** | 08 | .02 | .19** | 13* |

^{**} Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Variables: Gender: 1= Male, 2= Female, Life place: 1= Village, 2= Town, 3= City, Migrate: 1= migrated, 2= did not migrated, City: 1= Targovishte, 2= Shumen, 3= Sofia, 4= Other Variables given in rows: Age, gender, education, the place lived the longest, migration status, religious strength, Turkish language competency, Bulgarian language competency; Variables given in columns: Bulgarian citizenship identification, Turkish identification, collective self-esteem, optimism, self-efficacy, social support, perceived individual discrimination, perceived group discrimination, life satisfaction, positive affect

^{*} Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

48

Table 4. Correlation Table for the Criterion Variables

| | Citizen ID | Ethnic ID | Collective Self-Esteem | Optimism | Self Efficacy | Social Support | PD Individual | PD Group | Life Satisfaction | Positive Affect | Negative Affect |
|---------------------------|---------------|--------------|---------------------------|----------|------------------|-------------------|------------------|-------------|----------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| Citizen ID | 1 | | | | | | | | | | |
| Ethnic ID | .48** | 1 | | | | | | | | | |
| Collective Self Esteem | .26** | .16** | 1 | | | | | | | | |
| Optimism | .17** | .25** | .13* | 1 | | | | | | | |
| Self- efficacy | .14* | .20** | .25** | .54** | 1 | | | | | | |
| Social Support | .12* | .24** | .20** | .33** | .46** | 1 | | | | | |
| PD Individual | 25** | 11 | 22** | .05 | 08 | 13* | 1 | | | | |
| PD Group | 29** | 03 | 23** | .03 | 04 | .01 | .65** | 1 | | | |
| Life Satisfaction | .16** | .14* | .23** | .35** | .44** | .32** | 05 | 07 | 1 | | |
| Positive Affect | .07 | .19** | .19** | .20** | .48** | .22** | 03 | .09 | .30** | 1 | |
| Negative Affect | 02 | 05 | 22** | 26** | 28** | 17** | .18** | .24** | 25** | 08 | 1 |

^{**} Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Variables: Bulgarian citizenship identification, Turkish identification, collective self-esteem, optimism, self-efficacy, social support, perceived individual discrimination, perceived group discrimination, life satisfaction, positive affect, negative affect

4.3 Predictive Power of Demographic Variables in Predicting Criterion Variables

Correlation analyses provided an understanding on relations between variables however one-way ANOVA tests were also performed to get more comprehensive knowledge about demographic variables. Gender F(1, 277) = 8.53, p < .01, and education F(8, 285) = 3.61, p < .001 were significant in predicting negative affect. Female participants (M = 2.46, SD = .52) scored higher on negative affect than males (M= 2.27, SD= .52). The seven categories of income level categorized under three levels: low (1000 Leva and under), medium (1000-2000 Leva) and high economic status (2000 Leva and above). ANOVA analysis pointed differences of these groups on life satisfaction F(2, 277) = 6.56, p < .01). Tukey's Pairwise Comparison Test indicated that low income group had lower life satisfaction (M = 2.94, SD = .83) than the high income group (M = 3.62, SD = .94). Considering other criterion variables, income groups differed on perceived group discrimination F(2, 276) = 3.69, p < .05, optimism F(2, 275) = 4.18, p < .05, and self-efficacy F(2, 275) = 3.69, p < .05). Compared to middle economic status group (respectively, M = 2.44, SD = .78, M = 3.43, SD = .71, M = 3.66, SD = .61), participants coming from high economic status perceived greater discrimination towards their in-group (M = 2.94, SD= .83), reported higher levels of optimism (M =3.94, SD = .81) and greater self-efficacy (M = 4.02, SD = .61). The high-income group (M = 4.02, SD = .61) also scored higher on self-efficacy than the low-income group (M = 3.68, SD = .57) differed on self-efficacy.

In terms of the cognitive and affective indicators of subjective well-being, city of origin and migration status (i.e., whether or not the person have migrated to Turkey before) did not lead to any difference.

Participants living in different cities did not differ on subjective well-being. However to detect the differences on other criterion variables, one-way ANOVAs were performed with city of origin as the independent variable and perceived discrimination, personal resources and group resources as the dependent measures. Participants from three different cities did not differenon Bulgarian citizenship identity or collective self-esteem. However, participants living in Targovishte perceive less group discrimination (M = 2.52, SD = .81) compared to participants living in Sofia (M = 3.02, SD = .91).

4.4 Predicting Subjective Well-Being

In order to assess the unique and moderating effects of individual and group based resources and perceived discrimination in predicting subjective well being, a set of hierarchical regression analyses was run. The dependent measure, labeled as "subjective well-being" was operationalized through three variables: life satisfaction, negative affect, and positive affect. The independent variable (IV) was perceived discrimination, which was measured at the individual and group levels. One set of moderating independent variables, labeled as "individual resources" included self-efficacy, optimism, and social support. The other set of independent moderating variables was labeled "group resources" and they included Turkish identification, Bulgarian citizen identification, and collective self-esteem. Moderational regression analyses were conducted separately for each independent variable. Prior to the

analysis, procedures described by Aiken and West (1991) were followed, moderators and IVs were mean-centered and the two interaction terms were computed by multiplying each centered IV with the moderators. When the interaction terms between IVs and moderators were significant, it was taken as supporting the moderating effect. Additionally, to control the effects of demographic variables on the dependent measures, control variables were entered in the first step; IV and moderators were entered in the second step, and finally all possible two-way interactions between the IV and moderators were entered at the third step.

Correlational analysis pointed that perceived individual discrimination was not correlated with positive affect or life satisfaction dimensions of subjective well-being. Yet, it was positively related with negative affect (r= .18, p< .01). Although perceived discrimination did not relate to the two dimensions of subjective well-being, moderational analyses were conducted to analyze both the main effect of perceived individual discrimination and resources and their interaction effects on life satisfaction, positive affect, and negative affect.

Perceived group discrimination was correlated with negative affect, but not significantly correlated with positive affect and life satisfaction. However, moderational analyses were conducted in order to examine both the main effect of perceived group discrimination and resources as well as their interaction effects on subjective well-being, i.e., life satisfaction, positive affect, and negative affect.

4.4.1 The Role of Perceived Discrimination and Resources in Predicting Life Satisfaction

In this section, hierarchical regression analysis were also conducted to examine effects of group and individual based resources and perceived discrimination on life satisfaction. In addition, the interaction effect between resources and perceived discrimination were also analyzed.

4.4.1.1 The Role of Perceived Individual Discrimination and Resources in Predicting Life Satisfaction

In the first step of the regression analysis, income and religious strength were entered into the regression equation. In the second step (centered) Bulgarian citizenship identity, Turkish identity, collective self-esteem, perceived individual discrimination, optimism, self-efficacy, social support were entered into the equation. In the final step, all the possible two-way interactions between perceived individual discrimination and the remaining group and individual based resources were entered. (see Table 5).

Regression analysis was significant for the first two steps only; F (9, 233) = 11. 41, p < .001, R = .55, R^2 = .31 and $Adjusted R^2$ = .28 for the final model. In the first step, higher income (β = .23, p < .001) and stronger religiousness (β = .19, p < .01), predicted greater life satisfaction. In the second step, Bulgarian citizenship identity (β = .14, p < .05), self-efficacy (β = .25, p < .01) and optimism (β = .16, p < .05) significantly predicted life satisfaction. In the third step, even though F change (β = .27) = 1, 87) was not significant, results pointed that self-efficacy might moderate the effect of perceived individual discrimination on life satisfaction

 $(\beta = -.20, p < .05)$ (see Table 5). To explore the interaction between perceived individual discrimination and self-efficacy, further analyses were performed.

To examine the significance of the interaction, simple regression slopes for each predictor with values corresponding to one standard deviation above the mean and one standard deviation below the mean of self-efficacy were computed. The slope of each of the two regression lines was not significantly different from zero (Aiken & West, 1991). Although prior analysis indicated an interaction effect, simple slopes analysis revealed that the effect of perceived individual discrimination on life satisfaction was not significant for both low self-efficacy (t (241) = -1.38, p = .17) and high self-efficacy (t (241) = -1.26, p = .21) conditions.

Table 5. Resources and Perceived Individual Discrimination Regressed on Life Satisfaction

| Predictors in Set | β | t |
|---|-----|---------|
| Dependent Variable: Life Satisfaction | • | |
| 1. Control Variables | | |
| Step 1: F change $(2, 240) = 12.59***$ R^2 Change $= .10$ | | |
| Income | .23 | 3.78*** |
| Religiousness | .19 | 3.14** |
| 2. Independent Variables | | |
| Step 2: F change $(7, 233) = 10. 11*** R2 Change = .21$ | | |
| Perceived Individual Discrimination (PID) | .04 | .66 |
| Turkish Identity | 04 | 61 |
| Collective Self-Esteem | .03 | .50 |
| Bulgarian Identity | .14 | 2.08* |
| Optimism | .16 | 2.27* |
| Self-efficacy | .25 | 3.41** |
| Social Support | .12 | 1.77 |
| 3. Interactions | | |
| Step 3: F (6, 227) = 1. 87 R^2 Change = .03 | | |
| PID X Turkish Identity | 06 | 81 |
| PID X Collective Self-Esteem | .10 | 1.64 |
| PID X Bulgarian Identity | .05 | .76 |
| PID X Optimism | .00 | .04 |
| PID X Self-Efficacy | 20 | -2.51* |
| PID X Social Support | .10 | 1.41 |

^{*}*p* <.05, ***p* <.01, ****p* <.001

4.4.1.2 The Role of Perceived Group Discrimination and Resources in Predicting Life Satisfaction

The same analysis was run, this time with perceived group discrimination instead of individual discrimination. The order of entry and the control variables were also the same. Regression analysis was significant for the first two steps only; F (9, 233) = 10. 90, p < .001, R = .54, $R^2 = .27$ and $Adjusted R^2 = .27$ for the first two steps. Higher income ($\beta = .23$, p < .001) and higher religiousness ($\beta = .18$, p < .01), predicted greater life satisfaction in the first step. In the second step, self-efficacy (β

= .25, p < .01) and optimism (β = .17, p < .05) revealed significant relations with life satisfaction. In the final step, none of the interaction terms were significant (see Table 6).

