T.C.

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DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

INTERGROUP DISCRIMINATION TOWARDS MIGRANTS AND REFUGEES IN LABOR MARKET HIRING DECISIONS

Doctoral Dissertation

Ekin NAKAY

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ISTANBUL, 2024

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Supervisor: Doç. Dr. Nurgül Keleş TAYŞİR

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ETHICAL DECLARATION

This thesis has been prepared as original which I have undertaken by the rules specified in the Istanbul Ticaret University Graduate Education and YÖK Regulations. I declare that I have completely complied with academic ethical rules, I have cited the relevant works of authors that I have used as references, and that I have not cited detailed sections as is. The entire content of this thesis constitutes my own personal views and by no means does it reflect the official view of İstanbul Ticaret University.

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Ekin Nakay, Istanbul

ABSTRACT

Rational decision-making in organizations is explained as perceived impartiality or normatively and appropriately adhered processes or outcomes at work (Burton et al., 2008) regardless of disturbing social, economic and political climate surroundings. Our research intended to study multiple dimensions of *Categorization*, that is ethnicity of rater versus target group members, and job statuses of applicants, in *Context* of labor market selection and hirings, as migrants on *Target,* that is the most controversial debate in Turkiye today. The target audience was the Syrian migrants as a stigmatized outgroup in an extremely corrosive form, that is hostility, and Uzbek nationals displaying lighter ethnic salience which is overlooked, indulged, or tolerated. The ethnic identities of the two parties-*rater and the applicant*- were the critical pillar of our model. Hence, theoretical conceptualization via Social Identification and Categorization, Subjective Uncertainty Reduction, Social Comparison, and Integrated Threat theories were the fundamental drivers to explain the predictive power of our hypothesis. The research was conducted as an online self-reporting survey by which 232 participants-166 female and 66 male- responded in two parts. The first part dealt with the selection decisions over applicants, containing one native and two diverse migrant candidates for each position. The second part drilled on raters' ethnic orientation/intensity, and the integrated threat they perceived, and assessed the predictability of these constructs on raters' attitudes in reaching selection decisions. Questionnaires are composed of items derived from the measures that have been developed to explain these theories, combined with ethnic demography and job statuses moderating selection processes, reflecting hiring and ranking preferences.

The findings of the research have indicated that; Turks as a native ingroup have been outrightly discriminated favoring as "*Bias For"* and this tendency was fundamentally influenced by Ethnic Cognition, and Realistic Threat acting only as supplementary factor. However, it was the Realistic Threat that determined the severe discrimination as "*Bias Against"* Syrians, and rather a moderate scale of discrimination directed toward Uzbeks, owing this differentiation mainly to ethnic proximity with the raters', but still moderated by Realistic Threat and considerably affected by Ethnic Cognition. Ethnic Cognition did not

correlate with Realistic Threat, although they acted in parallel causing combined regression weight. Symbolic Threat generated multicollinearity with Realistic Threat, and it was the one we sacrificed from the study due to its low loading and exhibiting statistical insignificance in our trial tests. In general, discrimination has proven to be an infectious malign, and once exposed by individual, develops the potential to reproduce and contagiously multiply. The prediction that women are more conscientious in their discriminatory behavior, either being victims of discrimination or not, was not confirmed in our research, and they did not demonstrate material differentiation with men in their decisions, and women who have experienced gender discrimination have exhibited stronger threat predictions.

Keywords: ***Ethnic discrimination, Syrian refugees, migrants, integrated threat, labor market discrimination, intergroup bias, hiring discrimination.***

ÖZET

Örgütlerde rasyonel karar verme, çevredeki olumsuz sosyal, ekonomik ve siyasi iklim etkilerinden bağımsız, tarafsızlık veya normatif ilkelere bağımlı süreçler veya işletme çıkarımları olarak açıklanmaktadır (Burton vd., 2008). Araştırmamız, bugün Türkiye'de en tartışmalı dış grup olarak hedefte Suriyeli göçmenler olduğu için, kategorizasyonun çoklu boyutlarını, yani değerlendiricinin etnik kökeninin karşısında hedef grup üyesinin etnisite ve görev statüleri dikkate alınarak işe alma bağlamında ayrımcılık olgularını inceleyecektir. Araştırma, gerçek hayattaki deneyimlerde karşılıklı etkileşimi değerlendirmek üzere etnik köken ve algılanan entegre tehdidin yordamlama gücünü test etmeyi amaçlamıştır. Tezimizin hedef kitlesi, damgalanmış dış grup profilini aşırı yıpratıcı bir biçimde, yani nefret öğesiyle temsil eden önemli bir dış grup olarak Suriyeli göçmenler ve göz ardı edilen, hoş görülen veya tolere edilen daha düşük etnik belirginlik sunan daha kabul gören dış grup özelliklerini temsil eden Özbek adaylardır. İki tarafın (değerlendirici ve başvuran aday) etnik kimliği modelimizin kritik belirleyicisidir. Dolayısıyla, Sosyal Özdeşleşme ve Kategorizasyon, Algılanmış Belirsizliğin Azaltılması, Sosyal Karşılaştırma ve Bütünleşik Tehdit teorileri aracılığıyla kavramsallaştırma, tezimizin yordamlama gücünü açıklamak için kullandığımız temel kavramlardır. Araştırma, 166'sı kadın ve 66'sı erkek olmak üzere 232 katılımcının yanıt verdiği çevrimiçi öz bildirim anketi şeklinde iki bölüm halinde gerçekleştirilmiştir. İlk bölümde, her bir pozisyon için bir yerli ve iki göçmenden oluşan farklı düzeydeki iş statüleri için başvuru sahiplerinin seçimi ele alınmıştır. İkinci bölümde, değerlendiricilerin etnik yönelimleri/yoğunlukları ve algıladıkları bütünleşik tehdit incelenmiş ve bu yapıların değerlendiricilerin seçim kararlarına ulaşmadaki tutumları üzerindeki öngörülebilirliği değerlendirilmiştir. Anketler, bu teorileri açıklamak için geliştirilen ölçeklerden türetilen maddeleri, etnik demografi ve görev statüsü ile birlikte, başta işe alma ve sıralama tercihleri olmak üzere örgütsel karar vermeyi yönlendiren etkenleri içermektedir. Araştırma bulguları göstermiştir ki; iç grup olarak Türkler açıkça Önyargı Kayırmacılığına uğramıştır ve bu eğilim temelde Etnik Biliş tarafından belirlenmiştir, burada Gerçekçi Tehdit sadece tamamlayıcı moderatör olarak hareket etmektedir. Bununla birlikte, Suriyeliler için Önyargı olarak şiddetli ayrımcılığı belirleyen Gerçekçi Tehdit olmuştur ve Özbeklere yönelik oldukça ılımlı ayrımcılık ölçeği, bu farklılaşmayı esas olarak karar vericilerle etnik yakınlığa

borçludur, yine de Gerçekçi Tehdit tarafından etkilenmektedir, ancak etnik biliş tarafından önemli ölçüde desteklenmektedir. Etnik Biliş, vektörel regresyon değer artışına neden olacak şekilde paralel hareket etmelerine rağmen Gerçekçi Tehdit ile korelasyon göstermemiştir. Sembolik Tehdit, Gerçekçi Tehdit ile "multicollinearity" oluşturması, düşük faktör yüklemesi ve deneme testlerimizde istatistiksel önemsizlik sergilemesi nedeniyle analiz dışında bıraktığımız bir faktör olmuştur. Ayrımcılığın bir müsibet olduğu, herhangi bir birey tarafından maruz kalındığında, yeniden üretilme ve bulaşıcı olarak çoğalma potansiyeli geliştirdiği kanıtlanmıştır**.** Ayrımcılık mağduru olsun veya olmasın, kadınların ayrımcılık davranışlarında daha vicdanlı olduğu öngörüsü araştırmamızda doğrulanmamıştır. Özellikle cinsiyet ayrımına uğramış kadınların korku güdüsünü daha kuvvetli devreye soktukları gözlemlenmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler**:** ***Etnik ayrımcılık, Suriyeli mülteciler, göçmenler, entegre tehdit, işgücü piyasası ayrımcılığı, gruplar arası önyargı, işe alım ayrımcılığı***

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ABBREVIATIONS USED IN ANALYSIS

E_ Search (Latent Var.): Ethnic Identity Search (Cognitive dimension) representing first 5 items of MEIM measure,

E_ABC (Latent Var.): Affirmation, Belonging, and Commitment (Affective dimension) following 6 items of MEIM measure,

MEIM: Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure

P1_Group: When we select and collate all the 1st ranking scores of High-Status Job

P2_Group: When we select and collate all the 2nd ranking scores of High-Status Job

P3_Group: When we select and collate all the 3rd ranking scores of High-Status Job

P1_L_Group: When we select and collate all the 1st ranking scores of Low-Status Job

P2_L_Group: When we select and collate all the 2nd ranking scores of Low -Status Job

P3_L_Group: When we select and collate all the 3rd ranking scores of Low -Status Job

RTHR (Latent Var.): Realistic Threat

SCH (Independent Var.): Confidence in Decision for High Status Job for Syrian

SIH (Independent Var.): Invitation Score for High-Status Job for Syrian

SPH (Dependent Category Var.): Ranking Score for High Status Job for Syrian

SSH (Independent Var.): Suitability Score for High Status Job for Syrian

SCL (Independent Var.): Confidence in Decision for Low Status Job for Syrian

SIL (Independent Var.): Invitation Score for Low Status Job for Syrian

SPL (Dependent Category Var.): Ranking Score for Low Status Job for Syrian

SSL (Independent Var.): Suitability Score for Low Status Job for Syrian

STHR (Latent Var.): Symbolic Threat

TCH (Independent Var.): Confidence in Decision for High Status Job for Turk

TIH (Independent Var.): Invitation Score for High Status Job for Turk

TPH (Dependent Category Var.): Ranking Score for High-Status Job for Turk

TSH (Independent Var.): Suitability Score for High Status Job for Turk

TCL (Independent Var.): Confidence in Decision for Low Status Job for Turk

TIL (Independent Var.): Invitation Score for Low Status Job for Turk

TPL (Dependent Category Var.): Ranking Score for Low Status Job for Turk

TSL (Independent Var.): Suitability Score for Low Status Job for Turk

UCH (Independent Var.): Confidence in Decision for High Status Job for Uzbek

UIH (Independent Var.): Invitation Score for High Status Job for Uzbek

UPH (Dependent Category Var.): Ranking Score for High Status Job for Uzbek

USH (Independent Var.): Suitability Score for High Status Job for Uzbek

UCL (Independent Var.): Confidence in Decision for High Status Job for Uzbek

UIL (Independent Var.): Invitation Score for High Status Job for Uzbek

UPL (Dependent Category Var.): Ranking Score for High Status Job for Uzbek

USL (Independent Var.): Suitability Score for High Status Job for Uzbek

I. INTRODUCTION

Categorization and discrimination driven by bias and perceived threat are two heuristic grounds on which ingroup favoritism and prejudice are predicated respectively and form mainstream theoretical antecedents to explain the implications and consequences on organizational demography (Pfeffer, 1983). One prominent focus that has attracted a great deal of attention over the years is the issue of ethnic discrimination in job selection. Fewer minorities in proportion are selected for employment than natives, especially when organizations use certain selection techniques (Gottfredson, 1988). This has caused concern over the fairness and possible presence of intentional discrimination in selection processes (Gottfredson, 1988; Schmidt, 1988).

Discrimination in the workforce involves multivariate dimensions composed of national and organizational cultures, management strategies, personal priori, and, socio-economic and socio-psychological factors in effect. Deciding how to select employees and which employees to hire are decisions that affect all aspects of an organization. The wrong decision can be detrimental to the organization in a variety of ways, such as reduced performance, interpersonal conflict, and other negative outcomes. Therefore, organizations must seriously consider the selection techniques they adopt.

Selection bias involves various categorical portfolio like ethnicity (Portes & Rumbaut, 1996), race (Dovidio et al., 2002; Reskin et al., 1999), education (Halaby, 2003; Rosenbaum et al., 1990), functional background-marketing, engineering (Chelladurai, 2005), gender (Chatman, 2004; Heilman et al., 1995; Reskin 1993), tenure (Reagans & Zuckerman, 2001; Sorensen & Stuart, 2000) and age (Zenger & Lawrence, 1989). The relevance of any to impact workforce diversity is directly determined by the context affecting the intergroup interaction and outcomes.

Classical society identifies three relational and structural characteristics of inequality in workforce diversity, these are, numbers, status, and power (DiTomaso et al., 2007). These characteristics are interrelated and, shape and impact group dynamics;

- Power indicates the capacity to access and determine the dispersion or allocation of scarce resources.
- Status indicates the leveling and deference among groups and individuals leading to stronger control of resources and capturing opportunities, and whether a person deserves to be treated properly. Those in low status may attempt to resort to social change or social mobility to improve their position (Tajfel & Turner, 1986).
- Numbers indicate the size and volume of commonly shared characteristics of the groups affecting the relationships and controlling organizations to their favor, facilitating to access resources and consequently enhancing the status.

Selection bias in hiring (or unfair treatment) is evident when an outgroup and an ingroup applicant who have identical competence for performance, both go through the selection process and the ingroup applicant is favored because of similarity preference (Gottfredson, 1988). Numerous field experiments have demonstrated the existence of discrimination in labor markets against specific minority groups based on proximity to salient ethnicity or race. The degree of salience surrounding a minority member's identity is directly proportional to the degree of their categorization as "being other," as well as their likelihood of experiencing prejudicial or discriminatory behaviors. This proportional relationship between salience and prejudicial behaviors is articulated as the Prejudice Distribution Account (Kaiser & Wilkins, 2010, p. 461), "highly identified minorities report more frequent experiences with prejudice than weakly identified minorities, in part, because majority group members do react more negatively toward highly identified minorities than they do toward the weakly identified".

This study will test to determine in our specific context whether this discrimination is due to prejudice against specific groups, or a general preference for the majority group substantiated by the desire to reduce strategic uncertainty through the homophilic propensities. We intend to explain three established determinants of intergroup bias—identification salience, conflict as Realistic threat, and perceived Symbolic threat—across categorization dimensions (ethnicity and job status) in context of hiring intention and ranking. But first, we attempt to investigate the extant migrant climate in Turkiye, how it is perceived, and what the general public opinion and attitudes towards migrants, particularly to Syrians are.

1.1 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Job suitability and hiring decisions are one particular area of social psychology and organizational management that may be encountered as ingroup bias (preference-based "*biased for*") and outgroup discrimination (belief-based derogation and "*biased against*") with heuristic as well as cognitive behavior of individuals and groups as social identities.

Refugees, guests, or migrants, whatever attributions they are ascribed, will be the source of a plethora of disputes, conflicts, challenges, and lessons to be learned at the macro as well as micro level, economically, socially, politically, and socio psychologically. OECD's (2010) study shows that barriers persist even for the offspring of migrants. Politicians neglect to address this crucial social adversary through constant postponement and ambivalence which is conducive to spawning insurmountable attritions on the hosting and migrating parties. This proves to be the pertinent time now for Turkiye, having been exposed to an unprecedented mass of migrant influx nurturing all kinds of discrimination practices, diffusing and permeating into every element of society. Labor market selection practices are not immune to the predicament of prejudicial and biased attitudes which contaminate a sustainable business climate in the long run.

The very existence of discrimination of one kind is usually indicative of other sorts such as gender, age, education, religion, etc. and one may trigger the others, infectiously penetrating in-group or out-group. Furthermore, discrimination may manifest itself in various attitudes, subtle or blatant, and ignoring, humiliation, arrogance, indifference, etc.

As of 2024, the official report of the number of temporary guests legally inhabiting Turkiye has reached 3,1 million Syrian and 1,5 million others, mainly Afghans leading by far and followed by Uzbek, Azeri, Iranian, and Armenian origins (*Directorate General of Migration Management, Ministry of Internal Affairs, Turkiye*) although unofficial figures are estimated higher (*European Council on Refugees and Exiles*).

The illegitimate, unregulated, and unorganized nature of human migration presents quantitative and qualitative human, social, economic, and pathologic disorders in hosting

countries. These are reflected as inequalities in opportunities, outgroup segregation, and derogation in labor markets through stereotypic judgments.

The current picture relating to our research in Turkiye today can be articulated as; macroeconomic and socio-political cleavages perpetuating and nurturing uncertainty, resource availability, and allocation challenges leading to intergroup conflicts, competitions, and threat perceptions between the minority groups indicating guest labor force- outgroup and the majority indicating native labor force- ingroup.

1.2. PURPOSE OF THE DISSERTATION

Harmony in a work environment is conducive to better performance, motivation, and constructive organizational behaviors. Discrimination of any kind, preference, or belief based, directed towards race/ethnicity, gender, age, or job status is a pernicious act ascribed to not only individual values, attitudes, and beliefs, but to organizational policies, structures, and contrived practices. This research will test the validity and pertinence of a multidimensional model, given the extant socio-political situation in Turkiye, to foresee potential social pathologies that can be encountered, and activate an early warning proactively.

The dominant literature in the selection and hiring contexts generally considers stigmatized ethnic group members as a monolithic category and does not treat them distinctly (Avery et al., 2004; King et al., 2006). However, the job selection processes associated with minorities generally involve a multidimensional facets, namely Ethnic and Occupational Status categorizations (Kulik et al., 2007). Furthermore, decision makers' ethnic intensity and motivation to cope with perceived threats generated by social and economic conflicts, and uncertainty avoidance reflexes considerably moderate the prejudice and hence, discrimination.

The study will also investigate how victimized people exhibit attitudes, and women in that sense, having been exposed to gender discrimination in particular, will react and evaluate in applicant assessments and ranking selections, as compared to the attitudes of people in general or men who had no prior experience with perceived discrimination.

1.3. ORIGINALITY OF RESEARCH

This study may open novel horizons to multiethnicity not only in the work-life environments but also in society in general which Turkiye had not been exposed to as much as some developed countries have had. Previous research concerning migrants in Turkiye has largely focused on public opinion investigations particularly bringing Syrians to the fore without a specific context. Only a few studies have been found investigating attitudes influenced by ethnicity in general, in this respect, but not the labor market recruitment decisions, and not priming Syrians in particular in comparing hierarchically with other minorities, which we believe deserves special attention, as an under-researched unique phenomenon.

Previous research has overlooked the size of minority groups which are Syrians and Turkic origins in a comparative sense which they impact and motivate the strength and depth of discrimination, in multiple contexts addressing ethnicity and job status engendering different socio-structural as well as economic implications. These differences should be refined to elaborate, on the genuine predictability by size and vocational status dimensions of migrant minority groups, as they reflect attitudinal responses of high social status majority group when acting as recruiters, to make realistic assessments. These assessments will be carried out in two stages; a) evaluating the candidates and b) selecting/preferring the candidates.

This study is unique, in introducing combining effects, in determining victimized peoples' attitudes, in particular women as a stigmatized category, to explore their attitudes as recruiters of dominant ethnicity group as well as using gender as control variables, to observe how they differ from men in a discriminative platform. Women, especially victimized women, not as targets of prejudice, but differently as potential sources of prejudice will contribute to the literature and trigger enlightening debates.

1.4. THE FUNDAMENTAL QUESTIONS

This dissertation will deal with issues in a multivariate fashion to achieve statistically significant analysis. We search for answers to some fundamental questions as such;

What roles do the level of ingroup identification and/or the degree of ethnicity orientation play in hiring decisions? As such, Rater (subject) and Applicant (target) traits interact with each other.

What roles do ethnical differences between outgroups (Turkic origins versus Syrians-Arabic origins) play in hiring decisions?

What are the consensual stereotypes toward the outgroups? Their predictability.

What are the Communal information biases for outgroups and what roles do positive ingroup bias play in decisions? What is the relative predictability of ethnicity (identity) versus threat (interactions)

How people exposed to discrimination behave compared to non-exposed, and women in that respect, if they exhibit any moderation in their decisions, especially when they are experienced gender discrimination versus other discrimination types?

1.5. TERMINOLOGIES

There are often confounded connotations of the terminology applied for the expression of intergroup, interpersonal, or intragroup relations, members' attitudes, and behaviors. Therefore, it is critical to level off the common understanding of the sociopsychological phenomenon in the context of group interactions. Literature tends to explain the incidents in an interchangeable fashion causing further abstractions of the matters. We provide concise explanations of the related terminology to stay on the same page in discussing subtle connotations whereby illuminating the nuances.

Immigrant: "A person who moves into a country other than that of his or her nationality or usual residence, so that the country of destination effectively becomes his or her new country of usual residence" (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Recommendations on Statistics of International Migration, Revision 1 (1998) p. 10, definition of "long-term migrants").

Migrant: We used the term to denote those incoming foreign-origin asylum seekers fleeing abnormal conditions, but are not considered refugees according to the stipulation Turkiye imposed when signing the Geneva Convention, 1951, and follow-up laws and decrees drawn upon this reservation.

Refugee: According to the Geneva Convention, 1951, Turkiye has signed an exception to a general rule and stipulated "geographical restriction" and only consented to those incoming from Europe as "*Refugees*".

Asylum seekers: Individuals who are seeking international protection whose claim has not been decided on by the hosting country (United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, Master Glossary of Terms, 2006; International protection, migrant, refugee (mandate), refugee, 1951 Convention)

Temporary Guests/Temporary Refugees: According to the Geneva Convention, 1951, Turkiye has signed an exception to general rule and stipulated "geographical restriction" to those incoming non-West Europeans as "*Temporary or Conditional Refugees*" and provides secondary protection status. Syrians and other non-European migrants in Turkiye are subject to "temporary protection" under the "Temporary Protection Regulation". Therefore, we refrain from calling them "Refugees" and use the term "Migrants" to represent not only the Syrians but other non-European nationals throughout our paper.

Minorities: Minority group implies the conception of people composed of lesser populations however, it actually defines groups with disproportional amount of power and representativeness when compared with dominant group, regardless of population size.

1.6. ORGANIZATION OF DISSERTATION

The dissertation is organized as follows. First, in the introduction ethnic identity as the core predictor of biased attitudes and behaviors is explained. Ethnic discrimination in the context of labor market selection processes is also discussed. We proceed with describing the particular surroundings and climate that our thesis has set out to resolve and analyze the endemic migration phenomenon Turkiye is facing. The second chapter deals with Theoretical

Backgrounds mainly on discrimination triggered by ethnic identity (similarity), and conflict and competition with outgroups expressed as integrated threats. Then we cover the fundamental constructs of our thesis leading to the development of the hypothesis together with the conceptualization of our model of research. In chapter three we introduce the research methodology including the sampling, instruments, and research approach. Chapter four will deal with descriptive and empirical analysis and draw statistical inferences. Finally, we present the empirical findings in Chapter Five, and literature and organizational implications, and limitations of future research recommendations preceding the conclusions. The thesis will be wrapped up with references and appendixes.

1.7. TURKIYE'S MIGRANTS PERSPECTIVE

Although the target of this study is the non-western migrants of the Middle Easterners in particular and Turkic origins in Turkiye, the volume dictates the focus of our concentration, hence we take Syrians as the dominant outgroup worth examining the selection and hiring propensities in the labor market in general. We also have picked up candidates of Uzbek as Turkic origins to shed light on differentiated biases and discriminations of raters in comparison with Syrians, based on the potential threat that the volume presumed to demonstrate, and salience of similarities and kinship bonds as preferential predictors.

The demographic studies on migrants exhibit overwhelming majority of Syrian migrants currently living in Turkiye. Latest available statistics according to the Directorate General of Migration Management demonstrate that Syrians who have been fleeing to Turkiye since the outbreak of civil war in April 2011 to seek refuge in "temporary protection status" have reached 3,293,934 (https://www.goc.gov.tr/arama/ara/suriyeli%20sayısı, Sept. 2023). Those who came before 2011 and obtained residence permits amounted to 99,643, those who came before 2011 without any registration are around 50,000, and those who have been granted citizenship as of April 2022 are 192,000 as stated by the state interior ministry.

Intergroup contact, daily encounters, and individuating information are claimed to improve intergroup relationships and interdependencies in an affirmative way (Allport, 1954; Pettigrew, 1998). Almost all the public opinion research, including those sponsored by

German institutions, have concluded that the situation in Turkiye against the Syrians has proven otherwise. Only a few of the sampled population with close business associations have stated positive opinions contrary to the overwhelming majority who are either regretting or refusing any contact with Syrians and Afghans. Therefore, intergroup contact theory has contingency upon other factors, and intergroup contact does not necessarily reduce bias when moderated by perceived threat, on the contrary, it may lead to further social distancing, prejudice and animosity boosting drastic segregations (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2011).

Therefore, any categorization or practice employed to reduce bias caused by ethnic identities (ethnic differentiations in our case), should consider other mediators governing those antecedents such as threats and anxieties. As stated throughout our thesis, the threat has been fostering the attitudes and behaviors of the public, leading to discrimination, and we would like to test how this social psychology affects the labor market selection decisions within the framework of our dissertation, elaborating attitudes and behaviors on ethnic minority outgroups as Syrians and Uzbeks.

1.7.1. Syrians

Turkiye, although a signee of the 1951 Geneva Convention, applies a dyadic rule to Western incomings as “Refugees”, and for other non-European asylum seekers apply geographical restriction and provide temporary protection just as has been done for people fleeing Syria. Therefore, the term refugee or asylum-seeker used in daily life does not indicate the true meaning for Syrians, they are the guests under temporary protection status that should return home when the war is over and their safety is secured, thereby we use the term “migrant” to indicate the target non-natives and non-Europeans residing in Turkiye. However, this does not seem to be the case in practical life. The public has the perception that Syrians will not return home, they abuse the good intentions of Turkish people and they pose an immense burden with an alarming rate of fertility, disturbing social norms, and conflicting interests regarding economic and social foundations. In 2013 Turkiye issued “The Law on the Foreigners and International Protection” that regulates the inflow of Syrians and had an addendum in 2014 specifying the status of Syrians with the principle of geographical restriction, as temporary protection in congruence with international law.

1.7.2. Other Migrants

The number of non-Syrian "others" who are subject to temporary status protection has reached to total of 470,000 as of July 2019, out of which 170,000 Afghans, 142,000 Iraqis, and 39,000 Iranians. After the Taliban regime took over Afghanistan in 2022, these irregular migrants, particularly Afghan origins have been ongoing as a detrimental influx causing immense tension in society. The psychological tension limits of the natives are being stretched out nurturing disgrace, resentment, and prejudice over the individuals who were traditionally so tolerant, hospitable, and compassionate. Some even describe the current situation as a matter of national security and existence.

Our study will more focus on Syrians as they are the dominating, crucially determining factor constituting the general discriminative climate in the country, and a strong predictor influencing general public attitudes at an unprecedented gravity.

Education

According to International Crisis Group' s (ICG), the Syrians arriving in 2015 were reported to exhibit around 30% illiteracy. The educational gap with Turkey has broadly contributed to the anxiety between Turks and Syrian migrants. Education level and literacy are other problem areas with migrants, particularly Syrians who migrated from the rural north of their country possessing traditional culture, and systematic oppression of Assad's regime's purposeful policies of withholding access to education services to the dissidents. Those migrants who trespassed Turkiye for the Western countries though, were believed to hold much higher educational and professional levels in contrast to the remnants which are drastically far below compared to natives as indicated by many revealing studies

One excerpt that summarizes the general feeling of natives is "*The most educated, the learned Syrians, those wealthy families who live near Damascus, or the wealthy families of Aleppo. When war broke out, all of them had already fled to Europe. And there is one more thing, The United States has also already taken in what they want to take in. A Syrian professor was advertised on the CIA's webpage. It announced: "Welcome to America and we thank you in advance for the labor you will contribute." Excuse my language, but we, in the meanwhile, were left with the scum of the earth, the*

beggars, the usurers, the menial workers, the gypsies, the fiddlers, and the idlers. (Morgül et al., 2021)

Employment

One of the problems conducive to negative attitudes towards Syrians is a massive influx of cheap workforce into the labor market. This concern is not baseless since Turkiye has no prior experience in handling such a capacity to integrate into the labor market without harming domestic balances. This is not the only anxiety shared by low-status workforce, but at the corporate level, this creates similar tension as they have to face fierce competition triggered by the informal labor force. To mitigate this issue, the state has facilitated work permits for those who have registered to live in Turkiye for a minimum of six months before a work permit was issued. This however, even though aimed at adapting Syrians into formal employment and establishing them into legitimized economic status, did not meet the expectations, and official workforce records did not reflect the accurate data (est. 1,2 million), instead only a small fraction (32.000) of the Syrian workforce was officially registered in the labor market. This indicates that legitimizing their labor was not good enough for Syrians under temporary protection, leading to unregistered economic activities to damage the fiscal stability of the state and social welfare balance (Erdogan, 2015, 2018).

1.7.3. Public Opinion Research conducted targeting Syrians in Turkiye

There have been several public opinion studies for migrants in Turkiye, particularly focusing on Syrians. The findings of these studies generally express Turkish people's feelings, although more severely on Syrians, but to all asylum seekers, exhibiting cultural and social distance, either ignoring or marginalizing as pariahs, despite the religious commonalities and racial kinships with some. Turkiye had already been segregated in dyadic lifestyles as secular western modernity and religiosity extending to pietism, yet this issue is seen as a detrimental divestiture of Turkish acquis by both. The studies carried out by Morgul and Savaskan, 2021 suggest that Western evaluations, approaches, and judgments to migration issues cannot be generalized to the Turkish case in which natives' perception of economic conflict overruling the religious brotherhood motives even among conservatives. Therefore, ethnic or religious

similarity becomes irrelevant and dysfunctional when faced with economic and social welfare concerns in the Turkish case even though governing religiosity narratives advise otherwise. Another study by SODEV, *2021* reports that the native population even though show compassion and humanity for migrants in child and adult education, health, and accommodation services, a broad majority (84,2%) demands Syrians to return home soonest and complain about the economic (75,6%) and material threat they pose as well as the intrusion of lifestyles and cultural incongruences. Earlier research by Erdogan, *2019* asserts that the majority of over 3,6 million Syrian migrants are inclined to stay permanently in Turkiye. The author advises that the state should accept this reality and prepare a cohesive plan to set a co-existing platform. The report, as opposed to and contradicted by the succeeding studies, notwithstanding the deep neglect and resistance of the Turkish society at large, recommends a European point of view stating that the state somehow should conduct a proper approach with the European Union and devise a method of accepting Syrians as permanent citizens rather than as people searching for asylums. This will have economic and social consequences on the Turkish people, and the author advises cooperation in burden sharing with the EU, meaning finance from them and hosting from Turkiye. In another study, a book sponsored by UNHCR (Syrian Barometer, 2019), Erdogan suggests that the Turkish state should face it and make necessary arrangements and develop policies to accept Syrians as citizens so as not to cause any further issues neither for Turkish populations nor for Syrians.

One other study undertaken by TUSES (the Social, Economic, and Political Research Foundation of Turkey) with the support of German Heinrich Böll Stiftung foundation-Turkey branch, authored by Morgul, Savaskan and Mutlu is "*Attitudes toward Syrian refugees in Istanbul: partisanship, xenophobia, threat perceptions, and social contact*". The conceptual trajectory of this study evolves around the emotional distance between natives and Syrian migrants, and the methodological justification of compromising with permanent settlements or even granting citizenship to Syrian migrants. Justification was summarized under seven captions; (1) demographic variables, (2) political discourses, (3) nationalism and xenophobia, (4) lifestyle concerns, (5) economic concerns, (6) concerns about security, and (7) intergroup contact. We find this grouping theoretically and empirically purposefully meaningful.

Turkish public attitudes and behaviors can be wrapped up as; severe security and lifestyle-related anxiety, perception of economic exploitation of already scarce economic resources, and inability to keep distance -mentally, emotionally, physically- from Syrians in daily encounters.

This sociopsychological and socioeconomic posture is the ground on which we lay our dissertation in the context of selection decisions in the labor market under the influence of the above-defined climate at large.

While presenting our arguments shaped by the foregoing facts and findings we will be focusing on views;

- Ethnic homophily plays a decisive role in discrimination in the labor market—i.e., anyone who is not a member of one's ethnic group is treated differently.
- Testing how migration coming from geographic areas unknown to the native population will face discrimination in the labor market.
- From the policy perspective, contemplating methodologies and programs that filter out as many ethnicity categorization effects as possible in the job matching processes through the anonymity of resume identities.

II. CONCEPTUALIZATIONS and LITERATURE REVIEW

The history of humanity is all about survival within group dynamics. Human beings have always been engaged in and attached to some sort of groups formed by kinship, demographic commonalities, or simply by some arbitrary criteria of selection, like owning a brand of motorbikes, classical cars or hobbies, but all have one common characteristic that they do it in a group which we call "ingroup", which usually is positioned against segregated another which we call "outgroup". The group dynamics are circumvented by two complementary paradigms- Social Identity Theory (Tajfel, 1981; Tajfel & Turner, 1979), Categorization Theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Tajfel, 1981, 1982; Turner, 1982; Turner et al., 1987) and Realistic Group Conflict Theory (Sherif & Sherif, 1969, 1979).

An ingroup is a complicated and multifaceted social entity highly influenced by human and social psychology, structured by cultural properties, and constructed by economic behaviors and social ecology. It can be formed in individualist and collectivist cultural settings, with different motivations, through dissimilar processes, and leading to different individual, social, economic, and psychological consequences. Self-interest is not the sole incentive to engage in ingroup favoritism, but understanding the psychology of intergroup and interpersonal activities is crucial in explaining this phenomenon (Chen, 2019).

The most commonly recognized motive of group attachment in organizational research is "*belonging*", which can be associated with affiliation needs (Kenrick et al., 2010). The next commonly accepted motive described by Colquitt et al. 2005 and Lind, Tyler & Huo, 1997, is "*esteem/status*" needs. Another motive is the "*reduction of uncertainty*" which is not a unique one in itself but is related to self-protection, affiliation, and esteem (Lind & Van den Bos, 2002). The priorities and strength of these needs and motives are moderated heavily by dominating cultures that craft the propensity of society as well as individuals, utilize and normatively espouse the instrumentalization of favoritism, with social and organizational consequences. Therefore, we can argue that self-esteem and individual uncertainty avoidance are fundamentally decisive and conducive to the emergence of group phenomenon, and responsible for the implications that were born thereafter.

2.1. CONCEPTUAL REVIEW

Groups are the basic envelope of social identity and activity revolving around three facets;

- Individual Cognition and Salience: Members categorize themselves cognitively activating their salience (self-definition) to exert influence on others, in return membership influences an individual's attitudes and behaviors to cohere with the group (Turner et al., 1987).
- Group Development and Entitativity: Groups develop in five stages, forming, storming, norming, performing, and adjourning (Tuckman & Jensen, 1977), and in each stage, people interact with two kinds of behaviors: Task behaviors, Socio-emotional behaviors.
- Intergroup Context: Salience of membership renders intergroup confrontation, such as competition for scarce resources or social status. However, group salience has no impact if intergroup context is absent.

This chapter deals with self-definition and group cognitions/salience/processes and behaviors driving people to preferential treatment of the group (ingroup favoritism), and discriminative confrontations with the outgroups.

2.1.1. Social and Psychological Conceptions of Group

Groups are pervasive sociopsychological and sociobiological phenomena formed around innate human necessities. The inherited human disposition to meet these necessities involves cognitive and affective perspectives which entail certain individual attitudes and behaviors, that we call group dynamics, through which human beings manifest themselves in assorted categorizations. The following lines address these fundamental constituents of group phenomenon.

2.1.1.1. Group Dynamics

A group cannot be defined as a simple aggregation of people. People gathering in a movie theater do not indicate a group just because they share the same physical space. The core of the definition of contemporary social psychologists is that "social cognition" indicates not

necessarily an actual interaction or interdependency among the individuals, but perceived similarities that promise potential or imaginary influences on interactions. It is perceived that sharing the same social category is the driver of actual interactions through the homogeneity and similarity of the members. Cognition-oriented social psychologists define groups as perceived similarities of members, not binding the definition to member interactions or interdependencies. Social category is the core group process, and it is the members' similarities or homogeneity that induce intragroup or intergroup interactions (Campbell, 1958).

The works of Tajfel et al. (1971, 1979, 1981), Turner et al. (2001, 2002), Yamagishi and Kiyonar (2000) have grounded on and explained the psychological factors engendering discriminative attitudes and behaviors, those are namely social identification, categorization, and reciprocity. Reciprocity is usually reflected as prosocial behavior which refers to "performing a wide series of acts directed to other people, and accepted and approved by society at large or by specific groups as good and beneficial" (Penner et al., 2005, p. 366). Reciprocity is a group norm constructed by perceived beliefs and expectations of how group members support and react to each other. Donations and volunteer work, charity activities, and helping others in emergency incidents are typical prosocial behavioral examples. These are generally unidirectional engagements, but may also incorporate social cooperations bidirectionally where all benefit reciprocally, and incur a cost through some normative and coordinated behavior (Dovidio et al., 2006). People behave more pro-socially to the ingroups they associate themselves with, based on psychological and social considerations and propensities they possess, relative to the outgroups they disidentify themselves with, targeting the welfare and wellbeing of their ingroup over the others. Thereby, we will focus on exploring cognitions, processes, and behaviors on theoretical grounds that drive the individuals to preferential treatment of the group that we define as "ingroup favoritism" aka Parochial Altruism. It has been proven by many lab experiments (Ockenfels & Werner, 2013) that ingroup discrimination is motivated by belief in the recipient's belief, and therefore reciprocating acts and group identity are the fundamental predictors of ingroup favoritism through beliefs.

Yamagishi and Kiyonar (2000) stated that there is an expectancy that preferential treatment will be reciprocated by ingroup members, and Brewer (1998) proposed that this expectation is de-personalized and that expected reciprocity is a trust binding to all group members, not exclusively towards directly related ones. Yamagishi and Kiyonar (2000) proposed that social categorization is not sufficient enough to engender ingroup favoring unless members expect reciprocity from other members. Categorization only helps members produce trust that expectations will be treated favorably.

The next prominent element of group construct is socio-structural factors like status, size, power, and acquired resources. The term minority is usually perceived to denote two elements; low-status group and lower size and these are observed in any combination, however existence of one is sufficient to pronounce a group as a minority regardless of the other, nevertheless frequently they overlap. SIT argues that (Tajfel & Turner,1979) people value the group they belong to as superior to and different than the groups they disassociate themselves. Consequently. individuals who infer belonging to low status try to leave the group, mobilize themselves from the group, or cognitively emphasize positive statements about the group (Brown & Hewstone, 2005). Low-status groups tend to demonstrate higher ingroup bias and the high-status group demonstrates higher outgroup bias (Brewer, 1986) and the low-status group assigns inferior tasks to the outgroup than the high-status group does to outgroups (Mummendey et al., 1992), comparatively. On the status related dimension, members of the low-status group will exhibit more preference for outgroup than ingroup, compared to high-status members showing ingroup bias. High-status group members are appraised more positively and considered better-performing tasks by members of both groups, low and high status (Brown et al., 1999; Ellemers et al., 1998). People holding low status in high-status groups exhibit greater discrimination than the members having higher status in the same group (Wagner & Schonbach, 1984).

Size predicts the attitudes and behaviors of group members. According to social identity arguments, members of smaller groups display stronger identity attachment, yet feel less secure and consequently conduct higher ingroup bias compared to people associating with groups greater in size, who have stronger security perception and are less motivated to

exercise ingroup bias to outgroup. This proves that size influences the psychological security and attachment to identity, therefore impacting the level of favoritism exhibited to ingroup members, and according to self-attention theory the size is inversely correlated with the level of bias delivered to ingroup as well as outgroup members (Mullen, 1987).

Size also predicts the prejudice to the outgroup (Dixon et al., 2007) due to competition over scarce economic resources, damage to the welfare of society, and peril to the way of life. Group threat theory claims that the size of minority groups threatens the ingroup if they exist in the same territory (Blalock, 1967; Fosset & Kiecolt, 1989; Taylor, 1998), as the minority grows in size they represent more threat for the majority.

2.1.1.2. Categorization

The human mind has been cognitively programmed to divide the surroundings into categories of objects, events, and people, triggered by an assortment of stimuli to sense similarity, reflexively and spontaneously, to process mass information exposed through the knowledge filter already possessed (Bruner, 1957). People categorize others based on their age, gender, ethnicity/race, social status, sect, religion, and other salient characteristics (Fiske & Neuberg, 1990; Brewer, 1998) to conceptualize surroundings and ascribe traits to the individuals associated with groups (Allport, 1954). Categorization helps simplify judgments and sense-making in differentiating people as groups and compromise accuracy for efficiency usually resorting to shortcuts which are the basis of stereotypes.

Categorization theory also suggests that there has to be a category fit, that an individual should perceive stronger similarity to ingroup members than he does to outgroup members to categorize himself (Turner et al., 1987).

Depersonalization is also a factor in forming self-categorization in which people cognitively integrate collective self into self-concept, aligning themselves into group prototypes and replacing individual-based perceptions, behaviors, and beliefs with group-based ones (Turner et al., 1987; Smith & Henry, 1996) even to the cost of discarding their identity (Haslam et al., 1998).

2.1.2. Factors Leading to Discrimination

2.1.2.1. Bias

Bias is defined as "*interpretative judgment that the response is unfair, illegitimate, or unjustifiable, in the sense that it goes beyond the objective requirements or evidence of the situation"* (Hewstone et al., 2002, Brewer & Brown 1998, Turner & Reynolds, 2001). It can also be explained as; attitudes and behaviors to subjectively judge one's ingroup or members more favorably than others (the out-group and their members) in an unfair, illegitimate, and unjustifiable manner. It can be positive or negative.

People starting early in life, constantly are taught and exposed to biases from their surroundings, media (Jones, 1997), friends, and families (Perdue et al., 1990), and these constitute part of their culture with constant social learning (Bandura, 1977). People who acquire egalitarian attitudes over their lifespan, express themselves as non-prejudiced (Baron & Banaji, 2006) concealing their subtle biases (Dovidio & Gaertner, 2002; Pettigrew & Meertens, 1995) or attempting to justify their biases on the ideological ground (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999) or construe their biases with threat and anxieties (Stephan & Stephan, 2000).

Minimum group analysis in intergroup relations replicated by many researchers have all explained ingroup bias as conscious judgments and preferences for ingroup over outgroup as an automatic process (Perdue et al., 1990), and emphasized that it is a preference for ingroup (Brewer, 1986; Tajfel et al., 1971) rather than outgroup derogation. Intergroup distinction is what all required to provoke intergroup biases without requiring any other motivator like stereotypes or prejudices. Associations with prime categories like gender, ethnicity/race, and age are the dominating stimulus of automatic endorsements of group membership (Greenwald et al., 1998). However, automatic activation of biased processes may lead to prejudiced reactions and discriminatory behaviors.

Bias is explained by three major theories; Social Identity Theory (SIT) (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) defining bias as a cognitive process of social categorization derived from the motivation of treating own group positively. Realistic Group Conflict Theory (RGCT) (Sherif et al., 1961) argues that bias is derived from conflicting interests over scarce resources

in intergroup relations triggering threat. Integrated Threat Theory (ITT) (Stephan & Stephan, 1996), based on but extending RGCT and SIT, explains bias through perceived lifestyle incongruences with outgroups.

2.1.2.2. Stereotypes

Stereotyping can be defined as "*the generation of expectations or assumptions concerning a particular individual, based on the individual's group or category membership*" (Zarate & Smith 1990, p. 161). Observers often categorize the individuals first and then make stereotypic judgments based on the way they are categorized (Zarate & Smith 1990).

According to the cognitive view, stereotype formation begins with categorization. Categorization is simply differentiating among groups of people based on some characteristic. Group and members are perceived to be distinct but cohesive and categorized with common attributes (Hamilton & Sherman, 1996). Several salient characteristics are used almost universally to categorize people (Brewer, 1998; Fiske & Neuberg, 1990). These characteristics are known as primary characteristics and they include race, gender, and age because these are the characteristics that are most easily and quickly noticed when encountering another person. We form categories and then associate certain traits with those categories (stereotypes) to save energy. People tend to use only the information necessary to influence judgments instead of trying to accurately interpret the vast amount of information surrounding them, resorting to shortcuts. Categories are efficient ways to make sense of the world, quickly through stereotypes.

Intergroup perception alone can activate stereotypes without intention and conscious attitudes regardless of any prejudice (Devine, 1989), and people apply stereotypes to salient categories (Mackie et al., 1996). Stereotypes tend to influence trait judgments (Bodenhausen & Lichtenstein, 1987; Devine, 1989; Stewart et al., 2000). Prejudice level will most likely affect the use of stereotype information (Kawakami et al, 1998). When individuals use stereotypes for others in social encounters, they target to distinguish the ingroup they associate with, from outgroups (Abrams & Hogg, 1998).

Categorizing simplifies perceptions through shortcuts, associating attributes to all individuals

based on their group membership. It is simplified and fixed beliefs as endorsed attributes associated with outgroups (Ashmore & Del Boca, 1981). Identities are shortcuts to associate prejudgments or biases with decisions. Demographic traits like ethnicities/races, names, genders, schools attended, religions, and occupations are the drivers of stereotypic perceptions indicating socioeconomic statuses, knowledge, competence, and moral and educational acquis. Ethnicity in particular is a very strong trigger of stereotyping (Madon et al., 2001) and discrimination in labor market hiring (Esses et al., 2006; Fibbi et al., 2003).

"Individuating" is an opposite approach to stereotyping which entails obtaining information inconsistent with stereotypes about the people disregarding the group perception (Kunda & Sherman-Williams, 1993; Macrae et al., 1992).

2.1.2.3. Prejudice

Prejudice is defined by Collins and Ashmore (1970) as "a negative attitude toward a socially defined group and toward any person perceived to be a member of that group" (p. 253). Allport (1954) also defines it as an aversive or hostile attitude towards a person who belongs to a group, simply because he belongs to that group, and is therefore presumed to have the objectionable qualities ascribed to the group. "*Social categorization can elicit prejudiced perceptions, thoughts and evaluations*" (Allport, 1954). Ethnic prejudice is an antipathy based upon a faulty and inflexible generalization. It may be felt or expressed, it may be directed toward a group as a whole, or towards an individual because that individual is a member of that group (p.7)".

Perceptions and experiences of prejudice cannot be explained solely with identification belonging to a stigmatized social group, instead individual's self-report of being the target of prejudice is driven by situational (group identification), personal (acceptance of being stigmatized), and structural (believing status system is illegitimate) factors. Moreover, people perceive higher prejudice when prejudicial behavior is demonstrated by powerful members of a dominating group (Barreto et al., 2010). In addition, people who are tightly associated with stigmatized groups report higher prejudice than weakly identified individuals (Major et al., 2002; Schmitt et al, 2014). Subsequently, those who are exposed to more prejudice

sharpen their identity further. Opposing this view, however, is the concept of "subjective construal" which explains that the strong bond with group identity motivates prejudicial perceptions. For instance, when people face chronicle activation by their social identification, experience a strong negative incidence with an outgroup (like a bad experience with migrants), label this experience as prejudicial feedback relative to people who chronically do not activate their social group identification (Major et al., 2002; Operario & Fiske, 2001; Shelton & Sellers, 2000) showing that group identification level affects the perception of prejudice. One other recent view is that people associated with the majority ingroup react more negatively to the strongly identified outgroups than those minority group members who identify themselves weakly, which we define this perception as a prejudice distribution account (Kaiser & Pratt-Hyatt, 2009).

There are also some subsets of identities within groups (social class, national origin, religion, and language) which makes some individuals more vulnerable to prejudice. Therefore, it is imperative to study the elements of prejudice and discrimination in detail because they harm human beings by damaging the health and integrity they possess (Major et al., 2002).

Research has shown that prejudice level affects hiring decisions by biasing on personal traits, qualifications, and competence through stereotypes and interacting with other factors like compunction (guilt feeling), cognitive loading (putting time pressure to make decisions stimulating implicit bias), and instructing external motivation to suppress bias (anti-discriminatory laws and affirmative actions) (Weeks, 2002). Prejudice is reflected as same-race biases in hiring decisions like whites favoring white applicants and blacks favoring blacks (Lin et al., 1992). It can also be reflected in nonverbal gestures like the interviewer avoiding eye contact, discouraging and demotivating the applicant by murmuring rather than clear and communicative conversation, or cutting short the interview time (Fujita et al., 2006).