Table 6. Perceived Group Discrimination and Resources Regressed on Life Satisfaction

| Predictors in Set | β | t |
|---|-----|---------|
| Dependent Variable: Life Satisfaction | • | |
| 1. Control Variables | | |
| Step 1: F change $(2, 240) = 11, 62*** R2 Change = .09$ | | |
| Income | .23 | 3.73*** |
| Religiousness | .18 | 2.85** |
| 2. Independent Variables | | |
| Step 2: F change (7, 233) = 09, 84*** R ² Change = .21 | | |
| Perceived Group Discrimination (PGD) | 02 | 29 |
| Turkish Identity | 04 | 60 |
| Collective Self-Esteem | .02 | .34 |
| Bulgarian Identity | .12 | 1.79 |
| Optimism | .17 | 2.42* |
| Self-efficacy | .25 | 3.33** |
| Social Support | .12 | 1.76 |
| 3. Interactions | | |
| Step 3: F change $(6, 227) = 0, 75$ R^2 Change $= .01$ | | |
| PGD X Turkish Identity | 03 | 47 |
| PGD X Collective Self-Esteem | .11 | 1.57 |
| PGD X Bulgarian Identity | .02 | .38 |
| PGD X Optimism | .03 | .39 |
| PGD X Self-Efficacy | 10 | -1.30 |
| PGD X Social Support | .06 | .82 |
| $4^{n} < 05$ ** $n < 01$ *** $n < 001$ | | |

^{*}*p* <.05, ***p* <.01, ****p* <.001

4.4.2 The Role of Perceived Discrimination and Resources in Predicting Positive Affect

In this section, hierarchical regression analysis were conducted to examine the effects of group and individual based resources and perceived discrimination on positive affect. In addition, the moderating role of resources on perceived individual discrimination, and on perceived group discrimination in predicting positive affect were analyzed.

4.4.2.1 The Role of Resources and Perceived Individual Discrimination in Predicting Positive Affect

In the first step of the regression equation, income, Turkish and Bulgarian language competency were entered as control variables. In the second step, perceived individual discrimination and all resources were entered. In the third step, all possible interactions between perceived individual discrimination and resources were entered (see Table 7). Regression analysis was significant for each of the three steps; $F(16, 248) = 8.55, p < .001, R = .60, R^2 = .36$ and $Adjusted R^2 = .31$ after the third step.

Considering control variables, Turkish language competency (β = .15, p < .05), and Bulgarian language competency (β = .15, p < .05), positively and significantly predicted positive affect in the first step. In the second step, self-efficacy (β = .51, p < .001) were significant and positive predictors of positive affect while optimism (β = -.13, p < .001) predicted positive affect negatively. In contrast to the zero-order correlations of optimism and social support with positive affect (r = .20 and .22 respectively), regression coefficients were in the opposite direction and significant for optimism (β = -.13, p < .05) and in the opposite direction but not significant for social support (β = -.02, p = .73) (see Table 7). This raised suspicion as to the existence of suppression in this regression analysis. Suppressor variables predict DV, not because of their own regression weight, but because of their high correlation with other variables within the set of IVs (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

Optimism, social support, and self-efficacy were highly correlated and only the regression coefficient of self-efficacy was consistent with its zero-order correlation in terms of size and direction. Therefore self-efficacy seems to be acting as a suppressor for optimism and for social support. In order to avoid misinterpretation, the influence of self-efficacy and the influences of social support and optimism were tested through separate regression analyses. In these additional regression analyses, when self-efficacy was tested separately from optimism and social support, the correlations and regression coefficients were consistent in terms of size and direction. The regression coefficients were interpreted from these latter regression analyses.

Results of additional regression analysis examining self-efficacy by excluding social support and optimism pointed that even if the regression coefficient of self-efficacy decreased, the variable was still a significant predictor of positive affect (β = .41, p < .001, for the second step: F change (5, 257) = 14, 73***, R^2 change = .20). The result of the second regression analysis aiming to examine the effects of social support and optimism by excluding self-efficacy showed that social support (β = .15, p < .05), and collective self-esteem (β = .13, p < .05) positively predicted positive affect but optimism was not a significant predictor (β = .06, p = .32) (For the second step: F change (6, 256) = 4, 28***, R^2 Change = .08).

Table 7. Resources and Perceived Individual Discrimination Regressed on Positive Affect

| Predictors in Set | β | t |
|---|-----|---------|
| Dependent Variable: Positive Affect | | |
| 1. Control Variables | | |
| Step 1: F change $(3, 261) = 7.50**$ R^2 Change $= .08$ | | |
| Income | .11 | 1.78 |
| Turkish Competency | .15 | 2.42* |
| Bulgarian Competency | .15 | 2.50* |
| 2. Independent Variables | | |
| Step 2: F change (7, 254) = 12. 13*** R ² Change = .23 | | |
| Perceived Individual Discrimination (PID) | .06 | 1.13 |
| Turkish Identity | .13 | 2.12* |
| Collective Self-Esteem | .05 | 0.94 |
| Bulgarian Identity | .00 | 0.05 |
| Optimism | 13 | -2.08* |
| Self-efficacy | .51 | 7.33*** |
| Social Support | 02 | 34 |
| 3. Interactions | | |
| Step 3: F change $(6, 248) = 2.92**$ R^2 Change $= .05$ | | |
| PID X Turkish Identity | .03 | .40 |
| PID X Collective Self-Esteem | .14 | 2.26* |
| PID X Bulgarian Identity | 07 | -1.09 |
| PID X Optimism | .08 | 1.07 |
| PID X Self-Efficacy | 07 | 93 |
| PID X Social Support | 20 | -3.08** |

^{*}p <.05, **p <.01, ***p <.001

In the final step, the interaction between perceived individual discrimination and collective self-esteem (β = .14, p < .05) and the interaction between perceived individual discrimination and social support were significant (β = -.20, p < .01). To examine the significance of interaction between collective self-esteem and perceived individual discrimination, high and low collective self-esteem groups were created. Although prior analysis indicated an interaction effect, simple slope analysis revealed

that the effect of perceived individual discrimination on positive affect was not significant for both low collective self esteem (t (262) = 0.34, p = .74) and high collective self esteem (t (262) = 0.58, p = .56) conditions.

To examine the significance of interaction between social support and perceived individual discrimination, high and low social support groups were created corresponding to one standard deviation above the mean and one standard deviation below the mean of social support. Two post hoc regression analyses were performed for low and high social support groups. The results of these analyses, plotted in Figure 2, revealed that perceived individual discrimination was a significant and positive predictor of positive affect for people with low social support (β = .22, t (264) = 2.88, p < .01), but not for people with high social support (β = -.14, t (264) = -1.92, p = .06). In other words, for minority members with low social support, greater perceived individual discrimination significantly predicted more frequent positive affect. For minority group members with high social support, greater perceived individual discrimination did not significantly predict positive affect, and the slope seems to be in the opposite direction, although it is not significant.

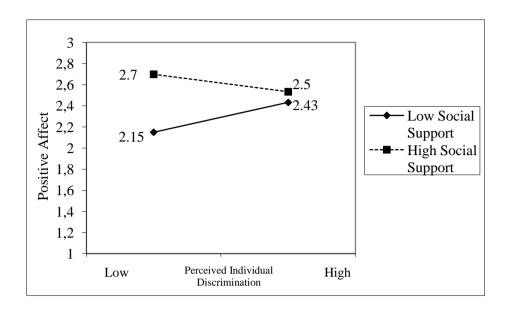


Figure 2. Interaction between Perceived Individual Discrimination and Social Support on Positive Affect

4.4.2.2. The Role of Resources and Perceived Group Discrimination in Predicting Positive Affect

For this set of analyses, the same order and the same procedure with the previous analyses were used, except this time the analyses were repeated using perceived group discrimination instead of individual discrimination. Regression analysis was significant for the first two step only; $F(10, 254) = 11.90, p < .001, R = .57, R^2 = .32$ and $Adjusted R^2 = .29$ for the first two step. The results of the hierarchical regression are presented in Table 8. Considering control variables, Turkish language competency ($\beta = .15, p < .05$), and Bulgarian language competency ($\beta = .13, p < .05$), revealed a significant relationship with positive affect in the first step. In the second step self-efficacy ($\beta = .51, p < .001$), and perceived group discrimination ($\beta = .16, p < .01$) turned out to be significant predictors of positive affect. The negative regression coefficients of social support and optimism

once again raised suspicion for a possible suppression effect. Following the same procedure above, regression analyses were run separately for self-efficacy and then optimism and social support. The results for self-efficacy indicated that it still significantly predicted positive affect with a slightly lower regression coefficient (β = .41, p < .001). The results of regression analysis examining effects of social support and optimism pointed that collective self-esteem (β = .15, p < .05) and social support (β = .14, p < .05) positively predicted positive affect consistent with its zero-order correlation. Optimism did not predict positive affect, however the sign of beta-weight and zero order correlation of optimism were in the expected direction (β = .06, p = .31).

In additional regression analyses which examined separately the effect of self-efficacy and the effects of optimism and social support, the step three were significant and the interaction between Turkish identification and perceived group discrimination was significant. (Respectively, $\beta = .15$, p < .05, F change (4, 253) = 2, 81*, R^2 Change = .03; $\beta = .12$, p < .05, F change = .03; P change = .03;

To examine the interaction between perceived group discrimination and Turkish identification, high and low Turkish identity groups were created corresponding to one standard deviation above the mean and one standard deviation below the mean of Turkish identity. Perceived group discrimination was not a significant predictor of positive affect for low Turkish identity group ($\beta = -.00$, t (262) = -.04, p = .97), but it was significant and positive for the high Turkish identity

group (β = .25, t (262) = 3.12, p < .01). As seen in Figure 3, for strong Turkish identifiers perceiving group discrimination significantly predict an increase in positive affect. On the other hand for weak Turkish identifiers, an increase on perceived group discrimination did not significantly predict positive affect.

Table 8. Resources and Perceived Group Discrimination Regressed on Positive Affect

| Predictors in Set | β | t |
|---|-----|---------|
| Dependent Variable: Positive Affect | | |
| 1. Control Variables | | |
| Step 1: F change $(3, 261) = 6, 83***$ R^2 Change $= .07$ | | |
| Income | .10 | 1.68 |
| Turkish Competency | .15 | 2.46* |
| Bulgarian Competency | .13 | 2.13* |
| 2. Independent Variables | | |
| Step 2: F change (7, 254) = 15, 22*** R ² Change = .25 | | |
| Perceived Group Discrimination (PGD) | .16 | 2.90** |
| Turkish Identity | .11 | 1.84 |
| Collective Self-Esteem | .07 | 1.16 |
| Bulgarian Identity | .04 | .65 |
| Optimism | 13 | -2.10* |
| Self-efficacy | .51 | 7.44*** |
| Social Support | 04 | 59 |
| 3. Interactions | | |
| Step 3: F change $(6, 248) = 1, 54$ R^2 Change $= .02$ | | |
| PGD X Turkish Identity | .11 | 1.85 |
| PGD X Bulgarian Identity | .07 | 1.13 |
| PGD X Collective Self-Esteem | .01 | .22 |
| PGD X Optimism | .02 | 0.34 |
| PGD X Social Support | 05 | 70 |
| PGD X Self-Efficacy | 03 | 34 |

^{*}*p* <.05, ***p* <.01, ****p* <.001

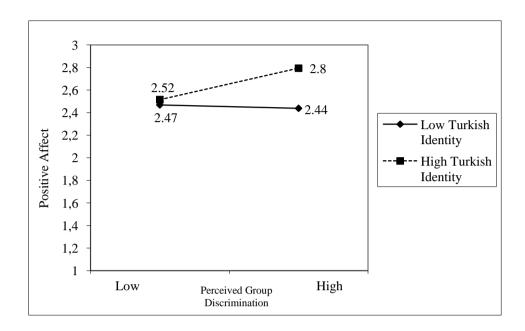


Figure 3. Interaction between Perceived Group Discrimination and Turkish Identity on Positive Affect

4.4.3 The Role of Perceived Discrimination and Resources in Predicting Negative Affect

In this section, hierarchical regression analysis were conducted to examine the effects of group and personal resources and perceived discrimination on negative affect. In addition, the moderating role of resources on perceived individual discrimination, and on perceived group discrimination in predicting positive affect were analyzed.

4.4.3.1 The Role of Resources and Perceived Individual Discrimination in Predicting Negative Affect

Control variables, namely age, gender, education, Turkish and Bulgarian language competency, were entered in the first step of the regression equation. In the

second step, perceived individual discrimination and resources were entered. In the third step, the interaction terms between perceived individual discrimination and the resources at the second step were entered. The results of the regressions are presented in Table 9. Regression analysis was significant for the first two steps only; $F(12, 245) = 6.61, p < .001, R = .50, R^2 = .25$ and $Adjusted R^2 = .21$ for the final model.

Considering control variables, gender ($\beta = .22$, p < .001), age ($\beta = -.16$, p < .001) .01) and Turkish competency ($\beta = -.15$, p < .05) predicted negative affect. In the second step, perceived individual discrimination, optimism, and self-efficacy significantly predicted negative affect. Although zero order correlation indicated correlation between Bulgarian identity and negative affect (r = -.02, p = .80) and correlation between Turkish identity and negative affect (r = -.05, p = .30) were insignificant and negative, in regression analysis Bulgarian identity positively and significantly predicted negative affect ($\beta = .15$, p < .05) and Turkish identity positively and insignificantly predicted negative affect ($\beta = .07$, p = .31). Inconsistency between zero-order correlations and regression coefficients raised suspicion as to the existence of suppression in this regression analysis. These variables were included in an analysis to control their effects; however inclusion of these variables resulted in artifacts in results. To avoid from misinterpretations, moderational regression analysis was performed again by excluding these variables; similar with initial regression analysis perceived individual discrimination ($\beta = .16$, p < .01) and optimism ($\beta = -.17$, p < .01) and self-efficacy ($\beta = -.17$, p < .01) predicted negative affect. In the final step, although F change (F change (4, 245) = 2, 09, p=

.83, R^2 Change = .03) was not significant, the interaction between perceived individual discrimination and self-efficacy was significant (β = .22, p < .01).

Table 9. Resources and Perceived Individual Discrimination Predicting Negative Affect

| Predictors in Set | β | t |
|---|-----|---------|
| Dependent Variable: Negative Affect | | |
| 1. Control Variables | | |
| Step 1: F change $(5, 252) = 6.06 *** R2 Change = .11$ | | |
| Age | 16 | -2.64* |
| Gender (1= Male, 2= Female) | .22 | 3.54** |
| Education | 05 | .82 |
| Turkish Competency | 15 | -2.34* |
| Bulgarian Competency | 09 | -1.34 |
| 2. Independent Variables | | |
| Step 1: F change $(7, 245) = 6, 36***$ R^2 Change $= .14$ | | |
| Perceived Individual Discrimination (PID) | .19 | 3.15** |
| Turkish Identity | .07 | 1.01 |
| Collective Self-Esteem | 10 | -1.67 |
| Bulgarian Identity | .15 | 2.06* |
| Optimism | 21 | -3.05** |
| Self-Efficacy | 16 | -2.20* |
| Social Support | .04 | .58 |
| 3. Interactions | | |
| Step 1: F change $(6, 239) = 1, 23$ R^2 Change $= .02$ | | |
| PID X Turkish Identity | 01 | 11 |
| PID X Collective Self-Esteem | 09 | -1.44 |
| PID X Bulgarian Identity | .05 | .67 |
| PID X Optimism | 08 | -1.05 |
| PID X Self-Efficacy | .19 | 2.40* |
| PID X Social Support | 09 | -1.35 |

^{*}p <.05, **p <.01, ***p <.001

Post-hoc regression analyses were run in order to examine the interaction between perceived individual discrimination and self-efficacy. The results showed that perceived individual discrimination was a significant predictor of negative affect only for the high self-efficacy group ($\beta = 22$, t (254) = 2.83, p< .01), but not for low

self-efficacy group (β = .07, t (254) = 0.93, p = .35). This interaction effect is plotted in Figure 4. Perceiving individual discrimination predicted an increase in negative affect only for those who were high on self-efficacy. For minority group members low on self-efficacy, perceived group discrimination did not predict negative affect.

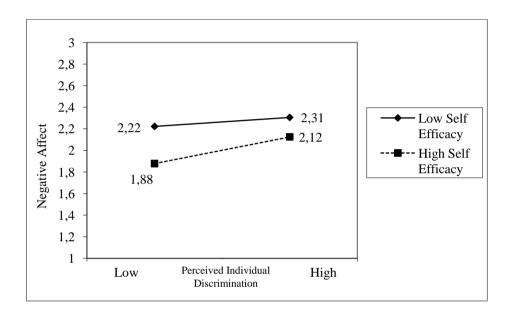


Figure 4. Interaction between Perceived Individual Discrimination and Self-Efficacy on Negative Affect

4.4.3.2 The Role of Resources and Perceived Group Discrimination in Predicting Negative Affect

The same procedure above was employed, only with perceived group discrimination instead of individual discrimination this time. Gender (β = .22, p < .001), age (β = -.15, p < .05) and Turkish language competency (β = -.17, p < .05) were once again significant predictors of negative affect. In the second step, perceived group discrimination, optimism and self-efficacy significantly predicted negative affect and once again although their zero order correlations were

insignificant and negative, Bulgarian identity (β = .18, p < .05) positively and significantly predicted negative affect and even if its regression coefficient was insignificant Turkish identity (β = .05, p = .80) also predicted negative affect positively (see Table 10). Inconsistency between zero-order correlations and regression coefficients indicated artifacts in the effects of these variables. To avoid misinterpretations, by excluding Turkish and Bulgarian identity in the second step and by excluding their interactions with perceived group discrimination in the third step, regression analysis was run again. Similar with initial regression analysis, perceived group discrimination (β = .18, p < .01), optimism (β = -.15, p < .05) and self-efficacy (β = -.15, p < .05) predicted negative affect. In the final step, although F change (F change (4, 245) = 1, 87, p = .12, R2 Change = .02) was not significant, the interaction between perceived individual discrimination and self-efficacy was significant (β = .17, p < .05).