Prejudice is different than bias in that; bias is a behavior based on incomplete information usually favoring one part with acquired information whereas prejudice is based on no information.

2.1.3. Discrimination

MGP (Minimal Group Paradigm) experiment by Tajfel and Billig,1971 has proven that people bias their ingroup versus outgroup, regardless of how their group was formed, that is the formation does not indicate any meaningful ground, and what is crucial is the identity formation (Tajfel et al., 1971) with the group. In group interaction, people favor group members by showing more charity, reciprocating positively, exhibiting more forgiveness, and dedicating more efforts to group efficiency and performance (Chen & Li, 2009). Social preferences as prosocial acts are directed at those sharing social and professional settings like neighborhood, school comradeship, and church identity (Crosby et al., 1980; Dovidio & Gartner, 2000; Saucier et al., 2005). Opposing social identity or categorization, Yamagishi and Kiyonar, 2000 suggests that ingroup bias is triggered by expectation as a result of reciprocated interactions, which he calls "Generalized Reciprocity".

People reserve resources for their social group members which Tilly, 1989 describes as "Opportunity hoarding" as in the case of Italian chain migration from a small town in Italy (Township) inhabiting in certain neighborhood in New York (very similar experiences in Istanbul), emphasizing the notion that sharing similar identities induces charity preferences and prosocial behaviors.

Despite these explanations, overwhelming considerations about intergroup preferences leading to inequality call peoples' attention to discrimination as a negative act toward disadvantaged groups (Dixon et al., 2007; Brewer & Brown, 1998; DiTomaso, 2015; Greenwald & Pettigrew, 2014), demonstrating hostility to outgroup is the defining conceptualization of discrimination (Brewer & Brown, 1998). This leads us to the old-fashioned definition inspired by biological or ethnic inferiority. Modern racism on the other hand attacks on the lack of protestant work ethic and violation of cultural values to condemn minorities in a form of hostile discrimination. Minorities are also stigmatized for being too demanding in state support asking undeserved attention and abusing the compassion of the public. However, most research suggests that people are more inclined and committed to preferentially benefit ingroup compared to outgroups, rather than focusing on harming or derogating outgroups (Brewer & Brown, 1998; Tajfel, 1981; Tajfel et al., 1971; Greenwald

& Pettigrew, 2014). Therefore, the case is more of an "absence of desired favoritism" rather than exerting real hostility. Normative ingroups are favored with resource allocations while outgroups are treated with indifference, overlooked, or ignored (Brewer & Brown, 1999; Fiske et al., 2002). Group differentiations in the long run reinforce categorical segregations setting the stage for normative evaluations of belief in superior competence and confidence for the ingroup (DiTomaso, 2015).

Discrimination is the unequal or differential treatment in favoring certain individuals or groups over/against others based on ethnicity, race, gender, age nationality, etc. (Becker 1957) *and associated with certain social groups* (Lippert-Rasmussen, 2006). Becker distinguishes two types of discrimination;

- Taste-based discrimination occurs when a decision maker shows a preference (taste) for candidates based on similarity.
- Statistical discrimination originates from a lack of information about the target and subjective inferences and perceptions convey needed information based on assumed and stereotyped characteristics of the groups the individuals are affiliated with, such as expected competence or trustworthiness ascribed to a particular ethnic origin, gender, age or any other classification construct. This differs from taste-based discrimination in that uncertainty enforces a rational response under scarce information or rapid response situations through shortcuts.

Another classification is direct and indirect discrimination;

- If a person or group of people are treated with distance or hostility because of their racial or ethnic origin it is a direct discrimination.
- However, if the practice of supposedly equal treatment sets a barrier to a disadvantaged person or group, like immigrants, either they have lacked the resources or possibilities to be eligible to meet certain criteria to be selected or they have had no access to develop such capacities, you are applying indirect discrimination. For example, if a selection process requires a perfect native language aptitude test, yet the job does not necessitate any oral or written communication or direct client contact,

then you are resorting to indirect discrimination. One often encountered indirect discrimination type is “Institutional Discrimination” which is not openly observable and not purposefully dictated, but in practice, it is implemented as rules and practices of organizations, yet ends up with a factual and consequential segregation.

UN’s ICERD (International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination, 1965) presents a comprehensive definition of racial discrimination as “*any distinction, exclusion, restriction or preference based on race, color, descent, or national or ethnic origin which has the purpose or effect of nullifying or impairing the recognition, enjoyment or exercise, on an equal footing, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural or any other field of public life.*” emphasizing three elements;

- Differentiation of groups,
- Unfavorable treatment of the members of outgroups
- Lack of objectivity in treatments of those groups.

EU’s RED (Racial Equality Directive, 2000) also has a very close definition to the UN;

Article 2a “*Direct discrimination shall be taken to occur where one person is treated less favorably than another is, has been or would be treated in a comparable situation on grounds of racial or ethnic origin.”*

Article2b “*Indirect discrimination shall be taken to occur where a neutral provision, criterion or practice would put persons of a racial or ethnic origin at a particular disadvantage compared with other persons unless that provision, criterion or practice is objectively justified by a legitimate aim and the means of achieving that aim are appropriate and necessary”.*

2.1.3.1. Labor Market Discrimination

Discrimination in the labor market is manifested usually on an individual basis through interpersonal interactions, society-based intergroup relations or regulations, and legal provisions all resulting in ethnic inequalities. Hence conceptualization of discrimination can be categorized into two dimensions;

A-Interpersonal discrimination refers to individuals being responsible for the direct discriminatory behavior and treatment of outgroup members in the following forms;

- **Resentment-based discrimination** is the severest type which is experienced as intentionally negative interpersonal behavior against certain groups reflected as ethnocentric, nationalist, and xenophobic attitudes.
- **Statistical discrimination** is experienced due to misjudgment or false assessment of the potential and productivity of minority group members based on the employer's statistical assumption rather than proper information covering accurate information regarding the skills and competence of the minority group member. The decision maker is primarily driven by economic concerns of hiring the best fit rather than ethnocentric or racist behavior.
- **Opportunist discrimination** is experienced when the decision maker takes advantage of minority members' vulnerable position and lower status or fragile legitimacy like work permit restrictions. and acts in a discriminatory way by offering low wages and poor working conditions.
- **Societal discrimination** is experienced when employers or job agencies act negatively with the assumption that members of the minority group are not welcome by coworkers, supervisors, subordinates, or owners and as a result, minorities are not recruited as a measure to prevent any potential economic consequences or social conflict.

B-Structural discrimination refers to legal or regulatory provisions, mechanisms, and practices consequently resulting in discriminatory treatments unintentionally or purposefully, in the following forms;

- **Institutional discrimination** is experienced when institutional structures, applications, and mechanisms are so designed in a complex and intriguing way they further contribute to discriminatory and disfavoring consequences.
- **Legal discrimination** is experienced when restricted or unfavorable conditions are imposed by law and regulations (like asylum seekers being detained in camps and not given permission to work or restricting access to facilities- schooling- or

opportunities – labor market availability) or imposing humiliating or offensive regulations (forbidden headscarves for Muslim females).

- **Indirect discrimination** refers to intentional or unintentional forms of structural discriminatory treatments of certain outgroups based on unjustified and improper applications like postulating certain skills and capacities for certain jobs for eligibility but yet those qualities are not reasonably justifiable for the specific position, and those qualities were practically not achievable and pertinent training for these qualities either not accessible or available for minorities but only to those with privileged status natives and in groups (e.g., perfect native language requirement for drivers, construction workers, night watch, etc. or close associations with the job networks).
- **Past-in-present discrimination** is experienced when minorities face disadvantaged working status and generally accepted poor practices have become a legacy attached to this group, then there is this tendency to perpetuate these structural discriminations inheriting from the past. As a result, minorities and even their offspring still face this stereotype.
- **Side-effect discrimination** is experienced when intentional discriminatory practice engenders a negative influence on another organizational area about interdependence or interaction (like poor housing conditions causing adverse effects on education, health, and employment opportunities) as side effects.

Experienced discrimination refers to the reflection of felt discrimination through the judgment and feelings of the subject minority member, although it is subjective in the perspective of the target it is essential to ascertain that preventive measures to discriminatory treatments can be double-checked and any unobjective misinterpretation is revealed, clarified and corrected. This felt experienced discrimination is observable across all the categorizations of discrimination as presented in the following Table 1 which is based on Wrench's classification (2007: 116-7), slightly amended by re-categorization of type (4), (8), and (9) and renaming of (1) and incorporation of the dimension of experienced discrimination.

Table 1. Labor Market Ethnic Discrimination Classification

(A) Interpersonal/direct discrimination	(C) experienced discrimination
(1) Resentment-based discrimination	
(2) Societal discrimination	
(3) Statistical discrimination	
(4) Opportunist discrimination	
(B) Structural discrimination	
(5) Indirect discrimination	
(6) Past-in- present discrimination	
(7) Side-effect discrimination	
(8) Legal discrimination	
(9) Institutional discrimination	

Source: Mario Peucker, EFM (European form for migration) studies, Paper 2009-3

Literature has several theories to explain discrimination;

The widely accepted view is that people demonstrate discrimination against those who share the membership with a social group (Allport, 1954; Pager & Shepherd, 2008; Whitley & Kite, 2009). This argument is mainly based on *Social Identity Theory* explaining categorization as the ground of positive cognition and emotional appreciation towards ingroup members targeting self-esteem enhancement while derogating outgroups (Tajfel & Turner, 1979).

Similarity Attraction Theory (Byrne & Nelson, 1965) argues that people interact with similar others who share common traits like race, gender, attitudes, and behaviors.

Realistic Group Conflict and Integrated Threat Theories (Sherif & Sherif, 1969) explain discrimination in terms of perceived realistic and symbolic threats, intergroup anxiety, and negative stereotypes engendering conflict, threat, and competition which results in ingroup favoring and outgroup hostility.

Interdependence Theory (Deutsch, 1949) states that decision-makers consider the instrumentality of the subject in expected interdependence which determines the method of discrimination. Those who conform and cooperate are favored and those who compete are kept out.

Stereotype Fit Theory (Dipboye, 1985; Heilman et al., 1995) argues that members of specific social groups are marked and inferred as better or lesser fit to certain jobs based on the stereotypical beliefs that members of some groups perform differently than others (women not fitting to masculine tasks).

There are several other theories to explain and extract discrimination from different aspects related to social and psychological concerns. In this thesis, we aim to demonstrate how various levels of ethnical prejudice and perceived threat influence raters' evaluations in hiring decisions, driven by the judgments on demographic identifiers, and the intensity and severity of discrimination (preference or prejudice) experienced.

2.1.4. Social Identity as Antecedent to Ingroup Discrimination

A sense of relatedness underlines cooperation in a group, and emphasizing relatedness may stimulate prosocial behaviors (Pavey et al., 2011). When social identity gets more conspicuous, ingroup favoritism gets stronger (McLeish & Oxoby, 2011), and ingroup mutual support increases (Nier et al., 2001). Once people create a shared group identity this generates stronger trust and decreases selfishness by emphasizing the communality and solidarity of their ingroup social identity (De Cremer & Van Vugt, 1999). Individuals even help others when it is against their interest (Camerer & Fehr, 2004) through social preferences concerning the well-being of others, fairness, and. Pro Social Behaviors are the conceptual behaviors, leading to ingroup favoritism within the behavioral economic approach with two mechanisms; the preference-based social identity approach (Tajfel and Turner, 1979; Turner et al., 1987), and the belief-based theory of bounded generalized reciprocity (BGR) (Yamagishi and Kiyonar, 2000).

- Preferences: Preferences refer to peoples' inclinations towards certain actions and utility-focused outcomes, while

- Beliefs refer to the expectations that an initiating person has about uncertain outcomes (Camerer, 2003).

2.1.5. Integrated Threat as Antecedent to Ingroup Discrimination

When cultures interact, there are always differences in many aspects. In immigration studies, research shows that when people migrate to a new culture the interactions between these newcomers and host cultures (dominant cultures) display complex political, economic, social, cultural, psychological, and communicative processes. If we look into, for example, Europe and the refugee crisis (2013–2017), Brexit and the anti-immigrant rhetoric surrounding the elections ("Turkish migrants will invade Britain") and polls, and the continuous fear of migrants among groups of Americans, we can see current examples of how migration is increasingly politicized, innately cultural, economic, and culturally tenuous. (Croucher, 2013*)*

In an attempt to theoretically explain these interactions between newcomers and the dominant culture, and to understand the conflicts that arise between these groups, Stephan and Stephan (1993, 1996) proposed the integrated threat theory (ITT) of prejudice.

Antecedent Factors:

ITT posits that five factors affect the extent to which the ingroup perceives the out-group as a threat or danger: intergroup conflict, status inequalities, strength of ingroup identification, knowledge of the outgroup, and intergroup contact.

Intergroup Conflict (competition) is defined as intergroup confrontations over scarce resources or differences in culture, norms, and values arguing that an individual's ingroup is superior to other groups. Such conflicts heighten the perceptions of threat and lead to prejudice (Curşeu et al., 2007). The conflict is fed by economic status and contextual factors such as unemployment or security issues.

Ethnic Competition theory is inspired and structured by both Social Identity Theory (Tajfel & Turner 1979; Tajfel 1982; Turner 1982) as well as Conflict Theory (Blalock, 1967).

Competition is one of the major factors instigating negative attitudes towards ethnic outgroups (Scheepers et al. 2002).

Status Inequalities*;* When two or more groups interact, it is natural for the groups to consciously and subconsciously compare their **power situation/status** in society. In the case of a group migrating to a new culture, the migrant group (a minority) will inherently have a lower power status than the dominant group. However, the dominant group will perceive the minority group as a threat to their power status.

Strength of In-Group Identification; Strong identification with an in-group can increase salience in all four types of threat (Stephan & Stephan, 2000). Tajfel and Turner (1979) asserted that people tend to promote a positive sense of social self. When an ingroup and outgroup interact, the level of identification the individuals have with their respective groups will influence the interaction. If a member of the dominant ingroup has a strong identification with that ingroup, they are less likely to relate to the outgroup and will perceive more threat, as relating to the out-group could be seen as abandoning or questioning their ingroup or social self (Riek et al., 2006). On the other hand, those with weak ingroup identities will experience fewer feelings of threat or none at all. Van Oudenhoven, Prins, and Buunk (1998), for example, found Dutch respondents who strongly identified with Dutch culture were more likely to see minorities as threatening.

Knowledge of the Outgroup*;* The absence or lack of basic information about an out-group is strongly related to the ingroup perceiving higher levels of threat from the out-group (Stephan & Stephan, 2000). When groups lack basic knowledge about one another they tend to assume information about one another and to stereotype; such assumptions and stereotypes are often not based on fact. Conversely, when groups have more knowledge about one another, they are more likely to not negatively stereotype one another and not fear one another as much.

Intergroup contact*;* In 1954, Allport proposed with his Intergroup Contact and Intergroup Attitudes Theory that the amount of contact, as well as the quality of contact influences intergroup relations, and reduces negative attitudes when intergroup cooperation, shared

goals, and status equality are supported by the society at large. He argued that contact should be: voluntary; and cooperative; groups should be seen as having equal status; and if contact is positive it will lead to more positive intergroup relations. The more contact (quantity), as well as the more positive contacts (quality) and helping behavior or intimate conversations (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008) an in-group has with the out-group, the more likely the in-group is to see the out-group favorably (Allport, 1954). Studies have overall confirmed the contact hypothesis and shown that higher levels of positive contact are related to less threat (Brown & Hewstone, 2005). Pettigrew and Tropp (2006) carried out a meta-analysis covering 515 research and concluded that intergroup contact is functional in positive group outputs through improved interethnic attitudes.

Parental interethnic contact is also crucial, especially during the formative years of individuals (young age) (Aboud, 2008) which through a socialization process improves an individual's interethnic attitudes. Negative intergroup contacts, on the other hand, contribute to threat perception provoking bullied or denigrated relations (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2008, 2011). Therefore, we can conclude that the right set of intergroup contact will contribute to better intergroup relations and will improve the potential to prevent discrimination.

2.1.6. Relevant Discrimination Literature

Previous research has dealt with discrimination generated by individual constructs like ethnicity, gender, socio-economic status, age, education, occupation, religion, language, etc., in a single or multidimensional form. The majority of studies in the context of labor market recruitment take the matter from the viewpoints of ingroup members, as the dominating party that is the subject, and the outgroup who is exposed to bias, as the target or risk group. Naturally, labor market issues are not restrained solely to the hiring stage, it involves prior considerations like accessibility to educational opportunities and training practices, and policies applicable and available to these disadvantaged groups, as well as the aftermath of hiring experiences, such as second generation discriminations which are more of a subtle nature, that is equal or fair treatments in many facets of organizations like informal norms, mentoring, networking, performance appraisal, and assessments.

Our thesis focuses on three dimensions; Ethnicity and Job Status (Multiple Categorization), Hiring Intention and Ranking (Context), and Refugees (Target Group). It addresses two moderators; Social identity as ingroup bias for, and intergroup interrelations or interdependencies being responsible for outgroup conflict and competition. The prevalence and magnitude of these constructs have been extensively addressed in assorted collections as a synopsis in Table 2.

Table 2: Discrimination in Selection and Hiring Process- Conditions Triggering Potential Discriminations

Applicant characteristics	
Gender:	Men with a foreign name are more likely to suffer from hiring discrimination than women with a foreign name (Andnessen et al, 2012; Booth et al, 2012; Bursell, 2014; Liebkind et al, 2016).
Language Skills:	Language proficiency can reduce ethnic discrimination in recruitment Edo et al, 2017).
Educational background	A higher educational level can reduce discrimination (Gaddis. 2015), but the return on investment in education is higher for ethnic majority group members (Nunley et al, 2016).
Religion	Muslim applicants are more likely to suffer from hiring discrimination (Pieroe. 2013).
Physical appearance	Photo: ethnic minority- group members are likely to increase hiring discrimination (Galarza & Yamada, 2014; Weichrelbaumer, 2016, 2017).
Unemployment spell	An unemployment spell increases the likelihood of hiring discrimination for minority and majority group members (Biikelund et al., 2016).
Criminal record	A criminal record increases the likelihood of ethnic discrimination in recruitment (Ahmed & Lang. 2017; Bertrand & Ntiil Lana. 2004; Wells, 2013).
Job Characteristics	
Skill level of job	Previous studies were not able to explain their findings based on the skill level of jobs (Baert et al. 2015; Burnell. 2014; Midcboen (2016); Weichselbaumer, 2017). A reason might be the focus on entry-level jobs.
Demand for jobs	Hiring discrimination is likely to decrease when ethnic minorities apply for jobs that are difficult to fulfill by organizations (Baert et al. 2015; Maurer-Faao, 2012).
Customer contact	Ethnic discrimination is more likely to occur in jobs: that require customer contact (Andnessen et al, 2012; Derous et al, 2017; Nunley et al. 2016; Oreopoukx, 2011).
Co-worker contact	Mixed Findings (e g., Lee et al. 2015; Weichrelbaumer, 2017).

Job quality	Ethnic discrimination in recruitment is more likely to occur for a high-quality job (Gaddis, 2015).
Gender representation of job	Organizations: favor women with a foreign name in male-dominated jobs, while organizations: tend to favor foreign-named men in female-dominated jobs: (Bursell. 2014). In gender-integrated occupation: in the private sector, women with a foreign name were treated less favorably (Midtboen, 2016). In contrast, for public sector and gender-integrated occupations, ethnic discrimination disappears, but only for women (Midtboen 2016).
Recruiter characteristics	
Name of recruiter	Recruiters are less likely to discriminate against applicants with the same cultural background (Edo et al 2017; Oreopouloc, 2011)
Gender of recruiter	Male recruiters; are more likely to conduct ethnic discrimination (Blommaert, Coenders, & van Tuber gen, 2014; Carlsson, 2010 Carlsson A Rooth. 2007; see Pieroe (2013) for an exception).
Stereotypes and bios of recruiters	Recruiters' negative stereotypes and bias increase the likelihood of ethnic discrimination (Bertrand et al. 2005; Decker et al, 2015; Lee et al, 2015; Rooth. 2010).
Organizational characteristic	
Organizational size	The preference for ethnic majority group members increases for jobs at small organizations (Kaas & Manger. 2012; Maurer- Fazio, 2012)
Ownership of organization	Government organizations are less likely to discriminate in recruitment (Andnessen et al. 2012; Maurer-Fazio, 2012; Zxhirot . St Ruedin, 2016).
Recruitment system	The likelihood of ethnic discrimination increases, when organizations: have no standardized evaluation procedures for resumes (Midtboen, 2016)
The demographic composition of the suburb	Ethnic discrimination tends to decrease, when there are positive attitudes toward cultural diversity (Carlsson & Rooth. 2012) or a higher percentage of migrants in the suburb where the organization is located (Booth et al. 2012).
Country characteristic	
	Ethnic discrimination in recruitment is a severe problem in many countries (Quillian et al. 2017, Quillian et al, 2019) Only in Malaysia, organizations discriminated against the majority group (Lee & Khalid. 2016).
Ethnic group characteristic	
First- and second-generation of migrants	First- and second-generation migrants suffer to a very similar extent horn ethnic discrimination (Carlsson. 2010; Oreopouke, 2011)
Ethnic hierarchy of discrimination	Mixed findings. It is difficult to generalize findings regarding ethnic hierarchy in discrimination across countries

Source: Mladen Adamovic (2019*)*

In the U.S. many studies focus on Black & White identities either based on physical appearance and "Nomen est omen", names (particularly associating Latinos, overwhelmingly Mexicans), and religiosity usually associated with Arabic origins in selection decisions of applicants concerning job statuses and race-job fit models (Stewart & Perlow, 2021; Blommaert et al., 2013). Other bias studies included *cooperative versus competitive* behavior in *ethnically mixed groups of* Mexican-Americans, and Mexicans behaving competitively when they are in the minority, yet acting cooperatively in groups formed by sole Anglo-Americans (Espinoza & Garza, 1985).

In labor market recruitment research using the correspondent test, in Germany, it has been observed that with similar job applications submitted online, German-sounding names have received considerably more callbacks compared to Turkish-sounding names (14% more for German names), discrimination was even higher at smaller companies (24% more to German names). It was also checked that having reference letters with job applications drastically lowers discrimination (Kaas & Manger, 2010). The crucial point in this test, as many carried out in other European countries, either as correspondence tests, field tests, or self-reporting tests, applicants all have legitimate working status, in many samples applicants have been born and educated in the hosting country (Derous et al., 2009, in Nederland), (Wood et al. 2009, in UK), (Carlsson & Rooth, 2007, in Sweden), (Drydakis & Vlassis, 2007, in Greece). The only differentiating indicative was foreign-sounding names (Turkish, Arabic, Maghreb, etc.) as opposed to native-sounding names. However, a similar correspondence test was carried out by Goldberg et al. (1969) subjecting Turkish migrants born in Turkiye and having Turkish as their mother language, experimenting comparatively higher discrimination. The difference was attributable to two explanations; the new research 1- has provided much more information like school transcripts indicating acquired skills throughout their education. 2- has targeted high-skill jobs.

On the other hand, Carlsson and Rooth (2007), in Sweden, inferred extensive differences among job statuses callback rates ranging from 10 percent for IT jobs to as high as 100 percent for shop attendants. Wood et al., 2009, have found serious differences in callbacks among job statuses.

German and Swedish studies above indicate that, in multiple categorizations bias is affected by categorization dimensions which is explained as category salience (Crisp & Hewstone, 2007), meaning the perceiver's readiness and expectations (accessibility) are the main driver for category salience (Bruner, 1957; Turner et al., 1987).

In Australia where the immigration policy is appreciated by other countries, unlike the binary field experiment usually comparing natives and migrants in Europe, they compared multiple minority groups of Indigenous Australians, Italian Australians, Middle Eastern Australians, and Chinese Australians to explore possibilities of assimilation into Anglo-Saxon Australians way of social and economic fabric, from April 2007 to October 2007. The experiment conducted by Booth, Leigh, and Varganova (2010) was an audit study to measure racial discrimination in the labor market by randomly conveying more than 4000 fictional applications emphasizing names to provoke ethnic stimulus in multidimensional facets of gender, region the job available, and job status. The study found concrete discrimination against Middle Eastern and Chinese Australians that they had to send 50% more applications to reach the same number of callbacks as others. There was virtually no discrimination evidenced against Italian Australians and the level of discrimination did not decrease from 1986 to 2007. One shortcoming of this audit experiment is that it cannot measure the aftermath of callbacks that is actual interviews and actual hiring rates.

Collection of some international studies displayed in Table 3 using the field experiment-correspondence tests indicate that names as indicators of identity prove the odds of inviting the interview rates for each minority ethnic group as the initiating stage of recruitment:

Table 3. Summary of Findings from Selected International Correspondence Tests of Discrimination on the Basis of Ethnic or National Origin

Source	Location	Period of Testing	Occupation	Ethnic or National Group (Gender)	Discr. Rate	No. Of Usable Tests
Cediey and Foroni (2008)	France:b Lille, Lyon, Nantes, Paris, Strasbourg	End 2005-mid 2006	Manager, clerk, nurse, waiter, construction worker, technician, factory worker, lorry driver	North and Sub-Saharan African	54,2 %	227
Carlsson and Rooth (2007)	Stockholm and Gothenburg (Sweden)	May 2005-February 2006	12 Occupations, see notes	Middle Eastern	29%	522
Bertrand and Mullainathan (2003)	Chicago and Boston	July 2001-Jan 2022 (Boston) July 2001-May 2022 Chicago	Administration, sales	African American	N/A	Not given
Bovenkerk, Gras and Ramsoedh (1994) Riach and Rich (1991)	Randstad area of the Netherlands Melbourne, Australia	Oct 1991-Jun 1994 Oct 1984-Nov 1988	Teacher, lab assistant, admin/ finance manager, personnel manager Sales Repr. Clerk Secretary Sales Repr. Clerk Secretary	Surinamese (M) Greek (M) Greek(M) Greek (F) Vietnamese(M) Vietnamese(M) Vietnamese (F)	18% 13% 33% 5% 26% 20% 29%	157 46 9 115 42 15 100

Firth (1981)	Britain	Oct 1977-March 1978	Accountancy, financial management	Australian	12%	245
				French	20%	245
				African	36%	247
				Indian	48%	241
				Pakistani	49%	241
				West Indian	43%	244

Source: Frances McGinnity, Jacqueline Nelson, Pete Lunn, and Emma Quinn, 2009.

Table 3 shows that testing in the U.S. during 2001 and 2002 by Bertrand and Mullainathan found Whites receive 1,5 times more invitations than Afro-Americans, and the same rate was observed in Sweden in 2005-2006, with Swedish applicants getting 1,5 times higher callbacks than Middle Eastern ones. However contrary to the U.S. study Swedish study shows that odds are considerably different across occupations, with high-status jobs experiencing less or no discrimination compared to low-status jobs.

Derous et. al (2009) in a multidimensional and multi-categorization framework with multiple stigmatized groups membership have studied discrimination using field experiments that predicted combined effects of ethnicity (Arabs vs. Dutch applicants), gender, social status, and job position. The study found that discrimination in resume evaluation is affected by the recruiter, job, and applicant with multiple stigmatized group membership characteristics. This study has combined field correspondence tests, lab experiments, and field surveys in three stages covering multiple minority statuses (Arab male/Arab female) associated with two stigmatized groups. Studies showed that outgroup males suffered more discrimination because intergroup competition was associated with dominant and subordinate male members (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999).

Labor market selection discrimination has been observed high in Nederland, in businesses where client direct contact is required (Klaver et al., 2005), and jobs tend to secure their businesses by obscuring the visibility of ethnic representation for potential negative customer reactions (Derous et al., 2009).

One other study (Blommaert et al., 2011) in Nederland studied the effects of implicit and explicit interethnic attitudes in hiring using a laboratory experiment which included an

Implicit Association Test, a questionnaire and a recruitment test whereby participants reviewed fictitious résumés of Dutch versus Moroccan–Dutch and Turkish–Dutch ethnic applicants having different gender, education, and experience in two phases; suitability grading and ranking for interview. Research has shown that while only explicit interethnic attitudes affect grading, both implicit and explicit attitudes predict selection discrimination. This research differentiates the nature and effects of implicit and explicit interethnic attitudes, with explicit attitudes being controllable through awareness whereas implicit attitudes being evoked without cognitive awareness (Nosek, 2007).

Individual's interethnic attitudes as major determinants of ethnic discrimination in job suitability were also examined in Nederland taking into consideration interethnic contacts, education, job status, and gender as predictors of prejudice. Student participants were used first in a lab experiment setting to review the resumes of job applicants with different ethnicities, job experiences, and genders, and in the second stage same participants were used in the survey to assess job suitability and selection for interviews. The research evidenced that individuals experiencing positive interethnic contacts with higher levels of education of both parents and participants have demonstrated much lower discrimination, and those whose parents are churchgoers are more inclined to discriminate (Blommaert et al., 2013).

Western European countries focus on ethnicities through cultural segregation, names are associated with stereotypic perceptions, usually experienced with Turks and Maghreb, and Islamophobia is the main driver of discrimination. These two non-western outgroups whose majority population is Muslim are on the spot of ethnic discrimination debates in Europe, and facing vicious discrimination far exceeding other ethnic minorities (Verkuyten & Kinket, 2000). This has been extensively evidenced throughout Europe (Carlsson & Rooth 2007; Dolfing & Van Tubergen 2005; Bovenkerk et al., 1995).

There is also comparative discrimination research in Europe, one example is studying why the hiring discrimination of Turkish migrants is slightly lower (Dagevos et al. 2006; Euwals et al., 2007; Heath et al., 2008) in Germany compared to Netherlands, through correspondence audit tests in field experiments across countries (Lancee et al., 2019), manipulating the amount of information collected in job application assessments rather than

the sole resumes. These studies aimed to explain the discrimination differentials with the predicting power of supportive information.

The recent studies are more engaged in implementing emerging technologies like AI and machine learning to focus on organizational efficiency through objective and performance-based ranking with inclusive candidate behavior to prevent discrimination, applying algorithmic job recruitment approaches (Bursell & Roumbanis, 2024; Seppälä & Małecka, 2024). As ethnic indicators, nonstandard accent and vocal cues are also studied arguing that low performance perceptions are presumed triggering discrimination in recruitment (Mori, 2023). One other study dealt with emphatic competence claiming that it decreases cognitive and affective ethnic discrimination, and affective dimension prevailing the cognitive one (Bobba & Crocetti, 2022). There are also research focusing on comparative analysis of discrimination across countries, in EU and US, asserting that nonwhites are discriminated more in general, however the strength of discrimination varies among them, and categorizing those countries based on the discrimination level they represent (Quillian et al., 2019).

In general literature, discrimination properties differ considerably depending on situational factors. Even though the Black and White racial form of discrimination is mainly rooted in US society, it has contributed tremendously to discrimination literature, and we use many properties generated from this phenomenon. Discrimination in Europe towards the Middle East and Maghrebi including the Turks, and discrimination against Muslims through islamophobia, and discrimination against refugees are fundamentally different. They all involve different aspects of demographic and psychometric antecedents eliciting their reasoning and rationale.

In Turkiye, there have been several studies relating to attitudes towards Syrians testing the public attitudes on a single dimension. Only a handful of research investigates multi-dimensionality. One study by Guler (2019) focused on the intention of helping Syrians, moderating religious brotherhood and occupation as two identity constructs to affect common identity motivation and improve contact by manipulating social distance.

2.1.7. Gender and Ethnicity Intersection in Discrimination

Previous research has several studies investigating women as stigmatized groups based on stereotypes. One study investigated the effects of stereotypes exerted on the career endeavors of women compared with men's. Women usually face two types of stereotypes; ***Role Congruence*** (prescriptive stereotype) (Burgess & Borgida, 1999; Eagly, 1987; Terborg, 1977), and ***Job Fit*** (descriptive stereotype) (Heilman, 1995).

Prescriptive-based bias specifies behaviors expected of women, such as norms like supportive, non-dominant, and emotional. Not meeting such norms will engender reprisals for not meeting stereotyped expectations (Heilman & Wallen, 2010; 2010; Moss-Racusin et al., 2010).

Descriptive bias involves a lack of fit model (Heilman et al., 1995), and explains the perceived fit between the job requirements and a person's capacities with expected performance. Hence, recruiters' assessment of job suitability is potentially affected by the stereotype possessed and may produce an unfair selection approach to female applicants (Rudman & Glick, 2001).

Gender discrimination is a request of group-compelled requirements, engendered by group-specific stereotypes that workers have to conform, to standards that are imposed as maleness or femaleness. Any coercion by assuming or stipulating that the subject person cannot match this stereotype is consequential to victimization by this setup, which is usually the case with women. These stereotypes appear to be very subjective but at the individual level they are very tangible (Kramer, 2014).

Gender discrimination is a very individualized challenge today, it does not apply to all males or females in categoric segregation. The victims are those members of each gender who cannot meet individually expected workplace norms or generally established stereotypes like manly behaving women, effeminate men, or overweight individuals of any sex applying for jobs as telemarketers but eliminated for their physical appearance.

When ethnicity is involved, we have another dimension on top of gender stereotypes, especially women in question. Derous, Ryan, and Nguyen (2009) tested gender stereotypes with ethnic salience, in their research, having Arab women as multiple stigmatized candidates competing with Dutch, for high and low-job status vacancies, with a resume screening approach, that resulted in Dutch candidates being favored by many folds, as expected and presumed that, these two stereotypes- Arab and women- amplified each other to worsen the final verdict of selection.

In our model we intended to explore the moderating effect of gender as one of the recruiter characteristics who have been exposed to gender discrimination as women and men applicants of different ethnicities, comparing the responses with the rest of the sample.

Intergroup relations as exemplified in literature have been explained with some fundamental theories that we discuss hereupon, although the list is not exhaustive, we tried to focus on the most relevant ones, and others are also referred to in due course, where they are deemed to relate throughout our thesis.

2.2. THEORIES EXPLAINING DISCRIMINATION IN HIRING PROCESS

In our research, by investigating theoretical antecedents and explanations, we aim to develop our comprehension of hiring discrimination in the labor market by exploring how and why differential and unfair attitudes towards minority members are conducted, and what conditions trigger the majority group members to act favoring their similar associates, at the cost of derogating, frustrating and penalizing migrant outgroups. Intergroup relations discussed in previous headings, have grounds on fundamental theories that we will focus on hereafter, are the ones most related to our context, and others are also be mentioned where necessary. The theories discussed below will help us configure our models to be formed, substantiated, and empirically modeled to analyze the phenomenon we set out to explore.

2.2.1. Social Identity Theory:

Social identification is explained by the degree of group nexus that individuals align their self-concept (Wann & Branscombe, 1994). People demonstrate different levels of attachment

to the group as identity in a hierarchical multigroup fashion, that is people may have more than one identity, and priming and ordering among them in various contexts and dimensions. Social identity is *"that part of an individual's self-concept which derives from his knowledge of his membership of a social group (or groups) together with the value and emotional significance attached to that membership"* (Tajfel, 1974, p. 69).

The first concept is then, the association of an individual with a group, and that has to be acknowledged and recognized through membership, and that association has to contain an emotional bond (Tajfel, 1974). What motivates a person to bond with the group is the need for self-esteem, and affection towards the group promoting individual's self-esteem (Hogg & Abrams, 1988; Crocker & Major, 1989; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). However, the reverse does not hold true, that is self-esteem does not generate in-group favoritism (Hogg & Abrams, 1988; Greenwald et al., 1998; Hewstone et al., 2002). Hence, association and identification with social groups are crucial parts of the self-concepts (Tajfel and Turner, 1979).

To boost self-esteem, individuals try to develop affirmative attitudes towards in-groups, and this is reflected in either leaving the group if not satisfied or emphasizing the distinction of ingroup over other groups. In-group bonds are engendered through the tendency to maintain associations among self, social groups, and positivity. Liking the in-group does not imply dislike for the out-group, meaning preference for the in-group does not necessitate hostility or derogation for the out-group (Brewer, 1979).

Thus, self-esteem is accounted for as the major source of in-group bias, in-group favoritism, and indifferent or antagonistic attitude development towards out-groups which may end up with discrimination and stereotyping. Intergroup preferences are constructed by two psychological forces;

- Associating themselves with the group for the confirmation of their high self-esteem- Social Identity
- Attaching to the groups that are valued by the prevalent culture as the sociopolitical ranking- System Justification

Furthermore, social identity theory argues that the crucial psychological determinant of the group phenomenon is self-esteem through Self-Categorization. People categorize social life as ingroups that they belong to, and outgroups that they disidentify themselves with (Tajfel et al., 1971; Turner et al., 1987). Extension of the definition is that the individual self is replaced by the social self, promoting group cohesiveness through depersonalization (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Turner et al., 1987). People categorize themselves as social self, that is ingroup characteristics replacing individual self (Tropp & Wright, 2001). Depersonalization leads to shared characteristics of group members, differentiating them from the outgroup, eventually creating a group "prototype".

Tajfel, Turner, Yamagishi, and many others who explain social identity theory with minimum group paradigm (MGP) focus on group identity, promoting intergroup bias with self-esteem through group identity, categorization, and expectation/reciprocity. However, although Tajfel et al. (1971) propose that social categorization itself alone suffice to elicit bias and discrimination, real-life experiences involve and reveal other factors motivating the bias and discrimination, such as; intergroup conflicts and competitions, scarcity of resources, cultural and ethnic dissimilarities, self-interest and ingroup attractions and intergroup historical conflicts. Tajfel et al., (1971) described social categorization as "coincidental grouping" randomly formed, in studying intergroup bias and excluded group membership, historical ties, conflict, and competition as asserted by Sherif, 1969 as confounding attitudes from the analysis.

Social identity constitutes a sense of self which is the premise for categorization representing affective, evaluative, and cognitive perceptions that are focal to social life (Ellemers et al., 1998). People who have high identity with the group consider themselves as in-group members relative to those who have low identity (Spears et al., 1997), and who feel less connected to other members (Doosje et al., 1995), and they also feel less committed in case of threat (Ellemers et al., 1998). People distinguish their in-group to obtain a positive collective identity (Brewer, 1998).

Yamagishi and Kiyonar (2000) stated that there is an expectancy that preferential treatment will be reciprocated by in-group members, and Brewer proposed that this expectation is de-

personalized and that expected reciprocity is a trust binding to all group members, not exclusively towards directly related ones. Yamagishi and Kiyonar (2000) proposed that social categorization is not sufficient enough to engender in-group favoring unless members expect reciprocity from other members. Categorization only helps members produce trust that expectations will be treated favorably.

The next prominent element of group construct is socio-structural factors like status, size, power, and acquired resources. The term minority is usually perceived to denote two elements; low-status group and lower size and these are observed in any combination, however, the existence of one is sufficient to pronounce a group as minority in absence of the other, nevertheless, frequently they overlap. SIT argues that (Tajfel & Turner,1979) people value the group they belong to as superior to and different than the groups they disassociate themselves. Consequently, individuals who infer low status in group try to leave it, mobilize themselves from the group, or cognitively emphasize positive statements about the group (Turner, 1982). Low-status groups tend to demonstrate higher ingroup bias and high-status groups demonstrate higher outgroup bias (Brewer, 1986), and low-status groups assign inferior tasks to outgroups than high-status groups would do to low-status groups (Mummendey et al. 1992), respectively. On status related dimension, members of the low-status group will exhibit more preference for outgroup than for ingroup, comparatively to the high-status member showing ingroup bias to low status. High-status group members are appraised more positively and considered better-performing tasks by members of both status groups (Brown, 1986; Ellemers et al., 1998). People holding low status in high-status groups exhibit greater discrimination than the members having higher status in the same group (Wagner & Schonbach, 1984).

Social identity theory (SIT; Tajfel & Turner, 1979) explains the drive for categorization and, behaviors and attitudes governing the intergroup relations and, psychological processes motivating people to identify themselves distinctly in a positive way. When people realize the existence of other groups, they take a comparative position and that triggers conflict and competition. The intensity of belongingness increases with the perception of similarities favoring their ingroup members (Howard & Rothbart, 1980; Rabbie & Horwitz, 1988; Doise,

& Sinclaire, 1972; Marques, et al., 2010) at a cost of degrading or derogating outgroups. Brewer (1998) argues that perceiving positive distinction may elicit intergroup accentuation, that is people strive to minimize with ingroup members, and yet maximize intergroup differences with outgroups.

All these also lead to social status justifications. Status differences may force the low-status group to search for Social Mobility when preferred high-status outgroups are permeable, that is possible to integrate into them, or else if group boundaries are impermeable, they resort to Social Creativity, which is to adopt strategies to promote those traits of their social group which are perceived negative (like Black people), or are pronounced highly (like Black is beautiful). One other path is Downward Social Comparison, if one's ingroup is considered low status they attempt to compare their ingroup with an outgroup that is even lower in status in society, thereby identifying themselves with their low-status group more strongly.

Many authors (Ellemers et al., 1998; Phinney, 1992) reconcile in conceptualizing social identity in three components;

- Cognitive component -Self-categorization
- Appraisal component; evaluating groups positively or negatively, and
- Emotional component; affective attachment attributed to the group

Self-categorization does not only show the placement of people within a group but also indicates the level of prototypicality of individuals to group identity referring to matching of member's stereotype with a group stereotype distinguishing from other groups (Ashmore et al., 2004).

People evaluate group identity by assessing their attitude to that particular social identity, either as positive or negative within individual consideration as well as taking into account how the public evaluates the group indicating social status justifications (Luhtanen & Crocker 1992).

Emotional attachment to a group's identity explains the sense of affective attachment and oneness indicating the level of overlapping of personal self with group self and degree of depersonalization.

Having said that, we should also acknowledge that the way these components act is rather complex, not monolithic. They vary from person to person, while one person may have high emotional attachment, evaluate positively, or represent high prototypicality, others may demonstrate just the opposite (Ashmore et al. 2004).

2.2.2. Uncertainty Reduction Theory

This theory (Hogg, 2007) argues that feeling uncertain of themselves, their values, and attitudes, motivates people to reduce it usually through group identification by self-categorization. People act to redress their self, identifying themselves with distinctively defined entitative groups. Self-uncertainty is deemed to be a key motivator for self-categorization leading to self-identity (Abrams & Hogg, 1998; Hogg, 2007; Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Turner et al., 1987). This theory is usually applicable when people are subject to new group formations like migrants traveling into a new country when uncertainties abound and are unpredictable.

Drawing on uncertainty-identity theory (Hogg, 2007) and referring to the concept of social identity complexity, people would identify most strongly with their group if they felt both self-uncertain and that their group's identity was prominent relative to other identities, either because it was distinct from other identities or because they had few other identities. Therefore, we can conclude that;

- People identify more strongly with a group under high than low uncertainty.
- Group identification is strongest when one's ingroup identity is made distinct.
- Group identification is strongest when few other identities are primed.

2.2.3. Social Categorization Theory

Social identity theory argues that the crucial psychological determinant of the group phenomenon is self-esteem through self-categorization. People categorize social life as ingroups that they belong to, and outgroups that they disidentify themselves with (Tajfel et al., 1971; Turner et al., 1987). Extension of the definition is that the individual self is replaced by the social self, promoting group cohesiveness through depersonalization (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Turner et al., 1987). Depersonalization leads to shared characteristics of group members differentiating them from the outgroup, eventually creating a group "prototype". People categorize themselves as social self, that is ingroup characteristics replacing individual self (Smith & Henry, 1996; Tropp & Wright, 2001). Categorization theory argues that categorizing oneself with a social category in a collective sense depends on the salience of that category in a particular situation (Turner, 1999; Turner et al., 1987). Salience determines the degree of group membership affecting the behaviors (Oakes, 1987) the degree of association with other group members, and the distance with outgroup members.

When individuals are categorized within a group, they are inclined to display "*bias* towards" their in-group and "bias against" the out-group (Tajfel, 1970). Bias can be executed in giving bigger rewards and positively evaluating in-group, and for out-group doing just the opposite. This is well proven that it takes little evoking to trigger the process (Brewer, 1986; Messick & Mackie, 1989).

We have to distinguish between personal self and social identity or self-categorization. Self-categorization denotes cognitive representation of who we are and associating ourselves with similar ones forming an ingroup and distinguishing others as outgroup. Personal self on the other hand is individual characteristics specific to us whereas self-categorization refers to common characteristics and traits that we share with other group members (Turner et al., 1994). Categorization theory argues that self-categorization is hierarchical, that is different levels of inclusiveness (self as human being, self as group member, and self as individual-Turner et al., 1987). Self-categorization is also situational in that individuals are ascribed personal or social identities of different kinds. Research has evidenced that categorization is one of the determinant factors of eliciting stereotypes and discrimination, potentially leading

to categorical prejudice. Individuals have multiple categories engendered by multiple identities and these categorizations are contingent upon social and psychological drivers involving self-identity and identity of others.

Accessibility refers to stimulating the capacity of the excitement of available stored knowledge in mind activating self-categorization. For instance, in evaluating a hiring situation, if you encounter a dominating number of migrant applicants, as a native rater, self-categorization stimuli are activated through excitement or anxiety based on stored knowledge about the migrants. This is called high accessibility, meaning this information has activated a stimulus to react as self-categorizing, whereas if the number of applicants were all native candidates there would be no or low stimuli activated through this information. Therefore, designating a social category to an applicant will be affected by the accessibility of his identity, like race or ethnicity, rather than his job status, as the most relevant accessible category information (Higgins & King, 1981; Wyer & Srull, 1981). Priming a social category will increase its chance of selection to determine the category with high accessibility to reach knowledge in the mind of the decision maker. There is an interaction between activation, accessibility, and salience (Higgins & Kruglanski, 1996).

2.2.4. Social Dominance Theory

Social dominance orientation (SDO) is a personality variable that refers to the tendency to see and accept inequality among different groups (Pratto et al., 1994). Proponents of SDO suggest that status differences exist among groups and there is nothing wrong with it. They state that some groups are inferior to others, and those who are superior deserve more opportunities, whereas those who are low in SDO argue that all groups are relatively equal. High SDO individuals tend to display more ingroup favoritism and they are also inclined to exhibit more stereotypical judgments towards other groups.

2.2.5. System Justification Theory

Differing from social identity, system justification argues that people who are members of higher groups favor ingroups against outgroups, motivated by the desire to protect social hierarchies-system justified driver- to preserve their self-esteem justified driver-.

So, it is the mainstream culture's imposition that determines the value of the groups, not the self-identity or self-esteem of the individual which drives favoring ingroup members over outgroup. It is the attachment to the groups that are valued by the prevalent culture as the sociopolitical ranking, meaning system justification. In contrast, there are cases where system justified motive may also direct favoring to disadvantaged outgroups as outgroup favoring (less ingroup favoring) in the case of affirmative discrimination based on gender (women given priority over men) or race (black priority over white) which is called affirmative action.

2.2.6. Social Comparison Theory

Social comparison is the fundamental characteristic of social interaction (Thomas et al., 2013). Social comparison theory states that members compare themselves intragroup and intergroup, constantly and unintentionally (Buunk & Gibbons, 2007). Leader's treatment and exchange levels differ from one individual to another and this invites comparison processes to take place. Individuals are in constant search of obtaining information regarding the degree of variations between their exchange position with leaders versus others' (Vidyarthi et al., 2010). Employees also observe upward social comparison if their expectations for in-groups are duly met, and if dissatisfied this may evoke a sense of unfairness and sense of deprivation (Moscatelli et al., 2014), harming the trust with the leader.

2.2.7. Realistic Group Conflict Theory (RGCT)

Developed by Sherif, 1961, RGCT proposes that intergroup bias is based on perceived conflicting interests of the involved parties, in confrontation over scarce resources such as job opportunities, real estate ownership and conflicts related to healthcare service offerings (Levine & Cambell, 1972; Stephan & Stephan, 1996).