Table 10. Resources and Perceived Group Discrimination Predicting Negative Affect

| Predictors in Set | β | t |
|---|-----|--------|
| Dependent Variable: Negative Affect | | |
| 1. Control Variables | | |
| Step 1: F change $(5, 252) = 6.29***$ R^2 Change $= .11$ | | |
| Age | 15 | -2.33* |
| Gender (1= Male, 2= Female) | .22 | 3.56** |
| Education | 06 | -1.02 |
| Turkish Competency | 16 | -2.60* |
| Bulgarian Competency | 08 | -1.16 |
| 2. Independent Variables | | |
| Step 2: F change $(7, 245) = 6, 87***$ R^2 Change $= .15$ | | |
| Perceived Group Discrimination (PGD) | .23 | 3.72** |
| Turkish Identity | .05 | .80 |
| Collective Self-Esteem | 11 | -0.69 |
| Bulgarian Identity | .18 | 2.52* |
| Optimism | 19 | -2.78* |
| Self-efficacy | -15 | -2.02* |
| Social Support | .00 | -0.00 |
| 3. Interactions | | |
| Step 3: F change (4, 215)= 1, 97 R ² Change= .03 | | |
| PGD X Turkish Identity | 04 | 65 |
| PGD X Collective Self-Esteem | 05 | 80 |
| PGD X Bulgarian Identity | 05 | 73 |
| PGD X Optimism | .03 | .44 |
| PGD X Self-Efficacy | .15 | 1.84 |
| PGD X Social Support | 13 | -1.75 |

*p <.05, **p <.01, ***p <.001

Although the *F change* was not significant in the third step, the interaction between perceived group discrimination and self-efficacy was explored. Simple slopes analysis demonstrated that perceived group discrimination was a significant predictor of negative affect for people who are high on self-efficacy (β = 24, t (264) = 3.21, p < .01).but not for people who were low on self-efficacy (β = .12, t (264) = 1.48, p = .14). The simple regression slopes for the high and low levels of self-efficacy (i.e. one SD above and below the mean) are plotted in Figure 5. As seen in

the figure, for high self-efficacy minority members perceiving group discrimination significantly predict an increase in negative affect. On the other hand for low self-efficacy minority group members, increase on perceived group discrimination did not predict negative affect.

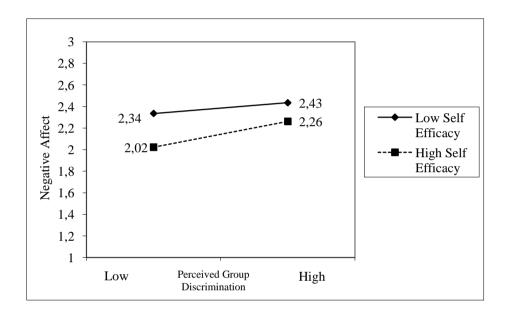


Figure 5. Interaction between Perceived Group Discrimination and Self-Efficacy on Negative Affect

CHAPTER 5

5. DISCUSSION

5.1 The Role of Demographic Variables in Predicting the Well-being of Turks in Bulgaria

Regarding predictive power of demographic variables, regression analysis indicated that higher levels of religiousness and higher income predicted greater satisfaction with life; greater Turkish and Bulgarian language competency predicted higher levels of positive affect; and gender (i.e., being male), age (i.e., being older) and lower degrees of Turkish language competency predicted lower negative affect.

Lazarus (1976) stated that individuals vary in terms of their reactions to the same situation due to their differences in personal qualifications and Meyer (2003) pointed the importance of group identifications in predicting reactions of minority members to perceived discrimination. Besides personal and group resources, Conservation of Resource Theory (COR), which is an integrative stress theory, focuses on environmental, social, personal and economic resources and argues that besides personal resources, some other resources namely objects, conditions and energies determine the responses of individuals to stress factors (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001). *Object* resources are physical resources such as a home that provides shelter. These are associated with the socioeconomic status of person. *Conditions* are related to the roles in social life such as being married or being employed. *Energies* are resources such as time and money that enable an individual to gain other resources.

In the present study, this resource categorization was not exactly used however considering the wide variety of resources that Hobfoll suggested, in addition to group and personal resources, these demographic characteristics such as income, education, religiousness, age, and language competency levels were included in the present study. As Hobfoll (1989, 2001) suggested, besides personal and group resources, many demographic characteristics predicted the dimensions of well-being.

In terms of gender differences, in the present study, women reported more frequent negative affect compared to men. Studies on gender differences in wellbeing concluded that women live both negative and positive emotions more intensely however due to the multi-measure structure of well-being, extreme scores of women on positive and negative affect were balanced and women scored equal with men on happiness (Diener & Ryan, 2009; Fujita, Diener, & Sandvik, 1991; Myers & Diener, 1995). In the current study, although women and men did not differ on positive affect and life satisfaction, women reported somewhat greater negative affect. This result may be related to the double minority position of Turkish women in Bulgaria. A study conducted with Turkish immigrants coming from Bulgaria demonstrated that immigrant women experience more depressive symptoms compared to immigrant men (Yenilmez, et al., 2007). Immigrant women in Netherlands also reported higher symptoms of depression, psychosomatic symptoms, and anxiety (Hünler, 2007). However, the finding may also be related to the socialization of men: men may not feel comfortable with reporting their negative emotions. In order to conclude on these findings of gender differences, more data are needed. As another demographic variable, age negatively predicted negative affect; with an increase on age negative

affect decreased. The study conducted with four generations of families demonstrated that negative affect decreases with age for all generations (Charles, Reynolds, & Gatz, 2001). One could argue that some of the more physical (or demographic) resources that the Conservation of Resources Theory mentions such as *conditions* or *energies* could be increasing with age and that could explain this finding of decreased negative affect with age.

In the present study, level of income and degree of religiousness positively predicted life satisfaction. Among Turkish minority, an increase on income and religiousness led to an increase on life satisfaction. In literature, religiousness is accepted as a coping resource to stressors (Diener & Ryan, 2009). Consistent with literature, religiousness was associated with life satisfaction of participants. Income is also a significant predictor of well-being (Diener, Diener, & Diener, 1995), wealthy people were found slightly happier than others (Diener et al., 1985). Consistent with literature, in the present study, income significantly predicted life satisfaction which is the cognitive dimension of well-being.

Level of competency on Bulgarian and Turkish languages predicted an increase in positive affect for Turkish minority members in Bulgaria and being competent on Turkish also predicted a decrease in negative affect. Previous findings consistently demonstrated the relation between the competency on the language of the host country and well-being (Veddera & Virta, 2005). The association was interpreted as the relation between language competency and familiarity between host cultures. In the current study, Bulgarian language comprehension positively correlated with Bulgarian identity, and negatively correlated with perceived

Bulgarian might increase identification with the larger society, that in turn might be related to greater positive affect. Competency on Turkish also predicted greater levels of positive affect and diminished levels of negative affect. Examining the zero-order correlations, Turkish competency was associated with collective self-esteem and self-efficacy. Being competent on the language of one's ethnic group might predict higher identification with one's ingroup and this is a predictor of positive affect as well. Considering predictive power of both Turkish and Bulgarian competency on emotional dimensions of well-being and the inter-correlations of these variables with resources at both individual and group level, we can conclude that while conducting studies on psychological resources and well-being of minority group members focusing on language competency seems to be important.

One point that need to be examined is the comparison of the three cities from which the data were collected. Turks represent different proportions of the total populations in Sofia, Shumen and Targovishte. In Sofia considering total population the number of Turks were few while in Shumen Turks represents approximately 30% of the population and in Targovishte Turks represents 36% of the population, (National Statistical Institute, 2001). Turks in these cities did not differ on dependent variables. Turks in Sofia, however, perceived greater group discrimination compared to Turks in Targovishte. This finding might be related to higher discriminatory acts towards Turks in Sofia compared to Targovishte or might be related to salience of the ethnic group membership for Turks in Sofia that is associated with perceiving

events from an intergroup lens. This finding deserves more attention for future studies.

Besides the relationships between demographic variables and the dimensions of well-being, there is one point regarding the correlations between national and ethnic identity that need to be emphasized. In the current study, Turkish identity and collective self-esteem highly correlated with Bulgarian identity. In some countries such as in the Netherlands, ethnic in-group identification was negatively related with the nation-state identification (Verkuyten & Yıldız, 2007). However for Turks in Bulgaria, ethnic and citizenship identities are not in conflict, conversely, these identities seem to benefit each other as well as increase the well-being of the individual. This finding might be interpreted as a better integration of minority members who protect their attachment to their ethnic groups. This could also be attributed to the fact that the Turkish minority in Bulgaria is a minority that have been there for a long time, and not an immigrant minority that have been living in Bulgaria for one or two generations. In a way, we expect them to be better integrated into the society because they have been living there for a long time. Another finding that seem to support this "better integration" hypothesis is the relationship between perceptions of lower discrimination at the one hand, and greater collective selfesteem and stronger Bulgarian citizenship identity on the other. These findings pointed to the importance of social identities at both the national and ethnic levels which were positively associated and predicted better adjustment and greater subjective well-being.

5.2 The Role of Perceived Discrimination in Predicting Subjective Well-Being

In the current study, although perceptions of higher individual discrimination did not predict lower levels of positive affect and life satisfaction of Turks in Bulgaria, perceptions of higher discrimination at both group and individual levels predicted greater negative affect. An interesting and unexpected finding in the current study was that perceived group discrimination predicted greater positive affect.

There are consistent findings showing stronger adverse effects of perceived discrimination on negative affect compared to positive affect (Dion & Earn, 1975). Moreover, the effect of perceived discrimination on psychological problems, self-esteem, depressive symptoms were more widely studied than its effect on positive affect. In an older experimental study including religious prejudice manipulation, the effect of perceived discrimination on both positive and negative emotions was investigated (Dion & Earn, 1975). The results pointed that although the effect of discrimination on positive affect was not found, participants attributing their failure to prejudice reported more negative emotions such as aggression, sadness, and anxiety. Watson et al. (1988) found that compared to positive emotions, negative emotions are highly related to stress, depressive symptoms and anxiety while positive affect are associated more with social interactions. Therefore, the effects of perceived discrimination on negative affect seem to be more important in interpreting the results for the well-being of minorities.