Perceived conflict; RGCT puts contextual and situational factors to the fore and explains bias through competition for resources. The key mechanism the theory proposes is the negative interdependence of the groups which will lead to competition, conflict, and prejudice (Sherif et al., 1961). Studies in psychology, anthropology, and sociology demonstrate that competition for resources leads to greater intergroup friction and hostility as a stronger predictor of prejudice (Islam & Jahjah, 2001; Stephan et al., 1999).

The prominent approaches to intergroup relations in social psychology agree on the centrality of resource allocation issues in intergroup conflict.

- One approach emphasizes individuals' and groups' motivations to maximize realistic (material) interests, and the inevitable conflict when material resources are scarce (Sherif, 1969).
- Another approach defines conflict as a reaction to being deprived of an expected or deserved outcome (Crosby et al., 1980).
- More recently, it has been argued that the salience of ingroup versus outgroup categorization is a sufficient condition leading to conflict and ingroup favoritism in resource allocation (Tajfel & Turner, 1986).

2.2.8. Integrated Threat Theory -ITT

ITT is basically derived from RGCT but it differs from RGCT in that, it includes individual's subjective threat perceptions (symbolic threat). ITT also extends realistic threat conception beyond limited definition of RGCT which contains itself only to competition on scarce resources. ITT encompasses broader conception of realistic threat covering power, size, status and group well-being as antecedents of realistic threat (Stephan & Stephan, 2000).

Antecedents of Threat: Integrated Threat has been widely used in examining the fear of dominant cultures from immigrants and migration. There are five antecedent elements to form and compose Integrated Threat;

- Intergroup conflict,
- Status inequalities,
- Strength of in-group identification,
- Knowledge of the outgroup, and
- Intergroup contact.

Intergroup conflict occurs when intergroup confrontations over scarce resources are experienced or differentiations of values, norms, and cultures are perceived (Curşeu, et al., 2007).

Status inequalities are perceived when the salience of the status of the in-group is high or low relating to the out-group (Stephan & Stephan, 2000).

The dominant ingroup member having strong identification with that in-group, experiences less outgroup threat with the judgment that outgroup contact might mean compromising or concession of their social self (Riek et al., 2006). Ingroup members with lower in-group identity will perceive less outgroup threat.

Lacking basic information about the out-group contributes to higher levels of perception of threat (Stephan & Stephan,2000), and they resort to assumptions or stereotypes as shortcuts instead of endeavoring for facts. As the intergroup knowledge is enhanced there is less room for stereotype and prejudice, lowering the extent of threat. Category-based information processing occurs automatically and will be particularly strong when limited individualized information is available (Brewer & Brown, 1998). In resume screening, when job applicants are judged based on a one-page or two-page resume only (i.e., individuating information about applicants is limited), judgment may be based on raters' category-based stereotypes (Bennington & Wein, 2002).

Theories on social categorization and group threat (e.g., Blalock's social competition theory) suggest positive correlations among minorities' share of jobs, their threat to majority workers, and the severity of the latter's response (Blalock, 1967; Reskin et al., 1999) affect attitudes. It is amply demonstrated that stereotypes about out-group members are particularly strong when in-group members perceive threat from the out-group (Oswald et al., 2005).

The quantity as well as the quality of contact affects the relations between ingroup and outgroup. Contacts having equal status, being cooperative, voluntary and positive will promote positive intergroup relations, just as negative contact will decrease it (Brown & Hewstone, 2005).

Threats have many effects,

- Behavioral; Threats can lead to discrimination, cheating, stealing, protests, lying, voting down particular policies, violence, conflict, prejudice, harassment, and even genocide, murder and war.
- Cognitive; Threats affect members' perceptions of an out-group, leading to negative stereotypes, intolerance, ethnocentrism and hatred.
- Emotional effects; Threats lead to negative emotions (contempt, disgust, anxiety and resentment, fear, guilt, hatred, humiliation, vulnerability, helplessness, despair, anger, rage, indignation and panic (Stephan et al., 2015).

Perceived threats are among the fundamental causes of prejudice. In Integrated Threat Theory, Stephan and Stephan (2000) distinguished four types of threats;

- Realistic threats based on power, resources, and well-being of the in-group
- Symbolic threats to the; value differences between groups,
- Anxiety concerning social interaction with out-group members,
- Negative stereotypes of the out-group threat.

Threats are very effective triggers of attitudes and behaviors toward alien groups.

ITT (Stephan & Stephan, 1996) based on but extending RGCT and SIT, explains bias through perceived threat from outgroups. Symbolic threat predicted stronger bias mainly when the target was a minority group member. Realistic conflict theory argues that real conflicts of group interests lead to identification with and positive attachment to the ingroup as well as negative stereotyping towards the outgroup and ethnocentric behavior (Levine & Campbell, 1972).

2.2.8.1. Perceived Symbolic Threat

Symbolic threats can also lead to prejudice (Allport, 1954; Kinder & Sears, 1981). ITT expands the concept of symbolic racism to all intergroup relations and defines symbolic threat as a threat to an ingroup's "way of life", which arises from the perceived incompatibility of intergroup values, beliefs, and norms and morality (Stephan & Stephan,

1996, 2000). Consequently, outgroups are rejected, ignored, socially distanced, and derogated (Stephan et al., 2000) and condemned (Esses et al., 1998) instigating the prejudice.

2.2.8.2. Intergroup Anxiety

Intergroup interactions frequently produce anxiety through the expectations of negative outcomes like embarrassment and rejections (Stephan & Stephan, 1985). Anxiety is experienced by members when groups perceive dissimilarity in many aspects of worldviews, and are distant from each other, have historical antagonism, interact in ad hoc and rivalry fashion, either or both sides have ethnocentric position against each other and are very uninformed or deny each other's entity (Islam & Hewstone, 1993; Stephan et al., 1997). Anxiety occurs when the ingroup is disturbed by exploitation, embarrassment, rejections (Stephan et al., 2000), hostile history, distant social values, lack of prior contact or ignorance of each other, and the outgroup having higher status than the ingroup (Islam & Hewstone, 1993), resulting disapproval and feeling of threat. The level of anxiety predicts the intensity of negative attitudes towards outgroups (Stephan et al., 2000; Stephan et al., 1999).

2.2.8.3. Negative Stereotypes

The intergroup interactions are destined to be negatively affected if the relations are not trustworthy and negative. Aggressive and pugnacious behaviors are fed and triggered by such outgroup negative stereotypes and dominantly uncertain climate. Stereotypes are usually observed in forms of implicit bias which is a heuristic association of certain characteristics with targeted groups. People are inclined to attach negative traits to demographically (i.e., ethnicity, race, gender, age, job status) differentiated groups (Nosek et al., 2005). These acquired implicit associations are activated in recruitment processes and trigger biased decisions and judgments (Dovidio et al., 2002) through negative stereotypes about the members of outgroups.

In hiring evaluations as well as in many decisions involving discrimination, people are more concentrated on consistent stereotype information rather than individual-specific information (Koomen & Dijker, 1998) and dig out more stereotype-related information than unbiased ones. Ambiguous information is manipulated to support stereotypes (Hilton & Van Hippel,

1996), and people act indifferently or unconcerned towards the information contradicting stereotypes (Nelson et al., 1996). All these implicit bias behaviors suggest prejudice and invite discrimination, handicapping members of traditionally excluded outgroups of objective evaluations in hiring decisions.

Relevant research suggests that negative stereotype is directly related to prejudice (Stephan & Stephan, 1993; Stephan et al. 1997). Ethnically biased ingroup members will display more negative stereotypes about outgroups than people low in discrimination disposition (Devine & Elliot, 1995).

These are implied subtle threats for ingroup members in interacting with outgroup, expecting disturbing consequences based on assumptions (Stephan et al., 1999). Ingroup members will act negatively when they perceive outgroup members as dishonest, lazy, dirty, infidel, aggressive, etc. (Esses et al., 1993). When in-group members perceive threats from out-group, stereotypes against that group increase (Oswald et al., 2005). Hence, in-group majority ethnic members perceiving threat, resort to discriminatory acts to reckon the felt threats (Crocker et al., 1998; Derous et al., 2009). Actors affecting in-group perception of a threat from an outgroup are; the gravity of ingroup identification, status inequalities, and the knowledge about the outgroup. But these are all experienced under intergroup contact and intergroup conflict.

2.2.8.4.Intergroup Contact

This has been addressed as a prejudice-reducing or mitigating practice by many (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006). It has also been argued that mediators in the environment and moderators affecting should be controlled. If the environment is controlled by threat and prejudice, additional contact can only contribute to the increase of further prejudice (Stephan & Stephan, 2000). On the contrary, if the environment is friendly, contact improves relationships and decreases prejudice (Wagner et al., 1989). Therefore, the contact's implications and contributions are contextual upon external factors in effect.

2.2.8.5. Intergroup Conflict

This occurs with confrontations for resources available and cultural incongruences which invoke threat and anxiety perceptions leading to prejudicial attitudes toward outgroups as stigmatized entities (Curşeu et al., 2007). When migrating into a new culture takes place the migrants inherently possess a lower status and are perceived by both dominant natives and migrants as minorities, consciously or subconsciously. This inequality in power and social status increases over time and salience becomes more disturbing, posing a higher perception of threat (Stephan & Stephan, 2000). The eventual consequence would be refraining or constraining the minorities in many contexts; social, cultural, and economic activities, like in France restraining religiosity (Croucher, 2013) and its symbols.

2.2.8.6. Revision to Integrated Threat Theory

According to OECD studies and findings, there is a strong comprehension that discrimination is experienced through the negative stereotypes expressed towards non-natives (immigrants, refugees, temporary guests) rather than individual preferences. Although stereotypes are not usually conceptualized as threats posed by the out-group, *negative out-group stereotypes* typically do embody threats to the in-group.

Stereotypes serve as a basis for expectations concerning the behavior of members of the stereotyped group (Hamilton, & Sherman, 1996). When the expectations are negative, unpleasant, or conflict-laden interactions are likely to be anticipated. Many out-group stereotypes contain traits that refer directly to threats such as being aggressive, pugnacious, and brawling.

Several recent studies support the idea that there is a link between negative stereotyping and prejudice (Eagly, 1987; Esses et al., 1993; Stephan & Stephan, 1993; Stephan et al. 1997; Ybarra & Stephan, 1994). There are also quite a few critiques relating negative stereotypes to intergroup anxiety (Croucher, 2013; Riek et al., 2006), also questioning stereotypes as sources of threats. Consequently, theoretical conceptualizations have suggested that negative stereotypes and intergroup anxieties have merged into realistic threats and symbolic threats (Stephan et al., 2015) contingent upon the disturbances and distractions perceived, that is if

they pose an economic or material harm realistic threat is implied, if however they challenge the values and norms of high-status groups, the symbolic threat is perceived. Since the predictive capacity of realistic and symbolic threats to measure prejudice is so comprehensive, they incorporate negative stereotypes and intergroup anxiety constructs, which is why we will only use realistic and symbolic threat measures in our conceptual model to eliminate redundancy.

2.3 HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

Earlier empirical research with multiple paradigms such as;

- Minimal group paradigm (Tajfel et. al, 1979) studying laboratory analysis of the minimal group, testing similarity attraction,
- Field studies of unobtrusive experiments of helping or not helping (inactive) (Crosby et al., 1980), and
- Field experiments of treating job applicants of differential ethnicities (Benedick & Nunes, 2011) and field audits

have proven that ingroup bias is the supreme source of intergroup discrimination more than hostility-originated biases. This may be due to intergroup interaction aversion as informal discrimination without hostile intention in real-life cases, however, in laboratory and field experiments, this may be due to the artificial benign purpose of testing behaviors directed to ingroup rather than tests being directed to hostile behaviors against outgroups.

Our dissertation is directed to the native participants to experiment and explore their behaviors involving their ingroup manners, mindset, and normative preferences as they are originated by ingroup bias through either ethnic orientation or their beliefs and stereotypes inducing outgroup conflict, competition, and integrated threats, all being the antecedents of discrimination.

We will break down our analysis into three mainstream antecedents of discrimination in our thesis.

The first main area of discrimination research focuses on Ethnic identities, as they are the major predictor of discrimination against target groups. Secondly, we will examine the ethnic orientation, meaning the social identity propensity of the rater. Finally, we believe the strongest antecedent of discrimination in Turkiye relating to migrants is overwhelmingly engendered through integrated threat perceptions of individuals contributing to severe prejudice in many social and economic interactions, particularly in labor market selection processes.

2.3.1. Ethnic Identity (Ingroup Bias)

Ingroup preferential treatment is generally responsible for most of the ingroup bias, outgroup prejudice, and discrimination (Brewer & Brown, 1998). Demographically homophilic people share similar attitudes and behaviors (Milliken & Martins, 1996). The higher the ethnic identity salience the more positive the attitude towards people with similar identities (Phinney, 1992). People act more favorably to the demographically similar ones (Chatman & Flynn, 2001; Tsui et al., 1992).

Ethnicity and Conflict; Conflict can be defined as a state of reacting and repelling against potential or actual deprivation of deserved or impending outcome. According to Tajfel & Turner (1986) salient intergroup categorization is a sufficient motivation for ingroup bias and intergroup conflict in the context of resource allocation.

Ethnicity and De-humanization; Infra-humanization asserts that high salience in ethnicity as an ethnocentric attitude considers one's group as human and outgroups as down-graded human (Leyens et al., 2007). This does not mean that outgroups should be deprived of humanity and driven into destitute but implies that outgroup members lack ideal humanness of having very essential values and emotions like love and contempt compared to ingroup members (Leyens et al., 2007). This perception leads to discrimination through lack of social fit and any social status conducive to insufficient job fit consideration in hiring decisions.

An overwhelming amount of research has demonstrated that much of extant discrimination encountered in modern societies is attributed to favoring the members of ingroups, in other

words, ingroup bias is a more significant contributor to discrimination in most cases than outgroup hostility and derogation is.

In hiring decisions, the relationship between the rater's similarity to the applicant and ratings of job suitability is moderated by the raters' level of ethnic identity (O'Leary et al. 2009) and job status. Ethnically biased recruiters are more likely to possess negative stereotypes about outgroup members than less biased people (Devine & Elliot, 1995).

The Prejudice Distribution Account claims that high salience of identity of a minority outgroup causes more intensified prejudicial experience than low salience of identification. The prejudice level within a categorized outgroup is not distributed evenly among all group members, solely hinging upon broad categorization alone but differences within outgroup members of the common category leads to different levels of discrimination (Maddox, 2004). These differences are detected and inferred by majority group members even with a minimal amount of information to form their attitudes and behaviors leading to prejudice.

To experience an ingroup bias, salient differentiation between ingroup and outgroup must exist, and factors contributing to bias are;

- Conditions to share outcomes and rewards (Rabbie & Horwitz, 1969),
- Perceived similarity (homophily) with members of the ingroup (Tajfel & Billig, 1971), and
- Conflict and competition with the outgroup (Sherif et al. 1961).

The literature studied so far indicates that the ratings decided for applicants may be influenced by three fundamental constructs: the applicant's ethnic salience, job status (quality of job), and the ethnic orientation of the rater.

<u>The Salience of Category:</u>

Bias is affected by Categorization dimensions which is explained as Category Salience (Crisp & Hewstone, 2007), meaning perceiver's readiness and expectations (accessibility) is the main driver for category salience (Bruner, 1957; Turner et al., 1987).

The first hypothesis posits that the salience of category meaning Ethnicity vs. Job status determines the selection criteria the raters prime, to base their decisions on. Hence, we can posit;

(H1): *Candidate's ethnic salience affects the category selection by which the decision is based on. The higher the Applicant's Ethnicity Salience to the Rater, the stronger is the tendency of choosing Ethnicity category in hiring decisions rather than job status.*

The Rater's Ethnic Orientation and Applicant's Ethnic Salience;

The second hypothesis posits that, whichever categorization (H1a) indicates as a predictor, be it ethnic identifiers as we suggested or job status, will determine if the raters' decision will be affected by that category. Social group categorization especially in the context of ethnic or racist diversification leads to intergroup biases (van Knippenberg et al., 2004).

(H2): *Ethnic orientation of the rater will affect the rater's hiring decisions, and applicants having similar ethnicity with the rater, will be rated higher than the dissimilar ones.*

Ethnically biased raters downgrade the suitability of minority candidates to meet the requirements of the high-status position (McRae, 1991; Thomas et al., 1994; Glass Ceiling Commission, 1994). Ethnically biased interviewers are more likely to possess negative stereotypes about black candidates than less biased people (Devine & Elliot, 1995), and they may use the ethnicity and job-status fit criteria in making hiring decisions compared to less biased people.

(H3): *Ethnically biased raters will be more committed when selecting native applicants for high-status jobs than they would to selecting native applicants for low-status jobs.*

2.3.2. Integrated Threat

In situations when ingroup members perceive threats originating from outgroup, negative stereotypes towards outgroups increase (Oswald et al., 2005). This enhances the potential of discrimination toward outgroup members in job suitability and hiring context. The salience of identification with one's group predicts the level of interactions with outgroups and one's

sense of social sense (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). When the identification is high, individuals will less interact with the outgroup and perceive threats from the outgroup (Riek et al., 2006).

2.3.2.1. Realistic Threat

Realistic conflict theory (Sherif, 1969; Sherif et al., 1961; Levine & Campbell, 1972) argues that people and their groups have the motivation to increase their interest. Realistic threats occur through competing for scarce resources like job offerings as well as a result of threats to the wellbeing of the groups. The competition and opposing interests may generate conflicts. Host nationals or majority ingroup members who perceive threats from a particular out-group (e.g., Syrian ethnics) may resort to discriminatory acts to mitigate the felt threats (Crocker et al., 1998; Derous et al., 2009). Consequently, we may posit that;

***(H4*)**: *If the perceived realistic threat gets stronger, Rater's hiring decision will favor native candidates stronger, and migrants will have a lower possibility for selection than those of equally qualified native applicants for the same job.*

2.3.2.2. Symbolic Threat

Symbolic threats involve differentiation in morals, beliefs, values, norms, attitudes, and behaviors attributed to the outgroup, representing potent constructs affecting the way of life of the ingroup in the form of threat (Stephan & Stephan, 1996, 2000). These threats are also observed in situations of opposing outgroups favoring social policies like affirmative discrimination for minorities or low-status groups. As a result, outgroups are derogated, dehumanized, and devalued (Stephan, et al., 2000) and condemned (Esses et al., 1998). Hence, we can posit that;

(H5): *If the perceived symbolic threat gets stronger, Rater's hiring decision will favor native candidates stronger, and migrants will have a lower possibility for selection than those of equally qualified native applicants for the same job.*

2.3.3. Cross Construct Considerations

Given the socio-political posture of Turkiye, it can be predicted that a realistic threat is a stronger predictor of prejudice than a symbolic threat, as part of the native population may not consider the symbolic threat component as much of an issue as a realistic threat (Morgul et al., 2020) which refers to economic well-being and competition in scarce resources concerns. Hence, we can posit that;

(H6)**:** *Realistic threat is a stronger predictor of hiring decision than symbolic threat given the extant socio-political structures in Turkiye.*

(H7): *Migrant discrimination in hiring can be attributed more to realistic threat as a stronger predictor than social identity (raters' ethnicity orientation) regardless of the status of the jobs because the threat does not differentiate job statuses. In other words, job status cannot moderate discrimination if the threat is highly salient.*

Perceived intergroup conflict predicts the attitudes toward outgroups (Esses et al., 1998). Ethnically biased recruiters are more likely to possess negative stereotypes about outgroup members than less biased people (Devine and Elliot, 1995).

(H8)*: Rater high in ethnic identity will exhibit more threat, as such there is a positive relation between ethnic identity level and threat, predicting selection decisions.*

We have not designed our research with women's attitudes on target, but we consider inferring female rater dimensions as a by-product for a plausible research analysis, explaining the discrimination phenomenon. The female attitude was addressed in two roles;

- Female gender, as Control Variable, acting as rater across all the test models,
- Victimized women by gender discrimination, acting as a rater.

2.3.3.1. Gender as Control Variable

Research has proven that gender is a significant control factor that could covary with the dependent variable of job suitability decisions (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Narayanan, et

al., 1999; Quinones et al., 1995; Tesluk & Jacobs, 1998; Weekley & Ployhart, 2005). Gender as a control variable may also be related to other predictors installed into our model. However, for the integrity of our research, we did not include any female applicants for the target positions.

Gender bias in literature carries the connotation that women pervasively are being prejudiced, stereotyped, and discriminated against. Gender was imposed in our thesis to test if women recruiters will exhibit any compunction and compassion in evaluating the minority migrant candidates who compete with the natives. There is a relationship between gender and it is expected that males develop more negative perceptions and report higher discrimination when interacting with minorities (refugees), and females exhibit more compunction, consequently less discrimination (Ceobanu & Escandell, 2010).

(H9): *Females show less tendency to discriminate against an outgroup applicant than males.*

2.3.3.2. Rater Exposed to Discrimination – Perceived Discrimination

Perceived discrimination was a dichotomous variable in our survey collected as code "1" if respondents declared being exposed to assortment of discrimination types which we think are critical and instrumental in our context, ticking one or more types of discrimination exposed with a dichotomous response of "1", otherwise "0".

Perceived discrimination refers to the unfair treatment an individual perceives due to his/her race/ethnicity (Clark et al. 1999), and we may encounter it in different social constructs, institutional and/or interpersonal levels. Some individuals may not be exposed to institutional discrimination (Wellman, 2007), but they may still experience interpersonal discrimination (Pager & Shepherd 2008). Prior research has found that there is a close correlation between perceived discrimination and anxiety with stress (Brown, et al., 1999; Williams & Williams-Morris, 2000), and anxiety is directly related to greater threat appraisals (Stephan & Stephan,2000). Perceived discrimination may lead to post traumatic stress disorder causing impairment of cognitive and affective capacity in decision making, influencing interpersonal functioning, mitigating emphatic responses. Ethnic and gender discriminations are traumatic stressors aroused by elevated threat appraisals (Matheson et al., 2007; Liu & Alloy, 2010;

Bombay et al., 2011). Socially marginalized people experiencing personal or social discrimination may develop adverse consequences (Pascoe & Smart, 2009; Schmitt et al., 2014; Paradise et al., 2015), and when people encounter discrimination stress, related symptoms are aroused and alterations in cognitions and mood are experienced (Matheson et al., 2007). Additional studies have found that perceived discrimination may impact job attitudes like job satisfaction, employee turnover and organizational commitment (Valentine et al., 1999)

Perceived discrimination does not originate in victim's mind with no reason, there are potential organizational and environmental causes. Various factors contribute to perceptions to penetrate in severity and pervasiveness depending on unique social contexts of marginalized groups (Matheson et al., 2007). Members of discriminated groups could be more reactive to potential stressor experiences (Franklin & Boyd-Franklin, 2000) through augmented perception of being victimized, appraising stronger threat to individual well-being. Other studies have also found that perceived racial discrimination have been responsible for distrust to public and social interfaces like health services (Armstrong et al., 2013). They found that people who experienced discrimination have developed more distrust than those without discriminatory experiences, and such discrepancy cannot be attributed to other factors like gender, accessibility to services or residential segregation, but can be explained with an independent effect of distrust. When these traumatic consequences and outcomes are internalized and normalized, these may equally be reflected into people's attitudes and reactions triggering negative subjective discriminative behaviors directed to other outgroups (Brondolo et al., 2009).

Despite the negative interpersonal effects PTSD is well proven to be responsible and previous research has not explored a reliable correlation with empathic associations (Decety & Jackson, 2004), those studies diverted more to explaining buffering capacity of empathic interventions. Hence, empathic outcomes suggestions regarding perceived discrimination have not been empirically supported to prove theoretical justification, and mainstream explanations have encompassed PTSD with ensuing psychological disorder of cognitive and affective capacity and mutilation of interpersonal functioning.

Hence, we can posit;

(H10): *Discrimination perception of Raters moderate the Ranking decision through the mediation of ethnic orientation and perceived threat of raters.*

2.4. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The selection and hiring processes in the labor market (Context) process, through Ethnic Identity and Job Status (Categorization), together with Integrated Threat perception have constituted the conceptual framework of this dissertation.

Variables

Dependent Variables; We designed two dependent variables, namely Hiring Intention incorporating; Job Suitability Measurement and Confidence, and Ranking

Independent Variables; The independent variables that we manipulated are; Raters' ethnic orientation and threat perceptions moderated by job status, ethnic salience of applicants and exposed discrimination of raters. We have also included gender demographic data as Control variable to test potential direct effect between the latent variables and dependent variables based on the certain reservations held by related theories and literature we refer, particularly when females were in question.

The Conceptual framework is sketched displaying causality and moderations in effect pertaining to our model in Figure 1 below which are explained in detail in succeeding sections.

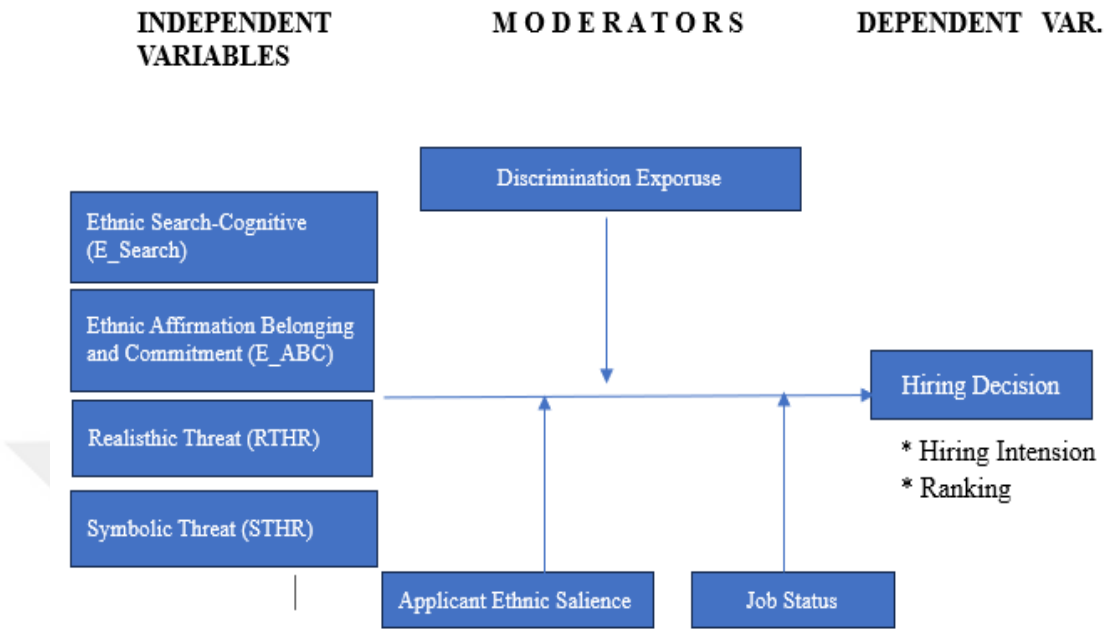


Figure 1. Conceptual Framework

2.5. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK DEVELOPMENT

In our thesis, we differentiate the effects of ingroup bias (ethnic identity/ethnic affiliation) from outgroup hostility infected by conflict and threat, since these are not mutually exclusive, they may all have their antecedents just as they may have different consequences that have to be evaluated in a neutral state. Put differently, it is an ambidextrous judgmental and evaluative process, understudied in research. Even though the dominating understanding of discrimination is a derogative behavior against outgroup members driven by conflict and competition, only several research in literature have concurrently employed methods to differentiate dyadic effects of "bias for" ingroup and "bias against" outgroup in relative implications.

In Turkiye, the general public tendency to perceive bias is ascribed to ingroup favoritism usually with positive future interdependence in the form of direct or indirect reciprocity and exchange. This has been explained with group affiliations and coherence through cultural characteristics (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008; Ersoy et al, 2012; Wasti, 2002). As suggested by many research in Turkiye, paternalistic leadership, collectivistic and high-power distance cultural antecedents were mainly responsible for the

ingroup favoritism, reflected as extensive nepotism and cronyism in many facets of public and private social, political and economic interactions (Aycan, 2006; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008; Gelfand et al., 2007), and particularly in hiring practices that is, managers selecting applicants based on homophily and future expectancies, framed within consequential reciprocities (Yetim & Yetim, 2006).

However, the case with migrants as ethnic outgroups has always been explained with outgroup threat, conflict, and competition, nourished by strong negative stereotypes as have been revealed by several detailed recent surveys like Sodev, 2021; Tuses, 2021 and Syrian Barometer, 2019. Society-wide behavior of ingroup bias through township affiliations, similarities, reciprocities, and socio-economic statuses as sources of discrimination is overlooked or overridden when foreign outgroups with perceived subordinate status come into consideration, and then realistic conflict and integrated threat become the primary predictor of discrimination as hostility and derogation. Cultural cleavages together with historical frictions are fundamental contributors to prejudice and stereotypes that, professional and occupational traits cannot alleviate the propensities of segregation and legitimized discrimination and ethnic stigmatization.

Literature is amply offering studies of applicants' ethnicity, job status, and ethnic bias attitudes as predictors to test interacting and counteracting roles to observe the decision-making processes in labor selections. There are cases where each of these constructs demonstrates a pivotal role in influencing and supporting selection decisions as the sole criteria or a combination of two or all. Hence, there is no single comprehensive conclusion as to priming one sole construct to preempt as a dominant factor in hiring decisions. Therefore, we have to explore the contingencies of other dimensions like similarity, threat, conflict, or level of ethnic orientation being conducive to or relevant to socio-psychological motivators.

Hence, we structured our model on two significant pillars, namely Ethnic Identity-based ingroup bias and the perceived Integrated Threat posed by the outgroups. Based on literature and theoretical review we manipulated constructs with a contingency approach using *Applicant* with associated ethnic group, *Rater* – survey participant- with gender, and *Job*

Status as discrimination categories. Applicants' ethnic variety and raters' gender were taken as moderators to predict job suitability and ranking decisions.

2.5.1.1. Rater (participant)

The pursued methodology in our research does not consider stereotypical beliefs about job fit associated with the outgroup (refugees), nor does it consider intergroup dependencies, either collaborative or competing. One stipulation of our presumption is that all applicants will have equally designated qualifications for the job post, therefore leaving no room for stereotypical assessment of job fit. The other condition is that the rater is not necessarily an immediate superordinate of the applicant, as it is set, he/she will act more like as an HR person in charge of the selection process, hence no opportunity in inducing interdependence via instrumentality for the candidate's future performance and hence consequential managerial outcome to take place. It is less likely for the decision maker to show self-serving *bias for* or *against* the candidate when the immediate report line is not involved in the selection process. As a result, neither job fit nor interdependence issues are addressed within our conceptual framework.

The first construct of our framework, all other predictors are fixed, is the ethnic identity of the rater and the rater's ingroup and applicant's outgroup categorizations as defined by Tajfel & Turner, 1979, hypothesizing that positive attitudes toward ingroup members will trigger the preferential job suitability and hiring ranking decision. This argument is also supported by the similarity-attraction conceptualization of Byrne & Nelson, 1965, suggesting that corresponding ethnic characteristics of applicants will reinforce positive preferential treatments in applicant evaluations. Thereby, we will be able to distinguish the impact of ethnicity where equally qualified applicants are to be evaluated and selection decisions be taken and, explain the operationalization of ethnic discrimination.

2.5.1.2. Applicant

In our research design, the applicant's characteristics are deemed to be identical as far as the educational and professional credentials are concerned. The only differentiating profile item will be the ethnicities of the candidates. To identify and clarify the membership of an

individual to an ethnicity, names form the determining signals to categorize rather than the physical appearance- “nomen est omen”. This also implies that if you measure the ethnic discrimination based on socioeconomic status, the stereotypical names should be avoided where they indicate lower socioeconomic status (Butler & Homola, 2017), like stereotypical names Ali and Ahmet are associated with low status in western European countries.

One crucial consideration is the hierarchies of ethnicities as the moderator in labor market selection discrimination. Referring to social dominance, non-natives with native names suffer much less hiring discrimination compared to African, Arabic, and Asian names (Sidanius & Pratto 1999; Quillian et al. 2019) in US. Latino names on the other hand suffer less discrimination than non-Europeans and more discrimination than Europeans in western countries, comparatively.

One other issue is the generational differences between the first-generation migrants and their offspring. Carlsson and Rooth (2007) has found out that both generations suffer more discrimination in the job market compared to Swedish names. However, research conducted to analyze discrimination subjected to different generations has found no material difference between the degrees of discrimination faced by both (Quillian et al. 2019).

In our analysis generation variations are not applicable yet since Turkiye’s experience with migrant issues has not extended to cover more than pioneering migrants in the job market, however, the offsprings matters have been observed on other contingencies like education, health, and other public encounters. Ethnic hierarchies nevertheless are observable in almost all public research published, all evidencing Turkic origins facing less discrimination compared to non-Turkic ones. Our study attempts to discover this argument within its specific contingent coverage.

2.5.1.3. Job-status

Job status indicating human capital and qualities of the participant is a significant determinant of discrimination depending on the stimulus in effect and the relative attitudes of decision makers. In situations where discrimination is elicited by social identity predictors, depending on the salience of categorization- either ethnic orientation or occupation- job status may

override social identity. Similarly, the decision maker's outcome interdependence may be more crucial than ethnicity as organizational or personal interests are primed. However, if decision-makers perceive threats and conflicts then occupational considerations can easily be disregarded. In other words, priming ethnic identity as a result of integrated threat and conflict will increase ethnic biases against migrants and trigger discriminative attitudes and behaviors. In our analysis, we would like to observe how job status will be moderated by the raters' attitudes and socio-psychological perceptions concerning salient self-categorization.

Terpstra and Larsen, 1980 have found race and job type correlation on employment decisions. Affected by job fit, raters have selected Blacks more frequently for black-type jobs than jobs assumed to be White fit, and they offered higher salaries for Blacks for the same black-fit jobs than they offered to the Whites for the same job. This proves that job status and ascribed job fit to that status is a crucial stereotype affecting recruitment bias in selection decisions.

Minority Segmentation in Job Status; This segmentation is exhibited when minorities are designated certain jobs with occupational disadvantages to ethnic groups, as well as women in broader sense as the largest minority group (Kaufman, 2001). These jobs are less preferred, offer no power or prestige, less job security, easy replacement and does not promise a long career advancement, eventually marginalizing people (Kaufman, 2001).

2.5.1.4. Realistic conflict and integrated threat

One of the considerations that supersedes the identity approach (similarity attraction), strong task imperatives and expected interdependence, is intergroup conflict perception. Intergroup conflict, as defined in realistic conflict theory (Sherif et al., 1961) states that through conflict and competition, ingroup members are preferred and outgroup members are negatively discriminated affecting decisions, in our case; job suitability and ranking process. The central theme of intergroup conflict is the allocation of scarce resources. Conflict appears as a reaction to being rejected by an expected or deserved outcome. Tajfel & Turner, 1986, also argued that salience in ingroup affiliation leading to outgroup categorization, suffice to generate conflict in resource allocation. Realistic conflict theory claims that conflict of interest between groups triggers positive attachment to the ingroup and negative stereotyping with the outgroup (Levine & Campbell, 1972).

III. METHODOLOGY

We have observed that studying ethnic discrimination in a labor market context, researchers have employed one or a combination of three approaches. These are;

- Interviews, focus group meetings, online surveys, statistical analysis of databases to analyze salaries, promotions, appointments, etc.
- Resume studies as field experiments, pairing fictive resumes with real job positions advertised manipulating the content of resumes to influence correspondences (Riach & Rich, 2004).
- Lab Experiment (i.e., minimum group experiments)

Each approach has its own relevant merits and contingencies to justify the methodological selection, and each has its pros and cons. The criteria of selection may consider factors like subjectivity, social desirability (Holden & Passey, 2009; Stone & McWhinnie, 2008), and controllability of variables being manipulated such as experience, education and competence (Levitt & List, 2007).

A **resume study** aka "*correspondence test*" is a real-life experiment in the field (Adamovic, 2020; Bertrand & Mullainathan, 2004) offering an obvious advantage over a survey where participants are not aware of being a part of the experiment or not motivated/triggered to respond in a socially acceptable manner in which case it is argued that the outcome will indicate more accurate measure. However, it faces legitimacy or moral issues since it involves manipulating and deceiving real job posting companies without their consent. In addition, resume studies may calculate the number of responses against sent applications for both groups but it does not reveal the reasons or motivations and drivers leading to hiring decisions. Therefore, we cannot differentiate if the decisions are influenced by ethnic bias for ingroup or bias against the outgroup. We cannot test if similarity or threat was the predictor. One other limitation of the correspondence test is that it only applies to the cases where applicants are expected to send written applications, usually observed in public office employment covering merely part of the labor market. In the private sector, however, in-person application submission is widely used where ethnic or racial exposure is more

obvious, and this is where we encounter most of the discrimination. This approach does not also test the indirect discriminations where the rater designs the selection criteria that minority applicants cannot meet. This test is also not applicable in the aftermath of recruitment processes like layoffs, promotions, and equal pay practices. In addition, the resume screening has been limited to several early applications, since the job market demand side has grown enormously, firms have ignored the majority of the CVs sent, considering the first X number of applications, which will reduce the integrity of this method.

Lab experiments testing discriminations are carried out in a sterilized and controlled environment and conditions are manipulated at researchers' discretion. How representative these practices to real-life field contexts always remain to be subjective, ambiguous and questionable, since heterogeneity of the sample is very difficult to obtain.

In **Self-reporting Surveys,** you eliminate social desirability or external loading effects, which frequently are very strong predictors of decisions. One shortcoming of this method is that the rater is a fictitious one and may not be the representative of the real-life recruiter and may lack experience in judgment and technicalities of recruitment processes. However, the lab experiment's exposure to social desirability and the field experiment's incapability of presenting any insight into the mechanisms of selection decisions or not collecting data in a controlled environment like interviewing, leaves us with only one practical choice; an online survey.

We shall combine all relevant data from public opinion research that has been conducted, generally, employing interviews and focus group meetings, and statistical analysis of available databases of national and international organizations to substantiate any shortcomings of our survey questionnaire, hence still maintaining plausible statistical inferences. We take note of the fact that, public opinion research conducted in Turkiye so far has indicated that integrated threat is the main predictor of prejudice than any other discriminating construct (SODEV, 2021; TUSES, 2021; Erdogan, 2020; Makovsky, 2019).

Challenges of Methodology:

- Sampling and Data collection
- Framing the target group
- Effective and representative measures

3.1. **SAMPLING** (Participants)

The conditions of discrimination as related to the traits of raters, have been examined by applying well-known theories of group dynamics and, intergroup attitudes and behaviors. When we talk about the raters, we are talking about the whole enumeration of decision makers either as persons or units that compose the population or universe of hiring bodies. Sample, on the other hand, refers to partial enumeration of the representative parties selected, in a purposive approach- that is our case- with the design and expectation that, within a meaningful degree of error, it will approximate the real picture, had a total universe been resorted for their opinion. “A meaningful degree of error” refers to the term of precision which is the level of accuracy representing the total population.

Selecting the right configuration of sample out of the population is a challenging issue involving the representativeness of purposefully selected respondents with a scientifically justified fraction of the population and the size of the sample, offering reasonable standard error factors, that is, as the size increases the standard error from the means decreases improving the possibility of more precise results of researched phenomenon. Therefore, the characteristics of the purposefully selected sample and size play a critical role in obtaining a successful collection of data and analysis to approximate the real evaluations, had the analysis of the entire population could have been possible. Naturally, efficiency and economy criteria are the predominant issues in many sample-size determining decisions in all survey projects.

To eliminate any distortion when measuring the effect of ethnicity as a stereotypically discriminating construct, we only targeted native participants and our objective was that either all the participants were currently employed or have had meaningful work experiences.

Our methodology equally concentrated on the psychometric as well as demographic properties of the participants, for we believe discrimination is also significantly explained by improving empirical inferences. Therefore, we intended to incorporate gender as a control variable to highlight deviations between males and females and consider different job positions as moderating variables to affect the degree of discrimination.

The other demographic element, educational level has already been embedded into the study in setting the sample group. The rationale here the evaluative and professional capacity of these participants represents a reliable construct of the recruitment process. In real-life cases, however, most of the migrants are being employed by small businesses whose decision-makers hold relatively low levels of education and lack institutionalized organizations.

Our methodology takes into account the migrant experiences in Turkiye and reflects these in applying research instruments and drawing conclusions based on the endemic findings.

3.2. MATERIALS

3.2.1. Resumes

We prepared two sets (low and high-level jobs) of three fictitious job resumes containing ethnic names and affiliations, each designed to match two different level job vacancies, one being upper middle management (high position) and the second for delivery activities (low position). All resumes were audited by experienced recruiters making sure that the content includes all the necessary indications leading to accurate identification, that is resumes for each position will emphasize ethnic characteristics together with all typical candidate information, and of course highlighting the names “Nomen est omen” as a critical determinant. All others remain identical, ethnicity is the conspicuous variation to analyze the significance of statistical discrimination. Resumes clearly show comparable qualifications not to leave any room for extra competence, experience, or educational advantage favoring any candidate, singling out to only two constructs, that is ethnicity and job status.

Candidates’ genders are male so the applicants are not to distort the integrity and reliability, since gender is a context-sensitive categorization influencing decisions in hiring, through

perceived role congruity of females and job fits. Selection decision involves matching job characteristics and requirements with the applicant's qualifications, skills, and competence as well as job fits indicating suitability judgment, based on usually stereotypical perceptions. Job fit perception in the context of women may lead to discrimination in many cases interfering with precise measurement of the focused constructs like ethnicity. Indulgence or tolerance for women of certain ethnic groups may be generously available while outgroup female members are discriminated against bluntly, or male minority members can be favored/disfavored over female members of the same ethnic group on stereotypical grounds. Maternity characteristics and fertility tendencies of disparate ethnicities pose another dimension of consideration, affecting the employment decisions in many societies. Ethnicity itself is, a very crucial source of stereotypical job fit, adding another job fit level (gender) would further have distorted and invited more ambiguity to the study. Multiple stigmatized groups having ethnic and gender dimensions with their inherent stereotypes contribute to more controversy than explanation (Derous et al., 2009). Gender discrimination research, on the other hand, shows mixed results, especially in cases where woman evaluates woman candidates in the context of job positions. Derous et al., 2009, have done extensive analysis on the intersection of ethnicity and gender targeting Dutch and Arab both men and women. Derous study was conducted employing three research methods, namely "resume screening", "field experiment" and "online self-reporting survey" in a combination of intersecting categorizations such as ethnicity, gender, socioeconomic status, and job type. We should bear in mind that the research method itself has moderating implications in analyzing the intersection of ethnicity and gender.

We designed the research on a 3 x 2 scale, that is applicant's ethnicity (Turkish, Uzbek, Syrian) and job status (Manager, Delivery/Supply), and if we had added a female/male extension to applicants that would have made the scale 3 x 2 x 2 requiring much larger sampling hence, distracting and insulating the real focus from the mainstream agenda of this study that is ethnic discrimination. Therefore, we discarded the possibility of including female job applicants to have a more sterilized platform to analyze the discrimination that can only be attributable to ethnicity.

3.2.2. Job Postings

Participants will also be presented with Job Postings (highlighting the major tasks and the critical abilities for the post).

3.2.3. Rater's Ranking Form

It is a ranking of the rater's hiring choice that he/she places the candidates in order, 1 to 3 (n), which will show the ranking order revealing the pattern of his preference of one candidate over others. Raters were directed as;

> "After reviewing the applicant resumes, please rank the applicants in the order in which you would choose to hire them. By placing an applicant in the first spot (Spot 1), you are indicating that you would hire that applicant first; by placing an applicant in the second spot (Spot 2), you are indicating that you would hire that applicant second; by placing an applicant in the third spot (Spot 3), you are indicating that you would hire the applicant last (third)."

1) would be_____ hired first

2) would be_____ hired second

3) would be_____ hired third

3.2.4. Translation

Those survey instruments borrowed from English originals were translated into Turkish using a four-step process. We translated those measures which have already not been translated into Turkish, and then back-translate into English by proper translators possessing Turkish-English language command and translation skills, as well as competence in survey instruments. The final step in the translation was submitting the English version and the translations to be compared by academicians experienced in the field to ensure the integrity of the final documents.

Survey instruments consisted of the participant's consent form, demographic profile sheet, rating and ranking page, job application forms of candidates (three for managerial post, three for delivery post), and a questionnaire borrowed from adapted relevant measures.

The consent form includes information explaining the research and selection procedures. Participant's demographic form was designed to gather information regarding gender, ethnicity, level of education, age and work experience. The job posting described the qualifications the applicants should have and concise information about the organization. Resumes include information exhibiting applicants' competence, professional and educational background, experience and other information reflecting personalities and social capacities. The content of the questionnaire is explained in the "Measures" sections.

3.3. RESEARCH METHOD

3.3.1. Pilot Study

First, we conducted a pilot study to test and verify survey materials;

a) If high-status and low-status jobs are properly designed and
b) Make sure candidates' resumes reflect corresponding qualifications to the jobs applied to.
c) Check demographic data leading to ethnicity and test the capability and applicability of the ethnicity scale together with threat scales.

Initially, we presented job advertisements targeting a semi-skilled level and a professional level. These jobs were evaluated by experienced HR people to assess the job statuses by relevant job characteristics to make sure they truly represent those levels. We selected moto bike type of logistics courier and order delivery clerks as the low status and sales management as high status Then we designed suitable candidate resumes reflecting average qualifications and tailored to job postings. The ethnicity of applicants was emphasized through highlighting their names and birthplace on the resumes.

3.3.2. Survey

The study was administered to have participants online (via Qualtrics). Participants were informed that they were asked to participate in two separate sets of research in one questionnaire. Participants' names or any other identities were not asked to avoid collecting more sensitive information than necessary to relieve them of any hesitation. The survey involved directly asking respondents about their introspective beliefs, being cautious about not adding noise to the survey by misrepresenting their beliefs for the sake of social desirability or motivation to influence what they believe is the purpose of the survey.

Participants were informed that this is going to be a series of research activities in two parts, the first one belonging to a doctoral dissertation study of Ekin Nakay, at Istanbul Ticaret University which involves an academic study regarding a private sector "hiring decision investigation" in the labor market. The survey informed the participants that the study is about "hiring decisions in a global label market" and "we are interested in how people evaluate applications based on applicants' 'C.V.s'. All participants were asked for their clear consent to participate.

The second part involved an institutional investigation regarding the attitudinal and behavioral analysis of the same participants in the context of their ethnic and socio-psychological propensities (actually capture their ethnic orientations, discriminative and stereotypic dispositions) and discover the triggering predictors such as symbolic or realistic threat from, and conflict and competition with the migrants in Turkiye, especially targeting Syrian ethnicities.

3.3.2.1. Part 1: Candidate Evaluations

Multiple Categorization; Applicant's Ethnicity and Job Status, and Ranking

Participants evaluated the qualifications of each applicant in a row to assess the Hiring Intention ratings of the resumes. To emphasize the ethnic identities of applicants, respondents were repeatedly exposed to the names of applicants as stimuli of ethnic diversity.

Hiring Intention considered;

(a) Each applicant's overall occupational competence,
(b) Likelihood of inviting for the job?
(c) Rater's confidence in his/her decision,

Participants repeated these evaluations for the succeeding applicants. After evaluating all the applicants, participants were asked to rank the applicants in hiring order.

3.3.2.1.1. Rater's Ranking Measure

This is an ordinal ranking of the rater's hiring of candidates to the positions in order of 1 to 3, hence revealing the pattern of his preference of one candidate over others as well as displaying any divergence from the judgment over the competence and suitability assessment they have previously ascribed to individual candidates.

In forming dependent variables for the ratings of each applicant, two rating indexes were formed. First, the combined score for the applicant assessment index of the Hiring Intention measure. The second score was an index of raters' Ranking measure. This offers an additional opportunity for the researcher to capture a discrepancy by not limiting the analysis to only competence, job suitability, and confidence in decision measures but also observing ranking order as a potential source of discrimination.