Both Minority Stress Model (Meyer, 2003) and Lazarus' Stress Theory (Lazarus 1970, 1976) pointed that discrimination results in negative psychological

and physical health conditions. Higher levels of depression, mental illnesses, and lower levels of well-being of minority members support this argument (Jasinskaja-Lahti et al., 2006; Jasinskaja-Lahti, Liebkind, & Perhoniemi, 2006; Noh et al., 1999; Torres, 2009). Although there are many mediator and moderator variables leading to variations among individuals' responses to discrimination, discrimination has mainly been accepted as social stressor affecting the well-being of minority members adversely.

Different from the original expectations, the negative effect of perceived discrimination was not found at all dimensions of well-being; but was found only at the negative affect dimension. The results might be interpreted regarding related literature. Branscombe, Schmitt, and Harvey (1999) argued that in experimental conditions, when prejudice is seen plausible but unstable, attributing the personal failures to prejudice might benefit well-being of individual. At this point we can speculate that as a group even if they encounter with discrimination, Turks in Bulgaria might evaluate their condition as unstable. Due to European Union membership of Bulgaria, Turks have a right to move freely across European countries in fact, they have a chance to move from Bulgaria whenever they want, also due to the success of the political party "Movement for Rights and Freedoms (MRF)" which has mostly been constituted by Bulgarian Turks, they might evaluate their condition as unstable. Moreover, some personal comments of Turks in Bulgaria indicated that because of past power/status of Turks from the Ottoman Empire, some of the members of Turks in Bulgaria might evaluate negative attitudes of Bulgarians

towards Turks as comprehensible. All of these factors might contribute to a lack of impact of perceived discrimination on the three dimensions of subjective well-being.

In addition to stability and plausibility of conditions, the impact of discrimination depends on severity of discriminatory instances, in fact more severe discriminatory experiences lead to greater impact on well-being (Schmitt & Branscombe, 2002). In the present study, the mean scores of perceived discrimination scales indicated that participants did not perceive high levels of discrimination: the mean scores were lower than the midpoint of 3 both for individual and group level perceived discrimination. Considering the recent past of Bulgaria including harsh assimilation policies, low level of perceived discrimination might be related to the better conditions of Turks compared to other groups or compared to the more distant past. As another point, even if perception of discrimination is a subjective evaluation, it is not completely independent from objective events. In this sense, as a speculation, in Bulgaria severe and explicit discriminatory acts might not occur towards minorities because Bulgarian State, as a member of European Union (EU), have to follow EU standards, including minority rights, and laws that take minority rights under protection. In addition, explicit discriminatory acts might directly affect the relationship between Bulgaria and Turkey in the international arena that might be undesirable for Bulgaria. Political events and laws protecting minority rights do not guarantee equal treatment at societal or institutional levels, yet they might help to prevent severe form of discriminatory acts leading to stronger adverse impact toward minorities.

However the positive association between perceived discrimination and positive affect remains puzzling. This finding might be related to the sample of the present study. For Turks in Bulgaria, perceived group discrimination might be associated with ethnic pride or out-group derogation. The moderating effect of Turkish identification on the relationship between perceived group discrimination and positive affect, which will be discussed comprehensively in the following section, also supports this idea. This positive effect of perceived group discrimination was significant only for those members of the Turkish community that strongly identified with their group, but not for those who weakly identified.

The other issue named as the personal/group discrimination discrepancy should also be mentioned. As suggested in literature (Operario & Fiske, 2001), in the present study, perceived group discrimination scores were higher than the scores of perceived individual discrimination. Although participants reported significantly higher perceived discrimination towards their group, both level of perceived discrimination predicted an increase on negative affect. However, different from perceived individual discrimination which did not predict positive affect, perceived group discrimination predicted greater positive affect. The finding implies that in terms of their effects on well-being, consideration of discrepancy between perceived group discrimination and perceived individual discrimination is important.

In summary, the results showed that perceived discrimination predicted the emotional dimensions of well-being more than the cognitive dimension. Even if perceived discrimination did not significantly predicted life satisfaction, the perception of discrimination at both group and individual level led to greater

negative affect. Additionally, perceived group discrimination predicted greater positive affect, especially for strong Turkish identifiers.

5.3 The Role of Resources in Predicting Well-Being

Regarding the predictive role of resources on dimensions of well-being, the original hypothesis was only partially supported. Bulgarian citizenship identification, self-efficacy, and optimism positively predicted life satisfaction that is the cognitive dimension of well-being. Social support, self-efficacy, and collective self-esteem significantly predicted positive affect and optimism and self-efficacy were significant and negative predictors of negative affect.

Hobfoll (1989) argues that even if there is no actual threat or stressor — especially for the possibility of future resource loss- people struggle for developing resource surpluses. This, in turn, leads to experiences of positive well-being. Parallel to this argument, besides their moderating effects on the relationship between perceived discrimination and well-being, the study aimed to identify the main effects of resources on the well-being of Turks in Bulgaria. Meyer (2003) argued that in addition to personal resources, group identification becomes an important resource that benefit well-being of individuals. In the line with his argument, identity related factors were included in this study. Studies on minority members showed that well-being of minority members are influenced by both individual and group level factors. However these factors have usually been studied separately. In the current study, both personal and group resources were analyzed together.

Personal resources were highly correlated with each other, whereas group resources correlated moderately with each other. Additionally, both type of resources were correlated with each other. These correlations might indicate the interdependency between psychological resources.

The predictive power of personal resources were stronger compared to group resources, yet results partially supported the argument focusing on the importance of group resources (Meyer, 2003). Bulgarian citizenship identification explained the variance over and above individual resources when predicting life satisfaction and collective self-esteem explained the variance over and above personal resources when predicting positive affect. Results also pointed that compared to other resources; self-efficacy had stronger predictive power on life satisfaction and positive affect. In literature benefits of sense of self-efficacy on psychological health and well-being were also illustrated (Ben-Zur, 2003; Swenson & Prelow, 2005). Consistent with literature self-efficacy contributed positive outcomes of Turks in Bulgaria. In addition to self-efficacy, higher levels of optimism predicted diminished negative affect while greater social support predicted higher levels of positive affect. The benefits of optimism and social support on well-being were demonstrated in the literature. Optimism was found as contributing to both physical health (Üstündağ-Budak & Mocan-Aydın, 2005) and the well-being of individuals (Ben-Zur, 2003; Scheier & Carver, 1987). As a widely studied resource, positive effects of social support on well-being were also exemplified (DeGarmo & Martinez Jr., 2006; Jasinskaja-Lahti, Liebkind, Jaakkola, Reuter, 2006; Sayar, 2006). To sum, as Lazarus (1976) and Hobfoll (1989) suggested personal resources benefit the well-being of individuals.

Considering group resources, although they predicted different dimensions of well-being, positive effects of both Bulgarian citizenship identity and collective self-esteem on well-being were found. Bulgarian identity predicted life satisfaction while collective self-esteem positively contributed positive affect. Parallel with the current findings, researchers found that people who strongly identify with their ethnic groups reported higher life satisfaction and self-esteem (Outten et al., 2009; Phinney, Cantu, & Kurtz, 1997) and lower depressive (Mossakowski, 2003) and psychosomatic symptoms (Eyou, Adair, & Dixon, 2003). Studies which were focused on national identity of minority group members also illustrated that strong national identity also result in positive psychological outcomes such as higher self-esteem (Eyou, Adair, & Dixon, 2003, Phinney et al., 2001) and higher level psychological adaptation (Phinney et al., 2001).

In addition to their main effects, resources interaction with perceived discrimination at both group and individual level were analyzed. Interaction analyses were performed to determine how the individual and group resources change the causal relationship between perceived discrimination and well-being. Indeed, moderational analyses were performed to determine whether certain levels of the resources under high and low perceived discrimination conditions predict differences on well-being or not. The findings are discussed in the following section.

5.4 The Moderating Role of Resources on the Relationship between Perceived Discrimination and Well-Being

As mentioned above, perceived discrimination was mainly admitted as a stress factor affecting well-being of minority group members adversely (Clark et al., 1999; Meyer, 2003). However due to individual differences among minority members, effects of perceived discrimination on well-being differ from individual to individual. In the present study, in order to understand the factors that determine the vulnerability or strength of Turks in Bulgaria facing discrimination, interactions of group and individual based resources with perceived discrimination at both group and individual level were analyzed. In these moderation analyses, three factors moderated the effect of perceived discrimination on the subjective well-being of Turks in Bulgaria. These were self-efficacy, social support, and the importance of Turkish identity.

In predicting positive affect, interaction between perceived individual discrimination and social support and interaction between perceived group discrimination and Turkish identity were significant. In predicting negative affect interactions of perceived discrimination at both group and individual level with self-efficacy were significant.

5.4.1 Interaction between Perceived Discrimination and Self-Efficacy

The findings of the current study suggested that self-efficacy does not buffer against the effect of perceived discrimination. Quite the contrary, people who were high on self-efficacy were more vulnerable to the effects of discrimination. In other words, for minority members with high self-efficacy perceiving discrimination was

associated with negative affect but for minority group members with low selfefficacy, perceived discrimination did not predict negative affect.

Contrary to the current finding given above, many authors have emphasized the therapeutic effect of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1999; Gecas, 1989). The direct and indirect effects of self-efficacy as a coping resource while coping with stressors were shown. For example, studies indicated that for minority group members (Swenson & Prelow, 2005) higher self-efficacy predicted a decrease in depressive symptoms. For people who were high on perceived discrimination, self-efficacy was associated with a decrease in reported stress problems (Jackson, Williams, & Torres, 2003).