There are challenges, however, to disturb the responses in irregular patterns. Raters could measure or rank the resume randomly disregarding the contents. They may take the first resume under utmost scrutiny, yet lack motivation in appraising the following ones. Therefore, one other potential predictor of the dependent variable would be Rater Errors (such as unequal resume effects, order effects, etc.).

3.3.2.1.2. Order Effects

Order Effect: The order of the jobs or resumes presented was counterbalanced to check for order effects. Several research have found that when minority resumes were evaluated second, they were rated higher than when they were evaluated first, due to the recency effect,

that is second applicants can be remembered easily.

3.3.2.1.3. Unequal Resume Effect

The essential safeguard, against any unintended difference in the attractiveness of the resumes, was to rotate them regularly between the candidates and to ensure an even distribution between the candidates.

3.3.2.2. Part 2: Participants' (Raters') Evaluations (Ethnicity and Threat)

After completing the first part, participants completed the second part, to reveal their ethnic orientation level and discrimination attitudes. To blur the intention of the test, raters were manipulated as if this was another survey research addressing some other issues.

Participants were asked to fill out a series of items in the questionnaires, exploring their ethnic propensity. One important issue here is social desirability. Participants should not obtain any clue relating this part to the job assessment stage, not to manipulate responses by noising social desirability considerations. This has been prevented however by locking the return to the first part hoping that they will not align the responses for the second part in congruence with the former.

3.4. MEASURES

To elucidate the conditions and factors eliciting biased attitudes and construe the propensity of rater in hiring intention and ethnic orientation, we have used measures explained below. Literature has observed conflicting practices that applicants' qualifications are similar, ethnically conditioned raters evaluate the suitability fairly, yet ranking could be equivocally otherwise.

3.4.1. Hiring Intention and Confidence in Decision

Perceived Job Suitability Measure;

Raters' hiring intentions refer to the possibility of selecting the applicant for the position (McIntyre, Morberg, & Posner, 1980; two items).

Given all the information you read about this applicant;

1- How suitable do you believe this applicant is for this function?
2- What is the likelihood that you'd invite this individual for an interview**?**

Overall impression of the candidate and rater's confidence in hiring decision (Bart, Hass, Philbrick, Sparks, & Williams, 1997; one item)

Given all the information you read about this applicant;

1- How confident would you be in your decision to hire this candidate?

3.4.2. Ethnic Perspectives

Ethnic Identity orientation of the rater was assessed with the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure_Scale (MEIM) which attempts to measure the tendencies of the rater to moderate the selection. The genuine attitude of the recruiter is a controversial debate (Blommaert et al., 2011). Ethnic natives' discrimination against minorities has been observed to bias job suitability decisions in both real-life field experiments and lab experiments in the context of Arab minorities and Dutch natives (Derous et al., 2009 & Blommaert et al., 2011) is a leading study. However, with migrants in Turkiye reaching over 4 million stated as official figures, yet the unofficial figure is estimated to surmount 5 million, the situation is more complicated. Therefore, the tendency of individuals to prejudice the ethnic minority with existing cultural incongruences has long been proven effective stimulant of discrimination in many contexts.

Beyond identity and cultural gaps, profound threats and conflict issues are triggering prejudicial attitudes and behaviors to emerge. Therefore, threat perceptions synchronized with the collectivist and particularistic cultural characteristics influencing ethnicity would be examined to assess discriminative effects on hiring decisions

3.4.2.1. Ethnicity Orientation

Every person is born into an ethnic group, or sometimes two groups, but people differ on how important their ethnicity means to them, how they feel about it, and how much their behavior and memory schema are affected by it. These questions are about ethnicity or ethnic

group and how people feel about it or react to it (Phinney & Ong, 2007).

Ethnic identity has subdimensions as; self-categorization, commitment and attachment to the ethnicity, exploration of the ethnicity, ethnic behaviors, values and beliefs, in-group attitudes and evaluations, and salience.

- Self-categorization refers to self-identification with a specific ethnic group.
- Commitment and Attachment refer to the sense of belonging to a specific ethnic group.
- Belonging (Ashmore et al., 2004) is a highly valued feature of ethnic identity.
- Exploration refers to searching information relating to the ethnicity one belongs to.
- Ethnic behaviors refer to cultural artifacts of ethnicity like food and language.
- Evaluation refers to the level of positive feelings to own ethnic group.
- Values and beliefs are indicators of one's proximity to own ethnic group.
- Salience of ethnicity is the degree of importance at varying magnitude of individuals' attributes to their ethnic group.

3.4.2.2. Ethnicity Measures- Ingroup Identity (Bias for)

Phinney (1992) developed the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM) to examine the ethnic identity development process in three stages; achievement of the individual (depth of exploration and level of commitment), ethnic focused behaviors of individuals (level of cultural activities participation), affirmation and belonging (feelings towards the ethnic groups they are affiliated). The Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure Extended (MEIM-E) by Gaines, Marelich, Bunce, Robertson and Wright, 2013 *has* contracted multidimensional measures to 12 items in three subscales. The 12-item MEIM-E includes dimensions of ethnic identity search; (Race, religion, nationality being group or categorization entity), affirmation, belonging, and exploration. We will be using 7 items of MEIM in our study. For the ethnic identity search a sample item were *"I think a lot about how my life will be affected by my group*", for commitment "*I feel a strong attachment towards my group*", belonging "*I have a strong sense of belonging to my group*", and for affirmation "*I have a clear sense of my group and what it means for me*".

3.4.3. Integrated Threat

3.4.3.1. Realistic Threat Scale

Realistic threat has been built upon Realistic Group Conflict theory which suggests that people subjectively perceive threats about economic, social, or physical endangering potentials ascribed to outgroups (Bizman & Yinon, 2001). Realistic threat covers ingroup concerns like economic interest, welfare, and social status of the ingroup (Sherif, 1969; Stephan & Stephan, 1996) as well as intergroup conflict and competition over scarce resources (Levine & Campbell, 1972), such as jobs, housing, and business potentials. Research has proven that the realistic threat is a firm predictor of prejudice (Islam & Jahjah, 2001, Stephan & Stephan, 1996). Stephan and Stephan (1996) argue that realistic threat is more influential on prejudice than self-esteem, authoritarianism, and ethnocentrism.

(Stephan, Ybarra, & Bachman, 1999) A 7-item realistic threat scale was used to measure the degree to which individuals report fear regarding threats to the physical, material, or welfare of the ingroup or its members. In almost all the academic work we have studied, the threat scale of Stephan, Ybarra, and Bachman's, 1999 measurement was either used directly or has been taken as the core or reference point to further expand and adjust to the specific conditions. The number of items was either taken as identical to the original or expanded to cover the specifics of the case. One sample item of measure is "*Refugees get more from Turkiye than they contribute*".

3.4.3.2. Symbolic Threat Scale

(Stephan et al., 1999). A 7-item symbolic threat scale was used to capture the perception of the threat posed by perceived differences relating to cultural values, morals, and beliefs between the natives and refugees which threaten the 'way of life' of natives. One sample item of measure is "*The values and beliefs of refugees regarding social relations are not compatible with the beliefs and values of most Turkish citizens*".

In Turkiye, the studies of discrimination against Syrian migrants have motivated many researchers to specifically address Syrians with special scales developed for them or modified

scales considering their particular case, contributed from other scales but with increased items. In many cases, for example, one item of Stephan et al.'s threat scales were divided into two or three parts to better dig into the phenomenon.

Based on relevant literature review, our proposal consisted of two categories- ethnicity and job status- and gender as a control variable acting as an attitude indicator influencing our major constructs; ethnic identification and perceived threat. We have also proposed that a "prejudice distribution account" would be observed and evaluated in a diversified minority environment in the context of the labor market selection process. Therefore, it is very crucial to study and measure the effects of both social identity (ethnicity) and threat perception together to draw a conclusion and dig out if bias is produced as the explicit intention of ethnic hostility, perceived threat or simply perpetuating a homophilic preference and convenience.

IV. RESULTS and ANALYSIS

4.1. DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS

Table 4 provides an overview of the participants' demographic information.

Table 4. Participants' Profile

Variables	**N=232**	**Freq.%**
GENDER		
Male	**66**	28,4
Female	**166**	71,6
EDUCATION		
High School and lower education	**16**	6,9
Undergraduate/College	**112**	48,3
Graduate	**104**	44,8
HIRING STATUS		
HR workers	**34**	14,7
Hiring Positions	**87**	37,5
Non-Hiring Positions	**97**	41,8
Student	**14**	6,0
HIRING TENURE		
None	**95**	40,9
1 – 3 Years	**38**	16,4
3 + Years	**99**	42,7
DISCRIMINATION EXPOSURE		
Never exposed to any exposure	**78**	34
Exposed one or more types of discrimination	**154**	66

The data displayed in Table 5 illustrates the fitness of applicants by ethnicity and gender categories broken by job statuses.

Table 5. Raters' Hiring Intentions and Overall Impression on Candidate- Job Status Compared

		TURK		SYRIAN		UZBEK	
N=232, W=166 M=66		Mean	*Std. dev*	Mean	*Std. dev*	Mean	*Std. dev*
How suitable do you believe this applicant is for this function?							
HIGH-STATUS JOB	**Men**	**3,85**	0,846	**3,29**	1,106	**3,50**	0,932
	Women	**3,91**	0,729	**3,52**	0,939	**3,76**	0,772
LOW-STATUS JOB	**Men**	**3,71**	0,907	**3,05**	0,983	**3,45**	0,980
	Women	**3,84**	0,848	**3,15**	0,.957	**3,57**	0,975
What is the likelihood that you'd invite this individual for an interview?							
HIGH-STATUS JOB	**Men**	**3,97**	0,960	**3,39**	1,239	**3.56**	0,994
	Women	**4,09**	0,745	**3,46**	1,019	**3,77**	0,838
LOW-STATUS JOB	**Men**	**3,79**	0,985	**2,97**	1,150	**3,44**	1,010
	Women	**3,96**	0,848	**3,08**	1,033	**3,54**	1,001

The participants' have categorized their preferences based on job status and ethnicity. The data is summarized in Table 6, which illustrates the ranking of applicants by categories.

Table 6. Rater's Ranking of Applicants-Gender Compared

(*1=First, 2=Second, 3=Third Preferences and 4=No-Preference)*

Preferences in Percentage	**Turk %**			**Syrian %**			**Uzbek %**		
N=232 M=66, W=166	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
1. Preference-High Position	60,8%	59,1%	61,4%	21,1%	21,2%	21,1%	16,8%	15,2%	17,5%
Low Position	61,2%	60,6%	61,4%	5,6%	7,6%	4,8%	28,9%	27,3%	29,5%
2. Preference High Position	20,3%	13,6%	22,9%	20,3%	27,3%	17,5%	55,2%	56,1%	54,8%
Low Position	24,1%	21,2%	25,3%	40,5%	43,9%	39,2%	29,3%	30,3%	28,9%
3. Preference- High Position	17,2%	24,2%	14,5%	47,0%	40,9%	49,4%	24,6%	25,8%	24,1%
Low Position	12,5%	15,2%	11,4%	38,4%	36,4%	39,2%	33,6%	33,3%	33,7%
Non-Prefer- High Position	1,7%	3,0%	1,2%	11,6%	10,6%	12,0%	3,4%	3,0%	3,6%
Low Position	2,2%	3,0%	1,8%	15,5%	12,1%	16,9%	8,2%	9,1%	7,8%

The data displayed in Table 7 illustrates the first ranking preferences of applicants by ethnicity and gender categories broken by job statuses based on the rationale that first ranking indicates the gravity of the discrimination predisposition.

Table 7. Raters' Preferences for the 1st Ranking

N=232, N_{Men}=66, N_{Women}=166	**Turk** Total	Men	Women	**Syrian** Total	Men	Women	**Uzbek** Total	Men	Women
High Position									
-# of Preferences	**141**	**39**	**102**	**49**	**14**	**35**	**39**	**10**	**29**
% of Total Pref. %	***60,8%***			***21,1%***			16,8%		
within Gender		59,1%	61,4%		21,2%	21,1%		15,5%	17,5%
Low Position									
-# of Preferences	**142**	**40**	**102**	**13**	**5**	**8**	**67**	**18**	**49**
% of Total Pref. %	***61,2%***			***5,6%***			***28,9%***		
within Gender		60,6%	61,4%		7,6%	4,8%		27,7%	29,5%

The data displayed in Table 8 illustrates the general tendencies, that is means and standard deviations as well as ranking of preferences of applicants by ethnicities and job statuses comparing tendencies of each preference broken by hiring intention and confidence of decision on that intention.

Table 8. Hiring Intention and Confidence Evaluation and Decision for Ranking

N=232		Suitability		Invitation		Confidence		**1. st**		**2. nd**		**3rd.**		**No-Pref.**	
M=mean sd.=Stn. Dev.		**M**	**sd.**	**M**	**sd.**	**M**	**sd.**	**# Freq. & (%)**		**# Freq. & (%)**		**# Freq. & (%)**		**# Freq. (%)**	
Turk	High	3.89	0,763	4,06	0,812	3,76	0,839	141	60,8%	47	20,3%	40	7,2%	4	1,7%
	Low	3,80	0,865	3,67	0,881	3,91	0,890	142	61,2%	56	24,1%	29	2,5%	5	2,2%
Syrian	High	3,45	0,992	3,44	1,084	3,39	1,009	49	21,1%	47	20,3%	109	47,0%	27	11,6%
	Low	3,12	0,964	3,05	1,066	3,13	1,017	13	5,6%	94	40,5%	89	38,4%	36	15,5%
Uzbek	High	3,69	0,827	3,71	0,888	3,43	0,850	39	16,8%	128	55,2%	57	24,6%	8	3,4%
	Low	3,53	0,975	3,51	1,002	3,42	0,968	67	28,9%	68	29,3%	78	33,6%	19	8,2%

Notes: Suitability- How suitable do you believe this applicant is for this function?
Invitation-What is the likelihood that you'd invite this individual for an interview?
Confidence- How confident would you be in your decision to hire this candidate?

The data displayed in Table 9 illustrates the ranking preferences of applicants by ethnicity and educational level categories broken by job statuses.

Table 9. Rater's Ranking of Applicants' Priority - Education Compared
(*1=First, 2=Second, 3=Third Preferences and 4=No-Preference)*

Preference	**Turk**			**Syrian**			**Uzbek**		
N=232 U. Gr. =128, Gr.=104	Total %	Under Grad. %	Graduate %	Total %	Under Grad %	Graduate %	Total %	Under Grad. %	Graduate %
1 High Position	60,8	60,0	61,5	21,1	19,5	23,1	16,8	20,3	12,5
Low Position	61,2	59,4	63,5	5,6	3,1	8,7	28,9	30,5	26,9
2 High Position	20,3	18,8	22,1	20,3	23,4	16,3	55,2	53,1	57,7
Low Position	24,1	21,9	26,9	40,5	43,8	36,5	29,3	32,0	26,0
3 High Position	17,2	18,8	15,4	47	46,1	48,1	24,6	22,7	26,9
Low Position	12,5	15,6	8,7	38,4	32,0	41,3	33,6	28,9	39,4
4 High Position	1,7	2,34	1,0	11,6	11,0	12,5	3,4	3,9	2,9
Low Position	2,2	3,1	1,0	15,5	16,4	13,5	8,2	8,6	7,7
Mean & (Std. Dev.)									
High Position>	***1.68*** *(.886)*	***1.71*** *(.931)*	***1.67*** *(.856)*	***2.39*** *(.963)*	***2.40*** *(.961)*	***2.39*** *(.987)*	***2.14*** *(.708)*	***2.09*** *(.713)*	***2.15*** *(.885)*
Low Position>	***1.59*** *(.828)*	***1.62*** *(.883)*	***1.53*** *(.750)*	***2.59*** *(.813)*	***2.64*** *(.781)*	***2.54*** *(.855)*	***2.18*** *(.928)*	***2.12*** *(.926)*	***2.25*** *(.931)*

The data displayed in Table 10 illustrates the ranking preferences of applicants by ethnicity and hiring experience categories broken by job statuses.

Table 10. Rater's Ranking of Applicants' Priority-Hiring Status Compared
(*1=First, 2=Second, 3=Third Preferences and 4=No-Preference)*

Preferences	**Turk**				**Syrian**				**Uzbek**			
N=232, HR=34, Hr. Pos.=87, N. Hr. Pos.=97, Std.=14	HR %	Hiring Pos. %	Non-Hrn %	Stud. %	HR %	Hiring Pos. %	Non-Hrn %	Stud. %	HR %	Hiring Pos. %	Non-Hrn %	Stud. %
1 High Position	64,7	59,8	57,7	78,6	11,8	26,4	20,6	14,3	29,4	10,3	19,6	7,1
Low Position	64,7	58,6	60,8	71,4	5,9	5,7	6,2	0	23,5	33,3	26,8	28,6
2 High Position	14,7	17,2	24,7	21,4	20,6	24,1	17,5	14,3	52,9	55,2	55,7	57,1
Low Position	17,6	24,1	26,8	21,4	23,5	47,1	43,3	21,4	52,9	20,7	26,8	42,9
3 High Position	17,6	19,5	17,5	0	50,0	36,8	53,6	57,1	14,7	29,9	22,7	28,6

Low Position	11,8	13,8	12,4	7,1	41,2	39,1	33,0	64,3	11,8	40,2	37,1	21,4
4 High Position	2,9	3,4	0.0	0	17,6	12,6	8,2	14,3	2,9	4,6	2,1	7,1
Low Position	5,9	3,4	0.0	0	29,4	8,0	17,5	14,3	11,8	5,7	9,3	7,1
Mean Std. Dev **High Position** **Low Position**	***1,59*** *(,892)* ***1,59*** *(,925)*	***1,67*** *(,911)* ***1,62*** *(,852)*	***1,60*** *(,773)* ***1,52*** *(,709)*	***1,21*** *(,426)* ***1,36*** *(,633)*	***2,74*** *(,898)* ***2,94*** *(,886)*	***2,36*** *(1,011* ***2,49*** *(,729)*	***2,49*** *(,914)* ***2,62*** *(,847)*	***2,71*** *(,914)* ***2,93*** *(,616)*	***1,91*** *(,753)* ***1,80*** *(,913)*	***2,29*** *(,714)* ***2,18*** *(,971)*	***2,07*** *(,711)* ***2,29*** *(,968)*	***2,36*** *(,745)* ***2,07*** *(,917)*

The data displayed in Table 11 illustrates the ranking preferences of applicants by ethnicity and hiring tenure categories broken by job statuses.

Table 11. Rater's Ranking of Applicants' Priority **-** Hiring Tenure Compared

Preference	**Turk**			**Syrian**			**Uzbek**		
None=95, 1-3 year=38, 3year+=99	None %	1-3 Years %	3 + Years %	None %	1-3 Years %	3 + Years %	None %	1-3 Years %	3 + Years %
1 High Position	62,1	52,6	62,6	20,0	28,9	19,2	17,9	15,8	16,2
Low Position	66,3	63,2	55,6	5,3	2,6	7,1	25,3	34,2	30,3
2 High Position	25,3	21,1	15,2	16,8	31,6	19,2	55,8	47,4	57,6
Low Position	23,2	18,4	27,3	38,9	47,4	39,4	30,5	26,3	29,3
3 High Position	12,6	21,1	20,2	52,6	36,8	45,5	23,2	28,9	24,2
Low Position	10,5	13,2	14,1	37,9	42,1	37,4	33,7	34,2	33,3
4 High Position	0	5,3	2,0	10,5	2,6	16,2	3,2	7,9	2,0
Low Position	0	5,3	3,0	17,9	7,9	16,2	10,5	5,3	7,1
Mean & (Std. Dev.) ***High Position ..>*** ***Low Position ...>***	***1,51*** *(,73)* ***1,44****(,60)*	***1,79*** *(,96)* ***1,61*** *(,92)*	***1,62*** *(,87)* ***1,65*** *(,84)*	***2,54****(,92)* ***2,68****(,39)*	***2,13****(,85)* ***2,55****(,69)*	***2,59****(,98)* ***2,63****(,80)*	***2,12****(,73)* ***2,29****(.94)*	***2,29****(,84)* ***2,11****(,95)*	***2,12****(,68)* ***2,17****(,95)*

The data displayed in Table 12 illustrates the frequency of discrimination perceptions by raters broken down by raters' gender and discrimination types experienced.

Table 12. Discrimination Perceived by Raters – Cases by Gender

Responses: 232 Male (66), Female (166) Cases: Male (102), Female (294) = 396							
Never experienced any discrimination		24	54				78
		30,8%	69,2%		23,5%	18,4%	

Ethnicity		12	29				41
		29,3%	70,7%		11,7%	9,8%	
Religion or Sect		11	30				41
		26,8%	73,2%		10,7%	10,2%	
Political views and behavior		15	48				63
		23,8%	76,2%		14,7%	16,3%	
Gender discrimination		4	65				69
		5,8%	94,2%		3,9%	22,1%	
Socioeconomic status		9	24				33
		27,3%	72,7%		8,8%	8,1%	
Education Level		3	9				12
		25,0%	75,0%		2,9%	3,0%	
Linguistic Defect or dialect		7	14				21
		33,3%	66,7%		6,8%	4,7%	
Not affiliated with a social group		17	21				38
		44,7%	55,3%		16,6%	7,1%	

The data displayed in Table 13 illustrates the discrimination perceptions by raters broken down by factors explained in tendencies.

Table 13. Discrimination Types Raters Exposed–by Construct

If faced with discrimination as such **N= 232**	Total	E Search		E ABC		RHTR	
		Means	Std. Dev.	Means	Std. Dev.	Means	Std. Dev.
Never experienced any discrimination	78 W=54, M=24	2,84	0,103	3,20	0,097	3,52	0,069
Ethnicity	41 W=29, M=12	3,30	0,161	3,50	0,137	3,29	0,131
Religion or Sect	41 W=30, M=11	3,49	0,154	3,53	0,146	3,46	0,133
Political views and behavior	63 W=48, M=15	3,09	0,126	3,47	0,136	3,53	0,111
Gender	69 W=65, M=4	3,00	0,133	3,22	0,124	3,4	0,101
Socioeconomic status	33 W=24, M=9	2,99	0,161	3,02	0,212	3,69	0,154
Education Level	12 W=9, M=3	3,20	0,253	3,64	0,236	3,76	0,208
Linguistic insufficiency or dialect	21 W=14, M=7	3,25	0,238	3,16	0,205	3,46	0,141

Not being affiliated with a social group	38 W=21, M=17	3,03	0,154	3,42	0,165	3,56	0,158
Total Cases	377 W=294, M=102						

In responding to hiring intention's Suitability and Invitation questions, women always have scored higher average than men in 1st and 2nd ranking preferences for all ethnicities for both statuses. Both men and women consistently scored higher average for Uzbek than they did for Syrians, again for both statuses. Turks scored a higher percentage in the first ranking than the combined scores of Syrians and Uzbeks together, and Uzbeks dominated 2nd ranking (55,2%) in high-status jobs while Syrians dominated 2nd ranking preference (40,5%) for the low-status jobs. Based on overall means for all ethnicities, Turks are overwhelmingly designated as the first rank candidate, Uzbeks for 2nd and Syrians for 3rd.

Women consistently scored lower than men for Syrians relating to the 1st ranking of high and low statuses and 2nd ranking for the high-status job and scored higher than men for Uzbeks in both statuses for the first ranking. This shows women are more strongly biased against Syrians than Uzbeks. Education level has shown a similar tendency to gender for the first ranking of high and low-status jobs. Analyzing based on Hiring Status, HR has scored strongly for Turks for high as well as low-status jobs and scored much higher for Uzbek than Syrian. However, other Hiring Statuses scored in favor of Syrian to Uzbek for the 1st ranking of high-status jobs adapting the general pattern. Hiring Tenure has displayed a similar tendency to others.

The message we may gather is that the hiring pattern is so that Turks dominate for first preference and Uzbeks are the alternatives as an indication of Prejudice Distribution Account, hierarchizing among minorities, impacting as an influential and crucial determinant in selection processes.

This observed tendency that Syrians scored higher for high-status jobs' first ranking compared to Uzbeks deserves special attention if any perceived differentiation in CVs could have been responsible for this selection. However, HR being a specialist in selection processes have scored higher for Uzbeks than Syrians, which may raise the question if other

raters have perceived any material advantage in the Syrian CV for the high position. One method is to rotate the CVs among candidates as a common practice applied in literature.

4.2. INFERENTIAL ANALYSIS

4.2.1. FACTOR ANALYSIS AND LATENT VARIABLES

Although our research is mainly grounded on substantially tested and theoretically proven well-known measures of ethnic identification (MEIM, Phinney, J. 1992**)** as well as measures of integrated threat components of Realistic Threat and Symbolic Threat **(**Stephan et al., 1999**)**, when you contextualize research to a specific case and time (i.e., Syrian migrants in Turkiye) it is plausible to explore the implied and observed variables to secure a sound analysis. Factor analysis involves unobserved variables (latent variables-factors) derived from a set of observed variables (manifest variables), and explains the level of interrelations in covariances and correlations. Hence, we perform analysis to discover and disclose the relations between the empirically derived and implied constructs and logically established materials (Gable et al., 2004).

Generally, two categories of factor analysis are performed depending on whether we wish to lay out the data pattern (EFA) if observed data behaves in conformity with the implied data or if we wish to test statistical hypothesis involving postulated relations between observed information with underlying factors in a configured model (CFA).

The basic rationale for EFA is to develop alternative models to best fit the data having backed by theoretical support. EFA is applied when the relations between observed and unobserved (latent) variables are unknown and we try to find out if and how the causality exists given a social phenomenon under study.

We explore the factors extracted through rotations, examining the interrelatedness of variables as presented by our collected data, without being inspired or influenced as a priori of any given theory. As far as the Ethnic analysis is concerned, we came up with a similar factor structure with MEIM (Phinney, 1992), however, with Realistic Threat analysis although Stephen's, 1999 measure suggests no subconstruct, our test extracted two

components; one could be explained as Economic concern and the other as Social Welfare. We have decided to include these two constructs to propose a different indigenous perspective to characterize the phenomena particular to our local experience.

To follow this approach initially we have conducted reliability and validity tests of observed data to justify further statistical analysis. In inferential analysis subscale level (component-factor-latent variable) measuring, it is essential to assess sub-measures in vis-a-vis interaction and cross-loading of items on each factor to define implications on the attitudes of respondents. This will clarify relevant powers of ethnic identity and threat constructs to affect the discriminative tendency either converging or diverging pattern.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis is a theory-based analysis placing substantively plausible stipulations on the factor (latent variable) about its observed variables. Thus, CFA enables the testing of factor correlations through variances and covariances. CFA was handled as part of Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) grounded on interpreting covariances (McDonald, 1978) to corroborate postulated hypotheses regarding the observed items and their factor structures based on prior theory and earlier research. CFA is composed of two parts;

- Measuring the relations between latent variables and observed variables, and
- The series of recursive or non-recursive relations among latent variables.

The priority of CFA is that you have a firm assumption that you have a set number of factors and that the observed variables will load onto specific factors.

The tool we utilized for EFA is IBM SPSS 22.0 and for CFA is IBM SPSS AMOS 23.0.

4.2.1.1. Exploratory Factor Analysis

Test of Normality

Many statistical analyses are based on the assumption of normal distribution of variables studied. The assumption of normality is essential if we have to generalize our inferences beyond our selected sample. There are several methods to test the normality, these are Histograms, QQ Plots, and Box Plots as visual tools, and Kolmogorov Smirnov test,

Lilliefors test, and Shapiro Wilk test as inferential tests. We do not have to conduct all the tests if the visualization techniques are conclusive, however, inferential statistics (Hypothesis Testing) can give a more concise idea if the variable we test deviates significantly from a normal distribution. Shapiro Wilk is the most adequate one because it has been developed particularly for normality tests, not applicable to other distributions, whereas KS and Lilliefors can be used for non-normal distributions. All these tests assume the distribution is normal if the p-value is greater than 0,05.

Correlation

EFA usually concludes with a factor suggestion, however, it is essential to make sure that these variables are meaningful. We have to check if there is appropriate intercorrelation among the variables. When our observed data measures the common dimensions (components), we either achieve the correlations among the variables or deduct those variables that have no association. A correlation matrix is formed for those variables to determine which to include or not include. The problem arises when we have too high a correlation called multicollinearity and perfect correlation is called singularity which either case is to be excluded from the analysis because you are measuring the same thing with more than one variable which is implausible and it harms the predicting precision of variables. Hence, in both cases, variables that correlate or do not correlate very highly should be excluded from the analysis because they are not statistically significant. Correlation *Coefficient* value $R < 0,8$ (to some it is 0,7) is the acceptable value in EFA analysis. The significance value of each correlation is also important to indicate that this correlation is not by chance, meaning the probability of being by chance is not more than 0,05. The determinant of R-matrix is required to be bigger than 0,00001 for meeting multicollinearity and singularity tests, if not then one of the variables can properly be dropped off.

Measuring Concepts

The quality of the selected measure and its applicability to the phenomenon represented by the sample data is explained usually in terms of validity and reliability-consistency- shortly,

- Reliability is the consistency that the given measure can explain a factor through relevant items obtained in observation through plausible interrelations among items
- Validity is the effectiveness and power of the relevant items as manifesting variables to explain the construct intended to represent the phenomena.

Reliability

Reliability explains the degree of relations among measured items one to another in a consistent and generalizable manner. There are two types of consistency; Internal and External.

Internal consistency concerns the degrees of interrelationship of the measuring components, and the extent with which they measure or predict the common construct. Cronbach's alpha is the value that measures the internal consistency which is the correlation between every independent item with every other independent item in a given measure. The value ranges between -1 to 1, negative value meaning reverse interrelation between two variables, 0 meaning no interrelation whatsoever, and a sign meaning parallel relationship. The threshold reliability value of Cronbach's alpha of 0,7 or greater is accepted (Nunnaly, 1978).

There is also Construct Reliability which represents the part of the variance in each independent variable that the relevant -construct-latent variables are accounted for (O'Rourke & Hatcher, 2013). It is very similar to Cronbach's alpha of latent variable. A coefficient of 0,85 is the cutoff value for construct reliability above which may indicate the degree of collinearity which means that there is a redundancy in items, however, a strict rule for cutoffs is not suggested, and judgments are contingent on the study case (Johns & Holden, 1997; Schmitt, 1996).

To summarize; Cronbach's alpha considers a certain set of assumptions;

- All the items are associated with a comparable strength with the factor and they measure a common factor
- They are unidimensional, have no cross-loading, and
- The variances and covariances of the items are equal

Validity

The target of internal validity is to exclude unrelated effects of indicating variables on the results (scores on the criterion-dependent variable), dealing only with obtained variances attributed substantially to experiments that are controlled by the researchers, claiming that the measure has internal validity. If factors other than the measured items could be accounted for the effects of the experiment, then the internal validity is said to be weakened.

There are also validity matters of Operationalizations and Generalizability;

Operationalization refers to the adequate identification of independent and dependent variables and their structural relations so that the experiment corroborates theoretical conceptualizations.

Generalizability refers to the extent to which the experiment is applicable across other settings and, the robustness of conceptualization that can recur under diverse conditions, that is repeating the same design with different populations.

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity

Sampling adequacy refers to whether observed variables captured are homogenous collection and if correlations of variables are adequate. Adequacy is represented by Keiser- Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's test of sphericity. KMO measures the suitability and adequacy of each variable in the observed data for factor analysis. The lower value acceptable for KMO is usually 0,50 and values 0,5-0,7 mediocre, 0,7-0,8 good, 0,8-0,9 very good, and over 0,9 excellent.

Bartlett's test indicates the significance of intercorrelations among independent variables (Hair et al., 2006) and the upper limit of the generally accepted significance (p) test is 0,05 in social sciences.

Similar to reliability, with validity we also have two forms of construct validity, which are key items in SEM projects, that are Convergent and Discriminant validity.

Convergent validity refers to the factor that correlates with another factors-latent variable, and Discriminant validity refers to the factor that has a negligible association with the other factor being validated (Springer et al., 2002).

Factor Extraction and Factor Rotation

EFA displays eigenvalues associated with each factor representing the variance explained by that linear component (% of variance factor explained). Analysis extracts all factors with eigenvalues greater than the threshold (acceptable level of var) we have specified (depending on application) in our analysis, common practice is the assignment of 1. Communalities are calculated for each factor showing the percentages of variances explained by that factor, and knowing that initially every variable loads onto one particular factor. In our extraction list, factors representing a higher percentage lineup first, and the list descends as long as it reaches the factor with our "loading criteria" that we have specified before the process, normally it is 0,4, and those factors below this figure are suppressed out from the analysis. One visual tool to observe the commonality is the scree plot showing the components graphically.

Communality percentages of factors may drastically differ with the first factor having the highest loading and the follow-up ones considerably lower. To smooth and equalize the loadings onto these factors the variances represented, are redistributed in a process called "factor rotation" to optimize the factor structure, and as a consequence relative importance of the factors is equalized. Hence, we select those components accounting for most of the total variances, and the remaining components (factors) are deemed to be insignificant as they represent only a small proportion of the variability.

In an exploratory sense, we normally make judgments on the final rotated component matrix focusing on the highly loaded questions to the particular factor and defining a label for the factor covering all the related observed data loaded to it.

4.2.1.1.1. EFA Test Results

4.2.1.1.1.1. Multigroup Ethnic Identity Test

1-tailed significance of correlation coefficients part of resulting correlation matrix (R-Matrix) shows that none of the variables consistently have a significance (p) value of below 0,05 and there is only one case between measure-items 12 and item 3 (0,135) significance value exceeding 0,05 level which we believe is quite negligible. The Determinant of the R Matrix value was 0,000 which is lower than 0,00001 advising to check through the correlation matrix if some variables correlate very highly. Even the criterium is R > 0,8 to drop that variable, in our sample the highest correlations were 0,823 between item 11 and item 10, and 0,799 between item 11 and 8. Item 8 had correlations of 0,766, 0,747, 0,751, and 0,799 with items 7, 9, 10, and 11 respectively, and item 11 had 0,799 and 0,823 with items 8 and 10 respectively. Even though item 11 had the highest two correlations, item 8 had four correlations with others that exceeded 0,7. Dropping item 8 of the analysis leaves us with one high correlation whereas dropping item 11 leaves us with three crucial correlations. Therefore, it would be logical to drop variable 8 to have the multicollinearity issue almost solved. In our modified EFA analysis our Correlation Determinant of the R Matrix value is 0,001 when we discard item 8, which is far above of lower limit of 0,00001. Therefore, multicollinearity is not a concern anymore in this respect, for the rest of MEIM items.

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett test of sphericity were conducted to test the adequacy of data before confirmatory factor analysis (Sharma, 1996). Result of the tests (KMO=0.913, χ^2Bartlett test (55) =1560,224, p=0.000) were satisfactory. An adequacy value close to 1 means that the correlation pattern is sufficiently compact and factor analysis indicates that the factor is distinct and reliable. Hence, our adequacy measures fall into the almost “excellent” category and we can be confident that CFA is appropriate to conduct as the next process for our research.

Bartlett's test of significance is far below 0,05, therefore we may foresee certain relationships among the variables that we incorporate in our analysis. Our analysis extracts 2-factor loadings and the eigenvalues of each factor indicate the variance associated with that

component. Our analysis explains the eigenvalues as percentages of variances. The first factor accounted for a total variance of 36,14% and the second one of 31,46%. We have factors with communality percentages of 0,7 and higher as well as lower, however, our average for 11 items is over 0,6 which is required for a reliable analysis, although the ideal sample size requirement is not reached the number of variables is below 30, that is well acceptable by the statistical requirements. We took the factor labeling of the implied measure definition since this has already been done many times and verified/proven by many research, as MEIM subscales;

- Ethnic Identity Search (E_ Search - Cognitive dimension) representing first 5 items of measure (31,46%. Of VAR. explained), and
- Affirmation, Belonging and Commitment (E_ABC - Affective dimension) following 6 items (36,14%. Of VAR. explained).

Thus, a total variance of 67,60% far exceeds the threshold value, providing sound statistical ground. Reliability analyses using Cronbach's **α** point out that the independent variables of E_ Search ($\alpha = 0,853$) and E_ABC ($\alpha = 0,910$) prove adequate internal consistency.

Observed data for MEIM prove to be multivariate normal. Ethnic Search; Mean= 2,99 Std. Dev=0,961, Skewness of -0,061, and Kurtosis of -0,701 are both between -1 and +1 and well within the boundaries of (+/-) 2,2 representing fairly good normal distribution.

E_ABC mean= 3,27 Std. Dev.=0,955 Skewness of -0,312 and Kurtosis of -0,481 are both between -1 and +1 and well within the boundaries of (+/-) 2,2 std. dev. representing fairly good normal distribution. EFA analysis of MEIM summarized in Table 14 below.

Table 14. Factors of MEIM Identified by Principal Components Factor Analysis

Factor Name (Latent Var.)	Factor Items (Independent Variables)	Loading	Total Var. % Explained (Eigenvalue)	Var. Explained by Factor Communality	Construct Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha)	Means & Std. Dev.
ETHNIC SEARCH (E_ Search)			**36,14**		**0,853**	**2,99 (0,961)**
	EIB_1 I have spent time trying to find out more about my ethnic group, such as its history, traditions, and customs.	0,806		0,666		3,33 (1,161)
	EIB_2 I am active in organizations or social groups that include mostly members of my ethnic group.	0,642		0,462		2,74 (1,233)
	EIB_3 I think a lot about how my life will be affected by my ethnic group membership	0,817		0,704		2,81 (1,240)
	EIB_4 To learn more about my ethnic background, I have often talked to other people about my ethnic group	0,806		0,766		2,91 (1,234)
	EIB_5 I participate in the cultural practices of my own group, such as special food, music, or customs.	0,683		0,580		3,16 (1,186)
AFFIRM. / BELONG. / COMMT. (E_ABC)			**69,25**		**0,91**	**3,27 (0,955)**
	EIB_6 I have a clear sense of my ethnic background and what it means for me.	0,610		0,595		3,10 (1,175)
	EIB_7 I am happy that I am a member of the group I belong to.	0,836		0,728		3,44 (1,150)
	EIB_9 I understand pretty well what my ethnic group membership means to me.	0,740		0,691		3,21 (1,122)
	EIB_10 I have a lot of pride in my ethnic group.	0,840		0,772		3,23 (1,200)
	EIB_11 I feel a strong attachment towards my own ethnic group. (Item dropped due to multicollinearity)	0,804		0,784		3,12 (1,207)
	EIB_12 I feel good about my cultural or ethnic background	0,821		0,689		3,54 (1,031)
(KMO=0.913, χ^2Bartlett test (55) =1560,224, p=0.000)						

4.2.1.1.1.2. Realistic Threat Test

Realistic Threat measures consist of 7 items, 5 of which reverse questions, which we have recoded to make it measurable in a common measure.1-tailed significance of correlation coefficients part of resulting correlation matrix (R-Matrix) shows that none of the variables consistently have a significance (p) value of below 0,5 there is however one case between item 1 to item 2 (p=0,387) significance value exceeding 0,05 level which we believe is quite negligible. As far as the Correlation Coefficients are concerned, they are all well below 0,8 (or 0,7 for some) (R) and the Determinant of the R Matrix value is 0,111 which is far above of lower limit of 0,00001. Therefore, multicollinearity is not a concern in this survey data in Realistic Threat Measure, however, there are correlations which are below 0,3 which is not desirable. RTH_1 (*Refugees get more from Turkiye than they contribute*) has a very low correlation with other items which we will deal with in CFA.

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett test of sphericity were conducted to test the adequacy of data to carry on factor analysis (Sharma, 1996). Result of the tests (KMO=0,775, χ^2Bartlett test (21) =500,317, p=0,000) were satisfactory. An adequacy value close to 1 means that the correlation pattern is sufficiently compact and factor analysis indicates that the factor is distinct and reliable. Hence, our adequacy measures fall into the "good" category, very close to "very good" and we can be confident that CFA is appropriate for our research.

Bartlett's test of significance is far below 0,05, therefore we may foresee certain relationships among the variables that we incorporate in our analysis.

Our analysis extracts 2-factor loadings and the eigenvalues of each factor indicate the variance associated with that component. Our analysis explains the eigenvalues as percentages of variances. The first factor accounts for 34,23% of variance and the second one of 29,40%. Thus, the total variance of 63,63% far exceeds the lowest threshold value of 40% providing sound statistical ground. We have factors with communality percentages of 0,7 and higher as well as lower, however, our average for 7 items is 0,636 which is over 0,6

that is required for a reliable test, although the sample size requirement (n=300) is not reached the number of variables is below 30, that is well acceptable by the statistical requirements.

The realistic Threat measure (Stephan et al., 1999) has been observed to be overwhelmingly used in the literature and neither in the literature nor in the published documents regarding Stephan's realistic threat measure, we have not encountered any subscales/latent variables within the scale. Therefore, factor labeling is something we have to elaborate on in this study. We observed 2-factor loadings of 7 variables after the factor extraction and rotation. The first factor involving item 6,1,3,5 in order of loading which can be attributed as an *Economic Dimension*, reported on a 5 points-likert scale which two are reverse questions and explained 34,22% of the variances, and factor loading range from 0,780 to 0,606. The second factor involving item 2,4,7 in loading order which can be labeled as *Social Welfare Dimension*, reported on a 5 points-likert scale and they all are reverse questions and explained 29,40% of the variance and factor loading range from 0,877 to 0,756. Reliability analyses using Cronbach's **α** point out that the independent variables of RTHR (α = 0,783) prove adequate internal consistency. EFA analysis of Realistic Threat is summarized in Table 15 below.

Table 15. Realistic Threat Identified by Principal Components Factor Analysis

Factor Name (Latent Var.)	Factor Items (Independent Variables)	Loading	Total Var. % Explained (Eigenvalue)	Var. Explained by Factor Communality	Construct Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha)	Means & Std. Dev.
REALISTIC THREAT (RTHR)			63,63		0,783	3,06 (1,056)
	RTHR_1 Refugees get more from Turkiye than they contribute	0,780		0,640		3,69 (1,551)
	RTHR_2_RC The children of refugees should have the same rights to attend public schools in Turkiye as Turkish children do * **(reverse question)**	0,877		0,771		2,76 (1,245)

	RTHR_3 Refugees have increased the tax burden on Turkish citizens	0,727		0,603		4,22 (0,927)
	RTHR_4_RC Refugees are not displacing Turkish workers from their jobs * **(reverse question)**	0,849		0,750		2,94 (1,271)
	RTHR_5_RC Refugees should be eligible for the same health care benefits (i.e., Medicare) as those received by Turkish citizens * **(reverse question)**	0,606		0,514		3,76 (1,151)
	RTHR_6_RC The quality of social services available to Turkish citizens has remained the same, despite refugees coming to Turkiye. * **(reverse question)**	0,652		0,507		3,81 (1,151)
	RTHR_7_RC Refugees are as entitled to subsidized housing or subsidized utilities (water, electricity) as "poor" Turkish citizens are. * **(reverse question)**	0,756		0,669		3,47 (1,169)
	(KMO=0,775, χ^2Bartlett test (21) =500,317, p=0,000)					

4.2.1.1.1.3. Symbolic Threat Test

1-tailed significance of correlation coefficients part of resulting correlation matrix (R-Matrix) shows that all of the variables have significance (p) value of below 0,5. Correlation Coefficients are all well below 0,8 (R) and even below 0,520 which is very critical and the Determinant of the R Matrix value is 0,137 which is far above of lower limit of 0,00001. Therefore, multicollinearity is not a concern in this survey data in the Symbolic Threat test.

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett test of sphericity were conducted to test the adequacy of data to carry on factor analysis (Sharma, 1996). Result of the tests (KMO=0,854, χ^2Bartlett test (21) =452,075, p=0,000) were satisfactory. An adequacy value close to 1 means that the correlation pattern is sufficiently compact and factor analysis indicates that the factor is distinct and reliable. Bartlett's test of significance is far below 0,05, therefore we may foresee certain relationships among the variables that we incorporate in our analysis. Hence, our adequacy measures fall into the "very good" category and we can be confident that CFA is appropriate for our research. Our analysis extracts only one factor loading therefore the solution was not rotated and the variance associated with that

component is 47,69%. Thus, the total variance exceeds the lowest threshold value of 40% providing acceptable statistical ground. We have communality percentages all below 0,7 and an average of 0,477 which is not very desirable. Reliability analyses using Cronbach's **α** point out that the independent variables prove adequate internal consistency (α = 0,815). EFA analysis of Symbolic Threat is summarized in Table 16 below.

Table 16. Symbolic Threat Identified by Principal Components Factor Analysis

Factor Name (Latent Var.)	Factor Items (Independent Variables)	Loading	Total Var. % Explained (Eigenvalue)	Var. Explained by Factor Communality	Construct Reliability (Cronbach's Alpha)	Means & Std. Dev.
SYMBOLIC THREAT (STHR)			47,69		0,815	3,73 (0,776)
	STHR_1 Refugees should learn to conform to the rules and norms of our society as soon as possible after they arrive.	0,662		0,438		4,08 (1,060)
	STHR_2 Refugee intake is undermining Turkish culture	0,786		0,617		3,77 (1,154)
	STHR_3_RC The values and beliefs of refugees regarding work are basically quite similar to those of Turks * **(reverse question**)	0,639		0,408		3,82 (1,020)
	STHR_4 The values and beliefs of refugees regarding moral and religious issues are not compatible with the beliefs and values of most Turks	0,682		0,465		3,72 (1,095)
	STHR_5_RC The values and beliefs of refugees regarding family issues and socializing children are basically quite similar to that of Turks * **(reverse question**)	0,663		0,440		3,23 (1,330)

	STHR_6 The values and beliefs of refugees regarding social relations are not compatible with the beliefs and values of most Turks	0,762		0,580		3,82 (1,082)
	STHR_7_RC Refugees should not have to accept Turkish ways * **(reverse question**)	0,625		0,391		3,69 (1,140)
	(KMO=0,854, χ^2 Bartlett test (21) =452,075, p=0,000)					

Observed data for Symbolic Threat prove to be multivariate normal; Skewness of 0,038 and Kurtosis of -0,882 are both between -1 and +1 and well within the boundaries of (+/-) 2,2. Mean 3,73 and std. dev. (0,776), representing fairly good normal distribution.

4.2.1.1.1.4. Hiring Intention Test

EFA analysis of Hiring Intention is summarized in Table 17 below.

Table 17. Hiring Intention EFA

TURK HIGH-STATUS JOB	Mean	Std. Dev.	R	p	KMO/Sig.	% of Var.
How suitable do you believe this applicant is for this function?	3,89	0,763	0,772	.000	0,500/.000	88.76
What is the likelihood that you'd invite this individual for an interview**?**	4,06	0,812	0,772			

SYRIAN HIGH-STATUS JOB	Mean	Std. Dev.	R	p	KMO/Sig.	% of Var.
How suitable do you believe this applicant is for this function?	3,45	0,992	0,774	.000	0,500/.000	85.56
What is the likelihood that you'd invite this individual for an interview**?**	3,44	1,084	0,774			

UZBEK HIGH STATUS JOB	Mean	Std. Dev.	R	p	KMO/Sig.	% of Var.

How suitable do you believe this applicant is for this function?	3,69	0,827	0,788	.000	0,500/.000	85.90
What is the likelihood that you'd invite this individual for an interview**?**	3,71	0,888	0,788			

TURK LOW-STATUS JOB	Mean	Std. Dev.	R	p	KMO/Sig.	% of Var.
How suitable do you believe this applicant is for this function?	3,80	0,865	0,820	,000	0,500/.000	89.59
What is the likelihood that you'd invite this individual for an interview**?**	3,91	0,890	0,820			

SYRIAN LOW-STATUS JOB	Mean	Std. Dev.	R	p	KMO/Sig.	% of Var.
How suitable do you believe this applicant is for this function?	3,12	0,964	0,854	.000	0,500/.000	90.95
What is the likelihood that you'd invite this individual for an interview**?**	3,05	1,066	0,854			

UZBEK LOW-STATUS JOB	Mean	Std. Dev.	R	p	KMO/Sig.	% of Var.
How suitable do you believe this applicant is for this function?	3,53	0,975	0,863	.000	0,500/.000	90.32
What is the likelihood that you'd invite this individual for an interview**?**	3,51	1,002	0,863			

1-tailed significance of correlation coefficients part of resulting correlation matrix (R-Matrix) for all the Hiring constructs of Turk, Syrian, and Uzbek measures for high and low-status jobs show that all of the variables have significance (p) value of below 0,5. Correlation Coefficients are all above 0,8 (R) which is normal for two-item measures, and the Determinant of R Matrix values are all far above of lower limit of 0,00001. Therefore,

multicollinearity is not a concern in this survey data in the Hiring Intention test. Loadings are all above 0,9 which is very good.

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett test of sphericity were conducted to test the adequacy of data to carry on factor analysis (Sharma, 1996). Results of the tests KMO are all 0,5 which is the cutoff value, however, this is again very normal for two-item tests and p=0,000 for all indicating satisfactory results. Hence, our adequacy measures fall into the "good" category and we can be confident that CFA for these constructs is appropriate for our research.

4.2.1.1.1.5. Conclusion

Multi-item measures were conducted for all the constructs for validity, reliability, and dimensionality using EFA. All the reliability values of the constructs were above the 0,7 threshold, and they ranged from 0,802 to 0,910. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin's measure of sampling adequacy tests for all the constructs was above the threshold level at satisfactory levels to set out for CFA. Concluding the EFA process takes us to conduct Confirmatory Factor Analysis as the next process. SPSS AMOS will be used for this purpose and will test model fitting and reconsider the modeling followed by the regression analysis to accept or reject the hypothesis against set propositions. EFA is targeted to determine the psychometric properties of measures, and CFA will focus on model fittings of implied properties of theories and measures to our observed data.

Table 18 below is the summary of general tendencies and normality values of all the factors involved in our thesis.

Table 18. Descriptive Statistics after EFA

Composite Variables	Mean	Std. Dev.	Skewness	Kurtosis
ETHNIC SEARCH	2,99	0,961	-0,077	-0,803
ETH. AFFIRM/ BEL. / COMM.	3,27	0,955	-0,125	-0,069
REALISTIC THREAT	3,06	1,056	-0,06	-0,038

Economic Dimension	3,93	0,773	-0,603	-0,003
Social Welfare	3,00	1,014	0,249	-0,819
SYMBOLIC THREAT	3,73	0,776	0,046	-0,707
HIGH-STATUS JOB POSITIONS				
1st Priority Ranking Group	1,68	0,908	0,920	-0,550
Median: 1 Turk dominating				
2nd Priority Ranking Group	2,14	0,794	0,481	-0,010
Median: 2 Uzbek dominating				
3rd Priority Ranking Group	2,59	0,917	-0,342	-0,705
Median: 3 Syrian dominating				
LOW-STATUS JOB POSITIONS				
1st Priority Ranking Group	1,53	0,789	1,580	2,089
Median: 1 Turk dominating				
2nd Priority Ranking Group	2,40	0,939	-0,109	-0,962
Median: 2 Uzbek dominating				
3rd Priority Ranking Group	2,64	0,915	-0,141	-0,788
Median: 3 Syrian dominating				
AVERAGE RANKINGS OF ETHNICITIES-HIGH STATUS JOB				
Turk	1,66	0,888	0,927	-0,535
Uzbek	2,15	0,708	0,317	0,108
Syrian	2,49	0,964	-0,219	-1,070
AVERAGE RANKINGS OF ETHNICITIES-LOW STATUS JOB				
Turk	1,59	0,828	1,233	0,554
Uzbek	2,21	0,928	0,139	-1,030
Syrian	2,64	0,813	0,136	-0,560
AVG. HIRING TENDENCY-HIGH (Suitability, Invitation)				
Turk	3,99	0,774	-1,194	1,552
Uzbek	3,73	0,740	-0,963	1,542
Syrian	3,52	0,919	-0,680	0,331
AVG. HIRING TENDENCY-LOW (Suitability, Invitation)				
Turk	3,87	0,830	-0,945	1,125

Uzbek	3,58	0,907	-0,676	0,366
Syrian	3,15	0,947	-0,581	-0,475
OVERALL HIRING TENDENCY (Suitability, Invitation)				
Turk	3,92	0,618	-0,779	1,617
Uzbek	3,61	0,753	-0,970	1,429
Syrian	3,27	0,818	-0,663	0,205

Notes: Population size N=232. Each Ranking Group represents scores specific to that group, and within groups, identities represented as Turk=1, Uzbek=2, and Syrian=3. So, P1_Group is a collection of priorities containing 1s to represent Turk, 2s for Uzbek, and 3s for Syrian, likewise with P2_Group and P3_Group for high-status jobs, and P1_L_Group, P2_L_Group, and P3_L_Group for low-status job ranking collections. The lowest score 1 represents first selection rank, 2 second, 3 third and 4 represents the candidate has been evaluated as not preferred for any rank.

The constructs in this table are Composite variables, not the Latent variables, and include their respective items as validated by EFA, therefore differentiated from the latent variables as they are formed by the predicting independent variables validated by CFA of SEM. Overall hiring tendency represents the combined high and low-status jobs.

4.2.1.2. SEM/Single Model Fit Analysis (CFA) and Path Analysis

SEM is a statistical method used in inferential analysis to test research hypotheses explaining the relations between observed variables (manifesting, predicting) representing the latent variables as exogenous) and dependent variables as endogenous in a structured model assumption (Hoyle, 1995). It employs a multivariate approach that can measure- Factor Analysis (Model Fit test), that is Measurement Model and Structural Model including Path Analysis (Regressions models and equations). It facilitates analyzing the interrelations among all variables and tests hypotheses among the constructs. The traditional hierarchical method stipulates step by step approach to calculate regression and correlations, whereas with SEM many covariances and correlations are tested simultaneously, incorporating all latent variables, checking correlations with each other as well as with predicting variables. The critical step in SEM is to make sure that latent variables are psychometrically plausible. Thus, we have to first test the validity of the measurement model before assessing the structural model. In other words, measurement model concerns with the relations of observed and latent variables to check fitness but the factor correlations are not analyzed, it is the

structural model which examines the causal relations among latent variables to interpret correlations and determine the regressions.

Below are the SEM model components through which we conduct our analysis as sketched in Figure 2.

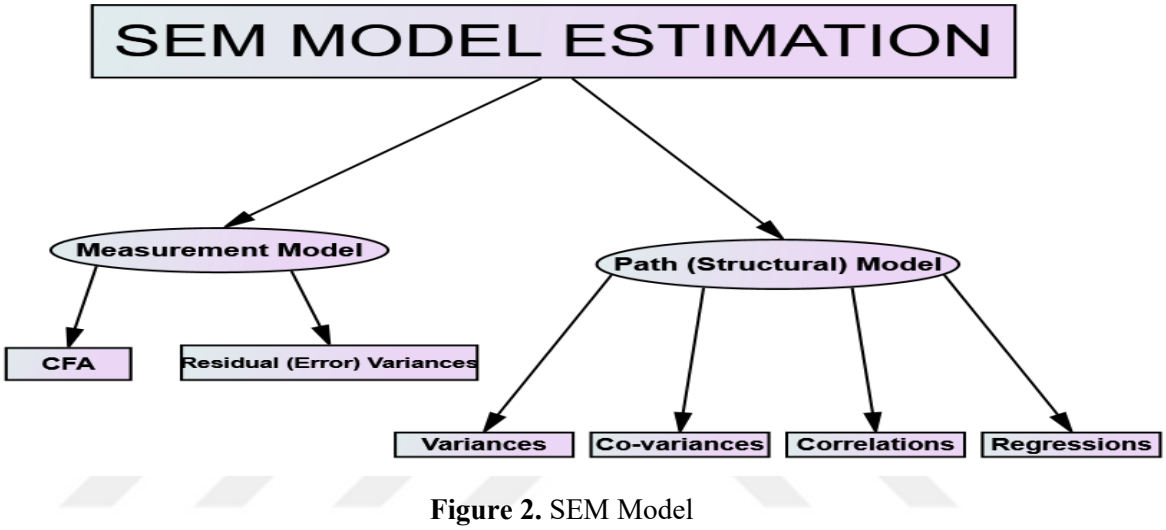


Figure 2. SEM Model

Measurement Model

SEM undertakes linear relationships similarly to the analysis of variance (ANOVA) and multiple regression, but it does more by testing and estimating complex sets at the construct level. It also provides multiple measures concurrently and measurement errors again at the construct level. Residual Variance (also called *unexplained variance* or *error variance*) is the variance of any error (residual) and is also included in the structure for endogenous variables (dependent variables). The main purpose of model testing is to determine the goodness of model fit between the observed data and the hypothesized model. We try to apply the structure of the model to the sample data to find out if it fits the proposed structure. Since a perfect fit is almost always not possible the difference is termed as residual or variance error, the error the latent variable is not accountable. Hence, we may conclude that data is the sum of Model and Residual.

The main purpose of SEM is to verify theoretical priori with empirical data using a large number of statistical models. SEM conveys two essential principles;

- Causal processes are explained with several structural equations-regressions
- These structural processes are modeled graphically to have a visual conceptualization of the theory being utilized.

The model is tested by incorporating all the variables simultaneously to achieve statistical consistency. The model fit (CFA) is checked to evaluate the plausibility of the interrelations of the variables.

Model fitting is an iterative process that minimizes the differences of variance-covariance matrixes between the model-implied (prediction of causal and non-causal associations defined in the model) and the observed data. When we have a causal relationship (causation) between variables then we correlate systematically. We try to minimize the variation difference between the observed and latent exogenous variables by setting parameter values through a process called ML – Maximum Likelihood procedure which stipulates that endogenous variables exist in a multivariate normal distribution.

To test the causal implications of the model we make model assessments (Shipley, 2000) by setting criteria to assess the validity of the model and goodness of fit. We will be using five essential basic fit measurements as explained below. We have used Chi Square Absolute Fit- *overall model fit* (if the model fits the data) parameter as well as Relative Fit- *goodness of fit* parameters, namely;

- GFI- Goodness of fit index (Absolute fit indices) Joreskog & Sorbom, 1986
- AGFI- Adjusted goodness of fit index (Absolute fit indices) Joreskog & Borbom, 1986.
- CFI- Comparative goodness of fit index (Incremental fit index) Bentler, 1990
- TLI- Tucker Lewis index (Incremental fit index) Tucker & Lewis, 1973
- RMSEA-Root-mean square error of approximation (Abs. fit ind.) Steiger & Lind, 1980.

The fundamental measure of model fit in SEM is Chi Square ($\chi 2$) statistics which is very sensitive to sample size affecting the normality of variable distribution. The higher the

probability associated with $\chi 2$, the closer the fit between the hypothesized model (under H0) and the perfect fit (Bollen, 1989). Hence, (H_0) postulates that estimations comprising of factor loading, factor covariances, and residual variances are tested simultaneously and the extent to which they hold and the extent is measured with a probability of achieving $\chi 2$ value with the $\chi 2$ value of targeted H_0 is obtained. Therefore, the higher the p higher the likelihood of fitting between the hypothesized $\chi 2$ and the ideal fitness. The major obstacle here is the sample size, all others are fixed, smaller the sample size the smaller is the p, and weaker to justify $\chi 2$. Covariance structures are decisive matters in large sample theory and sample sizes are crucial in precise parameter calculations and secure non-normality issues in distributional approximations (MacCallum et al., 1996). Although Chi-Square is always reported, other measures are usually given more consideration in model fit judgments since the sample size is not often achievable in many research projects.

In CFI values are derived from the covariances in observed data as the independence model (H_0) is compared with the hypothesized model ranging from 0 to 1. A value of >0,90 is accepted as a good representative of good fitting (Bentler, 2005) and Bentler prefers CFI as the first choice of index. On the other hand, MacCallum and Austin (2000) recommend RMSEA for:

- It is more sensitive to model misspecification (Hu & Bentler, 1998),
- It may yield better conclusions regarding model quality (Hu & Bentler, 1998),
- It allows building confidence intervals around RMSEA values.

In SEM a model is always provisionally accepted, the pattern of variable relations is specified as priori, and it must only be proven to fail. Therefore, the null hypothesis (H_0) in SEM is that the model is acceptable in that it fits the data, and a test is conducted to prove to reject it. In contrast to traditional statistical procedures, the researcher hopes not to reject H_0. SEM evaluates many hypotheses in parallel which requires more data compared to other approaches.

The measurement component of SEM functions as CFA, but contrary to traditional approaches which operate on composite variables (a measure is constructed to represent

several variables) SEM utilizes a more sensitive and effective approach by using Latent Variables together with measurement errors estimated by independent variables to test the theoretical model rather than relying on the assumption that theory proposed composite construct is a reliable measure. Hence, the measurement part of SEM (CFA) offers more powerful testing of the causal relationships to explain the correlational assumptions on the link of observed variables and factors, and this is why it is termed *Measurement Model.*

Structural Model (Path Analysis)

Structural models between observed and unobserved variables are analyzed as causal relations. Hence SEM is called structural analysis of variances and covariances. In SEM, latent variables can behave as source variable (like independent variables), called exogenous and result variable (like dependent variable) called endogenous in a chained causal interaction. We call these variables mediators acting in both roles. In classical statistical methods observed variables are treated with no error concerns which is not realistic to normal psychometric phenomenon that accounts for biased predictions in estimating path coefficients (Bollen, 1989). SEM handles the differentiation of common variances of the variables from the residual (error) variances for reliable coefficient estimations. Path analysis involves the estimation of multiple equations and regressions as an extension of multiple regression analysis

4.2.1.2.1. Pre-Analysis Factor Checking- Measurement Model

4.2.1.2.1.1. Baseline Model- Initial

Factor loadings are the correlations among the indicator variables and latent variables. Lower factor loadings might mean larger error variances which indicate that the variances of measuring independent variables do not co-vary with the latent factor. This is very critical in deciding if the model in pre-analysis face is a good or bad fit. If the indicators are bad, that is not reliable, it is either very different from other indicators within the same latent factor, or it is better explained by other latent factors. When misfit indicator variables having error variances co-vary, cause error variances-nuisance variable-. They should be controlled so that we can eliminate unexplained variances to reach a better model fit.

Table 19. Goodness of Fit of Baseline Model Initial – CFA

	Chi-statistics	Goodness of Fit Index, GFI	Adjusted GFI, AGFI	Comparative Fit Index, CFI, TLI	Root Mean Sqr. Error of Appr., RMSEA
Test Results	CMIN = 442,939 DF = **240** p=**0,000** CMIN/DF= **1,846**	**0,862**	**0,828**	CFI = **0.926** TLI = **0,914**	**0.061**
Acceptable Values	*P-value > 0,05 CMIN/DF < 3,0*	*GFI ≥ 0,8*	*AGFI ≥ 0,8*	*CFI ≥ 0,8, TLI ≥ 0,95*	*< 0,05 Excellent 0,05 to 0,08 Good 0,08 to 0,10 Acceptable*

The chi-square value of 442,939 with 240 degrees of freedom, CMIN/DF 1,846, and the *p*-value is 0,000 (non-significant) stand with the null hypothesis not to reject it. Because the chi-square algorithm is affected by sample size, we can argue that statistical significance (p>0,5) will be achieved with large samples. This finding suggests that sample size is a degrading factor for better p-values. Corroborating evidence for a good fit is provided by the Relative fit indexes; RMSEA fit statistic – the obtained value of 0,061 is good. Similarly, the Tucker-Lewis Index result of 0,914 is above the 0,90 limit and CFI is 0,926 well above the 0,8 of threshold denoting the four factors model (Ethnic Search, Ethnic Affirmation-Belonging-Commitment, Symbolic Threat, and Realistic Threat) yielded good fit.

It is very essential for SEM to check two types of construct validity; Convergent Validity and Discriminant Validity. Convergent validity checks if measured variables correlate with others. Discriminant validity checks if variables have negligible associations with other factors, yet stronger correlation with their own factor (Springer et al., 2002). Therefore, you have a discriminant validity issue if the latent variable is better correlated with other variables belonging to other factors than by their own independent (indicator) variables. Hence, we have to check if such an issue exists.

Table 20. Convergent and Discriminant Validity of Baseline Model Initial

	CR	**AVE**	**E_SEARCH**	**RTHR**	**STHR**	**E_ABC**
E_SEARCH	0,856	0,548	**0,740**			
RTHR	0,767	0,357	0,146	**0,597**		
STHR	0,815	0,390	0,252**	***0,945****	**0,625**	
E_ABC	0,912	0,634	0,679***	0,207*	0,275**	**0,796**

Notes: † p < 0.100 * p < 0.050 ** p < 0.010 *** p < 0.001
†† Discriminant Validity Concern: the square root of the AVE for RTHR is less than its correlation with STHR.
††† Convergent Validity: the AVE for RTHR and STHR is less than the acceptable threshold of 0,50 (Hu, L., Bentler, P.M. (1998). Recommended Ave by Fornell and Larcker (1981) is 0,5 but Malhotra N. K., Dash S. (2011) argue that AVE is often too strict, and reliability can be established through CR (> 0,7) alone. Recommended CR is 0,7 by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994).

Bolds are the square root of AVEs (Average Variance Extracted), and these must be higher than correlations, this is the rule for discriminant validity. AVE represents the sum of variance explained by a factor about the amount of variance that occurred due to measurement error. STHR and RTHR correlation is so high (***r=0,945***) and higher than the square root of AVE (0,597). STHR (Symbolic Threat) presents discriminant validity issues with RTHR.

Specifically, when variables in a regression model are correlated at $r = .70$, multicollinearity may be an issue (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). With regression-based analyses, multicollinearity may affect the precision of the estimates of individual predictors. Collinearity often suggests that a researcher included multiple measures of the same construct in a regression. This has historically been problematic among measures of realistic and symbolic threat in research on ITT. A meta-analytic assessment of intergroup threats found that realistic threats and symbolic threats share moderate to strong relationships (*r*'s of .35 to .59), although it is common to see much stronger correlations among them (*r*'s >.80).

In our sample, the measured variables for realistic and symbolic threat were correlated at $r = 0,945$. Given that we did not find support for a different factor structure of realistic and symbolic threats, and that the covariance among our threat variables suggests that they measure something similar, likely, entering these variables as predictors in a regression (or akin, such as a structural equation model) would result in multicollinearity issues. It becomes difficult to assess the unique contribution of factor in regression analysis.

We argue that, in ITT research, a lack of support for realistic and symbolic threat differences is not a criticism of the theory or, in many cases, the measures used in those studies. Rather, the social policy context may not warrant a distinction between realistic and symbolic threats,

and ignoring this fact may lead to incorrect substantive conclusions regarding the impact of perceived threats.

The addition of CFA for testing the plausibility of a different factor structure of realistic and symbolic threat measures is a new contribution for researchers in the threat arena. In contrast to exploratory factor analysis, CFA is employed when researchers have a priori hypotheses about the underlying factor structure of test items. Because realistic and symbolic threat are theoretically separate constructs, researchers analyzing these threats should incorporate CFA to confirm that the constructs are, in fact, distinct. In light of this recommendation, we used the CFA as a tool to aid decisions about whether there is sound justification to distinguish between realistic and symbolic threats. Although in some contexts it may not make sense to distinguish between them, we argue that both constructs should be included during data collection. During data analysis, if multicollinearity of realistic and symbolic threats is an issue, using the threat indicators from both measures to make up a composite (or latent) threat variable should be preferred as a single threat measure because more variance in policy attitudes is likely to be explained (and model fit is likely to improve; Stephan et al., 1998). However, we did not combine RTHR with STHR after the tests which revealed they behaved completely differently. STHR reveals an emotional tendency that is overwhelmed and ruled out by the predicting power of RTHR and did not contribute significantly to the estimations in any model we used. Instead, it constantly causes discriminant validity issues. We argue that historical, geographic, economic, and political elements that shape social policy matters incubate nested issues preventing collective threat measures and do not contribute a better additional insight to promote meaningful statistical analysis.

The primacy of RTHR and STHR is contextual. In the job market selection context, economic and competition considerations take precedence in the determination of people's selections, hence we see RTHR as the stronger factor predicting the causality and this is why we only included RTHR in our models. In principle, we have to eliminate any variable at an early stage that does not correlate (R<0,3 or sometimes 0,4) or correlate very highly (R> 0,8 or sometimes 0,7) with other factors.

Table 21. Factor Covariances/Correlations of the Baseline Model Initial

		Covariances			Correlations	
FACTOR1	**FACTOR2**	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	R	P
E_SEARCH	←→ E_ABC	0,472	0,073	6,459	0,679***	***
E_ABC	←→ RTHR	0,118	0,047	2,485	0,207*	,013
RTHR	←→ STHR	0,377	0,069	5,494	**0,945*** **	***
E_SEARCH	←→ RTHR	0,085	0,048	1,762	0,146	,078
E_ABC	←→ STHR	0,131	0,040	3,283	0,275**	,001
E_SEARCH	←→ STHR	0,123	0,041	2,990	0,252**	,003

Notes: † p < 0.100 * p < 0.050 ** p < 0.010 *** p < 0.001

Table 22. Error Covariances, Modification Indices (Baseline Model Initial)

			M.I.	Par Change
E7 (RTH_2_RC)	<-->	E9 (RTH_1)	24,110	0,335
E7 (RTH_3)	<-->	E11 (RTH_1)	10,485	-0,235
E7 (RTH_4_RC)	<-->	E12 (RTH_2_RC)	21,615	0,349
E7 (EIB_3)	<-->	E9 (EIB_12)	24,110	0,335
E8 (RTH_6_RC)	<-->	E12 (RTH_2_RC)	9,303	-0,142
E9 (RTH_6_RC)	<-->	E12 (RTH_5_RC)	8,199	0,218
E10 (RTH_7_RC)	<-->	E11 (RTH_2_RC)	10,853	0,258
E21 (RTH_7_RC)	<-->	E24 (RTH_4_RC)	9,532	-0,120
E21 (STH_5_RC)	<-->	E25 (RTH_6_RC)	14,673	0,178

Note: Only the relevant indices have been listed

Based on the info in Table 22, we co-vary error items e48-e50 and e46-e50 initially. Still need improvement in the fit, and at the second stage, we co-vary e46-e50 and e3-e11. Again, between e45-e50, next e39-e42 and e3-e7.

The baseline model was established to frame a common platform for measurement analysis between independent variables and pivotal latent variables upon which the models were applied, configured to test our hypothesis through path analysis as sketched in Figure 2 below.

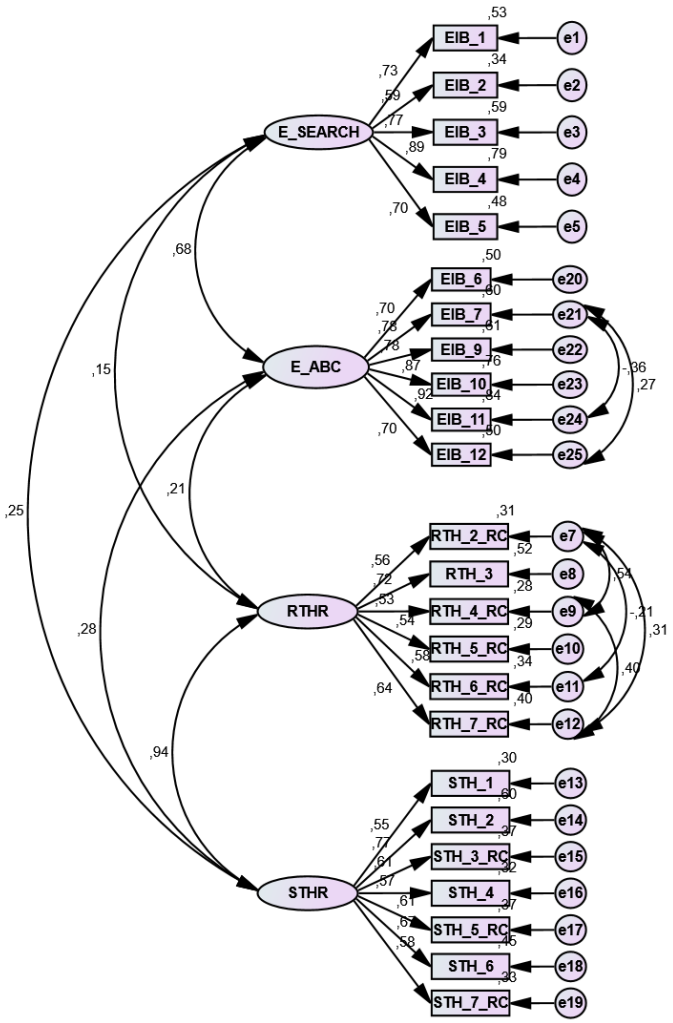


Figure: 3. Baseline Initial Model

Baseline Model-Initial Discussion

The model tests the factorial integrity-fitness with all the manifesting variables of latent variables at the first level. We can notice that there are some outstanding MIs (modification indices) which indicates the presence of factor cross-loadings (loading on more factor than one) and error covariances (EIB7-EIB12, EIB7-EIB11, RTH_2_RC-RTH_4_RC, RTH_2_RC-RTH_6_RC, RTH_2_RC-RTH_7_RC, RTH_4_RC-RTH_7_RC). We have to check the meaning of these indices and only focus on the cross-loadings and error variances. We have to check the misspecifications of the associated pairing of the error terms as covariances. Even though they are not very high figures yet, they stand substantially bigger

than other items. These error covariances usually represent systematic error covariances rather than random errors. These errors occur either from the item or respondents' characteristics (Aish & Joreskog, 1990). Respondents may reflect their biases like social desirability or yea-saying/nay-saying etc. (Aish & Joreskog). One other source of methodic error is item overlaps in their content when an item practically addresses the same issue although worded differently or nuances are not well perceived by the respondents or their focus is overwhelmingly concentrated on a particular matter (like priming realistic threat over symbolic threat) or concepts are so similar that respondents' sensitivity is not triggered (similarities between E_ Search and E_ABC in our case). We have designated only a few "free parameter estimates" (Byrne, 2016) based on covariances of the Residual errors to improve model fit to reach an adequate level. We did not go beyond because we wanted to see very typical traits of every latent factor as they have been loaded by the indicators. Simply correlating error terms to improve the fit is not adequate because doing so "takes advantage of the chance, at a cost of only a single degree of freedom, with a consequent loss of interpretability and meaningfulness (Anderson & Gerbimg, 1988 p.417). So, we stick to an all-inclusive model to determine the strengths and weaknesses of the structure and see how observed data comply and conform with the theoretical assumptions.

Realistic Threat and Symbolic Threat Interrelation

Symbolic Threat (STHR) shows high collinearity with Realistic Threat (RTHR). In conventional CFA principles variable item loading onto a specific latent variable-factor are expected to strictly relate to that factor with no overlapping among variable items-zero cross loading. However, this assumption does not prove true for Integrated Threat Theory (ITT) which experiences strong relations between RHTR and STHR. Literature has ample examples of overwhelmingly overlapping of these two items and in other cases, they may be strongly correlated without collinearity.

Baseline Model CFA displayed a strong latent factor correlation between RHTR and STHR that the factors are almost indistinguishable (r = 0,945), meaning they provide the same information, and they almost reach singularity. Multicollinearity is a very important matter with regression analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001), and high collinearity may reduce the

statistical power by causing each variable to measure the same thing and affect the estimating precision of the predictor. The problem worsens further in multigroup analysis when we try to make an invariance analysis.

In none of the succeeding models, STHR shows any statistical significance in regressing and setting linkages with other constructs. Hence, we consider it advisable to exclude STHR from the model for the sake of plausibility and parsimony to eliminate discriminant validity violation and not to harm the plausibility of regression analysis. In the interest of scientific parsimony, non-significant measures should be discarded from the model unless they indicate a small sample size (Joreskog & Sörbom, 1997). Besides, STHR shows considerably lower factor loading compared to RTHR. Hence, RTHR will represent an Integrated Threat in our models within the context of our observed independent variables.

Contextual attitudes may cause separate endorsements of symbolic and realistic threat items. For example, in the case of migration, competition for resources may engender meaningful separation of symbolic and realistic threat priming realistic threat in an economic context, and when societal values are endorsed to evaluate diversity and discrimination, symbolic threat has been more crucial for the operationalization (Kauff & Wagner, 2012). This suggests that a realistic threat displays more salience when resources are at stake. When social values, morality, and religious issues are more salient then, symbolic threat is more dominating (Brewer & Wilcox, 2005; Olson et al., 2006).

Although these threat constructs are theoretically separate, CFA is an effective tool to determine in a given context if they are distinct. Literature suggests that even if they overlap, data collection for both constructs should be undertaken, and the multicollinearity analysis helps to decide if a single construct should be used as a latent single measure targeting a refined causal model. In our case though, when we tried to combine them both, even though we improved our AVE value and model fit, convergent validity was decreased and we proved no material plausibility by doing so.

In the context of modification indices we have co-varied for RTHR, even though they may slightly affect or improve the model fit for the sake of parsimony and plausibility we see no

substantive justification of misspecification of related RTHR items as systematic error, rather we consider them respondents' characteristics, we do not consider it meaningful to modify the model by imposing the covariances between those error items due to trivial estimates improvement and leave the RTHR free from modification.

4.2.1.2.1.2. Baseline Model- Modified

Table 23. The goodness of Fit of Baseline Model-Modified

	Chi-statistics	Goodness of Fit Index, GFI	Adjusted GFI, AGFI	Comparative Fit Index, CFI, TLI	Root Mean Sqr. Error of Appr., RMSEA
Test Results	CMIN = 191,163 DF = 110 p=**0,000** CMIN/DF= **1,738**	**0,918**	**0,886**	CFI = **0.960** TLI = **0,950**	**0.057**
Acceptable Values	*P-value > 0,05* *CMIN/DF < 3,0*	*GFI ≥ 0,8*	*AGFI ≥ 0,8*	*CFI ≥ 0,8,* *TLI ≥ 0,95*	*< 0,05 Excellent 0,05 to 0,08 Good 0,08 to 0,10 Acceptable*

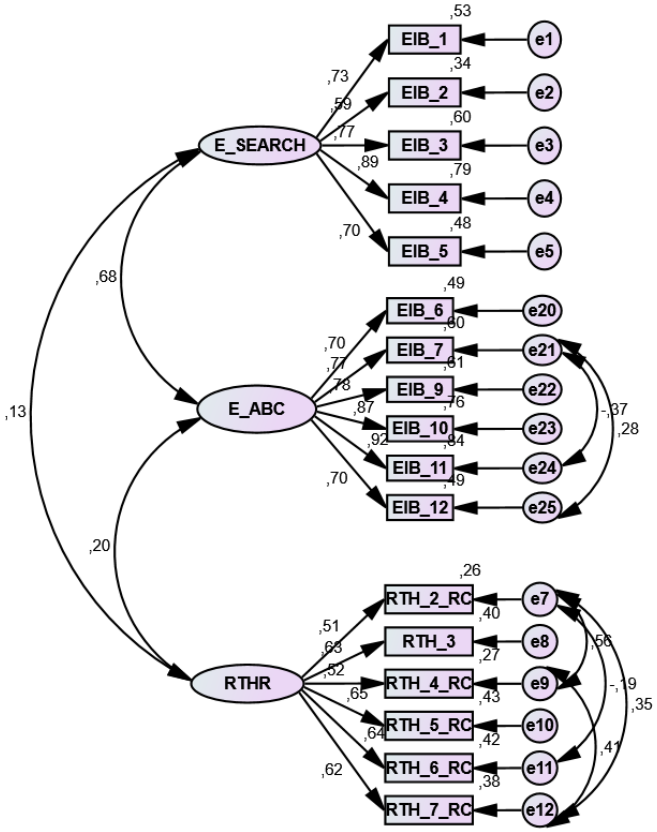


Figure: 4. Structural Baseline Model-Modified

RTH_2 has a loading of 0,256 and RTH_4_RC 0,266 on RTHR which are all far lower than the suggested 0,5 level, hence we dropped these items which eventually improved model fit and just a slight increase in AVE of RHTR. Interestingly enough these items represent the economic concern dimension of RHTR, leaving us with social welfare dimensions. The final CFA is as follows;

4.2.1.2.1.3. Baseline Model- Modified Improved

Table 24. Goodness of Fit of Baseline Model-Modified Improved

	Chi-statistics	Goodness of Fit Index, GFI	Adjusted GFI, AGFI	Comparative Fit Index, CFI, TLI	Root Mean Sqr. Error of Appr., RMSEA
Test Results	CMIN = 139,483 DF = 84 p=**0,000** CMIN/DF= **1,661**	**0,928**	**0,897**	CFI = **0,968** TLI = **0,960**	**0,053**

The chi-square value of 139,483 with 84 degrees of freedom, CMIN/DF 1,661, and the *p*-value is 0,001 (non-significant) stand with the null hypothesis not to reject it. Because the chi-square algorithm is affected by sample size, we can argue that statistical significance (p>0,5) will be achieved with large samples. This finding suggests that sample size is a degrading factor for better p-values. Corroborating evidence for a good fit is provided by the Relative fit indexes; RMSEA fit statistic – the obtained value of 0,053 is well below the desired cutoff. Similarly, the Tucker-Lewis Index result of 0,960 is above the 0,90 limit and CFI is 0,968 well above the 0,8 of threshold denoting the three factors model (Ethnic Search, Ethnic Affirmation-Belonging- and Realistic Threat) yielded a very good fit.

Table 25. Convergent and Discriminant Validity of Baseline Model-Modified Improved

	CR	**AVE**	**E_SEARCH**	**RTHR**	**ETH_ABC**
E_SEARCH	0,856	0,548	**0,740**		
RTHR	0,733	0,407	0,120	**0,638**	
ETH_ABC	0,912	0,635	0,681***	0,187*	**0,797**

Notes: * p < 0.050 ** p < 0.010 *** p < 0.001

†† Discriminant Validity: the square root of the AVE (average variance extracted) for each factor is higher than its correlation values of that factor.

††† Convergent Validity: the AVE for RTHR is less than the acceptable threshold of 0,50 (Hu, L., Bentler, P.M. (1998). Recommended Ave by Fornell and Larcker (1981) is 0,5 but Malhotra N. K., Dash

S. (2011) argue that AVE is often too strict, and reliability can be established through CR (> 0,7) alone. Recommended CR is 0,7 by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994).

All the scales in the Modified Improved model were reliable as the construct reliability of each score was above 0,7 ranging from 0,733 to 0,912 (Table 27). Convergent validity was established as all values of average variance extracted (AVE) were above the threshold limit of 0.5 (Hair et al., 2006) except RTHR (Table 27). Discriminant validity was also measured based on the Fornell and Larcker (1981) criterion and the square root of AVE for all scales was higher than each construct's correlation compared with another construct.

Assessment of Normality

The basic assumption of SEM analysis is that data are multivariate normal. If we have to form a final baseline model for our hypothesis, we have to meet this criterion. Statistical research suggests that skewness is more suitable for the test of means whereas kurtosis is involved in the test of variances and covariances and since SEM is a variance-covariance-based method, we will be more concerned with multivariate kurtosis as it is very decisive information in SEM research. There is no clear consensus in the literature on what the kurtosis threshold of $\beta 2 > 7{,}00$ to be indicative of normality threshold whereas Bentler (2005) suggests $\beta 2 =$ or $> 5{,}00$ is the cutoff line nonnormal distribution being considered. In either case, our scale variables display satisfactory values proving multivariate normality.

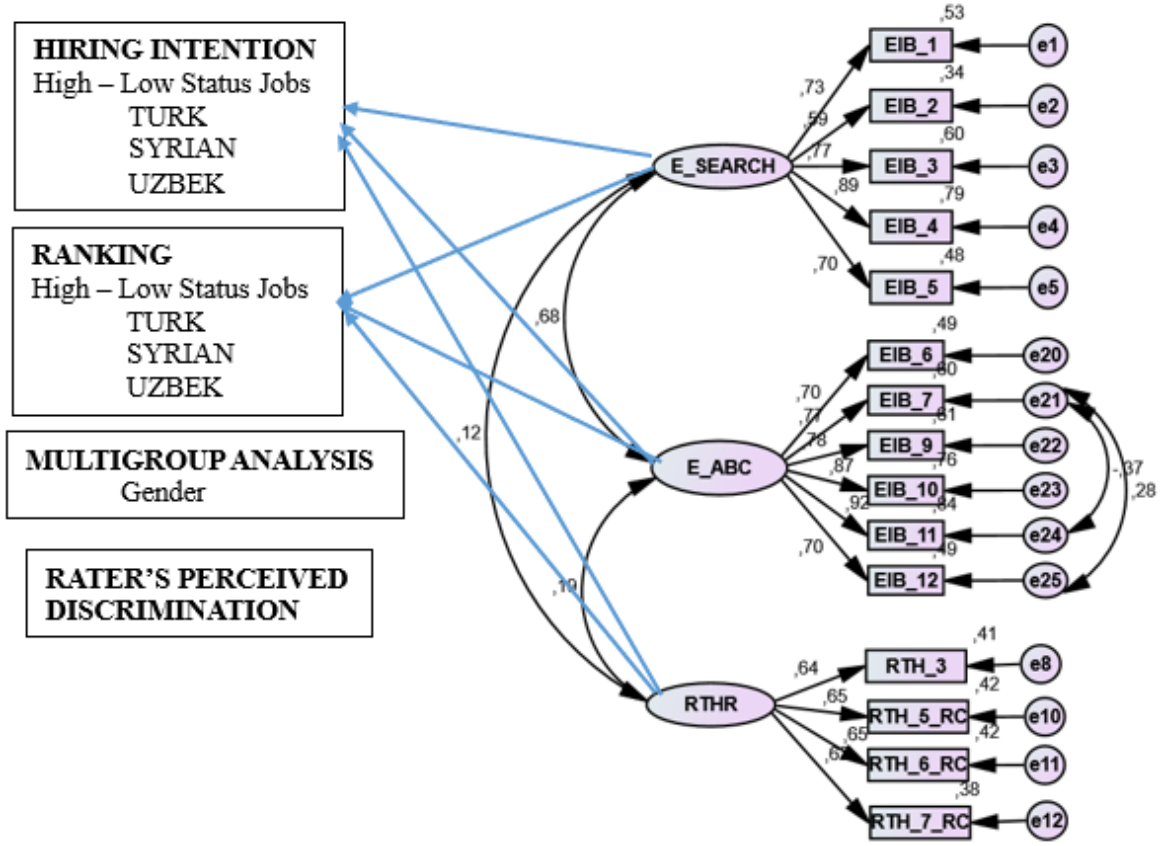


Figure_5. Structural Baseline Model-Modified Improved

Table 26. Factor Covariances/Correlations of the Modified Baseline Model Improved

		Covariances			Correlations	
FACTOR1	**FACTOR2**	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	R	P
E_SEARCH	←→ E_ABC	0,473	0,073	6,463	0,681***	***
E_ABC	←→ RTHR	0,091	0,040	2,258	0,187*	0,024
E_SEARCH	←→ RTHR	0,060	0,041	1,447	0,120	0,148

Notes: † p < 0.100 * p < 0.050 ** p < 0.010 *** p < 0.001

All factor correlations are well below the 0,8 threshold, so there is no collinearity concern. As expected, E_ Search is positively correlated with E_ABC (0,681***), E_ABC is positively correlated with RTHR (0,187*), but there is no significant correlation between E_ Search and RTHR (0,120 p=0,148), and no covariances either.

S.E.: Standard error indicates the precision of estimation and it gets smaller as the accuracy of the estimation increases. Thus, large S.E. reflects a weak model fit and undetermined parameters (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1993). What is small or large S.E., depends on the strength

of the parameter estimate and how observed/latent variables are measured (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1989).

C.R. Critical ratio is calculated as the division of parameters estimated by its standard error and defined as the Z value showing how the testing estimate is different from zero and ideally, this value should be bigger than 1,96 at a probability level of $p<0,05$ indicating estimated path is statistically significant.

Our model meets good estimation for the constructs except for E_ Search-RTHR correlation. This tells us that E_ Search and RTHR will not influence each other in estimating any of the endogenous variables' causality analysis for the involved hypothesis (hypothesis 7), the C.R. value of this covariance being 1,485 which is lower than 1,96 and the p-value being nonsignificant (p=0,137) indicate that these two constructs do not have any correlation. This is one important issue that we have to deal with by elaborating on the literature findings and theoretical postulates.

Table 27. Conclusive Estimates of Baseline Model- Modified Improved

			Regression Weights				**Multivariate Normality**		
Measurement Variables		Latent Var. (Factors)	Estimates β	S.E.	C.R. t value	Stat. Sig. P value	Kurtosis (β2)	Skewness	Variances R^2
EIB_1	←	E_SEARCH	0,726	Constrained to 1,0			-0,787	-0,487	0,53
EIB_2	←	E_SEARCH	0,587	0,101	8,497	***	-1,248	0,162	0,35
EIB_3	←	E_SEARCH	0,773	0,101	11,219	***	-1,179	0,123	0,60
EIB_4	←	E_SEARCH	0,887	0,103	12,648	***	-1,226	0,001	0,79
EIB_5	←	E_SEARCH	0,694	0,097	10,088	***	-1,143	-0,248	0,48

EIB_6	←	E_ABC	0,704	Constrained to 1,0			-1,094	-0,193	0,50
EIB_7	←	E_ABC	0,774	0,087	11,033	***	-0,456	-0,497	0,60
EIB_9	←	E_ABC	0,784	0,085	11,421	***	-0,722	-0,330	0,62
EIB_10	←	E_ABC	0,873	0,101	12,685	***	-0,782	-0,371	0,76
EIB_11	←	E_ABC	0,915	0,091	13,121	***	-0,853	-0,277	0,84
EIB_12	←	E_ABC	0,709	0,077	10,223	***	-0,070	-0,721	0,50

RTH_3	←	RTHR	0,637	Constrained to 1,0			1,904	-1,374	0,41
RTH_5_RC	←	RTHR	0,648	0,184	6,857	***	-0,088	-0,792	0,42
RTH_6_RC	←	RTHR	0,649	0,184	6,862	***	-0,647	-0,623	0,42
RTH_7_RC	←	RTHR	0,618	0,183	6,691	***	-1,095	-0,137	0,38

4.2.1.2.2. Single Model Analysis

After making sure that latent variables are checked for plausibility at the pre-analysis stage and final latent variable structure is established, we can proceed with the model analysis incorporating the dependent variables to conduct inferential analysis.

4.2.1.2.2.1. Hiring Intention High-Low Job Statuses

Table 28. The Goodness of Fit of Hiring Intention Model

Chi-statistics	Goodness of Fit Index, GFI	Comparative Fit Index, CFI, TLI	Root Mean Sqr. Error of Appr., RMSEA
CMIN = 907,828 DF = 464 p=**0,000** CMIN/DF= **1,957**	**0,812**	CFI = **0,904** TLI = **0,890**	**0,064**

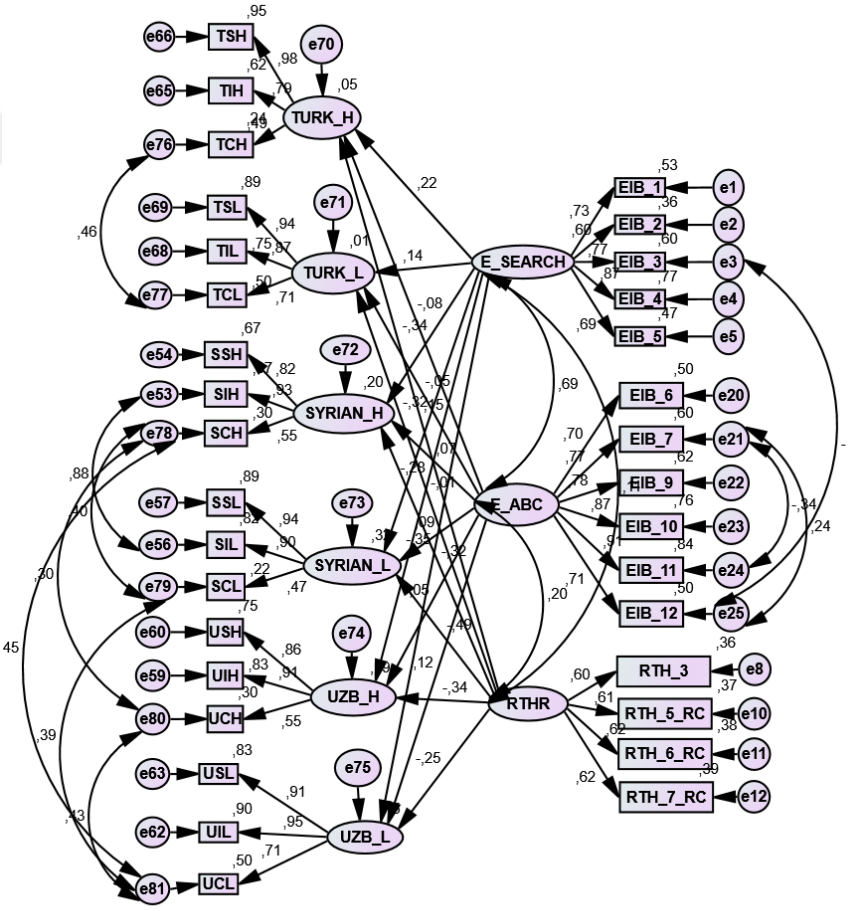
The chi-square value of 907,828 with 464 degrees of freedom, CMIN/DF 1,957 indicates that the null hypothesis will be accepted. RMSEA fit statistic – the obtained value of 0,064 at a

good level. Similarly, the Tucker-Lewis Index result of 0,890 is close to minimum limit and CFI is 0,904 well above the 0,8 of threshold yielding the three factors model a good fit.

Table: 29. Estimates of Loading of Manifesting Variables Hiring Intention

Latent Var.		**Manifest Var**	**Unstand.**	**Standard.**	**P value**	**R^2**
E_SEARCH	------->	EIB_1	1	0,726	--	0,527
E_SEARCH	------->	EIB_2	0,874	0,598	***	0,357
E_SEARCH	------->	EIB_3	1,135	0,772	***	0,596
E_SEARCH	------->	EIB_4	1,281	0,875	***	0,765
E_SEARCH	------->	EIB_5	0,970	0,689	***	0,475
E_ABC	------->	EIB_6	1	0,705	--	0,497
E_ABC	------->	EIB_7	1,073	0,773	***	0,597
E_ABC	------->	EIB_9	1,063	0,785	***	0,616
E_ABC	------->	EIB_10	1,266	0,873	***	0,762
E_ABC	------->	EIB_11	1,333	0,914	***	0,836
E_ABC	------->	EIB_12	0,875	0,708	***	0,501
RTHR	------->	RTH_3	1	0,598	--	0,358
RTHR	------->	RTH_5_RC	1,264	0,609	***	0,371
RTHR	------->	RTH_6_RC	1,279	0,616	***	0,379
RTHR	------->	RTH_7_RC	1,313	0,623	***	0,388
TURK_H	------->	TSH	1	0,977	--	0,954
TURK_H	------->	TIH	0,861	0,790	***	0,624
TURK_H	------->	TCH	0,552	0,493	***	0,244
TURK_L	------->	TSL	1	0,944	--	0,892
TURK_L	------->	TIL	0,946	0,868	***	0,754
TURK_L	------->	TCL	0,743	0,710	***	0,504
SYRIAN_H	------->	SSH	1	0,819	--	0,671
SYRIAN_H	------->	SIH	1,228	0,931	***	0,866
SYRIAN_H	------->	SCH	,649	0,549	***	0,302
SYRIAN_L	------->	SSL	1	0,943	--	0,889
SYRIAN_L	------->	SIL	1,055	0,913	***	0,816
SYRIAN_L	------->	SCL	0,523	0,466	***	0,218
UZBEK_H	------->	USH	1	0,865	--	0,748
UZBEK_H	------->	UIH	1,128	0,908	***	0,825
UZBEK_H	------->	UCH	0,657	0,549	***	0,302
UZBEK_L	------->	USL	1	0,910	--	0,828
UZBEK_L	------->	UIL	1,074	0,950	***	0,903
UZBEK_L	------->	UCL	0,716	0,710	***	0,504

Factor loadings of all manifesting variables on latent variables are statistically significant at p< 0,001 meaning factor loadings of the latent variables validate the measurement consistency. R^2 is the Squared Multiple Correlation (SMC) representing the level of variance on the indicator variable (as the dependent variable) explained by the latent variable. Hence, measurement error is 1-SMC, that is the size of variance of the dependent variable not explained by the latent variable. Modification indices do not display any large estimate indicating no multiple-factor loadings. Factor loadings (standardized weights) of indicator variables on latent variables over 0,5 is considered good while over 0,7 is very good, therefore this model proves to have adequate measurement capacity.