Although the result is inconsistent with the some of the findings in the literature, the present finding might be speculated in the light of findings of Ruggiero and Taylor (1995, 1997); they examined the complex relationship between perceived discrimination and self-efficacy. The authors found that in experimental conditions, when probability of discrimination is ambiguous, participants were more likely to attribute their failure to their own ability rather than to discrimination. Participants were also unlikely attribute their failure to discrimination when they were manipulated to believe that they have control over outcomes (Ruggiero & Taylor, 1995). In another study, they found that attribution to discrimination decreased social state self-esteem (Ruggiero & Taylor, 1997). Hence they concluded that in order to preserve the feelings of social perceived control that is required to maintain feelings of control over social and performance events, people tend to minimize attribution to discrimination. Besides, the negative effects of perceived discrimination's challenges over self-efficacy were also illustrated. Verkuyten (1998) found that perceived

individual discrimination negatively predicted participants' sense of control which in turn was negatively related to personal self-esteem.

In the light of these findings, the variation of negative affect in high selfefficacy group depending on the level of perceived discrimination might be
explained. Sense of self-efficacy is psychologically beneficial; therefore individuals
might tend to minimize the discrimination that they are exposed to. However when
people can not deny or underestimate the discrimination, in fact when they perceive
discrimination at both group and individual level, this may lead to feeling of
helplessness by decreasing one's sense of control over discriminatory acts.

Considering this conceptualization of self-efficacy, the negative effect of discrimination on Bulgarian Turks who are high on self-efficacy might be understandable: having control over one's environment is more critical for those who are high on self-efficacy and discrimination is a relatively uncontrollable event. In fact, discrimination is related to social stratification in a society and it is usually independent from the targets' actions; therefore it is hard to control discriminatory treatments and attitudes with an individual effort. As a result, by challenging their control feeling over events, perceived discrimination negatively affect individuals who are high on self-efficacy. Consistent findings also exist in literature: for cancer patients, self-efficacy were not found as a protective factor affecting the course of the disease (Cassileth et al 1985, cited in Gecas, 1989). The finding was interpreted as, when personal control over outcomes is limited, inability in controlling events challenges the feelings of self-efficacy. In the light of this finding we can speculate that for Turkish minority group members whose control over discrimination is

limited, high self-efficacy might not reduce negative effect of discrimination, conversely by challenging their control feeling perceived discrimination affect adversely Turkish minority members with high self-efficacy.

5.4.2 Interaction between Perceived Individual Discrimination and Social Support

In the current study, as an unexpected finding, minority members with low social support experienced greater positive affect when they perceive more discrimination directed towards themselves individually. The simple regression slopes for the minority group members with high social support was in the opposite direction of what was expected: perceived discrimination lead to a decrease in positive affect, though non-significant (p = .07), for this group. However the finding that perceived discrimination led to an increase in positive affect for those with low social support was quite puzzling.

Studies conducted with minority or disadvantaged groups demonstrated the ameliorating effect of social support on well-being (DeGarmo & Martinez Jr., 2006; Jasinskaja-Lahti, Liebkind, Jaakkola, Reuter, 2006; Sayar, 2006). Moreover social support has widely been studied as a coping resource that decreases the negative effects of threatening events such as discrimination (Brody et al., 2006; DeGarmo & Martinez Jr., 2006). The finding that showed a positive effect of perceived discrimination under low social support condition is inconsistent with this literature. The unexpected interaction between perceived individual discrimination and social support could not be interpreted within the frame of studies on social support. The result may be a form of measurement or random error. Therefore before interpreting

this finding and arriving at conclusions, we need to ensure that this finding is replicated. Given the contradiction between the finding and the existing social support literature, this seems quite unlikely.

5.4.3 Interaction between Perceived Group Discrimination and Turkish Identity

As an unexpected finding, interaction effect of Turkish identity with perceived group discrimination pointed that for participants who are high on Turkish identity, increase in perceived group discrimination lead to an increase in positive affect.

Tajfel (1982, p.25) stated that "...conditions of salient intergroup categorizations, groups will tend to work harder at establishing their distinctiveness from the out-groups which are perceived as similar as from those which are seen as dissimilar". People who are high on Turkish identity may try to establish their unique and distinct identity and perception of discrimination may provide salience of their distinctiveness. For weak Turkish identifiers, there was no difference on positive affect in terms of low and high discrimination conditions. Identity may not be core aspect for low identifiers therefore for weak Turkish identifiers the non-significant effect of perceived discrimination is understandable. In fact while strong Turkish identifiers are open to evaluations on in-group, group related perceptions may not affect weak identifiers individually.

The complex relation between perceived discrimination and groupidentification was focused in the literature. Branscombe, Schmitt and Harvey (1999) found that perceived discrimination exerts both negative and positive effects on wellbeing. Their findings pointed that attributions to prejudice has a direct negative effect on both personal and collective well-being, and an indirect positive effect on wellbeing; in fact attribution to prejudice positively affect minority group identification, in turn positively related to well-being. For the Turks in Bulgaria zero-order correlations did not imply a relation between Turkish identity and perceived group discrimination. But, for Turks in Bulgaria, perceived group discrimination might be associated with beliefs of the power of Turks or might be associated with powerlessness of Bulgarians. During data collection, some of the participants pronounced that Turks were discriminated by Bulgarians because in the past, Ottoman Empire dominated the Bulgarian lands; and even today due to threatening power of Turks and Turkey, Bulgarians feel powerless and in turn they discriminate Turks in Bulgaria. This could be interpreted as the positive effect of group discrimination on positive affect and these statements signal the importance of "subjective meaning of perceived group discrimination". If minority group members think that their group is discriminated not because of negative values of in-group but because of negative values or jealousy of the out-group, perceived discrimination might increase positive affect. In further studies, researchers should also analyze attributions of Turkish minority group members to the causes of discrimination.

To conclude, resources were associated with different aspects of well-being: Bulgarian citizenship identification, optimism, and self-efficacy predicted an increase on life satisfaction; collective self-esteem, social support, and self-efficacy were associated with an increase in positive affect and, optimism and self-efficacy predicted a decrease on negative affect. Even if predictive power of individual resources on well-being were higher, group resources explained the variance over

and above individual resources. Although contributions of resources on dimensions of well-being were partially supported the results highlighted the importance of both individual and group resources.

Regarding the interactions between resources and perceived discrimination, inconsistent with the past literature, none of the resources buffered the negative effects of perceived discrimination. Quite the contrary, for minority members with high self-efficacy perceiving discrimination was associated with greater negative affect; indeed people with high self-efficacy were more vulnerable to the adverse effect of perceived discrimination. Additionally, two unexpected interaction effects were found: for strong Turkish identifiers perceived group discrimination increased the positive affect and for people with low social support, perceived individual discrimination increased the positive affect. In order to examine the validity and generalizability of the results, additional studies which replicate the current study with different minority groups as well as the Turkish minority group in Bulgaria should be conducted.

5.5 Importance, Limitations, and Future Directions

5.5.1 Importance and Implications of the Study

The study firstly aimed to explore factors affecting well-being of Turks in Bulgaria. Focusing psychological resources benefiting well-being and decreasing the vulnerability of an individual was regarded as an important issue to identify risk and resilience factors for minority group members. Information on factors related to psychological health of minority group members is important to improve effective

prevention and intervention programs (Meyer, 2003). In the current study, although they predict different dimensions of subjective well-being, all resources were associated with an increase on well-being. Based on these results, intervention programs could be designed in order to broaden the resources of minority members at both individual and group level. Besides, perceived discrimination predicted an increase on negative affect. Considering the adverse effect of discrimination on negative affect, additional to individual level factors, the environment should be taken into account and a stress-inducing environment should be changed with public policy interventions.

The study also highlighted that the dynamics of perceived discrimination might be different than other stress factors: buffering and exacerbating effects of resources might differ when perceived discrimination is in question. The study call for further research examining the moderating role of the psychological resources since buffering factors might function as exacerbating factors when the matter is perceived discrimination, i.e. interaction between self-efficacy and perceived discrimination. Also unexpected results, such as positive effect of perceived discrimination for high Turkish identifiers, might be related to the sample. The underlying factors leading to positive affect of perceived group discrimination for Turks in Bulgaria should be explored. Turks in Bulgaria may not consider their group's condition as relatively disadvantaged and powerless, due to earlier dominance of Ottoman Empire over Bulgarian lands and due to the success of MRF. Additionally for Turks in Bulgaria, Turkey may constitute a supportive power which may intervene Bulgarian State' minority policies in case of violation of minority

rights. Considering these arguments while exploring positive effect of perceived group discrimination on positive affect, further studies might focus on attitudes of Turks to Bulgaria, to Turkey, to Bulgarians and to Turks.

The most important strength of the present study is the sample, Turkish minority group in Bulgaria. Political events highlighted the requirement of psychosocial studies however, until today Turks in Bulgaria has not been studied. The content is the other strength of the study. Cooperative effect of factors at both personal and group level which might be related to well-being of Turks in Bulgaria was studied.

5.5.2 Limitations of the Study

There are some limitations of this study. Absence of random sampling is the first limitation, although the data was collected from three cities of Bulgaria, in order to generalize the findings to Turks in Bulgaria, better selection procedures, i.e., random sampling, should be used to obtain a more representative sample.

Additionally, even if the current reliabilities of the scales were acceptable, for some measures, such as group resources' reliabilities were low. Regression analyses accept that IVs are measured without error; low reliabilities imply measurement error and would bias the results against the hypothesis of author (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In this term more reliable measures are needed for this sample.