HIRING INTENTION_ALL ETHNIC GROUPS_BOTH JOB STATUSES

Figure 6. Structural Model Hiring Intention (Suitability and Confidence)

Table 30. Factor Covariances/Correlations of Hiring Intention

		Covariances			Correlations	
FACTOR1	**FACTOR2**	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	R	P
E_SEARCH	←→ E_ABC	0,477	0,074	6,485	0,687	***
E_ABC	←→ RTHR	0,093	0,039	2,384	0,203	0,017
E_SEARCH	←→ RTHR	0,050	0,039	1,279	0,108	0,201
e3 (EIB_3)	e25 (EIB_12)	-0,131	0,04	-3,249	-0,231	0,001
e21 (EIB_7)	e25 (EIB_12)	0,128	0,043	2,963	0,244	0,003
e21 (EIB_7)	e24(EIB_11)	-0,121	0,033	-3,675	-0,339	***

Notes: † p < 0,100 * p < 0,050 ** p < 0,010 *** p < 0,001

Correlation coefficients between E_ Search and E_ABC are over 0,5 and not close to 1 at p< 0,001, indicating a statistically significant and satisfactory level, yet, the relation between E_ Search and RHTR is statistically non-significant, and the correlation between RHTR and E_ABC is statistically significant at p<0,01 but the weight is minimal (Hair et al., 2006). There are no Correlations and Covariances between E_ Search and RTHR therefore, these constructs do not predict and moderate each other for this model.

Based on the theoretical explanations, related literature and our inferential assessments, hypothesis relating to Hiring Intention were evaluated with data presented in Table 31 below.

Table 31. Estimates of Structural Model of Hiring Intention

		Exogenous var. (Latent Var.)					
Means & Std. D.		E_SEARCH		E_ABC		RTHR	
Endogenous var. (Depend. var.)		Unstand.	**Stand. β**	Unstand.	**Stand. β**	Unstand.	**Stand. β**
Turk High Status	3,99 (,77)	,196	**,222***	-,072	-,080	,195	,145
Turk Low Status	3,87 (,83)	,139	,143	-,045	-,046	-,010	,007
Syrian High Status	3,52 (,92)	-,326	**-,338****	,070	,071	-,462	**-,315*****
Syrian Low Status	3,15 (,95)	-,341	**-,316****	,102	,093	-,800	**-,488*****
Uzbek High Status	3,73 (,74)	-,240	**-,283****	,042	,049	-,437	**-,339*****
Uzbek Low Status	3,58 (,91)	-,371	**-,352*****	,126	,118	-,400	**-,250*****

Notes: † p < 0,100 * p < 0,050 ** p < 0,010 *** p < 0,001. Shaded areas are statistically non-significant.

Where standardized estimates are good to determine the relative power of latent variables to endogenous variables in a particular sample, unstandardized estimates are important to compare across samples (Schumacker and Lomax 2004).

E_ABC has demonstrated totally non-significant statistical explanations, meaning emotional component of ethnicity attitudes is not any concern for the respondents.

E_ Search predicts Turks only in high status evaluations **β= 0,222**, as one unit increase in ethnic cognition increasing the Hiring Intention for Turk applicant by **22%.** This also shows that Turk low status job position is not so crucial for ethnic consideration by E_ Search, and for other constructs Turk candidates do not provoke any concern.

Both constructs, E_ Search and RTHR exhibit very decisive predictions across all ethnic groups and job statuses, RTHR overwhelmingly scoring higher than E_ Search, except in Uzbek low status. RTHR reports **β= -0,315** and **β= -0,488** for Syrians, and **β= -0,339** and **β= -0,250** for Uzbeks, respectively for High and Low status predictions**.** E_ Search also reports comparatively lower than RTHR, but considerably very strong predictions of **β= -0,338** and **β= -0,316** for Syrians, and **β= -0,283** and **β= -0,352** for Uzbeks, respectively for High and Low status estimations. This evidences outright discrimination against the outgroup at a very conspicuous magnitude.

We can observe that, respondents in general do not emphasize considerable attitude towards Turks in favoring high status position, even do not exhibit any concern for low status job evaluation to favor Turks. The main driver in hiring decisions seem to be the perception of threat, and as both constructs increases one standard deviation they independently contribute to "biased against", since they do not covary they represent different powers in estimations to fortify the discriminative attitudes.

4.2.1.2.2.2. Ranking High-Low Job Statuses

Table 32. Goodness of Fit of Ranking

Chi-statistics	Goodness of Fit Index, GFI	Comparative Fit Index, CFI, TLI	Root Mean Sqr. Error of Appr., RMSEA
CMIN = 288,615 DF = 167 p=**0,000** CMIN/DF= **1,728**	**0,900**	CFI = **0,944** TLI = **0,929**	**0,056**

Corroborating evidence for the good fit is provided by the chi-square value of CMIN/DF 1,728, the Relative fit indexes; RMSEA fit statistic – the obtained value of 0,056 is very good, the CFI is 0,944 above the 0,8 of threshold yielding the three factors model (Ethnic Search, Ethnic Affirmation-Belonging- and Realistic Threat) a very good fit.

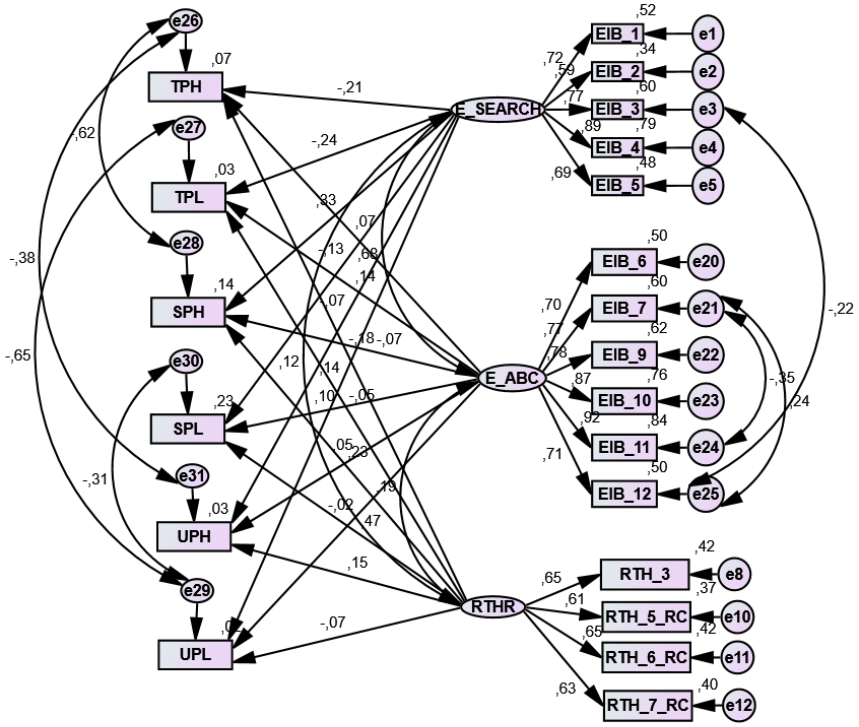
All factors showed good convergent validity (loadings averaged above 0,7); covariances between latent variables are below 0,8 showing good discriminant validity (the highest covariance is 0,47)

Table 33. Estimates of Loading of Manifesting Variables Ranking

Latent Var.		**Manifest Var.**	**Unstand.**	**Standard. β**	**P value**	**R^2**
E_SEARCH	------->	EIB_1	1	0,724	--	0,524
E_SEARCH	------->	EIB_2	0,861	0,587	***	0,345
E_SEARCH	------->	EIB_3	1,138	0,773	***	0,597
E_SEARCH	------->	EIB_4	1,307	0,890	***	0,792
E_SEARCH	------->	EIB_5	0,975	0,691	***	0,477
E_ABC	------->	EIB_6	1	0,704	--	0,496
E_ABC	------->	EIB_7	1,076	0,774	***	0,599
E_ABC	------->	EIB_9	1,063	0,784	***	0,615
E_ABC	------->	EIB_10	1,266	0,872	***	0,761
E_ABC	------->	EIB_11	1,335	0,915	***	0,837
E_ABC	------->	EIB_12	0,877	0,708	***	0,502
RTHR	------->	RTH_3	1	0,646	--	0,418
RTHR	------->	RTH_5_RC	1,175	0,612	***	0,374
RTHR	------->	RTH_6_RC	1,246	0,648	***	0,420
RTHR	------->	RTH_7_RC	1,233	0,632	***	0,399

Factor loadings of all manifesting variables on latent variables are statistically significant at $p< 0,001$ meaning factor loadings of the latent variables validate the measurement consistency. R^2 is the Squared Multiple Correlation (SMC) representing the level of variance on the indicator variable (also dependent variable) explained by the latent variable. Hence, measurement error is 1-SMC, that is the size of variance of the dependent variable not explained by the latent variable. Modification indices do not display any large estimate indicating no multiple factor loadings (cross loading). Factor loadings (standardized weights)

of indicator variables on latent variables over 0,5 is considered good while over 0,7 is very good, therefore this model proves to have adequate measurement capacity.



RANKING_ALL ETHNIC GROUPS_BOTH STATUSES

Figure 7. Structural Model Ranking

Table 34. Factor Covariances/Correlations of Ranking

		Covariances			Correlations	
FACTOR1	**FACTOR2**	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	R	P
E_SEARCH	←→ E_ABC	0,471	0,073	6,459	0,681	***
E_ABC	←→ RTHR	0,093	0,041	2,278	0,189	0,023
E_SEARCH	←→ RTHR	0,062	0,042	1,498	0,125	0,134
e3 (EIB_3)	e25 (EIB_12)	-0,127	0,04	-3,163	-0,224	0,002
e21 (EIB_7)	e25 (EIB_12)	0,127	0,043	2,947	0,243	0,003
e21 (EIB_7)	e24(EIB_11)	-0,123	0,033	-3,756	-0,348	***

Notes: † p < 0,100 * p < 0,050 ** p < 0,010 *** p < 0,001

Correlation coefficients between E_ Search and E_ABC are over 0,5 and not close to 1 at p< 0,001, indicating a statistically significant and satisfactory level, yet, the relation between E_ Search and RHTR is statistically non-significant, and the correlation between RHTR and E_ABC is statistically significant at p<0,05, but the estimated weight is minimal (Hair et al.,

2006). There are no Correlations and Covariances between E_ Search and RTHR therefore, these constructs do not predict and moderate each other for this model.

For clarity, however, we must stress that correlations are not regressions because they do not explain cause and effect, it may be a coincidence or perhaps another confounding variable.

Based on the theoretical explanations, related literature and our inferential assessments, hypothesis relating to Ranking were evaluated with data presented in Table 35 below.

Table 35. Estimates of Structural Model of Ranking

		Exogenous var. (Latent Var.)					
	Means& Std.	E_SEARCH		E_ABC		RTHR	
Endogenous var. (Dependent var.)		Unstand.	**Stand. β**	Unstand.	**Stand. β**	Unstand.	**Stand. β**
Turk H. Status	1,66 (,89)	-,226	**-,215***	,071	**,**079	-,259	**-,175***
Turk L. Status	1,56 (,83)	-,225	**-,238***	,131	**,**141	-,062	**-**,047
Syrian H. Status	2,49 (,95)	,369	**,325*****	-,086	**-**,074	,363	**,228****
Syrian L. Status	2,64 (,81)	-,124	**-**,129	,094	**,**092	,630	**,466*****
Uzbek H. Status	2,15 (,71)	-,059	-,068	,045	**,**027	,188	**,155***
Uzbek L. Status	2,21 (,93)	,164	,138	-,027	-,031	-,108	-,065

Notes: † p < 0,100 * p < 0,050 ** p < 0,010 *** p < 0,001. Shaded areas are statistically non-significant.

Clearly E_ABC has demonstrated totally non-significant statistical explanations, meaning emotional component of ethnicity attitudes is not any concern for the respondents.

E_ Search predicts consistent attitudes when assessing **Turks** ranking for both statuses at similar weights of regression, **β= -0,215** and **-0,238** for high and low statuses respectively**,** as one unit increase in ethnic cognition lower the ranking preference leading to 1.st selection for the high status **by 22%,** and for the low status **by 24%,** that is selecting Turks for the first choice. This tendency is supported by RTHR at **β= -0,175** for high status job, as one unit increase in RTHR lowers the ranking preference leading to 1.st selection **by 18%,** but showing no effect for low status.

RTHR predicts consistent attitudes when assessing **Syrians** for both statuses at considerably different weights of regression, for high **β= 0,228** and for low **β= 0,466** almost double the high status, as one unit increase in RTHR increases the ranking preference away from the

1.st selection towards 2nd or 3rd ranking **by 23%** for high and **47%** for low statuses. E_ Search only predicts for high status at **β= 0,325,** higher than RTHR in strength, again as one unit increase in E_ Search worsens the ranking **by 33%** just as RTHR does**,** but showing no effect for low status.

Thus, we can infer that, it is the RTHR which predominantly impacts ranking decisions for Syrians in the form of "bias against", driven by perceived threat, and supported by E_ Search which is only instrumental in high status. This also means that predictions for high status is governed by two constructs decisively, nevertheless the strength of prediction at low status by RTHR is much higher.

For Uzbeks, the only statistically significant predictor is RTHR on high status job decisions. RTHR predicts for high status **β= 0,155,** as one unit increase in RTHR increases the ranking preference **by 16%.** We can infer that, respondents in general do not emphasize considerable attitude towards Uzbeks, neither preference nor rejection or deference, putting them in a state of indifference. Respondents perceive neither any threat nor sense of similarity in their attitude towards Uzbeks, this however puts them at a higher hierarchy than Syrians, indicating Prejudice Distribution Account theory is influential in ranking decisions. Descriptive analysis justifies this evaluation since Uzbeks appear to be preferred as second ranking in both job statuses.

4.2.1.2.2.3. Rank Groupings High-Low Status

The rationale of Rank grouping is to analyze categorized ranks ordered as groups, containing designated scores pertaining to each ethnic group. Our descriptive data already tells us that, for instance Turks were selected receiving 1.st ranking by 141 respondents for the high an142 for the low status. But the question is, what influence do the constructs perform in ranking decisions when grading applicants for particular groups. For that we collected all the 1st, 2nd and 3rd rank scores in separate rank groups for both statuses.

Table 36. The Goodness of Fit of Rank Groupings

Chi-statistics	Goodness of Fit Index, GFI	Comparative Fit Index, CFI, TLI	Root Mean Sqr. Error of Appr., RMSEA
CMIN = 405,946 DF =171 p=**0,000** CMIN/DF= **2,374**	**0,870**	CFI = **0,881** TLI = **0,854**	**0,077**

The chi-square value of 405,946 with 171 degrees of freedom, CMIN/DF 2,374, and the *p*-value is 0,000 (non-significant) stand with the null hypothesis not to reject it. Because the chi-square algorithm is affected by sample size, we can argue that statistical significance (p>0,5) will be achieved with large samples. This finding suggests that sample size is a degrading factor for better p-values. Corroborating evidence for a good fit is provided by the Relative fit indexes; RMSEA fit statistic – the obtained value of 0,077 is moderate. Similarly, the Tucker-Lewis Index result of 0,854 is close to the 0,90 limit and the CFI is 0,881 is above the 0,8 of threshold denoting the three factors model (Ethnic Search, Ethnic Affirmation-Belonging- and Realistic Threat) yielded an acceptable fit.

Table 37. Estimates of Loading of Manifesting Variables Rank Groups

Latent Var.		**Manifest Var**	**Unstand.**	**Standard.**	**P value**	**R^2**
E_SEARCH	------->	EIB_1	1	0,722	--	0,522
E_SEARCH	------->	EIB_2	0,871	0,592	***	0,351
E_SEARCH	------->	EIB_3	1,141	0,773	***	0,598
E_SEARCH	------->	EIB_4	1,303	0,886	***	0,784
E_SEARCH	------->	EIB_5	0,981	0,694	***	0,481
E_ABC	------->	EIB_6	1	0,705	--	0,497
E_ABC	------->	EIB_7	1,070	0,771	***	0,595
E_ABC	------->	EIB_9	1,063	0,785	***	0,617
E_ABC	------->	EIB_10	1,267	0,874	***	0,764
E_ABC	------->	EIB_11	1,329	0,912	***	0,833
E_ABC	------->	EIB_12	0,876	0,709	***	0,503
RTHR	------->	RTH_3	1	0,681	--	0,464
RTHR	------->	RTH_5_RC	1,119	0,614	***	0,376
RTHR	------->	RTH_6_RC	1,129	0,619	***	0,383
RTHR	------->	RTH_7_RC	1,096	0,591	***	0,350

Factor loadings of all manifesting variables on latent variables are statistically significant at p< 0,001 meaning factor loadings of the latent variables validate the measurement consistency. R^2 is the Squared Multiple Correlation (SMC) representing the level of variance on the indicator variable (also dependent variable) explained by the latent variable. Hence, measurement error is 1-SMC, that is the size of variance of the dependent variable not explained by the latent variable. Modification indices do not display any large estimate indicating no multiple-factor loadings. Factor loadings (standardized weights) of indicator variables on latent variables over 0,5 is considered good while over 0,7 is very good, therefore this model proves to have adequate measurement capacity.

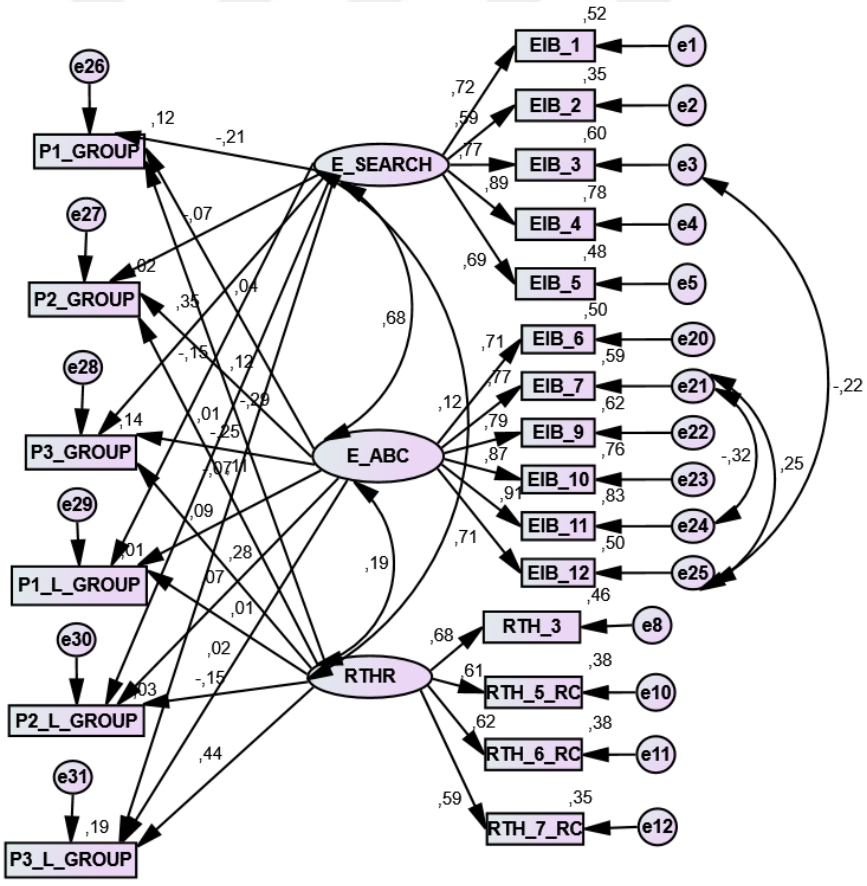


Figure 8. Structural Model Rank Groupings

Table 38. Factor Covariances/Correlations of Rank Groupings

		Covariances			Correlations	
FACTOR1	**FACTOR2**	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	R	P
E_SEARCH	←→ E_ABC	0,473	0,073	6,465	0,684	***
E_ABC	←→ RTHR	0,100	0,043	2,314	0,192	0,021
E_SEARCH	←→ RTHR	0,064	0,044	1,461	0,122	0,144
e3 (EIB_3)	e25 (EIB_12)	-0,125	0,04	-3,115	-0,221	0,002
e21 (EIB_7)	e25 (EIB_12)	0,129	0,043	2,995	0,246	0,003
e21 (EIB_7)	e24(EIB_11)	-0,117	0,033	-3,557	-0,324	***

Notes: p < 0,100 * p < 0,050 ** p < 0,010 *** p < 0,001

Correlation coefficients between E_ Search and E_ABC are over 0,5 and not close to 1 at p< 0,001, indicating a statistically significant and satisfactory level, yet, the relation between E_ Search and RHTR is statistically non-significant, and the correlation between RHTR and E_ABC is statistically significant at p<0,05 but the weight is minimal. There are no Correlations and Covariances between E_ Search and RTHR therefore, these constructs do not predict and moderate each other for this model.

Based on theoretical explanations, related literature and our inferential assessments, hypothesis relating to Rank Groupings were evaluated with data presented in Table 39 below.

Table 39. Estimates of Structural Model of Rank Groupings

		Exogenous var. (Latent Var.)					
Means &Std. D.		E_SEARCH		E_ABC		RTHR	
Endogenous var.		Unstand.	**Stand. β**	Unstand.	**Stand. β**	Unstand.	**Stand. β**
P1_GROUP H. Sta.	1,68 (,91)	-,223	**-,206***	,045	,041	-,413	**-,287*****
P2_GROUP H. Sta.	2,14 (,79)	-,069	-,073	,112	,116	,135	,107
P3_GROUP H. Sta.	2,59 (,92)	,377	**,345*****	-,272	**-,246****	,410	**,282*****
P1_GROUP L. Sta.	1,53 (,79)	-,142	-,151	,085	,089	,009	,007
P2_GROUP L. Sta.	2,40 (,94)	,014	,012	,079	,069	-,229	**-,154***
P3_GROUP L. Sta.	2,64 (,92)	-,079	-,073	,022	,020	,639	**,440*****

Notes: p < 0,100 * p < 0,050 ** p < 0,010 *** p < 0,001. In each group Turks coded as "1", Syrians "2" and Uzbeks "3".

For high-status job ranking, both RTHR and E_SEARCH prove to be the determining component of causality for P1_Group (collection of first ranking choices for each ethnicity), RTHR scoring higher **29%** at p<0,001) acting as a pivotal construct, than E_ Search **21%** at

p=0,037. Since P1_Group represents the first ranking choice, showing negative correlations of ranking with both constructs, meaning as one unit of standard deviation increase in construct lowers the rank, that is Turk represented as code "1" will be increased. Therefore E_SEARCH and RTHR together contribute to favoring Turk candidates, against the chances of others. Hence, we can infer that perceived threat and natives' ethnic orientation predict the group of rank that applicants are assigned to.

For P3_Group (third choice) all the constructs predict the ranks. E_ Search displays stronger causality (**35%** p<0,0001) than RTHR (**28%** at p<0,0001) and E_ABC (**25%** at p=0,013) for P3_Group. E_ Search and RTHR both positively impact rank groupings by designating Syrians as the proper candidate merely for third ranking, and E_ABC acts just the reverse.

P2_Group which is a collection of second choices is not affected by any construct, indicating people with ethnic orientation do not focus much on the second-ranking, but value the first and third one, that is second choice comes as by product of the first and third selections

For low-status job grouping only RTHR proves to be the determining component of causality for both P2_L_Group (collection of second-ranking choices for each ethnicity) determining respondents' decisions **(15%** at p=0,048) and P3_L_Group (collection of third-ranking choices for each ethnicity) determining respondents' decisions **(%44** at p< 0,001) acting as a pivotal construct. Since P2_L_Group and P3_L_Group show positive correlations with the ranking, meaning RTHR influences more the second and third-rank placement for low-status jobs which are highly dominated by Uzbek (for second rank) and Syrian (for third rank). Therefore, RTHR contributes to selecting Syrian and Uzbek for unpreferred ranks which increases the chances of Turk for better rank. Hence, we can infer that when evaluating minorities perceived realistic threat will be determining the discrimination, and P2_L_Group and P3_L_Group are solely affected by the threat, indicating that people with ethnic orientation do not display any bias in candidate selections for low-position jobs.

4.2.1.3. SEM/Multigroup Model- Fit Analysis (CFA) and Path Analysis

The purpose of the multigroup analysis is to check if our model acts invariantly or if the factorial structure and measurement model of our theoretical constructs are equivalent across

population groups (e.g., gender, tenure, age) (Jöreskog & Sorböm, 1986, 1997). This analysis searches for and stipulates similar structures between group units, but estimations (loadings, correlations, paths, etc.) may differ among group members. The main purpose is to investigate if the constructs behave differently or if items perform differently from one group to another. We first secure if the measure has equivalent properties for all group units involved so that we can predict actual group differences, isolated from measurement differences relating to individual groups. The fitness of good model indices is extracted separately, and the causal structure equivalence of paths is also checked and latent variables are compared across the population. The invariance test begins with checking the equality of variance-covariance structure across groups that we test the null hypothesis (H0) to reject, meaning groups are not equivalent.

We first set a model of invariance that is the same model for all groups-*Baseline Model*-without any constraint on it (baseline model). Joreskog (1971b) suggests that this test of invariance should cover;

- Factor Loadings,
- Factor Covariances, and
- Structural regression paths.

4.2.1.3.1. Multigroup Measurement- Configural Invariance Assessment for Gender

The main purpose of multigroup analysis is to investigate equivalence-invariance- between groups (gender). We search whether or not components of the Measurement model (CFA) and/or Structural model are equivalent or invariant across gender groups. We ask;

- Do the items comprising a particular measurement instrument operate equivalently across different populations (e.g., gender, tenure, education, profession)
- Is the factorial structure of a single instrument or a theoretical construct equivalent across populations as measured either by items of a single assessment measure or by subscale scores by multiple instruments?

- Are the latent variable means of particular constructs in a model different across populations
- Does the factorial structure of a measuring instrument replicate across independent samples drawn from the same sample-referring to cross-validation-.

4.2.1.3.1.1. Measurement Model- Baseline

Joreskog (1971) recommends that all tests of invariance should include a global (baseline) test of equivalence of variances and covariances of parameters. Baseline models may not be the same for all groups, because error variances may differ from one group to another and we may ignore and free one parameter for one group whereas it may be very decisive for other groups. Therefore, in establishing a baseline model, we do not define any constraints between groups, each group is analyzed separately, contrary to invariance analysis where we impose equality constraints on certain parameters meaning groups are analyzed simultaneously (Bentler, 2005; Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996) to achieve plausible estimates.

Table 40. The Goodness of Fit of the Baseline Model for Gender-Separate

	Chi-statistics	Chi df	Chi p	CFI	RMSEA
Baseline _Female	**131,082**	**84**	**0,001**	**0,965**	**0,058**
Baseline _Male	**94,567**	**84**	**0,202**	**0,974**	**0,044**

Table 41. Goodness-of-Fit of Configural Model for Gender

	Chi-statistics	Chi df.	Chi p	CFI	RMSEA
Configural Model	**226,427**	**168**	**0,002**	**0,966**	**0,039**

Studying multigroup model testing for gender, we may state that; the Configural Model has shown an acceptable fit. The Chi-square value of 226,427 with 168 degrees of freedom is exactly equal to the sum of Chi-square statistics for females and males as separate. CFI of 0,966 and RMSEA of 0,039 provide considerably high fitting models across female and male

groups. Based on this evaluation we can conclude that we can carry on this structure to a constrained Configural model for invariance of group analysis. Next, we can proceed to test the invariance of construct measurement and structure analysis of groups.

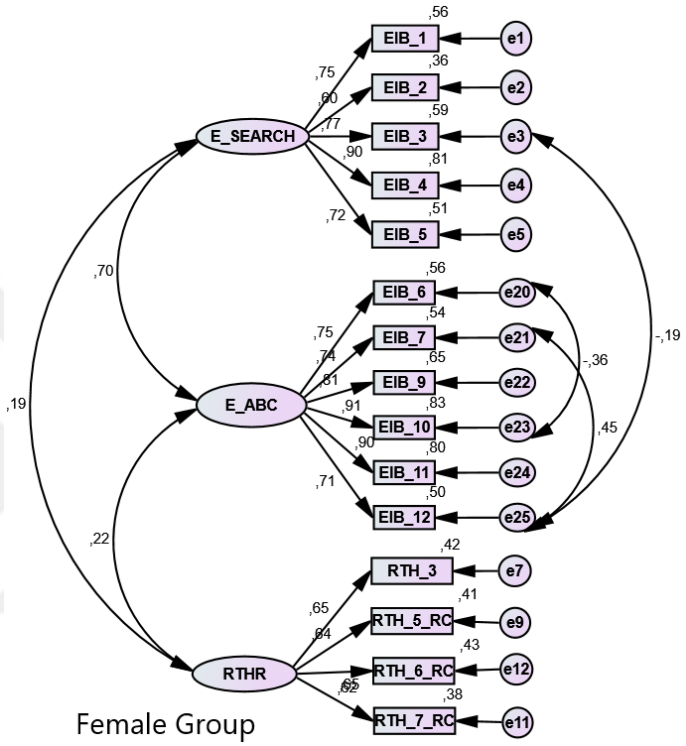


Figure 9. Structural Baseline Model Multigroup Configural Unconstrained

When we study the path analysis though, we have to keep in mind that, the size of the male sample (66) is lagging far behind the females (166), affecting the representativeness of the population, and possibly affecting the estimates if not the model fitness.

Table 42. Factor Covariances of the Baseline-Model-Gender Separate-Female

FACTOR1	**FACTOR2**	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
E_SEARCH	←→ E_ABC	0,495	0,088	5,643	***
E_ABC	←→ RTHR	0,103	0,047	2,192	,028
E_SEARCH	←→ RTHR	0,093	0,050	1,883	,060

Notes: * p < 0,050 ** p < 0,010 *** p < 0,001

Table 43. Factor Covariances of the Baseline-Model-Gender Separate -Male

FACTOR1	**FACTOR2**	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P

E_SEARCH	←→ E_ABC	0,409	0,131	3,118	0,002
E_ABC	←→ RTHR	0,054	0,080	0,674	0,500
E_SEARCH	←→ RTHR	-0,019	0,077	-0,250	0,803

Notes† * p < 0,050 ** p < 0,010 *** p < 0,001

4.2.1.3.1.2. Configural Invariance Model Specification

The main function of the configural invariance model is to establish a groundwork for all invariance tests we would like to analyze. Configural invariance aims to explore the extent to which factors (latent variables) and their structure are similar across groups (Females vs. Males). However, measurement and structural invariance are concerned with the extent of the parameters' equivalence across groups. This process is conducted by specifying particular parameters as equal constraints and these parameters are estimated for one group and the remaining groups are constrained equal to the initially specified group. First, factor loadings are constrained-measurement model-, and if the groups are proven equivalent-invariant- then factor variances and co-variances are constrained equal-structural model-. In testing the configural invariance, the common approach is to run the model first by constraining factor loadings equal (measurement model), and then, if group equivalence is obtained, equality constraints are introduced for factor variances and covariances (structural model). The factor loading pattern of observed measures is checked against their equivalence across groups. The invariance test makes no sense if the factor loadings are not invariant since equality of path means a unit of measurement would not differ across groups. Invariance of the causal path test will follow after factor loading invariance (measurement) is proven.

4.2.1.3.1.3. Testing for Measurement Invariance

Table 44. Goodness of Fit Comparisons of Configural Models

	Chi square-statistics	CFI	RMSEA
Configural Model-Equity Constrain imposed	CMIN = 229,988 DF = 180 p=0,007 CMIN/DF= 1,278	**0,971**	**0,035**
Configural Model- no equity constraint imposed.	CMIN = 226,427 DF = 168 p=0,000 CMIN/DF= 1,348	**0,966**	**0,039**

Configural Model-Equity Constrain imposed: The chi-square value of 229,988 with 180 degrees of freedom, CMIN/DF 1,278 and the *p*-value is 0,007 (non-significant) stand with the null hypothesis not to reject it. Because the chi-square algorithm is affected by sample size, we can argue that statistical significance (p>0,5) will be achieved with large samples. Corroborating evidence for a very good fit is provided by the Relative fit indexes; RMSEA fit statistic – the obtained value of 0,035 is well below the desired cutoff. Similarly, the Tucker-Lewis Index result of 0,966 is above the 0,90 limit and the CFI is 0,971 is well above the 0,8 of threshold denoting the three-factor multigroup measurement model-gender (Ethnic Search, Ethnic Affirmation-Belonging- and Realistic Threat) very good fit across female and male groups. Since the $\chi 2$ test is absolute, it would be plausible to focus on CFI and RMSEA tests (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002). Having done with the goodness-of-fit process of measurement model-gender we can proceed with first; the invariance of the configural model and secondly; the test of structural invariance of the groups. But first, we give some explanations about invariance testing.

Invariance testing for the measurement model or structural model is achieved by assigning equality constraints on specific parameters and these parameters are constraints for the first group we select and all subsequent groups are considered equal to the first group that we have constrained. Thus, the parameters are labeled first to indicate that they are constrained equally across all groups but estimation is done for the first group selected. Error variances which are redundancies, should also be accounted for, if they are valid for all groups, that is if their figures are big enough to be defined as covariances, therefore redundancies.

Assessment of invariance testing requires that our Configural Model no Equity test should be similar to the "Configural Model Equity Constrain Imposed" in goodness of fit values. Expected test comparisons in factor loadings and error covariances are carried out by differences in CFI, RMSEA, and $\chi 2$ difference tests. ΔCFI yields 0,005 and ΔRMSEA yields 0,004 differences proving invariance across groups, however, $\Delta\chi 2$ yields 3,561 and 12 degrees of Δ-freedom. The basic approach in the $\Delta\chi 2$ test is to argue for evidence in non-invariance depending on the $\Delta\chi 2$ test by checking if the Configural Model no Equity signifies a worse fit compared with the Configural Model Equity Constrain Imposed whereas, the

ΔCFI test searches for invariance. Because the configural model is derived from the Configural Model of no Equity, it can easily be tested if adding equality constraints causes any statistically significant reduction in fit values.

This can be calculated as;

$\chi 2_{diff} = \chi 2_{configural\ constrained} - \chi 2_{configural\ not\ constrained}$ 229,988 – 226,427 = 3,561

$df_{diff} = df_{configural\ constrained} - df_{configural\ not\ constrained}$ 180 – 168 = 12

p-value for the chi-square test, assuming df=12 and α=0,05 is =0,99 (model comparison calculator for multigroup models-excel), meaning non-invariance is statistically non-significant. Therefore, invariance is proven by χ2 difference test.

$\Delta CFI = 0{,}966_{configural\ not\ constrained} - 0{,}971_{configural\ constrained} = 0{,}005$ hence as suggested by Cheung and Rensvold (2002), the measurement model should be assessed as invariant if ΔCFI is smaller than the threshold of 0,01.

$\Delta RMSEA = 0{,}039_{configural\ not\ constrained} - 0{,}035_{configural\ constrained} = 0{,}004$ hence as suggested by Cheung and Rensvold (2002), the measurement model should be assessed as invariant if ΔRMSEA is smaller than the threshold of 0,01

Although the literature indicates corroboration with the findings of our test that we may conclude with satisfactory evidence of invariance across groups, we still check the possible non-invariance by testing loadings about each subscale (separate factor level test). We could only improve the fitness by dropping EIB12 which covaried with EIB7 and EIB3 (CFA results p value same in χ2 test, CFI same and RMSEA 0,001 change), it did not contribute more to measurement as well as structural quality of the model. We further tested factor loading item level (separate loading item of individual factor) but that also did not produce any material difference to the model. Hence, we can conclude that a lower significance value of p (lower than the threshold of 0,05) in Chi-square testing can only be attributed to sample size, especially the disproportion between female and male data, since the male test along provided significant p (0,202) value in chi-square test. We must also notice that all other chi-square parameters have consistently proven very satisfactory.

The result of Chi-square and CFI difference tests all prove a non-significant decrease in adding equality constraints in model fits, hence, we may conclude that we have evidence of invariance.

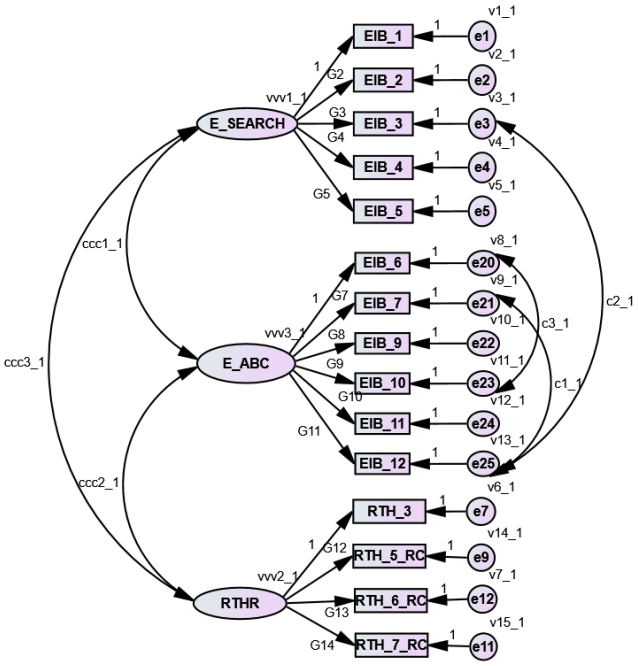


Figure 10. Configural Model Equality Constrain Imposed -Multigroup Gender

Table 45. Configural Model - Subscales Invariance Structure

	χ2 & df.	Δχ2	Δdf.	Sig.	p	CFI	ΔCFI	RMSEA	Δ RMSEA
Configural Model-no equity constraint imposed.	226,427 168			**,002**		**,966**		**,039**	
Configural Model-All Factor loadings constrained equal	229,988 180	**3,561**	**12**	**,007**	**,99**	**,971**	**,005**	**,035**	**,004**
E_SEARCH Constrained	227,462 172	**1,035**	**4**	**,003**	**,90**	**,968**	**,002**	**,037**	**,002**
E_ABC Constrained	228,723 173	**1,296**	**5**	**,003**	**,81**	**,968**	**,002**	**,037**	**,002**

Notes: Higher CFI values indicate greater fit. Higher χ2 values represent lower fit. Lower RMSEA value represent a higher fit. Δ values represent the change from the values in the first row-Configural Model-. P values greater than 0,05 indicate non-invariance rejected.

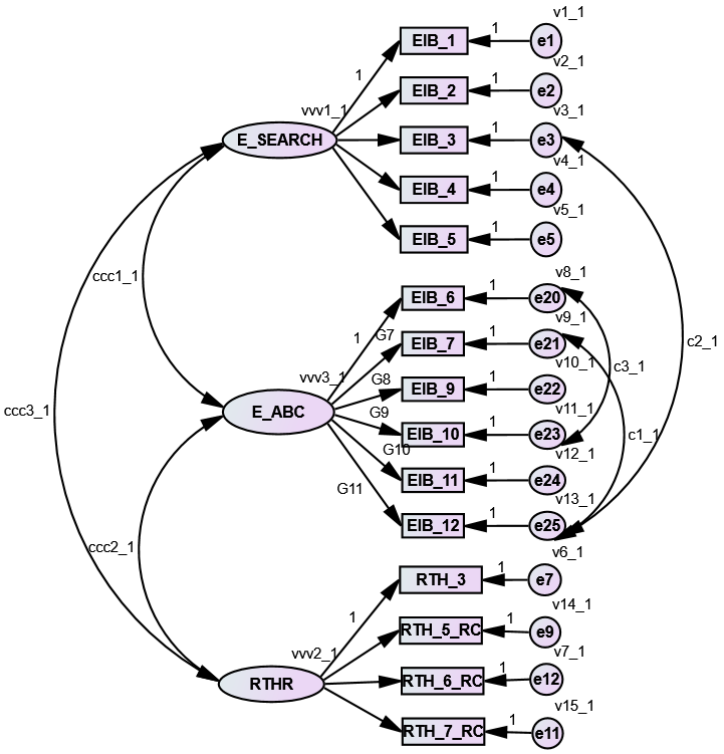


Figure 11. Configural Model Equality Constrain Imposed on E_ ABC

4.2.1.3.2. Multigroup Analysis

4.2.1.3.2.1. Ranking by Gender

Table 46. Goodness of Fit of Multigroup Structural Model Ranking- by Gender

Chi-statistics	Goodness of Fit Index, GFI	Comparative Fit Index, CFI, TLI	Root Mean Sqr. Error of Appr., RMSEA
CMIN = 488,265 DF = 344 p=**0,000** CMIN/DF= **1,419**	**0,848**	CFI = **0,935** TLI = **0,920**	**0,043**

The chi-square value of 488,265 with 344 degrees of freedom, CMIN/DF 1,419 stand with the null hypothesis to support it. Corroborating evidence for the very good fit is provided by the Relative fit indexes; RMSEA fit statistic – the obtained value of 0,043 is well below the desired cutoff. Similarly, the Tucker-Lewis Index result of 0,920 is above the 0,90 limit and

CFI is 0,935 well above the 0,8 of threshold yielding the three factors model (Ethnic Search, Ethnic Affirmation-Belonging- and Realistic Threat) a very good fit.

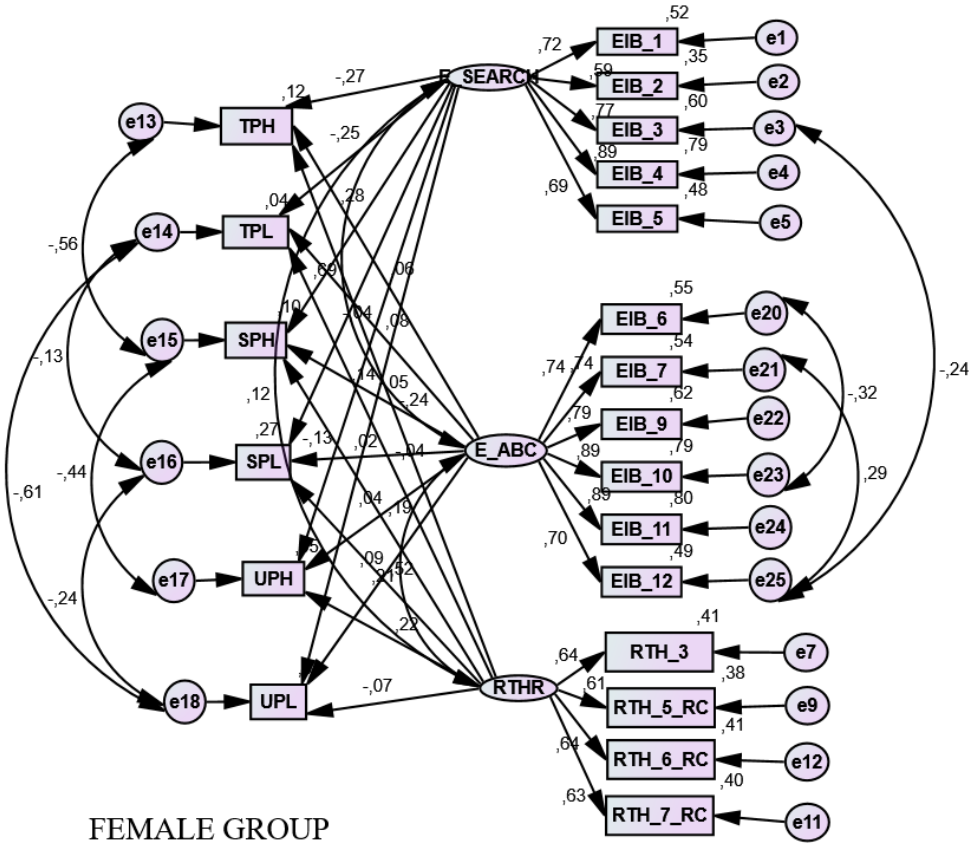


Figure 12. Structural Model Multigroup Ranking for Gender

Table 47. Factor Covariances/Correlations of Multigroup Structural Model-Female

		Covariances			Correlations	
FACTOR1	**FACTOR2**	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	R	P
E_SEARCH	←→ E_ABC	0,531	0,089	5,974	,703	***
E_ABC	←→ RTHR	0,117	0,05	2,321	,229	0,020
E_SEARCH	←→ RTHR	0,095	0,049	1,935	,192	0,053
e3 (EIB_3)	e25 (EIB_12)	0,110	0,046	2,411	-,185	0,016
e21 (EIB_7)	e25 (EIB_12)	0,260	0,053	4,888	,449	***
e20 (EIB_6)	e23(EIB_10)	-0,139	0,041	-3,407	-,364	***

Notes: * p < 0,050 ** p < 0,010 *** p < 0,001

Table 48. Factor Covariances/Correlations of Multigroup Structural Model-Male

		Covariances			Correlations	
FACTOR1	**FACTOR2**	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	R	P
E_SEARCH	←→ E_ABC	0,429	0,113	3,802	,649	***
E_ABC	←→ RTHR	0,070	0,077	0,910	,139	0,363
E_SEARCH	←→ RTHR	-0,026	0,077	-0,335	-,053	0,738
e3 (EIB_3)	e25 (EIB_12)	-0,173	0,076	-2,283	-,339	0,022
e21 (EIB_7)	e25 (EIB_12)	-0,077	0,069	-1,125	-,149	0,260
e20 (EIB_6)	e23(EIB_10)	-0,124	0,082	-1,519	-,226	0,129

Notes: * p < 0,050 ** p < 0,010 *** p < 0,001

Based on the theoretical explanations, related literature and our inferential assessments on multigroup comparative basis, hypothesis relating to Multigroup Ranking were evaluated with data presented in Table 49 below.

Table 49. Estimates of Structural Model of Multigroup Ranking

Estimated Standardized Regression Weights- β									
	E_SEARCH			E_ABC			RTHR		
	Factor Ranking	Female	Male	Factor Ranking	Female	Male	Factor Ranking	Female	Male
Turk H. Status	**-,235***	**-,264***	-,214	**,079**	,054	,167	**-,206****	**-,226***	-,173
Turk L. Status	**-,241***	**-,242***	-,241	**,135**	,070	,287	**-,073**	-,028	-,014
Syrian H. Stat.	**,321****	**,276***	**,470***	**-,086**	-,052	-,173	**,244****	**,182***	**,381****
Syrian L. Stat.	-,122	-,138	-,045	**,090**	,021	,153	**,473*****	**,513*****	**,416****
Uzbek H. Stat.	**-,037**	-,049	-,047	**,024**	,047	-,006	**,181***	**,213***	,136
Uzbek L. Stat.	,172	,129	,123	-,037	,103	-,242	-,086	-,072	-,110

Notes: * p < 0,050 ** p < 0,010 *** p < 0,001

Female Group:

For high-status job ranking E_ Search displays the strongest causality by **27%** followed by RTHR by **23%** both are negatively correlated with ranking decisions favoring Turks, E_ Search leading by **28%** followed by RTHR of **18%** both are positively associated with ranking decisions of Syrians, any increase in them will increase the ranking row, distancing Syrians from 1st rank to 2nd or 3rd, disfavoring them, and for Uzbeks RTHR by **21%** positively correlating the ranking row, distancing Uzbeks from 1st rank to 2nd or 3rd, disfavoring them, and all favoring Turk for the first ranking.

For low-status job ranking E_ Search is the only component of causality and only for Turks. displaying the magnitude of **24%,** negatively correlated with ranking decisions favoring Turks. RTHR only predicts for Syrian low status at a very high regression of **51%,** positively correlated, any increase in them will increase the ranking row, distancing Syrians from 1st rank to 2nd or 3rd, disfavoring them. For Uzbeks no significant correlation in low status was experienced.

Hence, it is very clear that ranking decisions for Turks are influenced strongly by the E_ Search-cognitive dimension- for both statuses, RTHR traces E_ Search at a slightly smaller weight for only high status. It is evident that female is very concerned with high status evaluations, driven by E_ Search for Turks and by RTHR for migrants, but predominantly for Syrians, and Uzbek low station is not affected by any construct.

Male Group:

The only significant prediction achieved in male case is for Syrian high and low statuses, by **38%** and **42%** respectively, both are negatively correlated with ranking decisions, disfavoring Syrians tracing female attitudes, and E_ Search predicting again Syrian high status by **47%,** distancing Syrians from 1st rank to 2nd or 3rd. Male scoring has not demonstrated any significance for Turks and Uzbeks for either status. To conclude we can argue that, it is the high status that draws much of the concern, Turk applicant decisions are driven more by E_ Search only by female raters, migrant decisions are affected more by RTHR, very strongly for Syrians for all statuses, and moderately for Uzbek only for high status.

4.2.1.3.2.2. Rank Groupings by Gender

Table 50. The Goodness of Fit-Rank Groupings by Gender

Chi-statistics	Goodness of Fit Index, GFI	Adjusted GFI, AGFI	Comparative Fit Index, CFI, TLI	Root Mean Sqr. Error of Appr., RMSEA
CMIN = 639,243 DF = 354 p=**0,000** CMIN/DF= **1,806**	**0,816**	**0,760**	CFI = **0,860** TLI = **0,833**	**0,059**

The chi-square value of 639,243 with 354 degrees of freedom, CMIN/DF 1,806, and the *p*-value is 0,000 (non-significant) stand with the null hypothesis not to reject it. Corroborating evidence for the perfect fit is provided by the Relative fit indexes; RMSEA fit statistic – the obtained value of 0,059 is well below the desired cutoff. Similarly, the CFI is 0,860 well above the 0,8 of threshold yielding the three factors model (Ethnic Search, Ethnic Affirmation-Belonging- and Realistic Threat) a good fit.

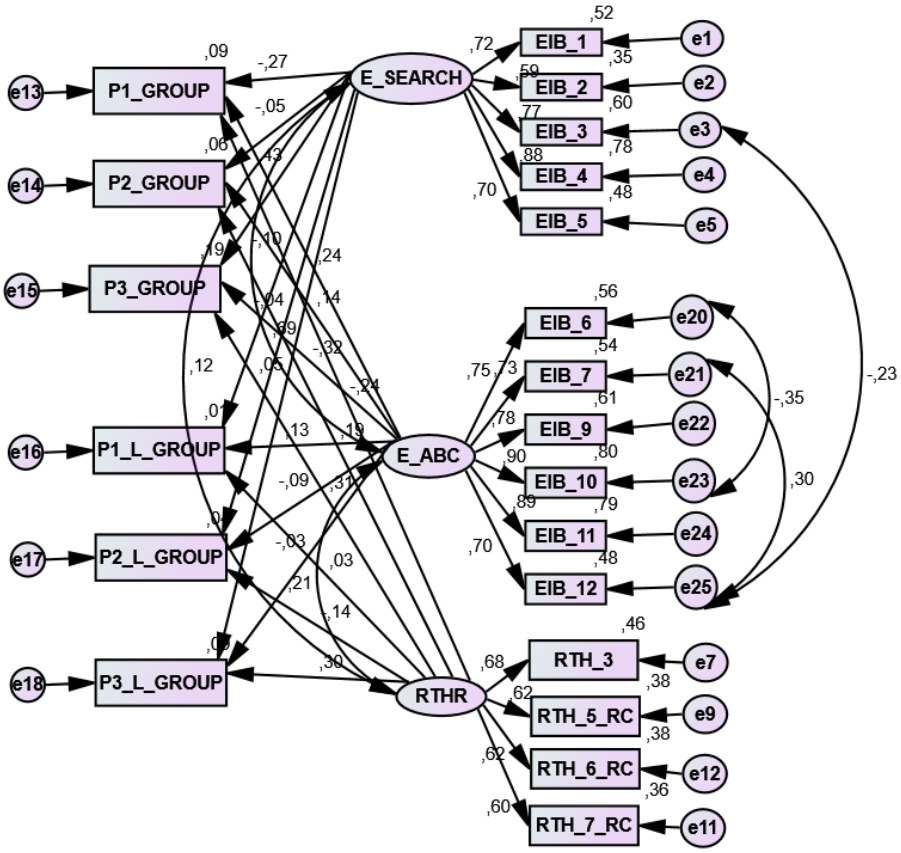


Figure 13. Multigroup Baseline Ranking Group High Status for Gender

Table 51. Factor Covariances/Correlations of Multigroup Structural Model-Female

		Covariances			Correlations	
FACTOR1	**FACTOR2**	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	R	P
E_SEARCH	←→ E_ABC	0,534	0,089	5,980	,703	***
E_ABC	←→ RTHR	0,127	0,05	2,374	,233	0,018
E_SEARCH	←→ RTHR	0,100	0,049	1,928	,192	0,054
e3 (EIB_3)	e25 (EIB_12)	-0,108	0,046	-2,365	-,181	0,018
e21 (EIB_7)	e25 (EIB_12)	0,264	0,053	4,953	,454	***
e20 (EIB_6)	e23(EIB_10)	-0,150	0,040	-3,711	-,403	***

Notes: * p < 0,050 ** p < 0,010 *** p < 0,001

Table 52. Factor Covariances/Correlations of Multigroup Structural Model-Male

		Covariances			Correlations	
FACTOR1	**FACTOR2**	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	R	P
E_SEARCH	←→ E_ABC	0,432	0,113	3,815	,654	***
E_ABC	←→ RTHR	0,076	0,083	0,912	,140	0,362
E_SEARCH	←→ RTHR	-0,032	0,082	-0,394	-,063	0,693
e3 (EIB_3)	e25 (EIB_12)	-0,164	0,076	-2,150	-,318	0,032
e21 (EIB_7)	e25 (EIB_12)	-0,074	0,070	-1,055	-,140	0,291
e20 (EIB_6)	e23(EIB_10)	-0,136	0,081	-1,690	-,255	0,091

While all the factors co-vary statistically significant in the female group, only ethnicity factors co-vary significantly, and others show no significance in their relations in the male group.

Based on the theoretical explanations, related literature and our inferential assessments on multigroup comparative basis, hypothesis relating to Rank Groupings on Multigroup Ranking were evaluated with data presented in Table 53 below.

Table 53. Estimates of Structural Model of Rank Grouping for Gender

Estimated Standardized Regression Weights- β						
	E_SEARCH		E_ABC		RTHR	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
High Status Rank Groups						
P1-Group	-,172	-,343	-,041	,292	**-,300*** **	**-,279***
P2-Group	-,127	-,078	,172	,149	-,071	,188
P3-Group	**,344****	**,547****	**-,248***	**-,393***	**,256****	**,367***

Low Status Rank Groups						
P1-L_Group	,140	-,046	,03,73	,087	,005	,038
P2-L_Group	,037	-,098	,216	-,025	**-,180***	,160
P3-L_Group	,092	,105	-,028	-,067	**,516*** **	**,319***

Notes: * p < 0,050 ** p < 0,010 *** p < 0,001. Shaded rows are non-significant estimates. Scoring: 1=1st ranking, 2=2nd ranking 3= 3rd ranking. Each group consists of codes: 1=Turk, 2=Uzbek and 3=Syrian. Negative prediction indicates a tendency towards Turk and positive towards Uzbek or Syrian for that group.

In high-status groupings, P3-Group across all constructs shows statistically significance in correlations by both genders when designating applicants for the 3rd rank. For Female scoring; E_ Search leading by **34%** and RTHR by **26%** both in positive correlation, and E_ABC by **25%** in negative correlation. Male scoring for P3-Group displays similar tendency again E_ Search strongly leading by **55%** and RTHR by **37%** both in positive correlation, and E_ABC as rare reporting, by **39%** in negative correlation, evidencing that Male exhibits higher discrimination than Female but they both predict consistently when assigning 3rd ranking as "bias against" to migrants. RTHR is the only predictor for both genders to predict P1-Group (first placement), negatively correlating the decision **30%** for female and **28%** for male, increasing the preference for Turk (code category 1 for Turk) at a cost of others (Uzbek category 2 and Syrian 3). P2-Group is not predicted by any construct meaning raters are not concerned for 2nd rank, they either select the preferred ones or unpreferred ones.

In low-status groupings, only RTHR positively affects the P3-L_Group decision, for female by **52%** and for male by **32%** in positive correlation, meaning increasing the assignment for third place (Syrian represented by 3) and increasing the chances of others for better placement. For P2-L_Group, only female scoring predicted by RTHR is **18%** conversely in negative correlation, meaning as the RTHR score increases chances of Turk and Uzbek increase for second ranking, as Turk is represented by 1 and Uzbek by 2.

Hence RTHR is a pivotal construct representing perceived threat influencing low-status grouping, enforcing the position of Syrians for least preferred ranking thereby, increasing the preferences of others. Other constructs have no impact on the low status groupings.

V. DISCUSSION OF RESULTS, IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1. SUMMARY OF RESULTS

When we assess causality, we should consider not only the links that explain the causal connection and their strength indicated by observed data, but also missing links that potentially claim a non-causality. Causal implications cannot be explicated by data alone but with theoretical assumptions in adequate combination. Then, if any theoretical assumption is not corroborated by SEM parameters to interpret any causal effect, this should be seriously considered regardless of the outcomes of the model and the samplings. With this in mind, we have tested the SEM models to obtain goodness of fit, have traced the measurement errors, and causational strength of paths in multivariate form, and also have elaborated on multigroup extension as suggested by Bagozzi and Yi (2012), and Byrne (2013).

Inferential assessments together with descriptive general tendencies of respondents, are presented with conglomerated data of Hiring Intention and Ranking in Table 54 below.

Table 54. Summary Inferential Findings /Hiring Intention/Ranking

DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS Means & Std. d.		Median		**INFERENTIAL ANALYSIS** E_SEARCH	E_ABC	RTHR
Estimated Standardized Regression Weights- β						
Hiring Intention (Suitability + Confidence)						
Turk H. Status	3,99 (,77)	**4**		**,222***	-,080	,145
Turk L. Status	3,87 (,83)	**4**		**,**143	-,046	**,**007
Syrian H. Status	3,52 (,92)	**3**		**-,338****	,071	**-,315*****
Syrian L. Status	3,15 (,95)	**3**		**-,316****	,093	**-,488*****
Uzbek H. Status	3,73 (,74)	**3**		**-,283****	,049	**-,339*****
Uzbek L. Status	3,58 (,91)	**3**		**-,352*****	,118	**-,250*****
Ranking			1. Rank Freq. in Number & %			
Turk H. Status	1,66 (,89)	**1**	**141 60.8%**	**-,215***	**,**079	**-,175****
Turk L. Status	1,56 (,83)	**1**	**142 61,2%**	**-,238***	**,**141	-,073
Syrian H. Status	2,49 (,95)	**3**	**49 21,1%**	**,325****	-,074	**,228****
Syrian L. Status	2,64 (,81)	**3**	**13 5,6%**	-,129	**,**092	**,466*****
Uzbek H. Status	2,15 (,71)	**2**	**39 16,8%**	-,068	**,**027	**,155***
Uzbek L. Status	2,21 (,93)	**2**	**67 28,9%**	,138	-,031	-,065

Notes: * p < 0,050 ** p < 0,010 *** p < 0,001. † Shaded areas are statistically non-significant.

†† Ranking question: "After reviewing the applicant resumes, please rank the applicants in the order in which you would choose to hire them?" 1=1st ranking, 2=2nd ranking 3= 3rd ranking 4=no-ranking
††† Hiring intention question: "1-How suitable do you believe this applicant is for this function? 2-What is the likelihood that you'd invite this individual for an interview? Confidence question: How confident would you be in your decision to hire this candidate? (1 to 5 Likert scale, 1 very negative, 5 very positive)

Based on theoretical explanations, related literature, number of research we have studied, and our inferential assessments extracted from the empirical research, together with the public opinion surveys carried out on the minorities related to Syrians and Turkic origin ethnicities, we evaluate our hypothesis in the following lines.

5.2. RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS EVALUATIONS

The first hypothesis posits that the salience of category determines the selection criteria the raters prime, to base their decisions on. Hence, we determine if Ethnicity or Job-status categorization is the prime domain triggering bias in effect.

(H1): *Candidate's ethnic salience affects the category selection on which the decision is based. The higher the Applicant's Ethnicity Salience to the Rater, the stronger is the tendency to choose Ethnicity category in hiring decisions rather than job status.*

The second hypothesis posits that, whichever categorization (H1) indicates as a predictor, be it ethnic identifiers as we suggested, will determine if the raters' decision will be affected by that category (ethnicity).

(H2): *Ethnic orientation of the rater will affect the rater's hiring decisions, and applicants having similar ethnicity with the rater, will be rated higher than the dissimilar ones.*

(H7): *Migrant discrimination in hiring can be attributed more to realistic threat as a stronger predictor than social identity (raters' ethnicity orientation) regardless of the status of the jobs because the threat does not differentiate job statuses. In other words, job status cannot moderate discrimination if the threat is highly salient.*

In all our tests when we study decisions towards Turk candidates, Ethnic Search (E_ Search- Cognitive dimension-homophilic mindset) is the dominating construct to influence the decision, in Hiring

Intention (**β= 22%** for high status only), and in Ranking (**β= -22%** for high and **β= -24%** for low statuses**),** whereas RTHR only correlates with high status decisions in Ranking **(β= -18%)**. Low status decision is only affected by E_ Search only in Ranking. It is evident that raters are influenced by Ethnic Search more than RTHR and at higher magnitude in Turk candidate evaluations. Therefore, it is the group identity/similarity that strongly governs the intention to hire and the decision to rank. Hence, we can conclude that, when evaluating native candidates, E_ Search is the critical construct and it is the social identity that causes the selection biases and discrimination is stronger in high-status job.

Job-status moderation of decision is as such, we do not see RTHR affecting the selection for low-status jobs in hiring intention and only for high status ranking for Turk candidates.

Hiring Intention scoring for Syrians for both statuses are parallel with Uzbeks, and Ranking is more biased against than Uzbek for both status job. It suggests a designated 3rd ranking in overall scores and they perform behind Uzbeks in all gradings. Both constructs are active and statistically significant, in Hiring Intention predicted by RTHR for both statuses (**β= -32%** for high and **β= -49%** for low), consistently with E_ Search (**β= -34%** for high and **β= -32%** for low statuses). In Ranking decisions, RTHR shows very strong magnitude in predicting the low status **(β= 47%),** but lower estimation **(β= 23%)** than E_ Search **(β= 33%)** in high status This means that raters do exhibit strong attitude in Hiring Intention as well as in Ranking decisions consistently, and RTHR is the stronger determinant which is a clear indication of outright discrimination triggered by perceived threat.

Uzbeks have a slightly better score for Hiring Intention than Syrians and on average better scoring in Ranking. They seem to be the 2nd preferred ethnicity and choice for 2nd Ranking in the final decision. E_ Search is influential only in Hiring Intention (**β= -28%** for high and **β= -35%** for low statuses), and RTHR having similar predictions in Hiring Intention (**β= -34%** for high and **β= -25%** for low statuses) indicating similar ethnic concern with Syrians to trigger outright discrimination. Even though hiring evaluations predict strong estimations, when final Ranking was evaluated RTHR exhibits (**β= 16%** for high-status only) in Ranking. We can infer that Uzbeks represent less threat perception and affected less by ethnic orientation than Syrians.

Scaling Discrimination; To conclude the above argumentations relating to specific hypothesis;

<u>In scoring Turk candidates;</u>

In both, Hiring Intention as well as in Rankings, for both statuses, E_ Search is the crucial factor that influences decisions. Considering overwhelming scoring for the Turks over the migrants- **(H2) -** we can conclude that rater decisions are triggered by ethnic similarity- **(H1)** -, regardless of job statuses, hence **(H1)** and **(H2)** are both **supported** that raters bias their decision in Ranking strongly favoring the native applicants based on ethnic similarities, as well as scoring higher for Turks in Hiring Intention, altogether showing a very clear indication of discrimination favoring natives.

This conclusion is very much in line with Brewer, 1999 positing that, "*Much of the intergroup bias, prejudice, and discrimination is motivated by preferential treatment of the ingroup rather than direct hostility towards outgroups* ". Even though Turks were strongly favored almost equally for both positions with the influence of ethnic cognition, threat perceptions only mediated in high status Ranking decision.

<u>In scoring Syrian candidates;</u>

In both, Hiring Intention as well as in Ranking, for both statuses, RTHR is the determining factor that influences decisions, although in Hiring Intention for both statuses and in Ranking for high status only, E_ Search contributes to decisions alongside RTHR. All the statistical tests indicate that the Threat governs the raters' decision when Syrians are evaluated, and "Prejudice Distribution Account" considerations moderate the decisions and designate Syrians as the least favored, putting them in the 3rd Ranking position together. This can be explained by high salience in ethnic categorization **(H1)**. On the other hand, RTHR is the dominating predictor in Syrian evaluation, job suitability perception, that is "Job Fit" is not considered even for the low-status job **(H4)**, which is also the case with identity affiliation (E_ Search) **(H2)**. This clear discrimination against Syrians can be attributed more to RTHR than E_ Search, because RTHR dominantly exists in both stages, Hiring Intention and Ranking, and in both statuses. Hence **(H7) is supported.**

<u>In scoring Uzbek candidates;</u>

In Hiring Intention for both statuses, both constructs are similarly determining factors that influences decisions. In Ranking, however, only high-status job is influenced by RTHR. Just like the case with Syrians Threat also governs the raters' decision when Uzbeks are evaluated, but at a lower strength compared to Syrians, which "Prejudice Distribution Account" considerations designate Uzbeks as the

second favored, putting them to the 2nd Ranking position together with the second higher scoring for both statuses behind Turks which can be explained with "salience in categorization" **(H1)**, ethnic proximity- having ancestral Turkic bonds- as well as frequent use of chronic "Arab dislike" rhetoric (Higgins, 1996) **(H2)** and threat (**H7**).

(H4): *If the perceived realistic threat gets stronger, Rater's hiring decision will favor native candidates stronger, and migrants will have a lower possibility for selection than those of equally qualified native applicants for the same job.*

In evaluating Turk candidates, RTHR shows significance for high-status jobs although E_ Search heavily influenced the decision. In evaluating migrants though, RTHR was stronger in predicting decisions, hence **(H7)** is directly **supported** for migrants. By the same token**, (H4)** was also **supported** because raters' decision to favor natives was instigated by integrated threats perceived from the migrants. Hence, migrants were evaluated more by threat factors rather than ethnic considerations. Previous studies indicate a close link between prejudice-based threat level and chronic accessibility (Quanty et al., 1975; Stangor et al., 1994). People who are prejudiced towards an outgroup (Arabs), potentially develop their contextual verdict on that category, and we can state that this prejudice is the driver of intergroup bias we have observed, substantiating **(H4)**.

(H3): *Ethnically biased raters will be more committed when selecting native applicants for high-status jobs than they would, selecting native applicants for low-status jobs.*

In our context ***(H3)*** hypothesis was **not supported**. Although, we have observed that the higher the participants scored ethnic identities emphasizing the social self, the more they preferred native candidates over migrants, job statuses did not moderate the discrimination attitude. Turks, as the dominating group scored almost equally for both job statuses, with around 61% as the first selection influenced by ethnic factor (E_ Search) as the sole predicting construct. This is in line with Bursell and Roumbanis (2024) that discrimination against minority-named applicants proves to be similar in either status job positions contrasting with Carlson & Rooth, 2007 who have suggested that ethnic discrimination is higher in qualified occupations.

(H5): *If the perceived symbolic threat gets stronger, Rater's hiring decision will favor native candidates stronger, and migrants will have a lower possibility for selection than those of equally qualified native applicants for the same job.*

We did not conduct testing ***(H5)*** hypothesis because our observed symbolic threat data has caused a discriminant validity issue through multicollinearity, hence, we were obliged to drop off this construct from our analysis, thereby, the realistic threat has represented integrated threat alone. This issue has been covered under Baseline Analysis" heading.

(H6): *Realistic threat is a stronger predictor of hiring decision than symbolic threat given the extant socio-political structure in Turkiye.*

Even though we did not include Symbolic Threat in our models, when we examine the EFA of STHR we can observe much lower loading and weaker statistical properties compared to RHTR. In addition, it presented a collinearity issue and also when we run parallel tests to our working models incorporating STHR, we have discovered that in almost none of the models, STHR has shown any statistical significance. Therefore, ***(H6)*** **is supported**.

(H8): *Rater high in ethnic identity will perceive more threat, as such there is a positive relation between ethnic identity level and threat, predicting selection decisions.*

E_ Search being the dominant dimension throughout all the models has shown no statistically significant covariance or correlation with RTHR in any single or multigroup model tests. Therefore, we cannot prove any relation between E_ Search and RTHR in that sense. However, both factors acted in the same direction in parallel, which shows they are triggered by different drivers, but those drivers complement one another. This shows us a clear-cut prediction behavior of the drivers that do not overlap, addressing diverse issues that do not load across constructs. Thus, we cannot suggest that they trigger each other. Hence, we recommend a combined approach calculating net discrimination as the sum of estimated weights **(β)** of both constructs, E_ Search and RTHR. There are some slight covariances and correlations between E_ ABC and RTHR in all the models tested but they do not predict anything in parallel and do not help to explain any model. Furthermore, this does not offer any statistical meaning because E_ABC did not offer any statistically significant estimation throughout all the tests we have conducted. Therefore, we **cannot support** ***(H8)*** in our context.

Table 55. Summary Inferential Findings – Ranking by Gender

Estimated Standardized Regression Weights- β									
	E_SEARCH			E_ABC			RTHR		
	Factor Ranking	Female	Male	Factor Ranking	Female	Male	Factor Ranking	Female	Male
Turk H. Status	**-,215***	**-,264***	-,214	**,**079	,054	,167	**-,175****	**-,226***	-,173
Turk L. Status	**-,238***	**-,242***	-,241	**,**135	,070	,287	**-**,073	-,028	-,014
Syrian H. Stat.	**,325****	**,276***	**,470***	**-**,086	-,052	-,173	**,228****	**,182***	**,381****
Syrian L. Stat.	-,122	-,138	-,045	**,**090	,021	,153	**,466*****	**,513*****	**,416****
Uzbek H. Stat.	-,037	-,049	-,047	**,**024	,047	-,006	**,155***	**,213***	,136
Uzbek L. Stat.	,172	,129	,123	-,037	,103	-,242	-,086	-,072	-,110

Notes: * p < 0,050 ** p < 0,010 *** p < 0,001. Shaded areas are statistically non-significant.

(H9); *Females show less tendency to discriminate against an applicant than male.*

Female scores revealed strong favoring for Turk candidate Ranking through ethnic cognition- E_ Search- for high status **(β)** = **-0,26***, for low status **(β)** = **-0,24***, and perceived threat-RTHR- for high status **(β)** = **-0,23*,** yet male raters' scores do not show any prediction for either status and any construct, meaning Male has no predicting capacity for Turk evaluation.

In Syrian candidates' Ranking, female estimations in E_ Search for high status were considerably low **(β)** = **0,28*** compared to male **(β)** = **0,47*,** and female scores of RTHR **(β)** = **0,18*** was lower versus male scores **(β)** = **0,38****. In low-status job ranking, however, females scored higher RTHR **(β) =0,51***** than male **(β) =0,42****. In Uzbek evaluation, female scored only for high status RTHR of **(β) =0,21,** and male did not predict any score for any status.

We can assert that, there is no statistically consistent tendency to express an opinion for either gender. It is difficult to generalize and operationalize any conclusion, in our context, even though male have exhibited stronger statistically significant RTHR and E_ Search estimates than female in the Syrian case for high status, female has exhibited higher scores in other cases, and were more pervasive in estimations. The questions that we are expected to respond to are; Do recruiters with both genders discriminate in favor of native and against the outgroup applicants? The answer is yes, Does the strength of the tendency of any gender to discriminate by ethnicity, significantly differ? The inferential analysis does not reveal any evidence as such. Therefore, we **cannot support** ***(H9)*** with our observed data.

Inferential and tendency analysis categorized by ethnicities and factors and broken down by job statuses are presented in table 56 below to explain hypothesis ***H10***.

Table 56. Ranking Reported by Types of Discrimination Raters Exposed – by Construct

Type of Discrimination		**Standardized Weights (β)**					
		TURK		SYRIAN		UZBEK	
		High Pos.	Low Pos.	High Pos.	Low Pos.	High Pos.	Low Pos.
Never experienced any discrimination 78 Responses *34% of Responses*.							
E_ Search					**-0,470****		
E_ABC					**0,376***		
RTHR					**0,578*****		
Experienced one or more types of discrimination 154 Responses *66% of Responses*.							
E_ Search		**-0,288***	**-0,483*****	**0,407*****			**0,264***
E_ABC			**0,413*****				
RTHR		**-0,265****		**0,256****	**0,443*****	**0,227***	
Gender discrimination 69 Cases (W 65, M 4) *18% of Cases 30% of Responses*. *(94% of responses are woman)*							
E_ Search				**0,607****			
E_ABC							
RTHR		**-0,341****			**0,555*****	**0,270***	
Political view and behavior discrimination 63 Cases *17% of Cases 27% of Responses.*							
E_ Search			**-0,394***	**0,360***			
E_ABC			**0,439***				
RTHR				**0,352***	**0,571*****		
Ethnicity or Religion/Sect discrimination 59 Cases *16% of Cases 25% of Responses*							
E_ Search							
E_ABC							
RTHR		**-0,389****		**0,288***	**0,329***	**0,453****	

Notes: * p < 0,050 ** p < 0,010 *** p < 0,001. Responses =232 (W 166, M 66) Cases =377 (W 294, M 102)
†† Ranking question: "After reviewing the applicant resumes, please rank the applicants in the order in which you would choose to hire them?" 1=1st ranking, 2=2nd ranking 3= 3rd ranking 4=no-ranking

(H10); *Discrimination perception of Raters moderate the Ranking decision through the mediation of ethnic orientation and perceived threat of raters.*

Based on the analysis in Table 56 above, we can infer that;

a) People who have not experienced any perceived discrimination (34% of population), have only been invoked to discriminate against Syrians for a low-status job, across all the constructs in our model in which, RTHR was stronger at **(β= 58%)** than E_ Search

at **(β= - 47%),** as E_ Search tend to positively and RTHR negatively influencing the bias, as one standard deviation increase in each construct affected the ranking category by corresponding coefficient value.

b) People who have experienced at least one or more sorts of perceived discrimination (66% of population) naturally have shown immense statistical difference from the ones who have experienced none. Syrians have come out as a stigmatized group from this analysis, and they even triggered all the perceptions about all the constructs, particularly for the low job status, even by the raters who have not experienced any discrimination.
c) When E_ Search and RHTR co-existed as significant ($p < 0,05$) in a perceived discrimination by raters, E_ Search exhibited stronger weight than RHTR suggesting that, ethnicity was a stronger predictor than perceived realistic threat, however, acting in the same direction, presenting a combined effect to substantiate the validity and evidence of posited hypothesis to explain the phenomenon.
d) RTHR acted as the main predictor for Turks, only for high-status jobs, for migrants; for Syrians in both statuses but much stronger in low-status jobs whereas for Uzbeks only for high-status jobs across all the tests of discrimination types experienced.

Hence, we believe the above explanations indicate that **(H10) is supported.**

This sets a pattern that discrimination is mandated by the accessibility of stimuli that the target category represents, be it an identity or conflict stimulant, and the context affects the particular stimuli to be activated.

One interesting finding is that ethnic cognition (E_ Search) and ethnic affections (E_ABC) are in constant counteraction throughout this thesis's context. It is worth noticing though that they are always in positive correlation and covariance, across all the models tested.

Results of the hypothesis evaluations are presented in table 57 below.

Table 57. Summary of Hypothesis Evaluations

H*ypothesis*	
(H1): Candidate's ethnic salience affects the category selection on which the decision is based. The higher the Applicant's Ethnicity Salience to the Rater, the stronger is the tendency to choose Ethnicity category in hiring decisions rather than job status.	***Supported***
(H2): Ethnic orientation of the rater will affect the rater's hiring decisions, and applicants having similar ethnicity with the rater, will be rated higher than the dissimilar ones.	***Supported***
(H3*):* Ethnically biased raters will be more committed when selecting native applicants for high-status jobs than they would to select native applicant for low-status jobs.	***Not Supported***
(H4): If the perceived realistic threat gets stronger, Rater's hiring decision will favor native candidates stronger, and migrants will have a lower possibility for selection than those of equally qualified native applicants for the same job.	***Supported***
(H5): If the perceived symbolic threat gets stronger, Rater's hiring decision will favor native candidates stronger, and migrants will have a lower possibility for selection than those of equally qualified native applicants for the same job.	Dropped off due to multicollinearity
(H6*):* Realistic threat is a stronger predictor of hiring decision than symbolic threat given the extant socio-political structures in Turkiye.	***Supported***
(H7): Migrant discrimination in hiring can be attributed more to realistic threat as a stronger predictor than social identity (raters' ethnicity orientation) regardless of the status of the jobs because the threat does not differentiate job statuses. In other words, job status cannot moderate discrimination if the threat is highly salient.	***Supported***
(H8); Rater high in ethnic identity will perceive more threat, as such there is a positive relation between ethnic identity level and threat, predicting selection decisions.	***Not Supported***
(H9); Females show less tendency to discriminate against an applicant than male.	***Not Supported***
(H10); Discrimination perception of Raters moderate the Ranking decision through the mediation of ethnic orientation and perceived threat of raters.	***Supported***

To sum up section 5.2. we can express that our analysis has indicated Turks as a native ethnicity have overwhelmingly been favored based on ethnic dimension over the migrants. Uzbeks were placed in the second rank and favorably rated on all tests over Syrians, as low

profile- low salience- subject by "Prejudice Distribution Account", dominantly influenced by a perceived threat. This contextualized research has also been corroborated by many public research analyses in Turkiye conducted in a general context covering many dimensions.

The Summary of the hypothesis discussion;

- Raters scored favoring Turks based on ethnic cognition-E_ Search- not on emotional dimension-E_ ABC-. Turks are overwhelmingly favored for both statuses implying the state of "*bias for*". However, the influence of ethnic identification did not generalize across minority groups and their applicants.
- For high-status jobs, just as RTHR has contributed to the dominating construct of E_ Search in Ranking Turk candidates, E_ Search has contributed to the dominating construct of RTHR in Ranking Syrian candidates, which shows a clear discriminatory attitude against Syrians in two dimensions.
- E_ ABC has no significant effect on almost any structural model, with a few exceptions, in tests where E_ Search and RTHR estimate stronger weights anyhow. In those cases, E_ ABC acts contrary to both of the constructs even though it has a positive correlation and covariances with both, E_ Search and RTHR.
- RTHR dominated the decisions on Syrian and Uzbek candidates for both statuses, emphasizing discrimination with the partial contribution of E_ Search, but the estimation weights over Uzbeks were much lighter and in some cases were in the form of indifference rather than "*bias against*". Therefore, there were discrimination differences between migrant groups.
- Syrians were stereotypically designated as the 3rd ranking and Uzbeks as 2nd which indicates a "prejudice distribution account" situation rather than a "job fit" perception.
- Even though RTHR and E_ Search did not correlate or covary, they always acted in parallel in the same direction, representing distinct parameters.
- Ranking scores have always been significantly stronger than hiring scores, all directly or indirectly indicating a preference for the Turks, this differentiation of scores between dependent variables is also evidence of discrimination, implying that no matter what the hiring intention

attitudes are, at the final stage in Ranking the candidates, the strength of estimation was fortified in favor of Turks.

- People who have never experienced any discrimination (78 respondents, 34%) had statistically significant estimations only for Syrian low position across all three factors measured for Ranking decisions. People who have been exposed to one or more types of discrimination are heavily biased for Turks and biased against Syrians. Those people who have experienced Political or Religious/Sectoral discrimination have had only RTHR as a statistically significant construct to reflect their attitude.
- Baseline multigroup model by Gender had perfect invariance for both Female and Male and goodness of model fit was achieved successfully.
- In Ranking Turk candidates, only Female estimates were statistically significant with E_ Search for both statuses and RTHR for high status only. Male scoring did not have any statistical significance for any construct. This denotes that female ***bias for*** the Turks while male displays no attitude either way.
- In Ranking Syrian candidates, both genders had statistically significant estimates with RTHR for both statuses and E_ Search for high status only.
- Ranking for Uzbek candidates did not have any significance whatsoever, for any gender and any status. This also fundamentally differs from Syrians.
- Hence, we can only assess the differentiation in scoring between genders for Syrian Ranking that, Female scored much lower in RTHR and E_ Search for high position, and moderately higher in RTHR for low-status jobs discriminating against Syrians, denoting female "*bias against*" was milder compared to male's, which can be interpreted as, overall male discriminated stronger than female.
- We can conclude that female *bias for* Turk as ingroup, motivated by ethnic cognition (E_ Search) for both statuses and discriminate against migrants triggered by perceived integrated threat when male scores show no significant result. Because the Uzbek test does not show any significance, Syrians seem to be the stigmatized outgroup due to their Ranking scores contain all the elements of perceived threat and ethnic cognitions acting against them. In Ranking, Both, female and male exhibit E_ Search and RTHR factors for high status, only RTHR for low status, but male discriminated more strongly than female in Syrian ranking in both constructs. We can

posit that female exhibit a similar tendency to male when realistic threat dominates, and emotional considerations are superseded by blatant discrimination.

- Perceived discrimination experienced by the decision-makers moderates the decisions in the context of the labor market in that, people who have not experienced any form of discrimination will discriminate much less than those who have been exposed to any form of discrimination, and women triggered more by similarity and men by threat.

5.3. IMPLICATIONS OF ETHNIC IDENTITY and PERCEIVED THREAT

Our research has proven that the overwhelming strength of ***bias for*** the native ethnic group- was explained by ethnic similarity and supported by realistic threat. Interestingly enough, an exact reverse situation was experienced in scoring for Syrians, that is, discrimination was experienced through perceived threat reinforced by ethnic cognition for high-status jobs. Previous research has exhibited that derogation and unfavorable perceptions against out-groups are oftentimes highly related to ingroup favoritism (Levine & Campbell, 1972; Brewer, 1986; Scheepers et al*.,* 2002). This phenomenon, as such, may be explained in terms of a paradigm we refer to — Social Identity Theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Tajfel, 1981, 1982; Turner, 1982). According to this theory, individuals have an innate predisposition to perceive their ingroup as superior to other ethnic outgroups which they value negatively via mechanisms of social contra-identification. *Social psychological experiments have shown that competition between groups improves solidarity within a specific group and increases hostility between groups (*Sherif & Sherif, 1969, 1979), Realistic Conflict Theory. Each social system is subject to competition for scarce material resources, social status and power aka dominance among social entities, and ethnic groups are one of them (Coser, 1956). Hence, we can state that Social Identity theory is complementary to Realistic Conflict Theory, and both form Ethnic Competition Theory. The main property of this theory is competition, either in an individual or in a contextual fashion, which eventually produces ethnic discrimination. Olzak (1992) argues that if an ethnic threat is faced (i.e., large migration influx or economic disturbances), the dominant ethnic groups react with exclusion-ary attitudes triggered by the perceived threat (Olzak, 1992: 35). Quillian (1995, 2019) suggests that racial prejudice is incurred as a response to threat perception triggered by actual

competition, stemmed from either the size of the migrants or fragile and uncertain economic conditions. Hence Social Identity and Realistic threat being the pivotal pillars of Ethnic Competition Theory, is called an Ethnic Threat causing ethnic exclusion of minorities.

Our research has focused on the actual competition at the contextual level (macro social level) which is explained by a high number of migration influx and severe economic conditions including high unemployment and inflation as the determining climate in which this research was conducted. In such situations, individual competition which is based on personal concerns -natives competing with minority groups on similar qualities i.e., educational levels, low qualified jobs, low skills- can only slightly differ from the general tendency. Our hypothesis (**H_3**) was not supported, which is the clear evidence that it made no difference what the job status is, if high or low, raters favored Turks strongly, discriminating for both job positions. Therefore, we can state that job status does not moderate when precarious economic conditions prevail and mass migration is faced by the local population, ethnic drives, and realistic threat perceptions complement each other. This rationale is also supported by Quillian (1995) and Olzak (1992) suggest that "ceteris paribus" Ethnic Competition will be the determinant driver when;

- The labor force supply is increased particularly by the migrant influx where the demand in the labor market is limited and the economy is saturated or shrinking, or

- Even if the labor force is stable but the scarce resources are decreasing.

This suggests that Ethnic Competition, the combined composition of ethnic cognition and perceived realistic threat drivers, are stronger causes of discrimination regardless of other factors, such as job status moderations or gender effects.

Quillian stated (1995: 592) that 'perceived threat is influenced both by the economic situation and by the size of the subordinate group'. Olzak (1992) corroborated stating that "rising competition-actual competition as well as perceptions of competition- drives dominant social groups towards ethnic exclusionism in many forms". In our research we observe that perceived ethnic threat acts as a more determining predictor than ethnic cognition in evaluating migrant applicants, emphasizing that as the size of our group increases, the

collective threat perception increases, inducing stronger exclusionism to that particular group. Syrians are exposed to considerably higher discrimination than Uzbeks at all stages which all the analyses clearly corroborate. In the same vein, the attitudes to Uzbek is a state of indifference as far as any social conflict perception is concerned, and preferred choice among the alternatives.

One peculiar area worth further analysis is, although E_ABC, Ethnic Affirmation/ Belonging/ Commitment component of MEIM does not offer any significant explanations for the phenomenon, it has correlations with both RTHR and E_ Search, as emotional dimension, this correlation is positive with E_ Search, nevertheless, all the estimations they produce in models show, they report reverse results. Since E_ABC does not produce any significance across models, we can interpret that cognition overcomes emotions in ethnic considerations where the imminence of potential threat perceptions prevail.

Both, Symbolic threat (dropped off due to collinearity) and E_ABC have proven dysfunctional in the entirety of tests, which is unique in the sense that previous Western research has frequently advised otherwise, which we believe can be attributed to endemic social and economic situation Turkiye has been experiencing for decades which fundamentally differs from the West. The theoretical ramification of this conclusion is that context determines the instrumentality of the measures to be applied, which suggests that in our case, cognition and material factors are primed, overruling, or at least overshadowing the emotional or intangible values. However, it is worth elaborating further about discarding Symbolic Threat from our project, because a studious effort has been disposed in collecting the data for this particular construct.

As observed in many cases in literature, context may determine if Realistic Threat or Symbolic Threat is in charge to determine potential predictor. Precarious economic conditions and severe conflicts over material resource allocations endorse RTHR, but when lifestyles and social adaptations are in question, STHR are observed to be the determinant (Kauff & Wagner, 2012). In one study for instance, when Dutch adolescents were surveyed to examine their prejudice against Muslim minorities (Dutch-Muslim cultural war), symbolic threat was mediated to explore the impact of ingroup identification on perceived prejudice,

which was found that multicultural climate and intergroup contact were associated with the prejudice against Islam. (Gonzalez et al., 2008). Hence, we can argue that the nature of mass immigration to culturally and economically advanced countries dictate that, perception of symbolic threat supersedes realistic threat (Sniderman et al., 2004; McLaren & Johnson 2007). By the same token, when the natives compete with migrants over scarce resources material concerns prevail and as a result realistic threat reigns the discriminative climate (Malhotra et al., 2013).

The differences of impact, attributed to categories influencing decision makers' attitudes is called Category Salience (Crisp & Hewstone, 2007). Self-categorization theory (Turner et al., 1987) claims that salience occurs in a state of readiness (accessibility) individuals possess, and if the category fits the situational case to create stimulus. In our case, the job status category has not indicated any effectiveness in explaining the attitudes and was overshadowed by ethnicity and threat dimensions. In other words, it was the ethnic competition driver of applicants that stimulated the attitudes of the rater to reach judgment regarding the selection process. This interprets that, when ethnic cognition and material confrontations are so severe, job status does not create any accessibility or stimulus in people's minds to affect the attitudes, nor does it play any role as a moderator.

Ethnic identity and perceived threat dimensions have demonstrated profound differences with the implications observed in societies having protestant work cultures with better-standing economic structures. These domains have theoretically and practically proven to be the antecedents of a myriad of sociopsychological and sociopolitical constructs that affect the attitudes of individuals as well as societies as macro factors. Therefore the variations we have observed and inferred in our analysis could be attributed to these differences, in the absence of historical conflict considerations which is a research subject in its own merit, that should be addressed by alternate studies.

5.4. IMPLICATIONS FOR THE LITERATURE

Our thesis contributes to the discrimination literature in the labor market selection context, fundamentally differing from the contemporary samples of the Western cultures in that, racism, cultural differences, and job statuses did not matter too much to invoke stereotypes

and prejudicial attitudes. It did, however, prove, that ethnic similarity was the stronger parameter that decision-makers were influenced and exhibited their preferences for applicants belonging to the same ethnicity, where the decision maker's self-interest (interdependence), internal or external loadings, the job fits, or task imperatives requiring highly skilled traits were absent.

The inferential analysis in our models has proven that the hiring intentions and ranking preferences are dominantly (over 60%) predicted by ethnic cognition (Social Identity/Similarity Attraction) favoring Turks as natives (similar ones) regardless of job status. Job status categorization did not make any difference, contrary to much previous research, especially the ones carried out in EU countries as mentioned in previous chapters. The major difference between our project and the studies conducted in EU countries can be attributed to the inherently high unemployment and precarious economic conditions in Turkiye which have been entangled for many decades.

In hiring situations, when we deal with immense migrant size, self-categorization stimuli of native raters are activated through conflict or anxiety about the migrants. Thus, the self-designated social category of rater was affected by the accessibility of applicants' ethnicity knowledge rather than the job status, as the most accessible category as relevant information (Higgins & King, 1981; Wyer & Srull, 1981). In previous research, mainly in US and EU countries, having extensive foreign labor forces in institutionalized and legally regulated job markets, we observe job status and social status do play an important role in moderating selection decisions, usually preferring minority workers for low-status jobs.

Our findings and conclusions cannot be explained without referring to Turkish workplace characteristics. Several studies have been conducted so far, either as specific ones taking Turkiye on the central focus (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008) or as being part of universal studies relating to socio-cultural issues like the ones carried on by Hofstede, (2001), GLOBE, WVS., The Information Transparency Index, The Information Accountability Index (2010). They all indicate that Turkish culture is highly collectivist (ranking 5th in the GLOBE 2002) covering a large part of social identity, characterized by a feeling of belongingness and sacrificing for ingroup. Hofstede's (2001) cultural framework suggests that Turkiye being a

collectivist culture is also categorized as high on uncertainty avoidance, paternalistic, and high-power distance country (Paşa et al., 2001; Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). Collectivism postulates that positive outcomes are reached through reciprocity of similar ingroup members (Niles, 1998). Collectivist societies like Turkiye, are not tolerant of ambiguity and feel oppressed by uncertainties which promotes intolerance to outgroup sourced conflicts, and reinforces ingroup dominance and hegemony (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008), lacking transparency and accountability. Uncertainties that are highly fostered by the paucity of resources, intergroup conflict, and competition, lead to perceived threat and exclusion of outgroups or minorities (DiTomaso, 2015).

Furthermore, previous research on Turkish organizations has revealed high organizational collectivism associated with human resource management (HRM) practices leading to informal hiring, strong favoritism to ingroup members, and "quid pro quo" type of interpersonal relationships in a very loosely formalized structure. Helping closely associated ones is not unethical, generates a positive feeling and appreciation and gratitude by group members and provides an enviable social status (DiTomaso, 2015). All these indicate that Turkish organizational and societal structure profoundly differentiates from Western platforms, the labor force market in particular, in contrast, they are characterized as displaying high organizational individualism, formalized HRM practices, merit-based formalized compensation and promotion practices, structured interviews with hiring audits, participatory management, imposed diversity legislations, and as topmost reality, global well-established economies. As a result, our research and findings differ from the Western samples in many respects, which can be attributable to the societal and organizational properties possessed by subject cultures.

Our research has proven that a Realistic threat has a much stronger predicting capacity than a Symbolic threat given the current social climate prevailing. Furthermore, Realistic threat scores were so prevalent that, Symbolic threat scores constituted multicollinearity with it, which enforced both measures not to coexist, and eventually realistic threat became the only predictor to represent integrated threat which can be articulated as Economic Concerns, to measure and explain the evaluation criteria. This conclusion also departs from many EU

studies which highly emphasize symbolic threat as a more determining construct in many minorities related issues, particularly in labor market decisions as a subtle form of conflict usually concerning way of life and assimilation matters.

One novel contribution to literature is the empirical analysis of victimized decision-makers. We have found that victimization is a strong moderator of discrimination. People discriminate more if they have been exposed to any prejudice, and the degree of discriminative attitude is contingent upon the type of discrimination people are victimized of.

Gender and ethnicity are two socially salient pillars, and either one exceeding the other in salience is contextual. Both constructs are so decisive and conducive not because they are affected by individual stereotypic beliefs, but by stereotypes that are institutionalized by media, legal establishments, and social mindset. This cultural schema endorses the enactment of inequality (Sewell, 1992). If the ethnicity in question stimulates any womanly sensitive anxiety through adverse knowledge accessibility, jeopardizing female acquis, this would implicitly amplify and aggravate the potential confrontation. In our inference, severe discriminative reactions reflected by the women can be attributed to the female perceptions that those remote ethnic entities could subliminally stimulate an inferiority association (Wilkins et al., 2011), which double downs women attitudes towards ethnic outgroups. When fundamental constructs (Gender, Ethnicity) clash so furiously, naturally job status or any other class symbols are disregarded as peripheral contributors.

People are more prone to uniqueness, distancing from the herds through a plurality of categorizations, and this relieves the allegiances to any singular identity which could be a pernicious stimulant when manipulated and misdirected, that is singling out a particular identity. Singularity of identity when intensified has the potential to increase stereotypes and indoctrinations, whereas plurality would soften the peaks of emotions and convictions of particular identity, promoting more potential for empathy. Notwithstanding this argument was supported by much research, what we experimented with by adding a victimization dimension to categorize people has produced disparate consequences. Victimized people have demonstrated sharper attitudes to prejudice others, therefore plurality of identities did

not soften and, instead, contributed to further prejudice. Therefore, the key takeaway is that, when you design social texture, not to marginalize or on the contrary exacerbate any dimension by proliferating influential constructs, you have to be tactful and prudent on which identity you mediate or moderate, which is a frequently resorted political tenet, those who manifest the prime identity can easily manipulate the salience of that identity to possess power and reign.

5.5. IMPLICATIONS FOR THE ORGANIZATIONS

We can unequivocally state that discrimination is a socially infectious act. One form of it invites others and contaminates organizational as well as business climate. In terms of policy development processes managers should dedicate necessary resources to cope with it in any context.

This study solely involved organizational context including two job vacancies to fill in two distinct status levels hoping to represent the general organizational platform. However, it reflects a general approach without considering organization-specific elements like subordinate-manager interdependence, labor cost, market coverage, global extents of organizations, and related policies such as affirmative actions, diversity strategies, and jurisdictions that are accountable. The sample assembly was not an ideal one since HR expertise was poorly represented. Nevertheless, the study incorporated mostly individuals with undergraduate and graduate education, all in the various business circles with credible tenures as well as some academic participations.

This study can serve as a starting configuration for setting up diversity policies and taking necessary measures. This can serve as a baseline to instigate additional dimensions like research methodologies (field experiments-resume screening, lab experiments, and combinations with surveys and interviews), sector-based differentiations (regulation bodies for public policies, size and type of organizations), and academic organizations to further elaborate to address other issues based on this foundation. This study may also signal areas that organizations, in general, can look into possible preventive measures and actions even if immigrant minority issues do not seem to be an imminent case for them. Favoritism, nepotism, and cronyism are all forms of discrimination disseminated in our society at almost

all levels and pose a very suitable platform to nourish further discrimination potentials that the Western world has long been coping with. Naturally, we have a lot to learn from their experiences, institutions, failures, and successful policies. Our organizational infrastructures are not immune to ethnic discrimination, we have to remember that stereotypes, prejudices, and social cleavages are not born only with migration inducers, they already exist in our society in the form of conflicts generated by gender, age, political views, social status, and religious beliefs differentiations. The literature presents a plethora of examples and incidences that our society has faced and still has not figured out how to cope with these adverse experiences. We believe our research will shed light on efforts and preparations that academicians, policymakers, and organizations eventually and inevitably have to undertake.

This study can be taken as a systematic step forward for managerial processes, to elucidate the extent to which potential ethnic or other forms of discrimination might occur. As far as organizational management is concerned, decision-makers should concentrate on diversity matters, accountability, and social information (Chaiken, 1980; Pitesa & Thau, 2013), and should be motivated not to rely on stereotypes (Bodenhausen, 1990), and safeguard against discriminatory processes as company policies. The extent of discrimination, including discrimination among migrants, as observed in this research, points out an absolute inequality in the context of employment opportunities and discards organizational efficiency. This situation is totally in contrast with firm theory and agency theory which is the pillar motivator of entrepreneurship. Diversity offers many potential benefits to organizations in addition to hiring more skilled people, and firms might benefit broader grasp of international market behaviors, better competitive edge, easier access to customers, and lowered costs (Metcalf & Forth, 2000). We have to understand that firms may incur unexpected costs as well depending on the particular sector they operate if unprepared (Alesina & La Ferrara, 2005), but what is important here is that management should be aware and recognize discreetly pros and cons of diversity (Monks, 2007).

One of the dilemmas modern societies are facing is the comprehension and understanding of the dynamic nature of current immigration sociology. Classical assimilation theory claimed that all migrants would assimilate into society (Park, 1950; Gordon, 1964). However, this is

strongly questioned in a contemporary context. Immigrants today demonstrate very strong socioeconomic and cultural equities, endorsing new cultural pluralism with strong bonds to their community solidarity and values (linguistic diversity and religious differences, to replace acculturation). The majority group who feels threatened by cultural homogeneity may easily develop xenophobia. Hence, this presents a profound challenge for states and organizations at large, to plan, adapt, and resolve issues in a contemporary manner.

We may conclude that this research could be vital in understanding the blatant or subtle forms of mechanisms underlying stereotypes and prejudices that the labor market will have to cope with, and we understand there is no single prescription to advise a generally accepted diversity strategy, but diversity and conflict management is one area of contemporary organizations that must be part of their strategic and long-term agenda.

5.6. LIMITATIONS and DIRECTIONS FOR THE FUTURE RESEARCH

Even though this research was ratified by the number of local research conducted in Turkiye, Syrians particularly on target, it has merits by many aspects as well, and supported by myriads of literature studies at global extent, in many contexts. This research reflects the psychometric findings of two snapshot drills, spanning three months of period of sociopolitical deluge in Turkiye, the first part; coincided with the climax of political debate mediated by already ongoing extreme cleavages, and the way migrant issues are handled being the main concern at large, and second part; representing a state of euphoria for one pole and state of inertia for the other. To generalize and operationalize a more plausible pattern, we believe this research should be replicated at more stable periods incorporating different sectors of the business community, particularly small businesses where low-wage labor are big concern.

The research methodology is also a crucial element, as there is ongoing debate over the advantages and shortcomings of online surveys as compared with field experiments and lab experiments. This research can be replicated with alternative approaches combining amongst these methodologies, even resorting to quantitative coupled with qualitative data gathering in a staged manner, after all, psychometric analysis cannot be reduced to one biased method.

Another limitation of this research is that it is based on a fictional scenario in which participants acted as recruiters, assessing candidates for fictional job openings. A deliberate choice was made to formulate a fairly general job vacancy and keep the profiles of the candidates not to include detailed personal data but only emphasize the ethnic distinctiveness through “nomen est omen” to prevent confounding distractions. This has imposed greater control over the manipulations and reduced the disturbances of confounding variables such as personality background, female applicants, or social status differences among fictional candidates. Future research could aim to replicate this research in a more realistic assessment environment. It would be possible to use real job vacancies and more elaborate descriptions of the qualities where potential minority candidates have opportunities to supersede so that we can put more pressure on the rater to reveal potential prejudice and stereotypes or even use real decision-makers in field studies.

We did not differentiate between macro-contextual and meso-social level-individual - conditions. The Ethnic Competition Theory posits that individuals at lower income levels lacking the necessary education and professional capacity, and competing with migrants for similar job market sections, supports ethnic exclusionism stronger than any other group. In real-life cases, however, most of the migrants are being employed by small businesses whose decision-makers hold relatively low levels of education and lack institutionalized organizations. This survey can be extended to cover low socio-economic level participants to distinguish between the perception of contextual ethnic threat or individual threat and operationalize actual competitions distinctively to differentiate the kind of ethnic threat perception in effect.

Our research has dealt with exposed discrimination issues, male or female subjects, with a variety of discrimination stimulants, which is rather a novel approach. Being victimized due to personal traits has elucidated informative predictions. This could be extended to incorporate other personal traits such as parent’s social status and educational level, family structure, etc.

One other shortcoming was that intergroup contact being one of the crucial determinants of interethnic discrimination, could not have been tested, because participants were not

designed to cover such a configuration of sample. In addition, it would also have invited additional construct measures extending the survey questionnaire. Considering the missed and incomplete datum we have experienced with our survey, it would have been challenging to collect more usable data from the participants, but it is worth trying.

Our sample size was justifiable for the variables and models in use, but not large enough to test many combinations of constructs or control factors in parallel, which may have produced more comprehensive and plausible results. We had to drop off Symbolic Threat observations and, Ethnic Emotional dimension did not seem to have contributed to our research, whereas a larger size of the heterogenous sample could have produced more comprehensive and conclusive research findings. However, ineffective results of the emotional component of Ethnic Affirmation-Belonging-Commitment have signaled us that prevailing socioeconomic conditions in the country have superseded the cultural, lifestyle, or historical animosity concerns, strongly bringing forward the cognitive and realistic factors at the collective level.

We believe applying a proper measurement is as important as the composition of the sample. Ethnic identity and Integrated Threat measures we have used, have all well-proven track records in related literature. However, measurements are very subject-sensitive matters, that is, whatever proves to be pertinent in the US for instance, that is consequential, may not be equally explanatory or responsive in the Turkish case. That is why alternative measurements have to be tested if corroborating results can be reached. In addition, we believe the number of reverse questions has to be balanced because excessive use of it may be manipulating the audience. The realistic threat measure has contained 5 reverse questions against 2 plain ones, which we have to acknowledge could be influencing the feelings of respondents to judge in a certain way.

We have tested the accessibility and representativeness of job status as a stimulus to affect the raters' attitudes against ethnicity which was not effective. However, future research may test the gender and social status dimensions in combination to compare the singular or integrated effects to compare and combine with ethnicity.

HR being the most appropriate subcategory to draw plausible inferences, is represented with a very low volume, which they have demonstrated material deviations from others, which could have been more valuable had they been represented with a higher sample size. Future research should consider addressing this need.

One potential application to test the stereotypes and prejudice is internal and external loadings on participants to manipulate their decisions, which is a better-fit pattern with lab analysis, however, the total survey can be staged to include a combination of research methodologies incorporating online self-reporting survey and resume screening field studies together.

Future research involving diverse domains (housing, neighboring, trading, sending kids to schools with migrants, etc.) with larger and assorted samples in a longitudinal fashion would elucidate further if our findings would be verified, operationalized, and generalized.

Prejudice and as its inevitable consequence discrimination have held the center of gravity in this research, however, numerous other aspects are affected in organizational context, such as workplace diversity, affirmative actions, and agency theory in general as well as multicultural concerns for collective organizational implications. The findings of this research can be extended to cover and elaborate more on organizational and individual contexts.

CONCLUSIONS

Globalization, Mobility, and the explosion of world Population have facilitated a new insight that, entitlement of ownership as the beneficiary of world wealth has been perceived as an innate prerogative of citizens of less developed countries. Identity salience is not something migrants proclaim but it is what hosting countries perceive as an issue to tackle with. In the context of the severe economic, social, and political crisis in Turkiye, amidst a global economic climate facing a deep recession, coupled with the Russian war with Ukraine having immense international ramifications, and last but not least, the Turkish population with fundamental cleavages polarizing in many issues, set dramatic labor market challenges even for the natives let alone potential pathologies the migrants deemed to offer. Consequently,

the public attitudes and behaviors toward migrants in general, but particularly against Syrians have drastically deteriorated, and public outcries to deport Syrians have climaxed.

With the fertility rates of asylum seekers, Syrians of special focus, that their offspring has reached over 200,000 per annum while the Turkish fertility rate is declining, presents additional public anxiety questioning their social cohesion, and their capacity in child upbringing as well as required domestic investments in education and health service liabilities on top of economic issues. Therefore, the migrant dilemma cannot solely be contained within ethnic dimensions alone, instead, be attributed to multivariate constructs.

As the volumes of migrant inflow reached a devastating level, the triggering sources of discrimination have altered from being a homophilic concern stemming from individualistic preference patterns, to belief-based prejudice and negative stereotypes. Therefore, the refugee or migration problem in Turkiye profoundly differs from those of the Western experiences which is deemed to be a softer encumbrance, suggesting disparate instruments and measures that prove to be not practical, not applicable, and not manageable in the Turkish case. Hence,

- Ethnic concern with perceived threat has affiliated to the extent that we define it as ethnic exclusionism.
- Perceived ethnic threat is empirically distinct from, but they have combined implications with ethnic identity to influence decisions.

The Turkish dilemma of migrants can be explained particularly with Syrians in mind, as an identity-driven threat and conflict of interest in economic terms, and deemed to be more societal rather than individual concern. As the problem is prolonged, citizens from diverse social and political orientations have united over common ground and extended their emotions and behaviors as far as hostile as possible at every segment of age, gender, and education.

Gender did not moderate ethnic exclusionism, that is, female did not demonstrate any compassion and differentiation with men. Religious proximity or ramifications is no longer an argument to mitigate the threat perception of the Turkish public, nor instrumentalizing the

religious artifacts to reconcile ethnic and sociopsychological incongruences conceived to relieve ethnic exclusionism. Our study has revealed that people act so partially to favor their own natives, driven by strong and consistent ethnic drives, disregarding any other consideration, men and women almost uniting in their propensities to judge issues relating to any context when the migrants are on the target.

By the same token, people discriminate against migrants differing in strength, driven by anxiety and conflict of material interest, leading to threats in subtle forms against Uzbeks but blatantly against Syrians. Hence, these determinants in cognitive and material sense (Ethnic Search and Realistic Threat) which motivate the attitudes of people, leave no room for emotions, compunction, or any form of loading to alleviate the adamant standing they have possessed. Migrants as they grow in population are not considered a minority anymore, they pose a potential threat; socially, culturally, and economically and even is perceived as an invasion of the natives' realm. Furthermore, people being exposed to both severe cultural and economic conflicts, potentially develop susceptibility to xenophobia. This view suggests that conventional methods advised by Western literature do not seem to be applicable to resolve the matter.

Although this study does not claim to represent a generalizable model across all the contexts migrants involved, it reflects compatibility and commonality with all the general public research projects conducted in Turkiye so far, but it attempts to provide credible insights as a reference to labor market issues, in particular, hiring processes.

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VII. APPENDIX

7.1. ETHIC BOARD APPROVAL

SURVEY FORMS

İŞE UYGUNLUK VE ALIM SIRALAMASI

Değerli Katılımcı,

Bu araştırma Doç. Dr. Nurgül Keleş Tayşir danışmanlığında, İstanbul Ticaret Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, İşletme Doktora Programı (İngilizce) öğrencisi Ekin Nakay tarafından yürütülen iki Anketli bir araştırmadan oluşmaktadır. Araştırmanın içeriği hakkında her anket ve bölümleri başında bilgilendirme yapılacaktır.

Araştırmanın bir anlam ifade etmesi ve bilimsel bir yoruma katkıda bulunabilmesi, anketlerde sizlerin en gerçekçi tutum ve davranışlarınızın aktarılması ile sağlanabilir. Anketlerden elde edilecek bilgiler, bilimsel amaçla değerlendirilecek, bilimsel yayın olarak kullanılacaktır. Ankete katılım tamamıyla gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Anket yanıtlama sırasında herhangi bir nedenden ötürü bir rahatsızlık hissederseniz vazgeçmek konusunda serbestsiniz. Bu anket çevrim içi ortamda yaklaşık 15-20 dakikalık zamanınızı alabilecektir. Tamamlanan ankete tekrar geri dönülemeyecek ve her katılımcı anketi yalnız bir kez doldurabilecektir.

Daha fazla ayrıntı veya sorgulama amacıyla aşağıdaki e-posta hesabımla iletişime geçebilirsiniz. Zaman ayırıp bu çalışmaya katkıda bulunduğunuz için çok teşekkür ederiz.

Ekin Nakay
İstanbul Ticaret Üniversitesi
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İngilizce İşletme Bölümü
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Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve istediğim zaman katılımımı sonlandırabileceğimi biliyorum. Verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı kullanımını kabul ediyorum.

Kabul Ediyorum: ◯ Kabul Etmiyorum: ◯

Cinsiyetiniz:

◯ Erkek

◯ Kadın

Eğitim Düzeyiniz:

◯ Lise veya altı

◯ Lisans

◯ Lisansüstü

Profesyonel Statünüz

◯ İnsan Kaynakları Çalışanı

◯ İşe Alma Yapmış çalışani

◯ İşe Alım yapmamış çalışan

◯ Lisans/Lisansüstü Öğrenci

İşe Alım Deneyiminiz

◯ Hiç Yok

◯ 1 – 3 Yıl arası

◯ 3 Yıl üzeri

Mesleğiniz (mühendis, akademisyen, yönetici, mimar vb gibi)

Yaşınız. ☐

Anket 1- İŞE BAŞVURU FORMLARINI DEĞERLENDİRME

Araştırmanın ilk bölümü, İşe Alma değerlendirmeleri ve kararları üzerindeki faktörleri inceleme amacını taşımaktadır. Bu bölüm, çok uluslu bir şirketin değişik pozisyonlarına başvuran kişilerin işe uygunluk ve işe alma tercih sıralamasını profesyonel bir sorumluluk çerçevesinde nasıl yürüteceğinize odaklanmıştır. Anket iki farklı pozisyona ait iş ilanlarını ve bunlara yapılan iş başvurularını kapsamaktadır. İlk pozisyon Yönetici düzeyine dönük bir iş ilanını ve başvuruları, ikinci pozisyon ise tedarik zinciri sürecindeki Sevkiyat elemanları iş ilanını ve başvurularını içermektedir. Sizden sırasıyla her iki pozisyon için başvuruları iş tanımları çerçevesinde inceleyerek, adayların işe alınma şansını yönelik görüşlerinizi paylaşmanız istenmektedir.

Adayların profesyonel IK çalışanları tarafından iş mülakatları yapılmış ve kişisel özellikler ve davranışlar açısından aralarında kayda değer farklılıklar olmadığı saptanmıştır. Lütfen her başvuru formunu inceleyerek her adayın işe alınabilme şansını belirleyiniz.

Pozisyon 1

CMEAS Türkiye

Kıdem düzeyi : Orta-Üst Düzey Yönetici

GÖREV

İş dili İngilizce olan şirketimize, Satış Yöneticiliği' alanında en az 4 yıl deneyimi olan, satış planlaması ve raporlaması alanında deneyimli, çalışma arkadaşı arıyoruz.

GENEL NİTELİKLER:

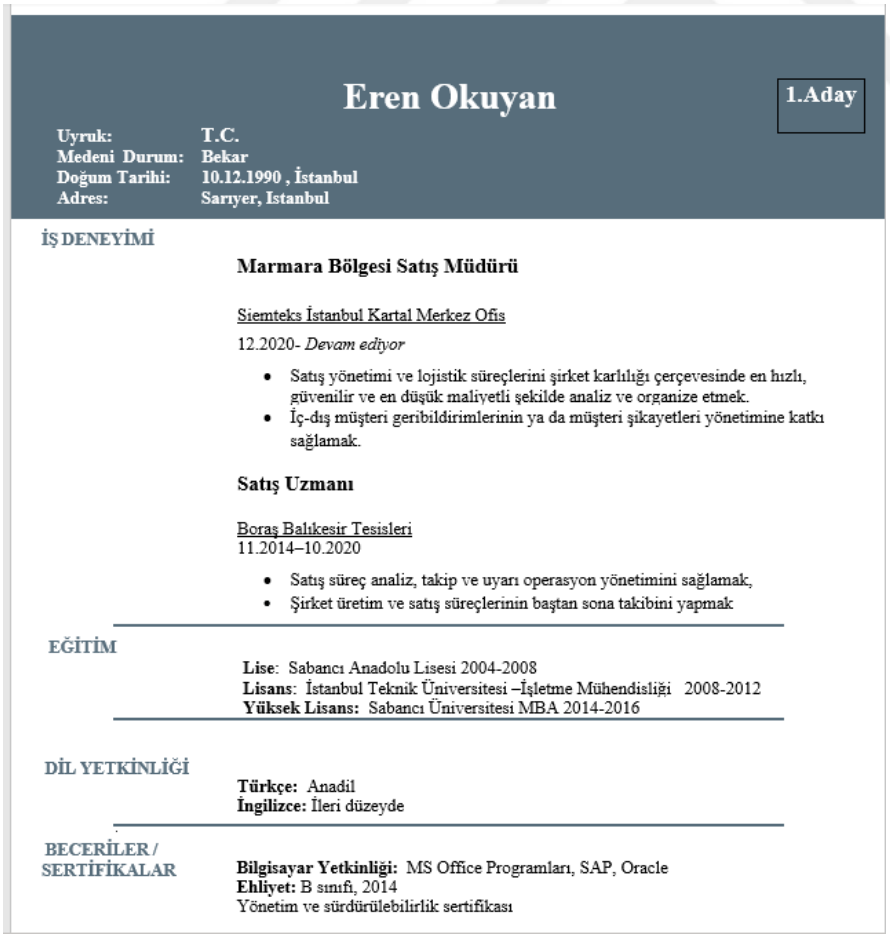
- Üniversitelerin İşletme/İşletme Mühendisliği/ Ekonomi bölümlerinden mezun,
- MS Office uygulamalarına ileri düzeyde deneyimli,
- İngilizce' yi yazılı ve sözlü olarak akıcı bir şekilde kullanabilmek,
- Yüksek motivasyona, iletişim ve karar verme becerilerine sahip olmak,
- Öğrenmeye, değişime açık ve takım çalışmasına yatkın olmak,
- Tercihen SAP kullanmış olmak

İŞ TANIMI

- Satış sürecinin prosedürlere uygun olarak yapılmasına ve iyileştirilmesine katkı sağlamak,
- Uluslararası satış problemlerini takip etmek, ekiple koordineli olarak çalışmak
- Belirlenen hedeflere göre verimliliği takip etmek ve hedeflerin yakalanması için gerekli çalışmaları yapmak,
- Kendisine bağlı personelin sevk ve idaresinin sağlanması,
- Satış sürecinde karşılaşılan yanlışlık ve eksikliklerin giderilmesini sağlamak

ADAYLAR VE ÖZGEÇMİŞLERİ

1.Eren OKUYAN



Eren Okuyan — 1.Aday

Uyruk: T.C.
Medeni Durum: Bekar
Doğum Tarihi: 10.12.1990 , İstanbul
Adres: Sarıyer, Istanbul

İŞ DENEYİMİ

Marmara Bölgesi Satış Müdürü

Siemteks İstanbul Kartal Merkez Ofis

12.2020- *Devam ediyor*

- Satış yönetimi ve lojistik süreçlerini şirket karlılığı çerçevesinde en hızlı, güvenilir ve en düşük maliyetli şekilde analiz ve organize etmek.
- İç-dış müşteri geribildirimlerinin ya da müşteri şikayetleri yönetimine katkı sağlamak.

Satış Uzmanı

Boraş Balıkesir Tesisleri
11.2014–10.2020

- Satış süreç analiz, takip ve uyarı operasyon yönetimini sağlamak,
- Şirket üretim ve satış süreçlerinin baştan sona takibini yapmak

EĞİTİM

Lise: Sabancı Anadolu Lisesi 2004-2008
Lisans: İstanbul Teknik Üniversitesi –İşletme Mühendisliği 2008-2012
Yüksek Lisans: Sabancı Üniversitesi MBA 2014-2016

DİL YETKİNLİĞİ

Türkçe: Anadil
İngilizce: İleri düzeyde

BECERİLER / SERTİFİKALAR

Bilgisayar Yetkinliği: MS Office Programları, SAP, Oracle
Ehliyet: B sınıfı, 2014
Yönetim ve sürdürülebilirlik sertifikası

2. Qareem ABROMOV

Qareem Abromov

2.Aday

Uyruk: Özbekistan
Medeni Durum: Bekar
Doğum Tarihi: 9.11.1987 ,Taşkent
Adres: Şişli, Istanbul

İŞ DENEYİMİ

Satış Planlama Yöneticisi

Maramar Petrol, İstanbul
06.2018- *Devam ediyor*

- Ürünlerin satış hedeflerine uygun şekilde planlama ve sevkiyat takibini sağlamak,
- Yurt içi ve yurt dışı müşterilerle satış hedeflerini belirlemek ve üretim ekipleri yönetmek

Satış Şefi

A&G Üretim A.Ş., İzmir
11/2013–11.2017

- Satış, planlama ve fiyatlandırma süreçleri, departmanlar arası koordinasyonun sağlamak,
- Rusya ve Türki cumhuriyetler pazarlama destek işlevini sağlamak
- Satış planlaması, müşteri yönetimi ve üretim planlamasını sağlamak

EĞİTİM

Lise: Yunusabad Lisesi 1995-1999
Lisans: Ortadoğu Teknik Üniversitesi – Ekonomi 2004-2009
Yüksek Lisans: Özyeğin Üniversitesi. MBA 2011-2012

DİL YETKİNLİĞİ

Türkçe: İleri düzeyde
İngilizce: İleri düzeyde
Özbekçe: Anadil

BECERİLER / SERTİFİKALAR

Bilgisayar Yetkinliği: MS Office, SAP
Ehliyet: B sınıfı, 2014
Değişim Yönetimi Sertifikası

3. Muhammad ELRASHİR

Muhammad Elrashir

3.Aday

Uyruk: Suriye
Medeni Durum: Bekar
Doğum Tarihi: 23.10.1988, Damascus (Şam)
Adres: Beşiktaş, Istanbul

İŞ DENEYİMİ

Balkanlar ve Türkiye Satış Yöneticisi

Goodwill End., Kocaeli

05.2020- Devam ediyor

- Satış süreçlerini yürütmek ve takip amaçlı gerekli raporlamaların hazırlanmasını sağlamak,
- Satış uzmanlarından gelen talep doğrultusunda müşteriye termin tarihinin verilmesini sağlamak

Satış Planlama Analisti

Ticanik Kimya San., Istanbul

04.2013–04.2020

- Satış süreçlerin üretim entegrasyonu ve Planlamasını sağlamak,
- Üretim planlama ve kontrol uzmanı pozisyonunda, SAP programını kullanarak; üretim için gerekli olan üretim kartlarının oluşturulmasını sağlamak,

EĞİTİM

Lise: Damascus Lycée de Française 2002-2006
Lisans: Beyrut Amerikan Üniversitesi – İşletme 2006-2010
Yüksek Lisans: Koç Üniversitesi. MBA 2011-2012

DİL YETKİNLİĞİ

Türkçe: Ileri düzeyde
Ingilizce: Ileri düzeyde
Arapça: Anadil

BECERİLER / SERTİFİKALAR

Bilgisayar Yetkinliği: MS Office, SAP, Power BI Business Analytics
Ehliyet: B sınıfı, 2014
Etkin Iletişim Sertifikası

YÖNETİCİ ADAY ÖZELLİKLERİNİN ÖLÇÜLMESİ

EREN OKUYAN

İşe Alma Eğilimi

(1.Çok Düşük 2. Düşük 3. Alınabilir 4. Yüksek 5. Çok Yüksek)

- Bu adayın başvurduğu iş için ne kadar uygun olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz?
- Bu adayı işe alma görüşmesine çağırma olasılığınız nedir?

Aday hakkındaki genel izlenim:

(1.Hiç Emin değilim 2. Emin değilim 3. Kararsızım 4. Eminim5. Çok Eminim)

- Bu adayı işe alma konusundaki kararınızdan ne kadar eminsiniz?

QAREEM ABROMOV

İşe Alma Eğilimi

(*1.Çok Düşük 2. Düşük 3. Alınabilir 4. Yüksek 5. Çok Yüksek)*

- Bu adayın başvurduğu iş için ne kadar uygun olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz?
- Bu adayı işe alma görüşmesine çağırma olasılığınız nedir?

Aday hakkındaki genel izlenim:

(1.Hiç Emin değilim 2. Emin değilim 3. Kararsızım 4. Eminim5. Çok Eminim)

- Bu adayı işe alma konusundaki kararınızdan ne kadar eminsiniz?

MUHAMMAD ELRASHİR

İşe Alma Eğilimi

(1.Çok Düşük 2. Düşük 3. Alınabilir 4. Yüksek 5. Çok Yüksek)

1- *Bu adayın başvurduğu iş için ne kadar uygun olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz?*
2- *Bu adayı iş görüşmesine çağırma olasılığınız nedir?*

Aday hakkındaki genel izlenim:

(1.Hiç Emin değilim 2. Emin değilim 3. Kararsızım 4. Eminim5. Çok Eminim)

- Bu adayı işe alma konusundaki kararınızdan ne kadar eminsiniz?

Tüm adayları ayrı ayrı değerlendirdikten sonra, toplu değerlendirme;

Başvuruları Önceliklendirin:

Özgün değerlendirmenize göre adaylara hangi sırada bu işi teklif ederdiniz? Bir başvuru sahibini ilk sıraya (1. Satır) yerleştirerek, önce o başvuru sahibini işe alacağınızı belirtmiş olursunuz; bir başvuru sahibini ikinci sıraya yerleştirerek (2. Satır) ikincil olarak alacağınızı, üçüncü sıraya yerleştirerek (3. Satır) üçüncü olarak alacağınızı veya hiç yerleştirmeyerek işe almayı hiç düşünmediğinizi belirtirsiniz.

1.Tercih
2.Tercih
3.Tercih
4) İşe Alınamaz

ADAYLAR	1.Tercih			İşe Alınamaz
EREN OKUYAN	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
QAREEM ABROMOV	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
MUHAMMAD ELRASHIR	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)

POZİSYON 2:

CMEAS Türkiye

Kıdem Düzeyi: Temel Seviye Mavi Yaka

Görev tanımı

Tedarik Zinciri, Sevkiyat Elemanı

Tedarik zinciri olan şirketimize üretimden gelen ürünlerin düzenleyecek sevkiyata hazır hale getirecek ve yükleme işlemlerini yapacak Sevkiyat Elemanı arıyoruz.

Profesyonel Beceriler

- Sevkiyat alanında en az 1 yıl deneyimi bulunan,
- Ehliyeti olan,
- Yoğun çalışma temposunda çalışacak,
- Erkek adaylar için askerlik görevini tamamlamış,

İş Tanımı

- Sevkiyat öncesi hazırlıkların yapılması,
- Satış temsilcileri ile yapılan sevkiyat planlamasına göre onaylan ürünlerin yüklemelerinin yapılması,
- Onaylanmış ürünlerin müşterilere teslim edilmesi
- Gelen malların yükleme/indirme ekipleri arasındaki koordinasyonu yöneterek hızlı ve sağlıklı şekilde ürünlerin sevkiyatını gerçekleştirmek,

ADAYLAR VE ÖZGEÇMİŞLERİ:

Furkan Yılmaz

1.Aday

Uyruk: T.C.
Medeni Durum: Bekar
Doğum Tarihi: 15.11.1998 , İstanbul
Adres: Bağcılar, Istanbul

İŞ DENEYİMİ

Selkut Ecza Deposu, İstanbul
11.2020- *Devam ediyor*

Gelen sevkiyatın kayıtları, gruplandırma, ekip planlama, teslimat ve gün sonu raporlamaları yapmak

Yurdum Kargo, İstanbul
01.2020–11.2020

Stajyer Lojistik elemanı. Kargo teslimatını sağlamak

Hızlı Sipariş, Motor kurye
06/2017 – 11/2019

EĞİTİM

Lise:Semiha Şakir Lisesi 2012-2016

DİL YETKİNLİĞİ

Türkçe: Anadil
İngilizce: Başlangıç düzeyi

BECERİLER / SERTİFİKALAR

Bilgisayar Yetkinliği: MS Office Programları, Mobil uygulamalar
Ehliyet: B sınıfı, 2014

Abdul Nasbant

2.Aday

Uyruk: **Suriye**
Medeni Durum: **Evli**
Doğum Tarihi: **1999 , Halep**
Adres: **Bağcılar, Istanbul**

İŞ DENEYİMİ

Fırat Kargo, İstanbul
10.2021- *Devam ediyor*

Gelen sevkiyatın kayıtları, gruplandırma, ekip planlama, teslimat ve gün sonu raporlamasını yapmak.

Hazır Yemek Getir, İstanbul
08.2017091.2020

Motor kurye sipariş teslim, kayıt ve gün sonu raporlamaları sağlamak.

EĞİTİM

Lise: Bağcılar Lisesi 2013-2017

DİL YETKİNLİĞİ

Türkçe: İleri düzeyde
Arapça: Anadil

BECERİLER / SERTİFİKALAR

Bilgisayar Yetkinliği: MS Office Programları, Mobil uygulamalar
Ehliyet: B sınıfı, 2014

Kodir Kerimov

3.Aday

Uyruk: **Özbekistan**
Medeni Durum: **Bekar**
Doğum Tarihi: **1997, Semerkand**
Adres: **Esenler, Istanbul**

İŞ DENEYİMİ

Supermarket Online, İstanbul
12.2021- Devam ediyor

- Adrese teslim sipariş organizasyonu, kayıt ve gün sonu raporlamasını yapmak,
- Sevk ve taşıma irsaliyelerinin araç bazında planlanması ve takibinden sorumlu olmak,
- Gün içerisindeki dağıtım planlamasına uygun hareket etmek,
- Malzemelerin depoya varışı veya depodan dağıtımı için gerekli aksiyonları almak.

TNK Kargo, İstanbul
02.2020- 02.2021

- Siparişlerin yerine ulaştırılması ve kayıtların raporlanması.

EĞİTİM

Lise: Taşkent Lisesi 2013

DİL YETKİNLİĞİ

Türkçe: İleri düzeyde
Özbekçe: Anadil

BECERİLER / SERTİFİKALAR

Bilgisayar Yetkinliği: MS Office Programları, Mobil uygulamalar
Ehliyet: B sınıfı, 2018

ADAY ÖZELLİKLERİNİN ÖLÇÜLMESİ

FURKAN YILMAZ

İşe Alma Eğilimi

(1.Çok Düşük 2. Düşük 3. Alınabilir 4. Yüksek 5. Çok Yüksek)

1- Bu adayın başvurduğu iş için ne kadar uygun olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz?

2-Bu adayı işe alma görüşmesine çağırma olasılığınız nedir?

Aday hakkındaki genel izlenim:

(1.Hiç Emin değilim 2. Emin değilim 3. Kararsızım 4. Eminim5. Çok Eminim)

- Bu adayı işe alma konusundaki kararınızdan ne kadar eminsiniz?

ABDUL NASBANT

İşe Alma Eğilimi

(*1.Çok Düşük 2. Düşük 3. Alınabilir 4. Yüksek 5. Çok Yüksek)*

- Bu adayın başvurduğu iş için ne kadar uygun olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz?
- Bu adayı işe alma görüşmesine çağırma olasılığınız nedir?

Aday hakkındaki genel izlenim:

(1.Hiç Emin değilim 2. Emin değilim 3. Kararsızım 4. Eminim5. Çok Eminim)

- Bu adayı işe alma konusundaki kararınızdan ne kadar eminsiniz?

KODIR KERİMOV

İşe Alma Eğilimi

(1.Çok Düşük 2. Düşük 3. Alınabilir 4. Yüksek 5. Çok Yüksek)

- Bu adayın başvurduğu iş için ne kadar uygun olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz?
- Bu adayı işe alma görüşmesine çağırma olasılığınız nedir?

Aday hakkındaki genel izlenim:

(1.Hiç Emin değilim 2. Emin değilim 3. Kararsızım 4. Eminim5. Çok Eminim)

- Bu adayı işe alma konusundaki kararınızdan ne kadar eminsiniz?

Tüm adayları ayrı ayrı değerlendirdikten sonra, toplu değerlendirme;

Başvuruları Önceliklendirin:

Özgün değerlendirmenize göre adaylara hangi sırada bu işi teklif ederdiniz? Bir başvuru sahibini ilk sıraya (1. Satır) yerleştirerek, önce o başvuru sahibini işe alacağınızı belirtmiş olursunuz; bir başvuru sahibini ikinci sıraya yerleştirerek (2. Satır) ikincil olarak alacağınızı, üçüncü sıraya yerleştirerek (3. Satır) üçüncü olarak alacağınızı veya hiç yerleştirmeyerek işe almayı hiç düşünmediğinizi belirtirsiniz.

1.Tercih

2.Tercih

3.Tercih

4) İşe Alınamaz

ADAYLAR	1.Tercih			İşe Alınamaz
FURKAN YILMAZ	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
ABDUL NASBANT	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
KODİR KERİMOV	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)

Anket 2 Bölüm A) **ETNİK KİMLİK DEĞERLENDİRMESİ**

ETNİK KİMLİK ANKETİ

Araştırmanın ikinci bölümünü oluşturan bu anket, ülkemizin güncel konularından biri olan sığınmacılara dönük olarak Türk vatandaşlarının genel tutum ve davranışlarını, kendi kimlik duyarlılığınız ve yabancıların günlük yaşantınız üzerindeki ekonomik ve yaşam tarzı etkilerini yansıtacak sorulardan oluşmuştur.

Bu sorular etnik kökeniniz veya etnik grubunuza ilişkin nasıl hissettiğiniz, gruba bağlılığınız veya grup aksiyonlarında nasıl tepki vermenizle ilgilidir. Lütfen etnik kimlik yansımanızı samimi ve gerçeğinizi yansıtacak şekilde değerlendiriniz.

1) Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum
2) Katılmıyorum
3) Kararsızım
4) Katılıyorum
5) Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

Etnik Kimlik arayış boyutu	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum				Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
Etnik kimliğim ve kimliğimin geçmişi, gelenek ve görenekleri gibi konularda daha fazla bilgi almak için zaman harcarım.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Çoğunlukla kendi etnik grubumun üyelerini kapsayan sosyal gruplar veya organizasyonlarda aktif faaliyetlerde bulunurum.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Etnik grubum hayatımı nasıl etkilediği konusunu çok düşünürüm.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Etnik geçmişim hakkında daha fazla bilgi öğrenmek adına etnik grubum hakkında başka insanlarla görüşürüm.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Kendi etnik grubumun özel mutfağı, müzik ve adetleri gibi kültürel uygulamalarına katılırım	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Etnik Onaylama, Aidiyet ve Bağlılık arayış boyutu					
Etnik geçmişim ve ifade ettiği anlam konusunda çok net duygularım vardır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Bağlı olduğum etkin kimlik grup üyesi olduğum için mutluyum.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Etnik grubuma bağlılık konusunda kuvvetli duygularım vardır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Etnik grup üyeliğimin anlamını çok iyi anlarım.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Etnik grubumla çok gurur duyuyorum.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Etnik grubuma karşı çok kuvvetli bağlarım vardır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Kültürel ve Etnik köklerim konusunda kendimi iyi hissederim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

Anket 2 Bölüm B) **FARKLI ETNİK KÖKEN TEHDİTLERİ/ENDİŞELER ANKETİ**

Kısıtlı ekonomik kaynaklar, farklı yaşam değerleri, yaşam standartları arası derin yarıklar, gruplar arasındaki sosyal konum, kültür ve norm uyuşmazlıkları etnik gruplar arası ilişkilerde çeşitli değerlendirmelere neden olur.

İstihdam, konut sahipliği ve iş kurma fırsatları gibi etkenlerle bir yerel etnik grup üyesi olarak dış gruptan algıladığınız fiziksel, maddi veya refahınıza yönelik değerlendirmelerinizi sağlayacak aşağıdaki sorgulamaları samimi ve gerçeğinizi yansıtacak şekilde yanıtlayınız.

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyoru				Kesinlikle Katılıyoru
Mülteciler ülkeye yaptıkları katkılardan daha fazlasını kazanım olarak elde ediyorlar.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Mülteci ailelerin çocukları Türk ailelerin çocukları gibi devlet okullarında aynı eğitim olanaklarına sahip olmalıdır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Mülteciler Türk vatandaşlarının üzerinde ekonomik bir yük	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Mülteciler de Türk vatandaşlarına sağlanan sağlık hizmetlerinin aynısından yararlanmalıdırlar (SGK hizmetleri)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Mülteciler, Türk işçilerin işlerini ellerinden almıyorlar	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Türk vatandaşlarının eriştikleri sosyal hizmetlerin kalitesi Mültecilere rağmen aynı kalmıştır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Mülteciler geçim zorluğu çeken Türk vatandaşlarına sağlanan konaklama ve su/elektrik/ yakıt yardımlarından yararlanma hakkına sahip olmalıdırlar.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

Yerel etnik grup üyesi olarak dış gruptan algıladığınız yaşam tarzınız, kültürel değerleriniz, ahlak ve inançlarınıza yönelik sembolik olgulara dönük değerlendirmelerinizi ölçümlemek için aşağıdaki sorgulamaları değerlendiriniz.

Mülteciler ülkemize geldikten sonra en kısa sürede bizim kural ve değerlerimize uymayı öğrenmelidir.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Mültecilerin ülkeye kabul edilmesi Türk kültürünü zedeliyor.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Mültecilerin çalışma hayatındaki değer ve anlayışları, Türklerinkine oldukça yakındır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Mültecilerin ahlaki ve dini konularda sahip oldukları değer ve inançlar, Türklerin sahip olduğu değer ve anlayışlarla uyuşmamaktadır	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Mültecilerin sahip olduğu aile ve çocuk yetiştirme konusundaki değer ve anlayışları Türklerinkine temel olarak oldukça benzerdir.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Mültecilerin sahip olduğu sosyal yaşam ve ilişkiler konusundaki değer ve anlayışlar, Türklerinkiyle uyuşmamaktadır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Mülteciler Türk yaşam tarzını kabul etmek durumunda değildirler	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

Ne tür Ayrımcılık (Discrimination) ve Kalıpyargı (Stereotype) davranışlarını kişisel olarak deneyimlediniz ?

- o Bu tür davranışları hiç deneyimlemedim
- o Etnik Kökenim
- o Din ve Mezhebim
- o Siyasi Görüş ve Davranışım
- o Cinsiyetim
- o Sosyoekonomik Konumum
- o Eğitim Düzeyim
- o Dil Yetersizliğim veya Aksanım
- o Belli bir kimlik veya guruba ait veya yakın olmadığım için

7.2. RESEARCH MEASURES

7.2.1. Hiring

Perceived Job Suitability Scale;

Two items measuring rater's hiring intentions and one item overall impressions of the raters about the candidate.

Raters' hiring intentions

Given all the information you read about this applicant;

- How suitable do you believe this applicant is for this function?
- What is the likelihood that you'd invite this individual for an interview?

Overall impression of the candidate

Given all the information you read about this applicant;

- How confident would you be in your decision to hire this candidate?

1.İŞE ALIM

Algılanan işe uygunluk ölçeği;

İşe alım değerlendirmesini yapanın işe alma eğilimini ölçen iki madde ve genel izlenimini ölçen bir madde.

İşe Alma Eğilimi:

(1.Çok Düşük 2. Düşük 3. Alınabilir 4. Yüksek 5. Çok Yüksek)

Aday hakkında verilen bilgiler dikkate alındığında;

- Bu adayın başvurduğu iş için ne kadar uygun olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz?
- Bu adayı iş görüşmesine çağırma olasılığınız nedir?

Aday hakkındaki genel izlenim:

(1.Hiç Emin değilim 2. Emin değilim 3. Kararsızım 4. Eminim 5. Çok Eminim)

Aday hakkında verilen bilgiler dikkate alındığında;

- Bu adayı işe alma konusundaki kararınızdan ne kadar eminsiniz?

7.2.2. Ethnic Identity

Multigroup Ethnicity Identification Scale

Ethnic identity search;

1- I have spent time trying to find out more about my ethnic group, such as its history, traditions, and customs.
2- I am active in organizations or social groups that include mostly members of my own ethnic group.
3- I think a lot about how my life will be affected by my ethnic group membership.
4- In order to learn more about my ethnic background, I have often talked to other people about my ethnic group.
5- I participate in cultural practices of my own group, such as special food, music, or customs.

Affirmation, belonging, and commitment search;

6- I have a clear sense of my ethnic background and what it means for me.
7- I am happy that I am a member of the group I belong to.
8- I have a strong sense of belonging to my own ethnic group.
9- I understand pretty well what my ethnic group membership means to me.
10- I have a lot of pride in my ethnic group.
11- I feel a strong attachment towards my own ethnic group.
12- I feel good about my cultural or ethnic background

2-**Etnik Kimlik**

Çoklu Grup Etnik Kimlik Ölçeği

Etnik Kimlik Arayış boyutu;

1- Etnik kimliğim ve kimliğimin geçmişi, gelenek ve görenekleri gibi konularda daha fazla bilgi almak için zaman harcarım.
2- Çoğunlukla kendi etnik gurubumun üyelerini kapsayan sosyal gruplar veya organizasyonlarda aktif rol alır ve faaliyetlerde bulunurum.
3- Etnik grubumun hayatımı nasıl etkilediği konusunu çok düşünürüm.
4- Etnik geçmişim hakkında daha fazla bilgi öğrenmek adına etnik grubum hakkında başka insanlarla görüşürüm.
5- Kendi etnik grubumun özel mutfağı, müzik ve adetleri gibi kültürel uygulamalarına katılırım

Onaylama, ait olma ve bağlılık Arayış boyutu;

6- Etnik geçmişim ve ifade ettiği anlam konusunda çok net duygularım vardır
7- Bağlı olduğum etkin kimlik grup üyesi olduğum için mutluyum.
8- Etnik grubuma bağlılık konusunda kuvvetli duygularım vardır.
9- Etnik grup üyeliğimin anlamını çok iyi anlarım.
10- Etnik grubumla çok gurur duyuyorum.
11- Etnik grubuma karşı çok kuvvetli bağlarım vardır.
12- Kültürel ve Etnik köklerim konusunda kendimi iyi hissederim.

7.2.3. Integrated Threat

Threat measures use the term refugee to address the outgroups/minorities in general. This measure designed and implemented to cover all ethnic groups, races, religious identities, groups belonging to various sects and other social identities. Migrants in our thesis refer to non-European asylum seekers or refugees who are legally seen and addressed by the Turkish laws as “Temporary Guests” as it was also stipulated in Geneva Convention, 1951 by Turkiye as a special clause to escape any liability the term “Refugee” may impose and endorse. This has been explained in previous sections of this thesis. However, to comply with the original

wording of threat measures we kept the term “refugee” and the translation was done accordingly to be used in questionnaire.

7.2.3.1. Realistic Threat Scale

Seven item realistic threat questionnaire was used to measure the degree to which individuals report threats to the physical, material or welfare of the ingroup or its members

1. Refugees get more from Turkiye than they contribute.

2. The children of refugees should have the same rights to attend public schools in Turkiye as Turkish children do.

3. Refugees have increased the tax burden on Turkish citizens

4. Refugees are not displacing Turkish workers from their jobs

5. Refugees should be eligible for the same health care benefits (i.e., Medicare) as those received by Turkish citizens

6. The quality of social services available to Turkish citizens has remained the same, despite refugees coming to Turkiye.

7. Refugees are as entitled to subsidized housing or subsidized utilities (water, electricity) as “poor” Turkish citizens are.

Gerçekçi Tehdit Ölçeği

Kişilerin ait oldukları grup veya üyelerine yöneltilmiş fiziki, maddi ve refah tehditlerini ölçümlemek için yedi maddelik bir sorgulama kullanılmaktadır.

1.Mülteciler ülkeye yaptıkları katkılardan daha fazlasını kazanım olarak elde ediyorlar.

2.Mülteci ailelerin çocukları Türk ailelerin çocukları gibi devlet okullarında aynı eğitim olanaklarına sahip olmalıdır.

3.Mülteciler Türk vatandaşlarının üzerinde ekonomik bir yük oluşturmuşlardır.

4.Mülteciler de Türk vatandaşlarına sağlanan sağlık hizmetlerinin aynısından yararlanmalıdırlar (SGK hizmetleri)

5.Mülteciler, Türk işçilerin işlerini ellerinden almıyorlar

6.Türk vatandaşlarının eriştikleri sosyal hizmetlerin kalitesi Mültecilere rağmen aynı kalmıştır.

7.Mülteciler geçim zorluğu çeken Türk vatandaşlarına sağlanan konaklama ve su/elektrik/ yakıt yardımlarından yararlanma hakkına sahip olmalıdırlar.

7.2.3.2. Symbolic Threat Scale

Seven items symbolic threat questionnaire was used to capture the perception of threat posed by perceived differences relating to cultural values, morals and beliefs between the participants and refugees

1. Refugees should learn to conform to the rules and norms of our society as soon as possible after they arrive.

2. Refugee intake is undermining Turkish culture

3. The values and beliefs of refugees regarding work are basically quite similar to those of Turks

4. The values and beliefs of refugees regarding moral and religious issues are not compatible with the beliefs and values of most Turks

5. The values and beliefs of refugees regarding family issues and socializing children are basically quite similar to that of Turks

6. The values and beliefs of refugees regarding social relations are not compatible with the beliefs and values of most Turks

7. Refugees should not have to accept Turkish ways

Sembolik Tehdit Ölçeği

1.Mülteciler ülkemize geldikten sonra en kısa sürede bizim kural ve değerlerimize uymayı öğrenmelidir

2.Mültecilerin ülkeye kabul edilmesi Türk kültürünü zedeliyor

3.Mültecilerin çalışma hayatındaki değer ve anlayışları, Türklerinkine oldukça yakındır.

4.Mültecilerin ahlaki ve dini konularda sahip oldukları değer ve inançlar, Türklerin sahip olduğu değer ve anlayışlarla uyuşmamaktadır

5.Mültecilerin sahip olduğu aile ve çocuk yetiştirme konusundaki değer ve anlayışları Türklerinkine temel olarak oldukça benzerdir.

6.Mültecilerin sahip olduğu sosyal yaşam ve ilişkiler konusundaki değer ve anlayışlar, Türklerinkiyle uyuşmamaktadır.

7.Mülteciler Türk yaşam tarzını kabul etmek durumunda değildirler

7.2.4. Exposed Discrimination Types

If faced with any Discrimination and Stereotype Attıtudes ?

1. Never exposed to discrimination as such
2. Ethnic Identity
3. Religion or Sect
4. Political view and behavior
5. Gender
6. Socioeconomic status
7. Education Level
8. Linguistic insufficiency or dialect
9. Not being affiliated with a social group

Ne tür Ayrımcılık ve Kalıpyargı (stereotype) Davranışlarını Deneyimlediniz ?

1. Bu tür davranışları hiç deneyimlemedim
2. Etnik kökenim

3. Din ve mezhepim
4. Siyasi görüş ve davranışım
5. Cinsiyetim
6. Sosyoekonomik konumum
7. Eğitim düzeyim
8. Dil yetersizliğim veya Aksanım
9. Belli bir kimlik veya guruba ait veya yakın olmadığım için