In the current study, prejudice and discrimination which are highly sensitive topics were measured with paper and pencil tests. However the responses on the scales are open to biases. Some respondents may not have reported or may have exaggerated responses on the scales. Participants may have not wanted to report

discrimination because of threat of majority group or may also use social norm to blame majority members. Therefore, as a suggestion, in further studies, to overcome this potential limitation, social desirability scales could be added.

This study might also be criticized regarding the dependent variables, especially regarding the trait-like stability and cross-situational consistency of subjective well-being measures. Especially considering affective component of well-being, Watson et al. (1988) stated that when asking how frequently participants experience the given emotions if general and longer term instructions are used -such as past year or in general trait-like stability occur in affect measures. Moreover, by considering both stable and changeable components of well-being, Diener (1994) pointed that even if life circumstances leads to change in immediate evaluations; long-term well-being is likely to have considerable stability. Therefore, other well-being indexes such as quality of life or domain specific satisfaction measures (e.g. satisfaction with life in Bulgaria, satisfaction with relationships with the Bulgarian majority) might be warranted for examining the influence perceived discrimination.

5.5.3 Future Research

In the present study, the role of discrimination was investigated. In the future studies, the role of negative attitudes in prejudice can be focused. The European Union and the recent tolerant laws prohibit inequitable treatment to minority group members, therefore it might be helpful to examine negativity of the out-group at the level of attitudes. Regarding the dependent variables, in addition to well-being, the effect of discrimination on physiological and mental health could also be studied.

Besides general coping strategies, there may be some other coping strategies and some cultural qualifications which are group-specific; exploring these factors may improve our understanding on within and between group variations in risk factors and coping mechanisms. To explore these factors, future studies should combine qualitative and quantitative methods. Qualitative methods might be beneficial to detect more detailed information and group-specific characteristics. With this information group-specific prevention and intervention programs could also be developed.

The results of the study were based on correlational analysis; therefore it might not be appropriate to make causal inferences especially for unexpected findings. To get more comprehensive outlook and to make causal inferences, experimental studies, and implicit measures are required to be applied. Moreover, to better understand the unexpected pattern of moderational regression analysis in predicting positive and negative affect, additional studies should be conducted with other minority group members and majority group members.

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APPENDIX A

The Questionnaire Package

Gönüllü Katılım ve Bilgilendirme Formu

Sayın katılımcı,

Bu çalışma Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi, Psikoloji Bölümü, Sosyal Psikoloji yüksek lisans programına bağlı olarak Öğr. Gör. Dr. Banu Cingöz Ulu'nun danışmanlığında yürütülen, Leman Korkmaz'ın yüksek lisans tez çalışmasıdır. Bu çalışmada araştırdığımız konu, Bulgaristan'daki Türklerin deneyimleri ve yaşadıkları üzerinedir. Araştırmada her soruya vereceğiniz yanıt son derece önemli olduğundan, lütfen her soruyu dikkatle okuyup size en uygun gelen cevabı anket içindeki yönergeleri dikkate alarak veriniz. Ankette yer alan soruların doğru veya yanlış cevabı kesinlikle yoktur. Bu ankette sizden kimliğinizle ilgili hiçbir bilgi de istenmemektedir. Vereceğiniz bilgiler kimlik bilgileriniz alınmadan tamamıyla gizli tutularak, yalnızca araştırmacılar tarafından, grup düzeyinde değerlendirilecektir. Dolayısıyla soruları sizin düşüncelerinizi en iyi şekilde yansıtan haliyle cevaplamanızı diliyoruz. Çalışmadan elde edilecek sonuçlar sadece bilimsel amaçlı olarak kullanılacaktır. Ankete katılım tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Çalışmada sizi rahatsız eden herhangi bir soruyla karşılaşırsanız ya da ankete devam etmek istemezseniz bu durumda anketi yarıda bırakabilirsiniz. Araştırmacıya ilettiğiniz takdirde sizin o ana kadar doldurmuş olduğunuz kısım da analizlerden çıkarılacaktır. Veri toplama ve analiz sürecinin sonunda elde edilen bulgularla ilgili tüm sorularınız cevaplandırılacaktır.

Yardımlarınız ve katılımınız için teşekkür ederiz.

Çalışma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak için; Psikoloji Bölümü öğretim görevlilerinden Dr. Banu Cingöz Ulu (Tel: +90 312 2103134; E-posta: cingoz@metu.edu.tr), ya da Sosyal Psikoloji yüksek lisans öğrencilerinden Leman Korkmaz (E-posta: lemankorkmaz@yahoo.com) ile iletişim kurabilirsiniz.

Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve istediğim zaman yarıda kesip çıkabileceğimi biliyorum. Verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayımlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum. (Formu doldurup imzaladıktan sonra uygulayıcıya geri veriniz).

| / | | |
|-------|------|-----------------------|
| Tarih | İmza | Araştırmacının imzası |

| | | | | | 1. I | KISI | M: I | Dem | ogra | afik | Bilgi | ler | | | | | | | | |
|-------------------|-----------------|--------------------|--------|-------|--------|--------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|------|-----------|-------|-------|-------|-------|---|
| 3- I | Doğuı | z: 2- Cin | | | | _ | | | |] Ka | dın | | | | | | | | | |
| 4- ľ | Mesle | ğiniz- İşiniz ned | ır? _ | | | | | _ | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5- I | Eğitin | n Düzeyiniz: | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| $\Box C$ |)kuma | n-Yazma Bilmiyo | or | | Okun | ıa-Ya | azma | a Bil | iyor | | | ∃İlk | okul | mez | zunu | l | | | | |
| $\Box C$ | rtaok | ul mezunu | | | Lise | mezu | ınu | | | | | □Me | slek | Lise | esi n | nezu | nu | | | |
| ΠÜ | Iniver | site mezunu | | | Maste | er/Do | oktoi | ra m | ezun | ı | [| Diğ | ğer _ | | | | | | | |
| 6- I | Hayat | ınızın en büyük l | kısm | ını a | ışağı | dakil | erde | n ha | ngis | inde | geçi | rdini | iz? | | | | | | | |
| $\Box K$ | Сöy | □Kasab | a | [| □ Şe | hir | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 7- 7 | Гürkiy | ve'ye daha önce | göç | ettin | iz m | i? E | vet [| | Н | ayır | | | | | | | | | | |
| Eve | et ise | hangi şehirde ne | kada | ar sü | ire ka | aldın | ız: Ş | ehir | : | | | | | Sü | re: _ | | | | | _ |
| 8- I | Eve gi | ren toplam ortal | ama | aylı | k gel | ir mi | iktar | ını b | elirt | iniz. | | | | | | | | | | |
| □3 | 00 Le | va ve altı | | 1500 | -200 | 0 Le | va | | | 300 |)-500 | Lev | ⁄a | | | 200 | 0-30 | 00 L | eva | |
| □5 | 00-10 | 00 Leva | | 3000 | Lev | a ve | üzeı | i | | 100 | 0-15 | 00 L | eva | | | | | | | |
| 9- <i>I</i> | Aşağı | dakilerden hangi | si di | ni in | ancı | nızı e | en iy | i şel | kilde | ifac | le ed | er? | | | | | | | | |
| $\Box \mathbf{N}$ | 1üslüı | man □H | ıristi | yan | | [| ∃Ya | hud | i | | □İ | nanr | nıyo | rum | | Diğer | • | | | |
| | Kenc irtiniz | linizi dini inancı | nıza | ne k | adar | bağl | ı gö | rüyo | rsun | ıuz? | Aşağ | ģıdak | i ölç | ekte | dai | re iç | ine a | larak | [| |
| Hiç | bağlı | değilim 1 | | | 2 | | | •••• | .3 | | | | 4 | | • • • • • | 5 | Çol | к Ва | ğlıyı | m |
| 11- | Şu aı | ı yaşamakta oldı | ığun | uz ş | ehir? | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 12- | Aşağ | ıdaki ölçeğin ya | rdım | ıyla | ne d | erece | e Bu | lgar | ca ve | e Tü | kçe | konu | ışup, | oku | ıyup | , yaz | abilo | liğin | izi | |
| beli | irtiniz | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | Hiç iyi değil | P | ek iv | yi de | ğil | | İv | yi | | | Çok | iyi | | M | üker | nmel | | | |
| | | 1 | | | 2 | | | 3 | | | | 4 | - | | | 5 | | | | |
| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ſ | | | | Ko | onuşı | ma | | | | C | kum | ıa | | | | Y | azm | ıa | |] |
| - | Türk | çe | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 1 |
| - | Bulg | arca | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | - |

2. KISIM: Bulgaristan'daki Türkler

Değerli katılımcı, bu bölümde **Bulgaristan vatandaşlığınız ve Türk kimliğinizle** ilgili bir takım **ifadeleri değerlendirmeniz** istenmektedir. İfadelerin doğru veya yanlış cevabı yoktur, bizim ilgilendiğimiz şey ve önemli olan bu konularda sizin ne düşündüğünüz ve hissettiğinizdir. 1'den (kesinlikle katılımıyorum), 5'e (kesinlikle katılıyorum) kadar derecelendirilmiş ölçek üzerinde sizi en çok ifade ettiğini düşündüğünüz ve size en uygun gelen rakamı işaretleyiniz.

| | Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum | Katılmıyorum | Kararsızım | Katılıyorum | Kesinlikle Katılıyorum |
|---|----------------------------|--------------|------------|-------------|---------------------------|
| Kendimi diğer Bulgaristan vatandaşları gibi görüyorum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. Bulgaristan vatandaşı olmaktan gurur duyuyorum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Bulgaristan vatandaşı olmak kim olduğumun önemli bir parçasıdır. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Eğer biri Bulgaristan hakkında kötü söz söylerse benim hakkımda kötü söz söylemiş demektir. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Bazen Bulgaristan vatandaşı olmaktan hoşlanmıyorum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. Kendimi diğer Bulgaristan Türkleri gibi görüyorum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. Bulgaristan Türkü olmaktan gurur duyuyorum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Bulgaristan Türkü olmak kim olduğumun önemli bir parçasıdır. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. Eğer biri Bulgaristan Türkleri hakkında kötü söz söylerse benim hakkımda kötü söz söylemiş demektir. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. Bazen Bulgaristan Türkü olmaktan hoşlanmıyorum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Aşağıda Bulgaristan Türkleri ile ilgili hem sizin hem de başkalarının ne düşündüğü ve hissetliği ile ilgili bir takım ifadeler bulacaksınız. Sizden istediğimiz bu ifadelere ne derece katılıp katılmadığınızı değerlendirmenizdir. Değerlendirme yaparken, tüm Türkleri değil, sadece Bulgaristan Türklerini düşünerek cevap veriniz. Aynı şekilde başkalarını düşünürken de Bulgaristan'daki başkalarını düşünerek cevap veriniz. 1'den 5'e kadar derecelendirilmiş ölçek üzerinde sizin düşüncelerinize en uygun gelen rakamı işaretleyiniz.

| | Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum | Katılmıyorum | Kararsızım | Katılıyorum | Kesinlikle Katılıyorum |
|--|----------------------------|--------------|------------|-------------|---------------------------|
| 1. Türk olmaktan genelde memnunum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. Türk olmakla ilgili kendimi iyi hissediyorum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Türkler genelde başkaları tarafından iyi görülür. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Türk olmayan kişiler, genellikle Türklere saygı gösterir. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Bazen Türk olmaktan rahatsız oluyorum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. Bazen Türk olmanın faydalı olmadığını hissediyorum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. Başkaları Türklerin kötü olduğunu düşünüyorlar. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Çoğu insan, Türklerin genelde diğer gruplardan daha az başarılı olduğunu düşünüyor. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Aşağıdaki bölümde sizden **Bulgaristan Türkleri** ile ilgili bir takım ifadeleri **değerlendirmeniz** istenmektedir. Burada da yine, ifadelerin doğru veya yanlış cevabı yoktur. Lütfen sizin düşüncenize en uygun rakamı daire içine alarak işaretleyiniz.

| | Asla/ Hiç | Ara sıra/ Nadiren | Zaman zaman | Sik sik | Daima/ Her zaman |
|--|-----------|-------------------|-------------|---------|------------------|
| 1. Bulgaristan'da Türkler iş ararken ne sıklıkta ayrımcılık yaşar? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. Bulgaristan'da Türkler ev ararken ne sıklıkta ayrımcılık yaşar? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Bulgaristan'da Türkler sokakta ya da alışveriş yaparken ne sıklıkta ayrımcılık yaşar? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Bulgaristan'da Türkler okulda ya da işyerinde ne sıklıkta ayrımcılık yaşar? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Bulgaristan'da Türkler oturdukları mahallelerde ne sıklıkta ayrımcılık yaşar? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. Bulgaristan'da Türkler kendi kültürlerini yaşarken ne sıklıkta ayrımcılık yaşar? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. Bulgaristan'da Türkler kendi anadillerini (Türkçe) konuşurken ne sıklıkta ayrımcılık yaşar? | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Yine yukarıda vermiş olduğumuz 5 puanlı ölçeği kullanarak, bu kez **sizin Bulgaristan Türkü olarak yaşadıklarınız ve hissettiklerinizle** ilgili olarak aşağıda verilen ifadeleri değerlendiriniz.

| | Asla/ Hiç | Arasıra/ Nadiren | Zaman zaman | Sık sık | Daima |
|---|-----------|------------------|-------------|---------|-------|
| Bulgarlar tarafından kabul görmediğimi hissediyorum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. Türk olduğum için dalga geçildiğim ve hakarete uğradığım olmuştur. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Türk olduğum için insanların benden uzaklaştığı ya da aralarına almadığı olmuştur. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Bulgarların bana karşı olduklarını hissediyorum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

3. KISIM: Kişisel Özellikler

Değerli katılımcı, ikinci kısımda sizden kişisel özelliklerinizle ilgili değerlendirmeler isteyeceğiz. Bunun için aşağıda yine bir takım ifadeler sunuyoruz. Bunların doğru veya yanlış cevabı olmadığını hatırlatmak isteriz. Bu ifadelerin her bir ifade sizi ne kadar iyi anlatıyor? Lütfen ne derecede katıldığınızı ve bunların sizi ne kadar iyi tanımladığını uygun rakamı işaretleyerek belirtiniz.

| | Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum | Katılmıyorum | Kararsızım | Katılıyorum | Kesinlikle Katılıyorum |
|---|----------------------------|--------------|------------|-------------|---------------------------|
| 1. Ne olacağının önceden kestirilemediği durumlarda hep en iyi sonucu beklerim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. Kolayca gevşeyip rahatlayabilirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Bir işimin ters gitme olasılığı (ihtimali) varsa mutlaka ters gider. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Her şeyi hep iyi tarafından alırım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Geleceğim konusunda hep iyimserimdir. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. Arkadaşlarımla birlikte olmaktan hoşlanırım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. Yapacak bir şeylerimin olması benim için önemlidir. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. İşlerin istediğim gibi yürüyeceğini nerdeyse hiç beklemem. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. Hiçbir şey benim istediğim yönde gelişmez. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. Moralim öyle kolay kolay bozulmaz. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. Her türlü olayda iyi bir yan bulmaya çalışırım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. Başıma iyi şeylerin geleceğine pek bel bağlamam. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. Yeni bir durumla karşılaştığımda ne yapmam gerektiğini bilirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. Beklenmedik durumlarda nasıl davranmam gerektiğini her zaman bilirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. Bana karşı çıkıldığında kendimi kabul ettirecek çare ve yolları bulurum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. Ne olursa olsun, üstesinden gelirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. Güç sorunların çözümünü eğer gayret edersem her zaman başarırım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. Planlarımı gerçekleştirmek ve hedeflerime (amaçlarıma) erişmek bana güç gelmez. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. Bir sorunla karşılaştığım zaman onu halletmek için birçok fikrim vardır. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. Güçlükleri soğukkanlılıkla (sakin) karşılarım, çünkü yeteneklerime her zaman güvenebilirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. Ani (birdenbire çıkan) olayların da hakkından geleceğimi sanıyorum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22. Her sorun için bir çözümüm vardır. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Aşağıda **yaşamınızın geneli** ve **yaşamınızın bazı alanlarındaki doyumunuz** ile ilgili birtakım ifadeler verilmiştir. Lütfen söz konusu ifadelerin size uygunluğunu değerlendiriniz. Bunun için verilen 1 = Hiç uygun değil ve 5 = Tamamen Uygun şeklindeki ölçeği kullanarak, düşüncenizi yansıtan rakamı daire içine alınız.

| | Hiç uygun değil | Kısmen uygun | Uygun | Oldukça uygun | Tamamen uygun |
|---|--------------------|-----------------|-------|------------------|------------------|
| 1. Yaşamım idealime (hayallerime) büyük ölçüde yaklaşıyor. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. Yaşam koşullarım mükemmel. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Yaşamımdan memnunum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Hayatta şu ana kadar istediğim önemli şeylere sahip oldum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Yaşamımı bir daha yaşasaydım hiçbir şeyi değiştirmek istemezdim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Aşağıda, yine kişisel özellikleriniz ve çevrenizle ilgili verilmiş ifadeler bulacaksınız. Lütfen bunlara ne kadar katıldığınızı uygun rakamı işaretleyerek belirtiniz

| | Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum | Katılmıyorum | Kararsızım | Katılıyorum | Kesinlikle Katılıyorum |
|--|----------------------------|--------------|------------|-------------|---------------------------|
| 1. İhtiyacım olduğunda yanımda olan özel bir insan var. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. Sevinç ve kederlerimi paylaşabileceğim özel bir insan var. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Ailem bana gerçekten yardımcı olmaya çalışır. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. İhtiyacım olan duygusal yardımı ve desteği ailemden alırım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Beni gerçekten rahatlatan özel bir insan var. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. Arkadaşlarım bana gerçekten yardımcı olmaya çalışırlar. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. İşler kötü gittiğinde arkadaşlarıma güvenebilirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Sorunlarımı ailemle konuşabilirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. Sevinç ve kederlerimi paylaşabileceğim arkadaşlarım var. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. Yaşamımda duygularıma önem veren özel bir insan var. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. Kararlarımı vermede ailem bana yardımcı olmaya isteklidir. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. Sorunlarımı arkadaşlarımla konuşabilirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Aşağıda bir takım duygu ifadeleri bulunmaktadır. Lütfen bahsi geçen her bir duyguyu genel olarak yaşama sıklığınızı, uygun rakamı işaretleyerek belirtiniz.

| | Asla/ Hiç | Ara sıra | Bazen | Çoğunlukla | Daima | | Asla/ Hiç | Ara sıra | Bazen | Çoğunlukla | Daima |
|--------------|-----------|----------|-------|------------|-------|----------------------|-----------|----------|-------|------------|-------|
| 1. İlgili | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 11. Asabi | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. Sıkıntılı | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 12. Uyanık | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Heyecanlı | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 13. Utanmış | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Mutsuz | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 14. İlhamlı/Yaratıcı | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Güçlü | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 15. Sinirli | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. Suçlu | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 16. Kararlı | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. Ürkmüş | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 17. Dikkatli | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8.Düşmanca | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 18. Tedirgin | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. Hevesli | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 19. Aktif | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. Gururlu | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 20.Korkmuş | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |