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DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

**THE IMPACT OF DISCRIMINATION ON THE PSYCHOLOGICAL
WELLBEING AND ETHNIC IDENTITY OF INTERNATIONAL
STUDENTS IN NORTH CYPRUS**

MSc. THESIS

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Approval

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Declaration

I formally attest that all data, materials, analyses, and results in this thesis were gathered and presented in accordance with the academic expectations and ethical principles of the Institute of Graduate Studies, Near East University. I further declare that I have properly attributed and referenced any information and data that are not unique to this work, as required by these rules and conduct.

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Samuel Obinna Okolie

Abstract

THE IMPACT OF DISCRIMINATION ON THE PSYCHOLOGICAL WELLBEING AND ETHNIC IDENTITY OF INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS IN NORTH CYPRUS

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It is important to know how discrimination affects international students because of the increasing globalization of education and the growing number of students studying abroad. The aim behind this study is to assess the psychological impact of discrimination on international students here in North Cyprus and also how discrimination would affect the sense of ethnic identity of international students. A sample of 386 students were recruited from Near East University and Eastern Mediterranean University in Northern Cyprus using a convenience sampling technique. A structured questionnaire was used to collect data. The findings show a positive relationship between discrimination and psychological distress. The findings also show that ethnic identity is negatively correlated with discrimination and psychological distress. International students who are discriminated against showed higher levels of stress and depression. Increased level of discrimination is associated with a low feeling of ethnic identity among international students. The study shows that ethnic identity does not mediate the impact of discrimination on psychological wellbeing (psychological distress, depression, anxiety, stress). The findings also show that there are significant disparities in discrimination based on race, with black international students being the group that experience the most discrimination. Additionally, there were significant disparities in discrimination based on religion with international students who identified as Christians being discriminated against the most. The findings imply that Black international students had greater rates of depression and psychological stress more than any other race of international students. The findings also show that Asian international students have a stronger feeling of ethnic identification than any other race of international students. In light of these findings, educational institutions can enhance or broaden the range of support services offered to international students in order to help them adjust to their new environment and maintain good mental health.

Key words: Discrimination, Ethnic identity, Emotional states, Psychological Wellbeing, Racism

ÖZ

AYRIMCILIĞIN KUZHEY KIBRIS'TAKİ ULUSLARARASI ÖĞRENCİLERİN PSİKOLOJİK SAĞLIK VE ETNİK KİMLİKLERİ ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİSİ

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Eğitimin giderek küreselleşmesi ve yurtdışında okuyan öğrenci sayısının artması nedeniyle ayrımcılığın uluslararası öğrencileri nasıl etkilediğini bilmek önemlidir. Bu önerinin arkasındaki amaç, ayrımcılığın Kuzey Kıbrıs'taki uluslararası öğrenciler üzerindeki psikolojik etkisini ve ayrıca ayrımcılığın uluslararası öğrencilerin etnik kimlik duygularını nasıl etkileyeceğini değerlendirmektir. Kuzey Kıbrıs'ta bulunan Yakın Doğu Üniversitesi ve Doğu Akdeniz Üniversitesi'nden kolayda örnekleme tekniği kullanılarak 386 öğrenciden oluşan bir örneklem alınmıştır. Veri toplamak için yapılandırılmış bir anket kullanıldı. Bulgular, ayrımcılık ve psikolojik sıkıntı arasında pozitif bir ilişki olduğunu göstermektedir. Ayrımcılığa uğrayan uluslararası öğrenciler, kendilerini dışlanmış hissettikleri için daha yüksek düzeyde stres ve depresyon gösterdiler. Bulgular ayrıca etnik kimliğin ayrımcılık ve psikolojik sıkıntı ile negatif ilişkili olduğunu göstermektedir. Artan ayrımcılık düzeyi, uluslararası öğrenciler arasında düşük bir etnik kimlik duygusuyla ilişkilidir. Çalışma, etnik kimliğin, ayrımcılığın psikolojik iyilik hali (psikolojik sıkıntı, depresyon, kaygı, stres) üzerindeki etkisine aracılık etmediğini göstermektedir. Bulgular aynı zamanda ırka dayalı ayrımcılıkta önemli eşitsizlikler olduğunu ve siyahi uluslararası öğrencilerin en fazla ayrımcılığa maruz kalan grup olduğunu göstermektedir. Ek olarak, en çok ayrımcılığa uğrayan Hıristiyan olarak tanımlanan uluslararası öğrencilerle dine dayalı ayrımcılıkta önemli eşitsizlikler vardı. Bulgular, Siyah uluslararası öğrencilerin diğer tüm uluslararası öğrenci ırklarından daha fazla depresyon ve psikolojik stres oranlarına sahip olduğunu ima ediyor. Bulgular ayrıca Asyalı uluslararası öğrencilerin diğer tüm uluslararası öğrenci ırklarından daha güçlü bir etnik kimlik duygusuna sahip olduğunu gösteriyor. Bu bulguların ışığında, eğitim kurumları, yeni ortamlarına uyum sağlamalarına ve zihinsel sağlıklarını korumalarına yardımcı olmak için uluslararası öğrencilere sunulan destek hizmetlerinin kapsamını genişletebilir veya genişletebilir.

Anahtar kelimeler: Ayrımcılık, Etnik kimlik, Duygusal durumlar, Psikolojik iyilik hali, Irkçılık

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction

The foundation of modern societies is based on the equality principle (Fredman, 2011). Equality and discrimination are inseparable concepts. Despite the fact that equality of opportunity is an essential element in modern cultures, Discrimination is still a problem in contemporary society and is practiced in a variety of contexts (Fredman, 2011). Discrimination is the treatment of individuals who are put in the same circumstances differently due to one or more traits, such as race, ethnicity, gender, (dis)ability, sexual orientation, or other category statuses (Anderson, 2010). In the early phases of many modern civilizations, systematic racial and/or ethnic segregation was the fundamental cause of discrimination. This made it impossible for minority groups to apply for specific employment or reside in specified places (Anderson, 2010). These legally discriminatory systems were mostly eliminated in the 1960s and 1970s largely due to the United Nations and the civil rights movement in the United States which both played a significant role in promoting and protecting human rights around the world (Shepherd, 2008). More subtle forms of discrimination continue to persist for many races and ethnicities in public places, discrimination still persist in the criminal justice system, the educational system, and the labour market. Discrimination has been proved to be harmful, primarily the targeted individuals (Shepherd, 2008).

Discrimination against international students may happen in almost every aspect of school life, including teacher attitudes and expectations, institutional policies and behaviour codes, selection and grouping practices, curriculum, instructional techniques, and educational resources (Mollie, 2019). International students in North Cyprus are not exempt from it since they may encounter diverse manifestations of discrimination owing to their ethnicity or nationality. Due to language challenges, cultural disparities, and a lack of familiarity with the local traditions and practices, these students frequently struggle with integrating into the community. Their sense of self, sense of belonging, and mental health can all be negatively impacted by the discrimination they encounter, resulting in anxiety, tension, and depression (Mollie, 2019).

Being exposed to a foreign cultural context might challenge international students' views and values, and as a result, cause them to frequently struggle to maintain their ethnic identity. Discrimination can make this problem worse by making them question their identity, which causes them to experience perplexity, self-doubt, and a sense of alienation (Jackson, 2018). It cannot be refuted that discrimination has an effect on ethnic identity. An individual's sense of ethnic identification, which is defined as belonging to a specific ethnic or racial group, is extremely important in determining one's self-identity, worldview, and values (Jackson, 2018). Discrimination can negatively impact person's ethnic identity by instilling uncertainty, apprehension, and a sense of alienation from their cultural roots (Jackson, 2018). The development of cultural and personal identity, achieving personal fulfilment, and maintaining good mental health are all related to psychological adaptation in a new cultural context (Kefayati, 2016). Every time two socially and culturally dissimilar groups come together, psychological, and behavioural changes are unavoidable. Difficulty of integrating into a new society, has a negative impact on a person's mental health and can lead to problems including psychological discomfort, anxiety, and depression.

According to the 2020 population estimates, there are about 150,000 foreign students in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus. Students from various cultures and nations attend school in North Cyprus, which is recognized as an educational island. Studying in North Cyprus as an international student may involve having to deal with discrimination, exclusion, or disdain directed against one because of their identity. Due to the high proportion of international students in North Cyprus, reports of discrimination are common. Typically, provocation or overt mischief are associated with discrimination. However, it doesn't always involve menacing or frightful behaviour. Think about racist remarks and jokes, think about situations where people are excluded from events or gatherings because of their background. Additionally, it frequently appears in organizations and frameworks (Maghazi, 2020).

Problem Statement

Discrimination through the years has been seen to have the potential to seriously hurt both individuals and communities (Marney, 2020). Discrimination may have a catastrophic effect on the Lives of targets or victims. The victims might suffer from physical and psychological harm in addition to detrimental repercussions on their personal lives, finances, and social relationships. Discrimination impacts the general well-being of its victims as it often prevents them from having equitable access to services, employment, and education (Jackson, 2018). Incidents of discrimination can have a negative impact on the person who

was directly impacted by them, as well as on their family or perhaps the entire community. International students have been seen to bring a diversity of perspectives, experiences, and cultures to the host country. Schools gain better reputations by recruiting international students and thus international students help to enhance the school's overall quality (Maghazi, 2020). International students potentially could become future entrepreneurs or business leaders and thus contribute to the economy of the host country (Maghazi, 2020). A society where there is discrimination is one where no one trusts or values the other. North Cyprus may be regarded as culturally diverse because of the huge number of international students. However, discrimination can harm a host country's reputation as a welcoming and inclusive place, which may deter future international students and negatively impact the country's economy.

Discrimination, especially racially motivated discrimination may undermine the targeted individual's identity and dignity by making them feel inferior and dehumanized (Marney, 2020). People who regularly face discrimination are known to change their behaviour and daily habits (Myriam, 2006). Discrimination jeopardizes health and affects developmental paths. Discrimination has been linked to poorer self-esteem, increased stress, anxiety, depression, suicidal thoughts and attempts, violence, ADHD, and behavioural issues. The social world and other facets of society may also be affected by discrimination. The development of a society can be hampered by issues including fear of new environments or social groups, alienation from the group, loneliness, and lack of faith in other people. Discrimination can have a negative effect on a victim, their family, and the society, especially when leaders, neighbours, and authorities respond poorly. Discrimination may lead to communities breaking apart and severing relationships, which is normally bad for everyone including the ones being discriminated against and the ones doing the discrimination (Macedo, 2019).

Studies have shown a link between discrimination and mental health problems (Marney 2020, Lora 2014, Yzette 2018, Cheng 2020). This study explores how discrimination affects the ethnic identity and mental health of foreign students in North Cyprus with a focus on psychological distress, anxiety, and depression. This study looks at the differences in level of discrimination faced based on gender, race, and religion. This study also explores how ethnic identity may affect the relationship between discrimination and psychological distress.

Aim of the Study

The aim of this study is to investigate the impacts of discrimination on the ethnic identity, psychological well-being, and emotional states of international students in North Cyprus given that it is a hub for international students from various racial and ethnic backgrounds. This study concentrates on mental health problems like psychological distress, anxiety, and depression. The researcher also intends to identify the elements that can influence this association. This study intends to critically analyse the following research question:

Research questions

1. Is there a relationship between discrimination and mental health problems like psychological distress, anxiety, and depression?
2. Does ethnic identity mediate the relationship between discrimination and psychological distress?
3. Are there significant differences in level of discrimination faced based on the race of the participant?
4. Are there significant differences in level of discrimination faced based on gender?
5. Is there a relationship between the age of the participants and discrimination encountered?
6. Are there significant differences in level of discrimination faced based on religion?

Significance of the Study

This study is crucial since there are limited studies that link discrimination to ethnic identity and mental health conditions such as psychological distress, depression, and anxiety in a single research setting (Marney 2020, Lora 2014, Yzette 2018, Cheng 2020). These studies do not assess ethnic identity as a mediation to the relationship between discrimination and psychological distress. Gillborn (2000) focused on racial discrimination and its effects on minority communities. A few previous studies that were focused on international students only looked at how racism would cause anxiety and poor academic performance in international students (Kefayati, 2016). Additionally, there is scarce research done on this topic in relation to foreign students in North Cyprus. The existing study in North Cyprus mostly examines the manifestations of these discriminations rather than their consequences (Maghazi, 2020).

The findings of this study are expected to contribute to the current literature on the psychological impacts of discrimination on international students. The findings can also be

used to increase public awareness of the negative impacts of discrimination on international students as well as the different forms of discrimination. Universities can also utilize the results to create programs or develop initiatives that would prevent or lessen discrimination towards international students. The intension is to make the public more conscious about discrimination and its adverse effects on international students.

Limitations

This study's main limitation is the convenience sampling method that was used for the data collection of this study. It has the drawback of not accurately representing the population being studied and limiting the ability to generalize the results. Because of this, the findings and results may only be applicable to the Near East University and Eastern Mediterranean university students and not to the larger student body or to other universities in North Cyprus.

Definition Of Key Terms

Discrimination: When someone is treated unfairly or poorly due to a personal feature like gender, nationality, ethnicity, or social status, language, religion, disability, or sexual orientation, this is referred to as discrimination (Petersen, 2004).

Racial Discrimination: Racial discrimination can be defined as the belief that people of other races are not as intelligent, or good as you or individuals of your own race (Merriam, 2000). Racial discrimination is the process by which there are disparate opportunities and outcomes for people of different races (Merriam, 2000).

Stereotyping: Stereotypes are the ideas connected to social groups and can be defined as the false assumption that all individuals or objects who share a certain trait are the same (Rajiv & Hammond, 2006). Having a generalized opinion about a certain group of people is known as stereotyping.

Psychological Distress: Psychological distress refers to non-specific symptoms of stress. It can imply an external and usually temporary cause of great mental strain and stress (Kessler, 1992).

Acculturation: Acculturation refers to the process by which individuals or groups adopt or acquire the cultural characteristics and patterns of another culture (Berry, 1997). Acculturation occurs as a result of ongoing contact or interaction between various cultural groups.

Acculturative stress: Acculturative stress refers to the psychological, emotional, and social stress that individuals experience when they undergo the process of acculturation (Berry, 2005). Acculturative stress can be seen as trouble adjusting to a new society (Kefayati 2016).

Prejudice: Prejudice refers to an unjustifiable negative attitude toward an outgroup. Prejudice involves treating another person unfairly (Aboud & Doyle, 2006).

Depression: A persistent sense of emptiness, unhappiness, or an inability to experience pleasure that may seem to occur for no apparent reason is known as depression (Marney 2020).

Ethnic identity: Ethnic Identity refers to an individual's sense of belonging and identification with a particular ethnic group, which can be defined by shared cultural traditions, ancestry, language, religion, or geographic origin (Phinney, 1992).

CHAPTER II

Literature Review

The aim of this study is to investigate the psychological impacts of discrimination on foreign students in North Cyprus. This chapter covers the theoretical background related to discrimination towards international students, theories of discrimination, social discrimination, racial and ethnic differences as basis for discrimination, relationship between discrimination and mental health, racial discrimination towards international students, direct and indirect forms of discrimination, interventions for discrimination. The chapter also evaluates related literature on the mental health outcomes of discrimination targeted at foreign students.

Discrimination Towards International Students

Globally, there is an increase in international students pursuing higher education. Although many people view studying abroad as a life-changing experience, it can also provide difficulties that may be harmful to international students' mental health. Millions of people worldwide are impacted by the prevalent social issue of discrimination. International students are one group that is particularly susceptible to discrimination. These students frequently experience prejudice because of their race, nationality, language, cultural heritage, and outward appearance. Discrimination can have a significant negative effect on the psychological health of international students. The psychological impacts of discrimination against international students might manifest as feelings of loneliness, worry, resentment, and grief. Students who experience discrimination may feel unwelcome and excluded from the greater community. Due to these emotions of acute loneliness and isolation, stress and anxiety levels may rise. Being subjected to discrimination might push international students to feel the need to defend themselves against hostile behaviours or attitudes, which can also contribute to the emergence of aggressive behaviours. These aggressive behaviours have the

potential to make stress and anxiety symptoms worse, which can then have a detrimental impact on one's psychological health (Quillian et al., 2019).

Practically every aspect of school life can be subject to discrimination, from negative attitudes from teachers or fellow students, school regulations and conduct codes to selection and grouping procedures in school (Hargreaves, 2018). Feeling different or inferior to other individuals can be alienating. Over time, it reduces a person's capability for social interaction, including their feeling of self-efficacy, ambiguity tolerance, flexibility, and adaptability, as well as their openness to different cultures and belief systems. Discrimination in school expands the academic achievement gap and exacerbates already existent educational inequality. Students who are marginalized, such as those from low socioeconomic, racial, or cultural origins, may have structural impediments that impede their academic success. Discrimination reinforces these inequalities (Hargreaves, 2019). Discrimination in schools can also have a detrimental effect on society as well. It undermines social cohesiveness, widens social gaps, and promotes intolerance and xenophobia (Shirley, 2018). Discrimination indicates a lesser treatment for the students being victimized regardless of the framework used, whether it is different educational systems for different ethnic groups or differential access to educational supplies. The most common ground for discrimination is someone's race, ethnicity, or country of origin (Hargreaves, 2018). The systems of status inequality that lead to the unequal distribution of resources, power, and money in society are greatly facilitated by the use of race as a basis for discrimination (Shirley, 2018).

International students experiencing discrimination may also suffer from a sense of loss of identity or belonging. This loss can be compounded by the cultural differences inherent in being an international student. The inability to connect with others who share a similar cultural background can increase the sense of isolation and further impact psychological wellbeing. Discrimination can also lead to increased levels of depression in international students. The feeling of being constantly ostracized and isolated can lead to a sense of hopelessness, which can contribute to the development of depressive symptoms (Reskin, 2012).

The academic performance of international students can also be impacted by discrimination. According to a study by Lee (2019), international students who faced discrimination performed worse academically. This may exacerbate the mental health problems among international students, creating a vicious loop between poor mental health and substandard academic performance (Lee, 2019).

Discrimination towards international students can be present in several forms, focusing on things like race, gender, religion, age, disability, and sexual orientation, among other things. International students may face discrimination due to their limited proficiency in the host country's language which brings about difficulties in expressing themselves, understanding others, and comprehending academic materials. More observable forms of discrimination towards international students can be demonstrated via visa regulations on certain races or countries, limitations on employment opportunities, difficulty in obtaining internships, or travel restrictions (Ward, 2014).

Theories of Discrimination

Over the years, several theories of discrimination have been developed to explain why it occurs and how it can be addressed. These theories include: implicit bias theory, social identity theory, power and prejudice theory, stereotype threat theory, institutional discrimination theory.

Implicit Bias Theory

Psychologists Anthony Greenwald and Mahzarin Banaji originally coined the phrase "implicit bias" in 1995 (Greenwald et al., 1990). According to this hypothesis, people may unconsciously have prejudices or biases that affect their behaviour and decisions. These unconscious prejudices motivate them to engage in discriminatory activity. These biases tend to be unconscious and automatic, and they can influence someone's views and behaviour without their being aware of it. Implicit biases are created by a variety of social and cultural factors, such as media, parenting, and individual experiences. Implicit biases can be based on racial, gender, or age (Greenwald et al., 2006). Implicit bias can be mitigated with awareness as individuals who wish to become more aware of their personal biases and the ways in which it impacts their perceptions and behaviour may benefit from educational programs and seminars. Creating such awareness increases self-reflection and deliberate attempts to lessen implicit bias (Greenwald et al., 2006). Another effective bias-reduction strategy is diversity and inclusion initiatives which creates an environment that values and respects individuals from different backgrounds. This can involve activities like inclusive hiring procedures, mentorship schemes, and leadership development initiatives. (Carnes et al., 2015).

Social Identity Theory

Tajfel and his colleagues proposed social identity theory in social psychology (Tajfel et al., 1979). Social identity refers to the ways that people's self-concepts are based on their

membership in social groups. The concept suggests that a person's sense of self and self-worth are derived from their ties with particular groups. Discrimination can occur when people favour their own group over others, leading to intergroup conflict. This theory may also be referred to as the social dominance hypothesis. This theory contends that people want to preserve a good social identity by identifying with organizations they consider superior and separating themselves from those they consider inferior. The social dominance hypothesis is one of the first and most prominent theories of discrimination and according to the social dominance hypothesis, discrimination is a systemic type of oppression that is firmly ingrained in society rather than just an issue of personal bias or prejudice (Solomos, 2000). The Social Identity Theory proposes that individuals tend to divide the social world into "in-groups" (groups they belong to) and "out-groups" (groups they do not belong to). They then develop a positive social identity by favouring their in-group and discriminating against the out-group. This discrimination helps people feel better about themselves and keep a positive sense of who they are (Tajfel et al., 1979). By focusing on the fundamental mechanisms of social categorization and intergroup prejudice, some interventions that seek to lessen this discrimination include Encouraging individuals to adopt a common identity (Devin et al., 2015). Intergroup prejudice can be lessened by promoting the adoption of a shared identity that transcends group distinctions in order to promote collaboration and lessen the prominence of group differences (Devine et al., 2015). Another intervention is mutual interdependence which entails creating circumstances in which members of various groups depend on one another to attain shared objectives helps to improve intergroup attitudes (Daan, 2019).

Power and Prejudice Theory

The Prejudice and Power theory of discrimination is a sociological viewpoint that looks at how power and bias combine to explain discrimination. This idea holds that discriminatory opinions and behaviours toward marginalized or disadvantaged groups are enforced when individuals or groups with social, economic, or institutional power utilize their influence to do so. The power and prejudice theory emphasizes the role of power dynamics in discrimination. It suggests that discrimination occurs when individuals or groups with more social, economic, or political power use that power to marginalize and oppress others (Fiske et al., 2007). The theory proposes that discrimination can be rooted in power imbalances. This theory highlights that prejudice alone is not enough to sustain discriminatory practices overtime and that to maintain and enforce those biases, authority must be present (Schmid,

2016). In order to address the Power and Prejudice Theory of discrimination interventions, it is necessary to concentrate on confronting and reforming both personal biases and the power structures that support discrimination. Appropriate representations in positions of power can be seen as an intervention to this theory (Fiske et al., 2007).

Stereotype Threat Theory

According to the stereotype threat theory, being aware of unfavourable preconceptions about one's social group can cause anxiety, self-doubt, and brings about performance deficiencies. When members of a stereotyped group are aware of the unfavourable stereotypes attached to their group, they may feel more pressure to do well in order to refute the stereotype. However, this heightened pressure and worry may deplete cognitive capacity, hamper focus, and result in poor performance. This theory suggests that there are certain circumstances in which individuals are or perceive themselves to be at risk of gradually adhering to stereotypes about their social group in circumstances when the stereotype is relevant (Steele et al., 1995). It is usually the fear of confirming the stereotype that becomes a psychological burden. Mindset intervention can mitigate stereotype threat by emphasizing on the belief that abilities and intelligence can be developed through effort and practice. This mentality change encourages resiliency, persistence, and an emphasis on one's own development rather than external approval or comparison (Steele et al., 1995).

Institutional Discrimination Theory

The systematic and structural roots of discrimination and inequality inside institutions, organizations, and society at large are the main emphasis of the institutional discrimination theory. The Institutional discrimination theory centres around the manner by which social institutions or establishments, like government, educational institution, or generally any work environment can propagate discrimination through policies, practices, standards, and norms (Pager et al., 2008). This theory focuses on the ways in which institutions perpetuate discrimination. According to the institutional theory, discrimination is not the result of individual prejudices or biases, but rather the result of policies and practices that are discriminatory in nature. For example, if a company has a policy of only hiring employees of a certain race or gender, this would be considered institutional discrimination. Interventions aimed at addressing institutional discrimination involve changing the structures, policies, and practices that perpetuate inequality (Pager et al., 2008). Frequently, structural adjustments are needed to address institutional prejudice. This might entail changing hiring and recruitment

procedures to ensure fairness, encouraging diverse leadership and decision-making, as well as developing inclusive workplaces that appreciate and support members of underrepresented groups (Chen, 2011).

There are several theories of discrimination that have been developed to explain why it occurs and how it can be addressed. These theories range from the social dominance theory, which argues that discrimination is a form of oppression perpetuated by one group over another, to the cognitive theory, which suggests that discrimination is the result of cognitive processes that occur within individuals. While there is no one-size-fits-all solution to discrimination, understanding these theories can help us to develop more effective strategies for addressing this important problem.

Forms Of Discrimination

Discrimination takes many different forms in numerous facets of society, maintaining inequality and denying disadvantaged people equitable chances. Promoting equality and striving toward a just and fair society require the knowledge of various forms of discrimination. Noteworthy forms of discrimination includes: direct and indirect discrimination, ingroup and outgroup discrimination, social discrimination, sexism, ageism, systemic discrimination and multiple discrimination.

Direct and Indirect Discrimination

Direct discrimination refers to a situation in which a person is treated badly or receives less treatment or service than others due to a particular characteristic or trait, such as age, race, religion, disability, or sexual orientation (Khaitan, 2015). Direct discrimination, for instance, can take place when a hiring manager rejects an applicant because of their race. Contrarily, indirect discrimination is a scenario in which a person is subjected to unjust treatment because of a rule, practice, or obligation. Despite the fact that it seems to be neutral at first glance, these policies or practice really disadvantage a specific group of individuals who share a particular quality or attribute. For example, a company may have a requirement that all male employees have clean shaved faces. Using this rule, the employer declines to recruit a Sikh man who is prohibited from shaving by his faith. Both direct and indirect discrimination are prohibited by law in many countries and can result in legal penalties and sanctions for those found guilty of engaging in discriminatory practices (Sutherland, 2021).

Ingroup and Outgroup Discrimination

Ingroup and outgroup discrimination which refers to the tendency of people to show favouritism towards individuals who are part of their own social group (ingroup) while showing prejudice or hostility towards those who belong to a different group (outgroup) this is also a major form of social discrimination (Pettigrew, 2006). When someone favours someone who is in the same social group as them, it is called ingroup discrimination. This can include things like sharing resources, offering help, and being more tolerant of differences within the group. Outgroup discrimination, on the other hand, refers to the tendency to show prejudice or hostility towards those who belong to a different social group (Dovidio, 2003). This can manifest in many different ways, such as stereotyping and exclusion. Many elements, such as social identity, group membership, perceived threat, and social norms, can have an impact on both ingroup and outgroup discrimination (Stephan, 2000).

Social Discrimination or Isolation

Another issue that many international students face is social discrimination or isolation. Social discrimination or isolation is the condition of being cut off from social relationships, networks, or communities. It is characterized by a lack of social contact, interaction, or engagement. Social discrimination can happen intentionally or unintentionally (Chou, 2015). Social discrimination has been seen to lead to marginalization and inequality (Chou, 2015). According to studies, social discrimination towards international students significantly influences mental health issues. According to a study by Al-Radwan (2018), social discrimination towards international students was linked to greater levels of anxiety and depression. Similar findings were made by Gao et al. (2020), who discovered that social isolation among international students was linked to greater levels of distress and depression. To enhance social harmony and lessen prejudice and discrimination, it is critical to identify and tackle social discrimination or isolation.

Racism

Racial discrimination is when people or groups are treated differently because of their race or ethnicity. It includes disparities in opportunity, prejudice, stereotypes, and systemic inequalities, among other things. People's lives, communities, and societies as a whole are impacted by racial discrimination, which can manifest itself in both obvious and subtle ways (Denson et al., 2015). Racial discrimination manifested through practices like slavery, racial profiling and apartheid. Racial discrimination has a long history and is still pervasive in many

communities. For instance, the apartheid regime in South Africa institutionalized racial discrimination, resulting in a large number of human rights violations (Lawrence et al., 2019). The impacts of racial discrimination on people and communities are extensive. It may reduce possibilities for work and education, lowering one's socioeconomic position (Williams, 2019).

The detrimental effects of racial discrimination on mental and physical health have been repeatedly shown through research. According to the research that was published in the American Journal of Public Health (Paradies et al., 2015), various racial and ethnic groups were more likely to experience depression, anxiety, and psychological distress when they had experienced racial discrimination. In addition, chronic health issues including hypertension and cardiovascular disease have been connected to racial prejudice (Williams et al., 2019).

Sexism

Sexism is a form of discrimination that involves bias, stereotyping, or unfair treatment of people based on their gender. It has its roots in historical, social, and cultural conventions that assign distinct duties, standards, and values to people according to their gender, frequently preferring males over women (Glick, 2001). Sexist attitudes and ideas reinforce negative gender stereotypes hence preserving gender norms and hierarchies. Derogatory comments, objectification, harassment, and uneven treatment based on gender are examples of sexism. Politics, education, and the media are just a few sectors of life where women have historically experienced sexism (Pager, 2008). Numerous studies and reports provide evidence of the existence and impact of sexism (Ridgeway, 2009; Schmitt, 2014). The World Economic Forum's Global Gender Gap Report measures gender-based disparities across various dimensions, including economic participation, educational attainment, political empowerment, and health and survival. The report consistently highlights the persistent gender gaps and the need for gender equality. Additionally, studies show that sexism has harmful effects on both people and society (Swim, 1995; Eckes, 2012; Kilianski, 1998). These studies have demonstrated that discrimination against women based on their gender and sexist views can lead to mental health problems, poorer self-esteem, less professional options, and fewer income opportunities. Furthermore, detrimental gender stereotypes can be reinforced by sexism, which also fuels violence against women (Eckes, 2012). Sexism keeps gender inequality alive by erecting structural obstacles that restrict possibilities for people depending on their gender. This may result in differences in access to resources, income, employment and education, making society less equal (Kilianski, 1998). Sexism strengthens negative gender stereotypes, such as the idea that women are less qualified for leadership

positions. The underrepresentation of women in positions of power and authority is a result of these stereotypes, which can affect organizational decision-making procedures, recruiting procedures, and promotion prospects (Swim, 1995).

Ageism

Another form of discrimination that affects older individuals is ageism. Ageism refers to prejudice, stereotypes, and discrimination based on a person's age, particularly when it comes to older individuals. It involves treating individuals differently or unfairly solely because of their age (Ayalon, 2018). Ageism frequently has detrimental effects on the victim's life in many areas, including employment, healthcare, and social connections. Ageism may take in overt or covert forms and can have a negative impact on people's health and general quality of life (Palmore, 2019). Ageism can take many forms, including negative preconceptions, employment bias, and a lack of opportunity for senior citizens. The devaluation and marginalization of older people is a growing problem in many countries (Levy, 2002). Ageism in the workplace is a common problem which prevents older workers from getting hired, promoted, or given training chances. According to studies, older employees are frequently viewed as less competent, less able to adapt to technology developments, and less able to pick up new skills (Palmore, 2019; Krueger, 2020; Ayalon, 2018; Levy, 2002). For older people, prejudice may result in forced early retirement, diminished work chances, and financial instability.

Ageism can be observed in the academic community too where older candidates may be favoured over younger ones or vice versa (Cech et al., 2019). Research has shown that older candidates, especially women, face challenges in securing academic positions due to stereotypes associated with their age. When seeking for faculty posts, younger candidates may also encounter age-related prejudices since their inexperience is frequently mistaken for incompetence (Cech et al., 2019)

Systemic Discrimination

Systemic discrimination refers to discriminatory acts or policies that are ingrained in a society's institutions, processes, and structures (Crenshaw, 1989). It incorporates larger systemic patterns that sustain unfair treatment and disfavour some groups of individuals. As a result of systemic discrimination, disadvantaged groups frequently have uneven access to resources, opportunities, and privileges. Systemic discrimination is frequently firmly ingrained in social, economic, and political organizations. It is prevalent in many fields,

including criminal justice, housing, healthcare, employment, and education (Craig, 2007). Systemic discrimination operates on a larger scale, influencing policies, norms, and practices that disproportionately affect certain groups while benefiting others. The term systemic oppression is also commonly used to describe this type of institutionalized discrimination (Craig, 2007). Systemic discrimination may take many forms. For example, it may manifest in the form of biased criteria when hiring or lack of representation in positions of power. These practices create barriers to opportunities and limit the ability of those who are marginalized to succeed and thrive (Crenshaw, 1989). Systemic discrimination is often perpetuated by policies, laws, and regulations that are designed to maintain the status quo rather than promote equality. It can be difficult to identify and address, as it is deeply ingrained in the societal and institutional context (Craig, 2007). However, addressing systemic discrimination is essential to promoting equity and fairness for all individuals in society. Systemic discrimination is much harder to prevent than direct discrimination through legislation. Although new laws typically give people the right to file a complaint with a legal body if they believe they have been discriminated against.

Systemic discrimination may exist within academic institutions and can manifest in a variety of ways, including as recruiting procedures, decisions on promotions and tenure, access to financing and resources, and curriculum design (Psenka, 2003). Biased evaluations and expectations that impede career advancement for women and minority faculty members are common obstacles in the promotion and tenure process in the academic community (Trix et al., 2003).

Multiple Discrimination

Multiple discrimination, also known as intersectional discrimination, refers to the overlapping or intersecting forms of discrimination that individuals may face due to their membership in multiple marginalized groups. It acknowledges that people can experience discrimination on the basis of a variety of identities (including race, gender, sexual orientation, disability, etc.). The concept of multiple discrimination emphasizes that discrimination is not experienced in isolation but rather as a result of the intersection of various social categories (Collins, 2000). For example, a woman of colour may face discrimination that is distinct from the experiences of both white women and men of colour. This discrimination is on the basis of both her racial appearance and gender. Multiple discrimination acknowledges that the experiences of individuals cannot be adequately understood by focusing solely on one aspect of their identity but must consider the

intersections of multiple identities (Benach et al., 2010). Another example of multiple discrimination or intersectional discrimination can be seen in the situation of a black, disabled, Muslim woman who experiences discrimination that is rooted in all of these aspects of her identity simultaneously, which can compound the severity of the discrimination she faces. This type of discrimination recognizes that people experience discrimination and oppression in complex and overlapping ways, and that addressing one aspect of their identity without acknowledging the others is not sufficient to achieve meaningful equality (Benach et al., 2010). It may frequently be challenging to separate the various parts of the differential treatment. Multiple discrimination or intersectional discrimination is the term for such situation. Intersectional discrimination can have a compounding effect on individuals, leading to greater levels of social and economic inequality (Khaitan, 2015).

A person's religion, sexual orientation, or level of impairment may also be the basis for discrimination. Those who have a minority religion, for instance, may encounter discrimination at work or in their communities. Similarly, individuals who identify as LGBTQ+ may face discrimination, harassment, or violence based on their sexual orientation or gender identity. Disability discrimination can likewise show itself in different ways, for example, buildings that are not constructed to address the issue of the disabled, or pessimistic mentalities towards individuals with inabilities.

Relationship between Discrimination and mental health

Mental well-being is an essential part of overall well-being. Discrimination may seriously harm a person's mental health. The occurrence of discrimination is strongly correlated with the emergence of a number of mental health conditions (Pascoe, 2009). Mental health problems can manifest in various ways, including anxiety, depression, and other psychological disorders (Williams, 2009). Discrimination may make a person develop chronic stress response which comes as a result of being subjected to repeated and prolonged stressors. When stress hormones like cortisol are released by the body's stress response system, they can disrupt a variety of physiological processes, including those that are related to mental health (Bauer, 2019). Discrimination and social isolation can contribute to depression (Bauer, 2019). Feelings of misery, hopelessness, and worthlessness are symptoms of depression. Other symptoms include weariness, trouble sleeping, and changes in appetite. Other mental health conditions that might result from discrimination include post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), eating disorders, drug misuse, stress and anxiety (Mollie, 2019). Anxiety is a common mental health problem and can be caused by a variety of factors,

including discrimination, cultural differences, and social isolation (Pascoe, 2009). Anxiety can manifest as feelings of nervousness, worry, and fear. It can also lead to physical symptoms, such as muscle tension, headaches, and gastrointestinal problems. People who are subjected to discrimination may internalize negative social group stereotypes and biases. A negative self-image, low self-esteem, and self-doubt may result from this internalization. These negative thoughts can exacerbate symptoms of anxiety.

Discrimination is a strong predictor of mental health issues among international students according to studies. For example, a study by Cheng (2019) indicated that discrimination against international students was associated with greater levels of anxiety and depression. Similar findings were made by Kwong (2019), who discovered that international students who experienced racial discrimination had greater levels of stress and melancholy.

Discrimination can have profound effects on mental health. Being subjected to discrimination can cause individuals to experience stress, anxiety, depression, and may even lead to the development of mental health conditions such as PTSD (Pascoe, 2009). It may also exacerbate symptoms of pre-existing conditions. Discrimination was significantly associated with poorer mental health outcomes e.g., depression, anxiety, psychological stress (Williams, 2009). These experiences can lead to feelings of hopelessness, worthlessness, and even suicidal thoughts. Thus, discrimination can lead to a sense of isolation from society, causing individuals to avoid social situations (Braveman, 2010). Discrimination can also make it more challenging for individuals to access mental health services. For example, LGBTQ individuals may face stigma and discrimination from healthcare providers, which may discourage them from seeking treatment for mental health issues. It may heighten their sense of shame and embarrassment, leading to avoidance of treatment options (Roscigno, 2007).

Experiencing discrimination can negatively impact a person's personality traits. According to the Health and Retirement Survey carried out in 1995 and the Midlife in the United States Study (MIDUS) carried out in 1996, discriminatory events were linked to increase in neuroticism (negative emotions). Discrimination has been seen to have a positive correlation with measures of psychological distress, anxiety symptoms, and depression (Anderson, 2013). More studies by the National Study of American Life (NSAL) have shown that not only can discrimination worsen depressive symptoms and cause psychological distress. It also increases the risk of specific psychiatric disorders.

Another study carried out by the National Latino and Asian American Study (NLAAS) in 2010, found that among Asian Americans, there was a positive relationship between the likelihood of any psychological disorders and perceived discrimination. Participants who reported high levels of discrimination had experienced a sizeable burden of mental illness specifically depression. Also, they documented a positive correlation between PTSD and discrimination.

Racial Discrimination towards International students

Racism as a term was first proposed by a man named Richard Henry Pratt in 1902. Pratt referred to racism as the belief that some races are inherently superior or inferior to others, leading to discriminatory practices and prejudices based on race. Racial discrimination towards international students is a significant issue that can occur in various countries and educational institutions around the world. International students may face discrimination due to their cultural background, accent, appearance, or simply because they are perceived as "foreign" or different (Agergaard, 2021).

In order to raise awareness of racial discrimination towards international students in the TRNC, a study was carried out by VOIS Cyprus (2020). The study's findings indicate that there is a variety of racial discrimination practices towards foreign students in the TRNC, as 75% of the populace of the study indicated that they had experienced racial discrimination. Higher levels of perceived social support from family, friends, and significant others were found to be associated with reduced psychological consequences of discrimination among international students. This survey also showed that black international students were the group that had the highest reports of discrimination (Maghazi, 2020).

According to White (2020), one of the main causes of mental health issues is racism, or discrimination based on race or ethnicity. Additionally, racism is to blame for the growing disparities in the physical and mental health of those who have experienced racial prejudice. Mental health and racism are seen to be closely related in the study by White (2020). Racial or ethnic discrimination was shown to lead to or exacerbate mental health issues. Unjust treatment or discrimination towards international students also significantly affects sleep and bodily processes which in return affect academic performance of victims (White, 2020).

These studies put forward show that racial discrimination is a significant source of stress for international students, and chronic stress can have a negative impact on mental and physical health (Agergaard, 2021; Kefayati, 2016; White, 2020). Racial Discrimination can

be seen to lead to feelings of helplessness and hopelessness, which can contribute to depression, anxiety, and stress.

Factors Affecting the Relationship Between Discrimination and Mental Health

In a study by Patron (2014), level of preparation is underlined as a factor that would limit the impact of discrimination. International students should be prepared to face challenges; these challenges may come in the form of cultural adjustments, environmental differences, and also how to react and respond to acts of racism. If international students do not adequately prepare themselves for the challenging process of adjustment, the degree of isolation is bound to escalate and would further affect their mental health (Patron, 2014). Patron (2014) also emphasizes that preparing for the difficulties of educational migration lessens the psychological toll it takes on international students once they arrive and begin to experience all these changes. Adapting to a new environment is extremely stressful, and it takes a significant amount of time and effort and if one is not fully adjusted to the new environment, serious psychological damage can be done.

A similar study was carried out by Downey (2008). But in this study, the researcher asserts that the social background of international students has a significant impact on the degree to which discrimination affects their mental health. Other studies also explain that religious organizations and support from family are factors that can also impact the degree to which acts of discrimination would affect mental health (Rhamie, 2007; Stevenson, 1998).

One of the theories that expressly focuses on how minority students react to racism is Ogbu's cultural-ecological model (Ogbu, 1990). Minority international students according to Ogbu's hypothesis, respond to prejudice through instrumental methodologies such as accepting the predominant race way of life and character, and increased commitment to schoolwork, because they contrast their situation with the situation of individuals back in their country of origin. Also, in this theory the researcher believes that these minority international students have more pressure on them to be successful despite all these events of prejudice or racism. Ogbu, also adds that being well-prepared and informed could regulate the impact of discrimination on international students. International students who were well informed and prepared turned out to be more capable of resisting cultural and identity absorption and did not develop mental health issues as a result of acts of racism. (Ogbu & Fordham 1986).

Despite the well-established mediating role of social support in the research on how international students respond to racial discrimination, individual-level traits connected to people's preferences for action and various ways of behaving seriously influence how much discrimination would harm their mental health and not just social support. (Stevens & Görgös, 2010).

Evaluating the research on this topic, it is necessary to highlight the following: first and foremost, there is somewhat little concentration on how various acts of racism urge international students to respond to racism in adaptive ways. Secondly, while most research are centred around some specific establishments (like the family) and social associations (like the school), more studies should be centred around full scale humanistic components or individual psychological characteristics in order to be able to determine the impacts of racism on international students. And also, the conceptualization of racism strategies is often tricky in research. In most cases, the reaction of international students to racism and the psychological impact such racial discrimination has on international students are typically lessened by these researchers.

The Effects of Discrimination on Ethnic Identity

According to a study carried out by Ha (2019), it was revealed that discrimination had seriously detrimental impacts on how foreign students felt about themselves, including their physical and emotional health as well as their academic wellbeing. There have been many studies that found these effects to be quite consistent (Ha, 2019; Kyere, 2022; Elana 2020). One of the key aspects of ethnic identification is sense of commitment, or how strongly a person feels connected or integrated to their community.

The study by Kyere (2022) indicated that discrimination may affect a person's ethnic identity. People who experience discrimination frequently may adopt unfavourable perceptions about their own ethnic group. They may begin to separate themselves from their ethnic identity as a result of this internalized oppression, which can undermine their pride and self-worth (Kyere, 2022). The researcher highlighted that a strong feeling of ethnic identification also acted as a buffer against the negative impacts of discrimination. The main conclusion is that ethnic identification tends to reduce the adverse consequences of discrimination. Another study by Elana (2020) indicated that advantages are experienced by those who are confident, steadfast, and unambiguous about their sense of identity. Strong ethnic identity in this study was seen as a tool to cope with discrimination.

According to another study by Branscombe et al. (1999), African American participants' ethnic identity and psychological well-being were negatively impacted by experiences of discrimination. As a result, ethnic identity levels were associated with psychological empowerment and resilience. Another study by Phinney (1996) found that ethnic identity was negatively correlated with discrimination. This suggests that a stronger ethnic identity can buffer discrimination's negative effects.

More Related Research

In a study carried out by Wood (2017) to determine racial differences in discrimination experiences and views, separate survey reports were released covering discrimination experiences of each group. Sample size was 3,453 people including, Latinos, Asian Americans, African Americans and Arabs. A final report compared all groups surveyed collectively and the findings were that African Americans (Blacks) were the group discriminated against the most followed by the Hispanic. Results from this survey also found significant differences in discrimination based on gender across all groups (Wood, 2017).

In a study carried out by Chou et al. (2011) to determine perceived workplace discrimination among workers in the United States, a population size of 420 workers was used and results from this study shows that 81 per cent of the older workers 50 and above encountered at least one workplace discriminatory treatment within a year. This study also showed that prevalence of perceived workplace discrimination differed with age, gender, education (Chou, 2011).

A study by Kefayati (2016) revealed that international students who are under pressure to adapt to the local culture report feeling more victimized by locals of the dominant society and experiencing higher levels of pressure, which can be harmful to their mental health. This study also found that women are more likely to experience discrimination, which has a greater psychological impact on women.

A study was conducted by Rudd et al. (2022) to investigate the moderating effects of racial-ethnic identification on the connection between racial discrimination and depression, this study was conducted using only African Americans. The result stipulates that 86% of participants reported to have gone through at least one instance of racial discrimination. In line with other studies, the study also found that strong ethnic identification mediated the effect racial discrimination had on the participants.

Following the trend that ethnic identity helps to mitigate the negative effects of racial discrimination, in 2003 Mossakowski et al. using a sample size of Two thousand one hundred nine (2,109) Filipino Americans explores if ethnic identity affects mental health and eases separation anxiety. It was shown that less depressive symptoms were strongly correlated with a strong feeling of ethnic identity. Therefore, ethnic pride, involvement in ethnic customs, and social commitment to one's racial or ethnic community might safeguard mental wellbeing. Increased levels of depressive symptoms were linked to participants with supposedly weak feeling of ethnic identity (Mossakowski, 2003).

In a study carried out by Yip (2005) to determine the relationship between ethnic identity and psychological wellbeing, a strong sense of ethnic identity was seen to be associated with fewer depressive symptoms and increased positive mood. Participants were Chinese American students who are the largest Asian ethnic group in the United States (U.S. Census Bureau, 2000). Findings from the study indicate that strong ethnic identity moderated anxiety and depressive symptoms. There were higher levels of positive mood when there was a strong sense of ethnic identity.

Findings from research conducted by Eastwood et al. (2018) showed that disproportionality persists in stop and search exercises carried out by the police force. This study also showed that minority ethnic people were over four times more likely to be stopped and searched than White people; black people being the most common of the minorities. For Black people specifically, this was almost nine times more likely. The methodology employed for this study involves collecting and analysing large-scale traffic stop data from various police departments. The researchers use publicly available data sets, such as traffic stop records, which include information on the race, ethnicity, and gender of the individuals stopped by the police. Additionally, findings showed that searches without a warrant to retrieve offensive weapons or dangerous objects in anticipation of serious violence were 18 times more likely to be conducted on Black individuals than on White persons. This study found significant racial disparities in stop and search exercises conducted by the police force with black people being racially profiled and discriminated against the most (Eastwood et al., 2018).

In a bibliometric review conducted by Cao et al, (2021) on international student mental health. The study discovered that international college students are particularly prone to mental health issues such as stress, loneliness, hopelessness, and anxiety.

In another study by Choudaha and Chang (2012) it was seen that one in five international students are from China or India, and the number of Chinese students increased by 28% to nearly 200,000 between 2011 and 2012, making China outpace India to become the nation that sent the most international students to the United States. Chinese students were seen to also exhibit a variety of Asian cultural identities. With findings concluding on the most prominent factors affecting the psychological wellbeing of these international students as length of stay in host country, depression, acculturation, English proficiency, and attitude towards seeking help in most cases all factors combine to the deteriorating psychological wellbeing of a particular student. For instance, an international student going through acculturative stress due to poor English proficiency, showed signs of isolation and loneliness, and reported high scores of depression.

In another research carried out by Jian Zhao et al. (2022), on the perceived discrimination as a threat to the mental health of Chinese international students in Australia, the effect of COVID-19 pandemic on the mental health wellbeing of Chinese international students in Australia and compared the results to those of Chinese students studying on home soil. Chinese international students reported higher rates of depression, stress, mental health changes, and lower levels of wellbeing in response to the COVID-19 outbreak. The study also found that international Chinese students were experiencing fear and anxiety as a result of the spread of COVID-19 given that there was a significant rise in global discrimination against Chinese people during this period. Numerous cases of acts of violence and discrimination against Asian international students were documented in Australia and this reflected heavily on the mental health state of these international students (Jian Zhao, 2022). Racial abuse, attacks on people of Chinese or Asian heritage in Australia (ranging from verbal abuse to physical violence), and vandalism since the COVID-19 outbreak was declared were all major reasons why these Chinese international students reported high cases of depression and anxiety (Jian Zhao, 2022).

The study carried out by Borus et al. (1998) to determine gender differences in ethnic identity among adolescents, the findings showed that girls had higher ethnic identity scores than boys. The researcher found that adolescent girls have a higher level of ethnic identification than boys. Ethnic pride was seen to increase with grade level of the students but there were significant gender differences. The study shows that girls were more similar to the norms of their ethnic group than boys. The participants of this study were 325 adolescents from an ethnically balanced high school, and ethnic identity was determined from these five

components: ethnically related attitudes, reference group, ethnic self-label, values, and social expectations.

In an effort to show the relationship between perceived discrimination and international student mental health, Weeks and Sullivan (2019) in their study highlighted the links between racial/ethnic discrimination and conduct disorder, oppositional defiant disorder, anxiety, and depression among international students of various tertiary institution in the United States. The result of this study shows that being the target of racial prejudice is linked to both externalizing disorders like Oppositional defiant disorder (ODD) and Conduct Disorder (CD) and internalizing illnesses like sadness and anxiety. International students who reported to have been victims of discrimination showed higher levels of anxiety, depression, and conduct disorder.

In a study conducted by Yannick et al. (2015) to identify factors linked with the psychological well-being of older citizens. Regression analysis indicated that perceived age discrimination was associated with depression. Participants were 4776 adults who were aged 68 and older. These participants completed measures of demographic variables, discrimination and self-rated health and depression. This study also highlighted that age-based discrimination may have a greater impact on physical and mental health in those who are subjected to it.

Another research carried out by Mossakowski (2018) determines the gender differences in psychological effects of ethnic identity and discrimination, and used a populace of one thousand and thirty three students ($N = 1,033$). Findings showed that higher level of ethnic identification was associated with a lower level of depression and that a stronger sense of ethnic pride, participation in cultural practices, and knowledge about one's ethnic group was related to lower levels of psychological distress. Furthermore, the study also suggests that the psychological advantage of a strong ethnic identity was more significant for men than it was for women.

Also, Can et al. (2020), in their study sort to explore the influence of adjustment problems on the level of psychological well-being of international college students in the U.S looked at eleven particular psychological well-being predictors and investigated how well they predicted psychological well-being. A sample of 145 international college students between 8 to 41 were recruited to participate in the study. And their data were collected using the Michigan International Students Problem Inventory (MISPI), and the Scale of

Psychological Well-Being (SPWB). For this study, the regression analysis findings showed that adjustment problems significantly influenced psychological well-being. The findings showed a negative correlation between adjustment issues and psychological health. The students' psychological well-being declined as the severity of their adjustment issues rose. The findings also indicated that, out of the 11 adjustment problem domains, the top three areas cited by international students as creating adjustment problems were English language issues, financial aid-related issues, and admission selection issues.

Another study carried out in the U.S. to determine the relationship between racial discrimination, social isolation, and mental health among international Asian graduate students during the COVID-19 pandemic by Dong et al., showed that daily racial bias was linked to a higher incidence of depression. Findings from this study also showed that more depression symptoms were associated with higher levels of loneliness symptoms and greater anxiety symptoms were linked to higher loneliness.

In a survey carried out by Perchoc (2015) to assess violence and persecution levelled at Christians around the world, it was seen that Christians suffer discrimination and even serious human rights violations more than any other religious group globally. This study found significant religious differences in discrimination which was mostly targeted at Christians. Perchoc in this study highlights that figures show that Christianity is the most practiced religion in the world, and that its adherents are in the majority, yet Christians are in the minority in many regions of the world with 7.1% of the population in the Asia- Pacific region and 3.7% of people in the Middle East and North Africa. Christians are possible targets due to their minority position in these areas and as such report more experiences of religious discrimination (Perchoc, 2015).

In a study carried out by Paterson et al. (2004) to determine Gender differences in depression severity, the results show that score for women on the severity of depressive symptom scale (SDS) were only marginally but not significantly higher than the score for men thus saying that there was no significant gender difference in severity of depression.

In 2020, Dovchin carried out a study in Australia to determine the psychological damages of linguistic racism on international students. This study shows that the psychological well-being of those who were the targets of bullying, specifically bullying those from linguistically and racially diverse backgrounds, was greatly affected. The vast majority of the study's participants who were international students were seen to have

encountered linguistic racism which also presented significant psychological impairments. These characteristics of linguistic racism frequently trigger inferiority complexes that result in social isolation, low self-esteem, fear, and anxiety. The accumulation of these inferiority complexes triggered more severe depressive mental health symptoms, including suicidal thoughts (Dovchin, 2020).

In an effort to determine sex and gender differences in depressive symptoms, the study carried out by Breji et al. (2022) showed that women were associated with more depressive symptoms than men. Women were seen to have more depressive symptoms than their male/masculine counterparts. The populace of this study was 313 and depressive symptoms were measured using the Centre for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale (CES-D).

In a study carried out by Phinney et al. (1989) to determine ethnic identity development in minority group adolescents, the researcher assessed ethnic identity development through in-depth interviews with Black, Hispanic, Asian and White tenth-grade students, all American born. Ethnic identity and psychological adjustment were measured for each group. From the interviews and questionnaires handed out, findings showed that Asians scored the highest for ethnic identity. The process of identity development was similar across the groups and psychological adjustment scores for black students were higher (Phinney et al., 1989).

In another study carried out in 2014 by Wong et al. to determine the psychological impacts height discrimination had on Asian Americans, A survey of 1,231 Asian American adults found that 19% of them had experienced physical appearance abuse, including being outrightly told that they were too short. In addition, the study discovered that Asian American males had greater rates of anxiety and depression than white men, with 43% of Asian American males acknowledging higher levels of depression after being told that they were "too short" in online dating profiles (Wong et al., 2014). Asian males were shown to be the least favoured category in research of online daters' preferences, with 78.5% of women saying they would not date an Asian man. These results indicate that height discrimination against Asians is a serious and prevalent problem. Asians may experience height discrimination for a variety of reasons. One is the perception that Asians are weaker and physically smaller than other races. Also, this study highlights that Asian males are frequently portrayed in the media as weak or unmasculine, which feeds this stereotype. The historical emasculation of Asian men in the United States, which has resulted in a perception

of them as less acceptable spouses, is another potential factor. Moreover, a desire for social dominance may be behind heightism, or discrimination based on height, as taller people are frequently seen as more powerful and successful (Chou & Feagin, 2015). The study by Wong et al., shows that Asians' social and psychological wellbeing may be significantly impacted by height discrimination and that being the target of physical appearance discrimination is linked to lower self-esteem, higher levels of anxiety and depression, and also, reduced overall life satisfaction (Wong et al., 2014).

In a study carried out by Kumar et al. (2019) to determine racial and ethnic differences in depression. Major depressive disorder (MDD) was measured, and reports gathered in from different groups: African Americans (Blacks), Hispanics, Caucasians (Whites) and Asians showed that African Americans (Blacks) were the group more likely to suffer from prolonged, chronic, and severely debilitating depression and this had heavy consequences on their level of daily functioning (Kumar et al., 2019). This study showed a significant difference in depression according to race but also highlighted that ethnic minorities, predominantly black people are less likely to seek mental health care than their Caucasian (White) counterparts and thus this might be a factor that plays an important role in results of the study.

In another research carried out by Rodriguez et al. (2018) to determine racial differences in depression (MDD), it was found that Latinos and African Americans report higher levels of depression than Whites. This study also put forward that black people are more likely to experience intense, prolonged, and persistent depression more than their white counterpart and that there are factors that drive these disparities such as: unequal care, historical mistrust in health systems, shortage of mental health experts of colour. This research also highlighted that stress and trauma caused by racism increases the risk of depression and would affect the results of the study (Rodriguez, 2018).

CHAPTER III

Methodology

This chapter provides a comprehensive explanation of the methodology utilized in the current study. The research design, sample, and procedures for data collection and analysis are all covered in this chapter. Additionally, the various statistical methods used to analyse the collected data are discussed.

Research Design

In this study, correlational research will be used to investigate the psychological effects of discrimination on international students as well as its effects on their ethnic identity.

In order to gather factual data to minimize researcher bias, the research was carried out utilizing a quantitative methodology (Williams, 2021). The study employed a correlational research model to assess the relationship between discrimination and poor mental health qualities and ethnic identity. This study will employ a quantitative research methodology given that it will consist of a number of measuring instruments used to measure the primary variables and analyse the investigation's data.

Participant/Population and Sample

This study's populace will comprise of international understudies from various faculties in Near East University and Eastern Mediterranean University and a few other universities in North Cyprus because of the researcher's proximity to these schools. In order to conduct the study, a sample from this population was selected using a convenience sampling technique. Convenient sample design is a non-probability technique that includes choosing respondents based on their comfort, accessibility, and closeness to the researcher (Saunders et al., 2012). 385 students will make up the study's sample, which is a suitable number for a population of any size. This sample size was determined using the sample size calculator, which determines the right sample size to guarantee results and accurate data. As per Shete et al. (2020), the following formulas was used to determine the sample size of an unknown population: $Sample\ Size\ S = (Z\text{-score})^2 \times p \times (1-p) / (m)^2$ where S is the sample size for an infinite population, Z is the Z-score or confidence interval, p is the standard deviation and m is the margin of error.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for Demographic variables

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	197	51.2%
Female	188	48.8%
Race		
		5.5%

Asian	21	
Black	275	71.4%
White	89	23.1%
Educational level		
Undergraduate	264	68.6%
Masters	117	30.4%
PhD	4	1.0%
Educational institution		
EMU	144	37.4%
NEU	227	59.0%
Other	14	3.6%
Religion		
Christian	244	63.4%
Muslim	135	35.1%
Other	6	1.6%
Age		
Minimum	Maximum	Mean
16.00	37.00	22.92 ± 3.539

Table 1 above shows that the participants of the study was made up of 197 (51.2%) males and 188 (48.8%) females. The table also shows that 21 (5.5%) out of the total participant are Asian, 275 (71.4%) are black while 89 (23.1%) are white. Additionally, majority of the participants are undergraduate students. With 264 (68.6%) being undergraduate. Masters students are 117 (30.4%) while 4 (1.0%) are PhD students. The table also shows that 144 (37.4%) of the sample size are students of Eastern Mediterranean University (EMU), 227 (59.0%) of the sample size are students of Near East University (NEU) while just 14 (3.6%) of the study's populace are students from universities other than EMU and NEU. The data also shows that 244 students (63.4%) and 135 students (35.1%) of the sample size identify as Christians and Muslims respectively, while 6 (1.6%) of the sample size identify as belonging to a different religion than Islam and Christianity. The data above also shows that the minimum age of participants who took part in the study was 16 years, and the maximum age was 37 years. The mean age is 22 years, while the standard deviation for age is at 3.539.

Data Collection Tools/Measures

A well-structured questionnaire was used in the course of the study. The questionnaire included a socio-demographic form as well as four standardized scales namely: Everyday Discrimination Scale (EDS), Kessler Psychological Distress Scale (K10), Depression, anxiety and Stress Scale (DASS-21) and Ethnic Identity Scale-Brief (EIS-B).

Demographic Form

This questionnaire collected information about the fundamental sociodemographic characteristics of participants, such as their gender, age, race, place of origin, religion, level of education, and institution of higher learning. The researcher created this form to collect fundamental data that is pertinent to the investigation.

Everyday Discrimination Scale (EDS)

The Everyday Discriminations Scale (EDS) which was developed by Williams et al. (1997) is a 9-item, Likert-type questionnaire with scores ranging from 0 (almost every day) to 6 (never). Scores are reversed during scoring so higher scores reflect higher levels of perceived discrimination and vice versa. It is the most commonly used instruments for measuring discrimination in everyday life. Cronbach alpha was calculated to be 0.87 (Williams, 1997). Questions from this scale assess the frequency of discrimination on a daily basis.

Kessler Psychological Distress Scale (K10)

The Kessler Psychological Distress scale, which was developed by Kessler et al. (2003) provides a way to measure psychological distress. There are ten emotional state-related questions on the K10 scale, each with a five-level response scale. The measure can be used as a brief screen to identify levels of distress. Each response is graded on a scale of 1 ("none of the time") to 5 ("all of the time"). The ten items' scores are then added up to produce a final score that can range between 10 and 50. High scores imply high levels of psychological distress, whereas low scores suggest low levels of psychological distress. Cronbach alpha was calculated to be 0.88.

Depression, Anxiety and Stress Scale (DASS-21)

Lovibond and Lovibond (1995) created this self-report scale to measure the three disruptive emotional states: stress, anxiety, and depression. The 21 components of this scale are broken down into three subscales: stress, anxiety, and depression. Every subscale has

seven components. DASS-21 is scored on a 4- point Likert scale from 0 (Did not apply to me at all) to 3(Applied to me very much or most of the time). The respondent must state on the DASS-21 if they have had the specified symptom during the past week. The Cronbach's alpha values for the subscales are depression (0.87), anxiety (0.84), and 0.85 for stress (Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995).

Ethnic Identity Scale-Brief (EIS-B)

The Ethnic Identity Scale (EIS) which assesses the distinct components of ethnic-racial identity was developed by Taylor et al. in 2004 and has two version, an "original" scale, and a "brief" version. The "original" is a 17-item Scale while the Brief (EIS-B) version has 9-items and was developed through further studies carried out by Douglass and Taylor in 2015. This study utilizes the brief version of the scale (EIS-B). The EIS-B has nine items with three subscales that look at three different aspects of how ethnic identity is formed: affirmation, exploration, and resolution. Existing findings provide support for the validity and reliability of the EIS-B as a brief measure of the multidimensional construct of ethnic-racial identity and indicates that the EIS-B assesses ethnic-racial identity in a comparable manner to the original version of the scale (Douglass & Umaña-Taylor, 2015). Items are scores on a 4-point Likert scale, with endpoints of 1 (Does not describe me at all) to 4 (Describes me very well). The Cronbach's alpha value of the EIS-B is 0.89 (Douglass & Umaña-Taylor, 2015).

Data Collection Procedures

In order to commence the study, ethical approval was received from the Near East University Social Science Ethical Committee (application number NEU/SS/2023/1577). A pen-and-paper version of the structured questionnaire was then administered to the participants. With the lecturers' approval, data were gathered during regular class hours. In order to collect data, the researcher also went to the campus cafeteria in EMU and NEU and other places that students frequent for leisure activities. Participants consented to participate in this study after receiving an informed consent form attached to the questionnaire. The questionnaire took about 10 minutes to complete. In addition, participants were informed on the objectives of the study and assured that their comments would remain confidential. Participants were not compensated for their participation, as participation was entirely voluntary.

Data Analysis Procedure

The data were examined using IBM version 22 of the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS). To determine if the data was regularly distributed or not, a normality test was carried out as this would help the researcher ascertain if a parametric or non-parametric test would be used.

Table 2

Variable	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	Std Dev	Skewness		Kurtosis	
						Stats	Std Error	Stats	Std Error
Everyday discrimination	385	9.00	54.00	27.2623	11.0222	0.095	0.124	-0.801	0.248
Psychological Distress	385	12.00	50.00	28.1247	9.30922	0.356	0.124	-0.676	0.248
Depression	385	0.00	42.00	16.2390	10.5289	0.245	0.124	-0.675	0.248
Anxiety	385	0.00	40.00	15.6883	9.56374	0.552	0.124	-0.330	0.248
Stress	385	0.00	42.00	17.2260	9.48207	0.091	0.124	-0.610	0.248
Affirmation	385	3.00	12.00	10.3403	2.08568	-1.371	0.124	1.569	0.248
Exploration	385	3.00	12.00	7.0701	2.23555	0.116	0.124	-0.473	0.248
Resolution	385	3.00	12.00	8.2727	2.59023	-0.100	0.124	-0.836	0.248
Total EIS-B	385	15.00	36.00	25.6831	4.78260	0.202	0.124	-0.639	0.248

Normality table
Kurtosis and skewness scores should fall within the range of -2 and +2 in accordance with George and Maller's (2010) definition of normality. The values of skewness and kurtosis shown in table 3 above support this assertion by showing that the data for the variables is not normally distributed. As a result, non-parametric tests were employed to analyze the research questions of the study. Spearman Brown correlation was used to establish the relationship that exists between discrimination, psychological distress, emotional states such as depression, anxiety, stress, and ethnic identity. Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal Wallis H test was used to determine how discrimination is influenced by demographic factors such as gender, race and religion.

Research Plan and Process

<p>The initial step in the methodology of this study was to acquire authorization from the creators who created or adjusted the everyday discrimination scale (EDS), Kessler’s psychological distress scale (K10), the depression, anxiety and stress scale (DASS-21) and the ethnic identity scale (EIS-B) all of which were used in the course of this study.</p>	<p>March, 2023</p>
<p>After that, an Ethical Approval Form was completed and sent to the Near East University Ethical Committee via email.</p>	<p>March, 2023 – June, 2023</p>
<p>Using a convenience sample strategy, a paper and pen version of the questionnaire was given to students at Near East University and Eastern Mediterranean University.</p>	<p>April, 2023</p>
<p>Review of related studies as well as a review of relevant literature.</p>	<p>May, 2023</p>
<p>The statistics that were created using the information gathered from the research participants were then analysed to help guide the study's conclusions. The findings were examined in the context of the body of literature, and applicable recommendations and advice were provided.</p>	<p>June, 2023 – July, 2023</p>

CHAPTER IV

Findings and Discussions

The aim of this study is to look at the impacts of discrimination on the ethnic identity, psychological distress, and emotional states of international students in North Cyprus. The analysis of the information gathered from the participants involved in this study will be presented in this chapter, along with the key conclusions. The results will be presented in tables and table summaries.

The first table will address the relationship between discrimination, psychological distress, emotional states such as depression, anxiety and stress, ethnic identity, and age.

Table 3

Relationship between everyday discrimination, psychological distress, the emotional states of depression, anxiety and stress, ethnic identity subscales and age

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	Discrimination	0.356**	0.391**	0.150**	0.140**	-0.262**	0.068	-0.132**	-0.132**	-0.132**	0.122*
	n	0.000	0.000	0.003	0.006	0.000	0.183	0.010	0.009	0.017	
2	Psychological distress		0.612**	0.566**	0.521**	-0.116*	0.058	-0.084	-0.060	-0.009	-0.009
			0.000	0.000	0.000	0.022	0.253	0.101	0.237	0.860	
3	Depression			0.760**	0.798**	-0.308**	0.124*	-0.058	-0.070	0.147**	
				0.000	0.000	0.000	0.015	0.252	0.171	0.004	
4	Anxiety				0.767**	-0.222**	0.130*	0.050	0.011	0.136**	
					0.000	0.000	0.010	0.330	0.825	0.007	
5	Stress					-0.155**	0.093	0.069	0.065	0.177**	
						0.002	0.068	0.176	0.204	0.000	
6	Affirmation						-0.038	0.239**	0.514**	-0.043	
							0.451	0.000	0.000	0.404	
7	Exploration							0.481**	0.659**	0.045	
								0.000	0.000	0.373	
8	Resolution								0.849**	0.002	
									0.000	0.968	
9	Total_EIS-B									0.036	
										0.478	
10	Age										

$p \leq 0.05$ * $p \leq 0.001$ **

The spearman test results, as shown in table 3 above, demonstrates that discrimination is positively correlated to psychological distress ($p=0.000$). The table also shows that discrimination is positively correlated to emotional states subscales (depression, anxiety and stress) ($p=0.000$, $p=0.003$, $p=0.006$). Discrimination is negatively correlated with ethnic

identity subscales affirmation and resolution ($p=0.000$, $p=0.010$) respectively but has no correlation with the exploration subscale. The table shows that the cumulative score of ethnic identity and discrimination scores have a negative relationship ($p=0.009$). The table also shows that discrimination has a positive correlation with age of participant ($p<0.05$).

The table shows that emotional state subscales (depression, anxiety & stress) are negatively correlated to ethnic identity subscale (affirmation) ($p=0.000$, $p=0.000$, $p=0.002$). Emotional state subscales (depression & anxiety) are positively correlated to ethnic identity subscale (exploration) ($p=0.015$). Stress has no correlation with the exploration subscale of ethnic identity.

The table shows a negative correlation between psychological distress and ethnic identity subscale (affirmation) ($p<0.05$) but no correlation between psychological distress and ethnic identity subscales (exploration & resolution). The table shows that there is a strong positive correlation between psychological distress and the subscales of emotional states (depression, anxiety and stress) ($p=0.000$). the table

The table reveals no correlation between ethnic identity subscales Affirmation, Exploration and Resolution with age. The table also reveals that there is a strong positive correlation between emotional states depression, anxiety and stress and age of participants ($p<0.004$, $p=0.007$, $p=0.000$) respectively. The analysis also reveals that there is a strong positive correlation between depression, anxiety and stress subscales ($p=0.000$).

Table 4

Mediation model with linear regression analysis for mediating role of ethnic identity between independent variable (discrimination) and dependent variables (psychological distress, depression, anxiety and stress)

	Variable	Beta	SE	95% CI		B	P
				LL	UL		
a.	Ethnic identity EIS	0.029	0.093	-0.153	0.211	0.015	0.755
	Discrimination EDS	0.322	0.040	0.243	0.401	0.381	0.000**
b.	Ethnic identity EIS	0.043	0.105	-0.249	0.164	0.019	0.685
	Discrimination EDS	0.355	0.046	0.265	0.444	0.371	0.000**
c.	Ethnic identity EIS	0.146	0.101	-0.053	0.346	0.073	0.150
	Discrimination EDS	0.143	0.044	0.057	0.230	0.165	0.001**
d.	Ethnic identity EIS	0.130	0.101	-0.068	0.327	0.065	0.198
	Discrimination EDS	0.140	0.044	0.054	0.226	0.163	0.001**

$p \leq 0.05^*$ $p \leq 0.001^{**}$; Note. Dependent Variables: a (Psychological Distress), b (depression), c (anxiety), d (stress).

The regression analysis results shown in table 9 above reveals that there is still a significant relationship between the independent variable (discrimination) and the dependent variables (psychological distress, depression, anxiety and stress) when you control the impact of the mediating variable (ethnic identity) as $p \leq 0.000$. Ethnic identity does not significantly mediate the relationship between discrimination and psychological distress. The table shows that ethnic identity does not significantly mediate the relationship between discrimination and depression, discrimination and anxiety, as well as discrimination and stress. The table also reveals reduction in psychological distress, depression, anxiety and stress scores with ethnic identity as a mediator, but the reduction was not significant.

Further regression analysis done shows that discrimination accounts for 37.8% of variance in psychological distress scores, 37.3% of variance in depression scores, 15.7% of variance in anxiety scores, and 15.6% of variance in stress scores. However, when the impact of the mediating variable (ethnic identity) is controlled, discrimination accounts for 32% of variance in psychological distress, 35.5% of variance in depression scores, 14.3% of variance in anxiety scores and 14% of variance in stress scores.

Table 5

Comparison of Racial differences in discrimination, psychological wellbeing and ethnic identity

Variables	Race	N	Mean rank	X ²	df	P
Discrimination	Asian	21	153.69	26.296	2	0.000**
	Black	275	211.35			
	White	89	145.58			
Psychological Distress	Asian	21	186.95	0.136	2	0.934
	Black	275	194.23			
	White	89	190.63			
Depression Subscale	Asian	21	145.43	7.269	2	0.026*
	Black	275	201.66			
	White	89	177.46			
Anxiety Subscale	Asian	21	197.19	2.176	2	0.337
	Black	275	197.61			
	White	89	177.78			
Stress Subscale	Asian	21	233.98	4.928	2	0.085
	Black	275	195.20			
	White	89	176.52			
Affirmation Subscale	Asian	21	187.52	2.337	2	0.311
	Black	275	198.06			
	White	89	178.65			
Exploration Subscale	Asian	21	211.40	12.051	2	0.002**
	Black	275	203.04			
	White	89	157.62			
Resolution Subscale	Asian	21	250.36	17.514	2	0.000**
	Black	275	200.85			
	White	89	155.22			
EIS-B Total	Asian	21	234.07	23.087	2	0.000**
	Black	275	205.44			
	White	89	144.88			

p ≤ 0.05* p ≤ 0.001**

The Kruskal Wallis test results shown in table 5 above reveals that there are significant racial differences in discrimination experienced (p=0.000) with black students experiencing more discrimination followed by Asians and then lastly white students. A pairwise comparison was

done and revealed that these differences are significant between black and white students ($p=0.000$) as well as between black and Asian students ($p=0.022$). The table also shows that there is no significant difference in psychological distress according to race and no significant difference in anxiety and stress according to race. However, there is a significant difference in depression according to race ($p=0.026$). The pairwise analysis shows that the significant difference is between Black and Asian students ($p=0.025$). The table shows a significant difference in ethnic identity subscales Exploration and Resolution according to race ($p=0.002$, $p=0.000$) respectively, but no significant difference in ethnic identity subscale Affirmation according to race. Pairwise analysis revealed that the differences in ethnic identity were significant between white and black students ($p=0.000$) as well as between white and Asian students ($p=0.003$).

Table 6

Comparison of Gender differences in discrimination, psychological well-being and ethnic identity

Variables	Gender	N	Mean rank	Sum of ranks	U	P
Discrimination	Male	197	191.62	37749.50	18246.500	0.803
	Female	188	194.44	36555.50		
Psychological Distress	Male	197	193.43	38106.00	18433.000	0.938
	Female	188	192.55	36199.00		
Depression Subscale	Male	197	192.97	38014.50	18511.500	0.995
	Female	188	193.03	36290.50		
Anxiety Subscale	Male	197	192.16	37855.50	18352.500	0.879
	Female	188	193.88	36449.50		
Stress Subscale	Male	197	192.68	37957.00	18454.000	0.953
	Female	188	193.34	36348.00		
Affirmation Subscale	Male	197	192.16	37856.00	18353.000	0.873
	Female	188	193.88	36449.00		
Exploration Subscale	Male	197	193.73	38165.00	18374.000	0.894
	Female	188	192.23	36140.00		
Resolution Subscale	Male	197	195.02	38418.50	18120.500	0.713
	Female	188	190.89	35886.50		
EIS-B Total	Male	197	194.27	38271.00	18268.000	0.818
	Female	188	191.67	36034.00		

$p \leq 0.05$ * $p \leq 0.001$ **

Results of the Mann Whitney U test in table 4 above shows that there are no significant differences in discrimination experiences according to gender. Table 4 also shows no significant difference in psychological distress and emotional states such as depression,

anxiety, and stress according to gender. There is also no significant difference in ethnic identity subscales (affirmation, exploration & resolution) according to gender.

Table 7

Comparison of religious differences in discrimination, psychological well-being and ethnic identity

Variables	Religion	N	Mean rank	X ²	df	P
Discrimination	Christian	244	209.97	7.323	2	0.026*
	Muslim	135	182.10			
	other	6	179.50			
Psychological Distress	Christian	244	184.95	3.495	2	0.174
	Muslim	135	206.94			
	Other	6	206.94			
Depression Subscale	Christian	244	186.43	3.708	2	0.157
	Muslim	135	206.68			
	Other	6	152.33			
Anxiety Subscale	Christian	244	191.04	8.439	2	0.015*
	Muslim	135	202.05			
	Other	6	69.17			
Stress Subscale	Christian	244	190.53	0.483	2	0.785
	Muslim	135	198.04			
	Other	6	179.83			
Affirmation Subscale	Christian	244	199.97	3.219	2	0.200
	Muslim	135	179.90			
	Other	6	204.50			
Exploration Subscale	Christian	244	186.76	2.318	2	0.314
	Muslim	135	204.63			
	Other	6	185.17			
Resolution Subscale	Christian	244	184.59	4.703	2	0.095
	Muslim	135	209.34			
	Other	6	167.50			
EIS-B Total	Christian	244	186.63	3.583	2	0.167
	Muslim	135	206.34			
	Other	6	151.83			

$p \leq 0.05^*$ $p \leq 0.001^{**}$

The Kruskal Wallis test results shown in table 6 above reveals that there are significant religious differences in discrimination experiences ($p=0.026$). The pairwise analysis shows that the difference is between Muslims and Christians ($p=0.019$). The table also shows that

there is no significant difference in psychological distress according to religion. The table also shows no significant difference in emotional states depression and stress according to religion. However, there is a significant difference in anxiety according to religion ($p=0.015$) and the pairwise scores show that the difference is between other religion and Christians ($p=0.024$) as well as other religion and Muslims ($p=0.012$).

The table also shows that there is no significant religious difference in ethnic identity subscales Affirmation, Exploration and Resolution. The table also shows no significant religious differences in the cumulative score of ethnic identity.

Table 8

Comparison of educational institution's differences in discrimination, psychological well-being and ethnic identity

Variables	University	N	Mean rank	X ²	df	P
Discrimination	EMU	144	213.49	15.767	2	0.000**
	NEU	227	175.74			
	other	14	262.11			
Psychological Distress	EMU	144	208.34	5.423	2	0.066
	NEU	227	185.65			
	other	14	154.36			
Depression Subscale	EMU	144	201.60	3.858	2	0.145
	NEU	227	185.07			
	other	14	233.21			
Anxiety Subscale	EMU	144	201.40	3.082	2	0.214
	NEU	227	185.62			
	other	14	226.25			
Stress Subscale	EMU	144	196.48	0.730	2	0.694
	NEU	227	189.66			
	other	14	211.36			
Affirmation Subscale	EMU	144	189.50	12.035	2	0.002**
	NEU	227	200.88			
	other	14	101.18			
Exploration Subscale	EMU	144	182.08	5.704	2	0.058
	NEU	227	196.26			
	other	14	252.54			
Resolution Subscale	EMU	144	192.90	1.536	2	0.464
	NEU	227	195.25			
	other	14	157.61			
EIS-B Total	EMU	144	190.00	1.657	2	0.437
	NEU	227	196.96			
	other	14	159.68			

$p \leq 0.05$ * $p \leq 0.001$ **

The Kruskal Wallis test results shown in table 7 above reveals that there is significant difference in discrimination experienced according to the educational institution being attended ($p=0.000$). The pairwise analysis shows that the difference is between EMU and NEU ($p=0.004$) as well as other universities and NEU ($p=0.014$). The table shows that there is significant difference in ethnic identity subscale Affirmation according to the educational institution being attended. The pairwise analysis show that the significant difference is between other schools and EMU ($p=0.003$) as well as other schools and NEU ($p=0.001$).

The table also shows that there is no significant difference in psychological distress, emotional states (depression, anxiety, and stress) and ethnic identity according to the university being attended.

Table 9

Comparison of educational level differences in discrimination, psychological wellbeing, and ethnic identity

Variables	Level	N	Mean rank	X ²	df	P
Discrimination	Undergraduate	264	181.73	10.084	2	0.006
	masters	117	219.85			
	PhD	4	151.75			
Psychological Distress	Undergraduate	264	193.58	0.081	2	0.960
	masters	117	192.19			
	PhD	4	178.50			
Depression Subscale	Undergraduate	264	183.19	8.695	2	0.013*
	masters	117	217.13			
	PhD	4	134.50			
Anxiety Subscale	Undergraduate	264	177.86	15.730	2	0.000**
	masters	117	226.64			
	PhD	4	208.25			
Stress Subscale	Undergraduate	264	176.40	21.774	2	0.000**
	masters	117	232.45			
	PhD	4	134.75			
Affirmation Subscale	Undergraduate	264	193.79	12.131	2	0.002
	Masters	117	197.44			
	PhD	4	11.00			
Exploration Subscale	Undergraduate	264	187.92	2.542	2	0.281
	Masters	117	202.46			
	PhD	4	251.25			
Resolution Subscale	Undergraduate	264	188.44	6.873	2	0.032
	Masters	117	207.27			
	PhD	4	76.50			
EIS-B Total	Undergraduate	264	186.72	13.941	2	0.001**
	masters	117	212.95			
	PhD	4	23.75			

p ≤ 0.05* p ≤ 0.001**

The Kruskal Wallis test results shown in table 8 above reveals that there is significant difference in depression, anxiety, stress, and ethnic identity according to educational level

($p=0.013$, $p=0.000$, $p=0.000$, $p=0.001$) respectively. The pairwise analysis shows that for depression, the difference is between undergraduate and masters students ($p=0.018$). For anxiety, the difference is between undergraduate and masters students ($p= 0.000$). For stress, the difference is between undergraduate and masters students ($p=0.000$) and for ethnic identity, the difference is between PhD and undergraduate students ($p=0.011$) as well as PhD and masters students ($p=0.002$). The table also shows that there is no significant difference in discrimination and psychological distress experienced according to educational level.

CHAPTER V

Discussion

This chapter addresses the findings in light of relevant literature as well as the contextual factors that influenced this study. The aim of this study is to investigate the impacts of discrimination on the ethnic identity, and emotional states of international students in North Cyprus.

The findings of the study reveal that discrimination is positively correlated to psychological distress and emotional states such as depression, anxiety and stress. These results are consistent on the subscales of emotional states (depression, anxiety, and stress). The result is similar to the findings that discrimination against international students was associated with greater levels of anxiety and depression (Cheng, 2019) as well as greater levels of stress and depression (Reskin, 2012). The results are also in accordance with the findings of Lee (2019) that perceived discrimination has a strong positive correlation with anxiety, stress and depression. This is because discrimination would result in social exclusion or isolation, which would make it harder to develop meaningful friendships or connections. These feelings of loneliness, despair, and anxiety can be exacerbated by isolation. Discrimination may primarily harm a person's mental health and the occurrence of discrimination is strongly correlated with the emergence of a number of mental health conditions (Pascoe, 2009). Similar findings were made by Kwong (2019), who discovered that international students who experienced discrimination experienced greater levels of stress and anxiety. This may be a result of feeling excluded which would be caused by discrimination experiences. Absence of their support systems would make this sense of exclusion worsen and would contribute to heightened anxiety and depressive feelings (Kwong, 2019). The results also agree with the findings of Anderson (2013) that discrimination strongly predicted increased levels of stress depression and anxiety. This implies that international students who experience discrimination are more likely to have greater levels of psychological distress, depression, anxiety and stress as these could be the impact of such discrimination. This is because international student's sense of belonging and identity can be challenged by discrimination (Anderson, 2013). Anderson (2013) added that discrimination has the potential to cause a crisis of identity and also cultivate an ongoing sense of self-doubt among international students.

The results of the study also reveal that discrimination is negatively correlated to ethnic identity as participants who showed high scores of discrimination also reported low scores of ethnic identity. These results agree with the findings of Ha (2019) that

discrimination had detrimental impacts on ethnic identity. This is because based on ethnicity, people or groups may be marginalized or excluded due to discrimination. Those who are marginalized would have a weaker sense of ethnic identification because pressures to adapt into the majority culture exerted on marginalized people, might help erode their sense of ethnic identity (Ha, 2019). People may suffer from social, economic, and political disadvantages when they are the targets of discrimination. Similar results were also gotten from the study done by Kyere (2022) that ethnic identification was negatively correlated to discrimination. The study by Kyere (2022) revealed that ethnic identification tends to reduce adverse impacts related to discrimination. This is because the more confident, steadfast, and unambiguous a person is about their sense of identity, the better able they will be to cope with discrimination. The findings of this study also concur to that of the study carried out by Branscombe et al. (1999) that ethnic identity was negatively correlated with discrimination. The study by Branscombe et al. showed that the ethnic identity and psychological well-being were negatively impacted by experiences of discrimination. As a result, high ethnic identity levels were associated with psychological empowerment and resilience at a higher level.

The result of this study also reveals that there is a negative correlation between psychological distress and ethnic identity. This result agrees with the findings of Yip (2005) that high ethnic identity scores were paired with low levels of psychological distress, anxiety and depressive symptoms. This is because an individual that has a strong sense of belonging to either a community or cultural group is more likely to have social support from such group (Yip, 2005). There was a negative correlation between ethnic identity and depression as there were higher levels of positive mood when there was a strong sense of ethnic identity.

The study shows that ethnic identity does not mediate the impact of discrimination on psychological wellbeing (psychological distress, depression, anxiety, stress). The study also shows a difference in discrimination when you control the impact of the mediating variable (ethnic identity), but this difference is not significant. As such, the findings of this study show that ethnic identity has an effect on the impact of discrimination on the mental health of international students, but that effect is not significant. The result from this study does not agree with findings from Mossakowski (2003) that a strong feeling of ethnic identity hugely impacted the level of depressive symptoms. Consequently, it appears that involvement in ethnic customs, pride in one's racial or ethnic community, and social commitment to one's community could safeguard mental wellbeing and significantly reduce the psychological impact of discrimination (Mossakowski, 2003). Findings from this study might be contrary to

that of Mossakowski as a result of difference in exposure and westernization. Westernization can have various impacts on ethnic identity and self-identity. schooling in a more westernized region might bring about an erosion of ethnic identity which then might not be significant enough to mediate the impact of discrimination.

Furthermore, the study finds significant racial differences in discrimination experiences with black students experiencing more discrimination than other races. This finding agrees with that of the survey done by Maghazi (2020) which show a variety of racial discrimination practices towards international students in the TRNC with about 75% of international students indicating that they had experienced racial discrimination. In the research by Maghazi (2020), black international students were the group that had the highest reports of discrimination which is a similar finding gotten from this research. Findings from this study also agree with that of Wood (2017) that African Americans (Blacks) were the group discriminated against the most. This can be due to the history of racial segregation, and prejudice against black people. There are still racial inequities in society as a result of these historical problems (Wood, 2017). Findings from this study also concur with that of Eastwood et al. (2017) that found significant racial disparities in stop and search exercises conducted by the police force in the United States with black people being racially profiled and discriminated against the most. In the study by Eastwood et al. (2017), the history of the United States with slavery and systemic racism was highlighted as the reason for such findings as these historical injustices have had long-lasting effects, leading to racial disparities in various aspects of society, including law enforcement.

Findings from this study also show a significant difference in psychological distress and depression according to race as black international students recorded higher scores of depression and psychological distress. This result agrees with that of Kumar et al. (2019) with showed that black people were the group more likely to suffer from prolonged, chronic, and severely debilitating depression. However, Kumar et al. (2019) also noted that ethnic minorities, particularly black people, were less likely to seek mental health care than their Caucasian (White) counterparts, and this might be a factor that plays a significant role in the study's findings. The result from this study also agrees with that of Rodriguez et al. (2018) that African Americans reported higher levels of depression than Whites. In the study by Rodriguez et al., there were significant racial disparities in Major Depressive Disorder (MDD) as black people had higher levels of depression than there was for any other race. It is also relevant to state that stress and trauma caused by racial discrimination increases the risk of

depression and from the findings of this study, black international students were the group most discriminated against and as such black students also reported the highest scores for depression (Rodriguez et al., 2019).

More findings from this study also show a significant difference in ethnic identity according to race with Asian students having the highest scores for ethnic identity. This result agrees with that of Phinney et al. (2001) who assessed ethnic identity among Black, Hispanic, Asian, and White students and found significant racial differences in ethnic identity with Asian students reportedly having more ethnic identity than any other race. This is largely due to familial values, cultural background, and community support. Asian cultures place a high significance on upholding cultural traditions, passing beliefs, and upholding a feeling of community (Phinney et al., 1989).

More findings from this study reveal that there are no significant differences in discrimination experiences according to gender. This is contrary to Kefayati (2016) findings that discrimination has a greater psychological impact on women and that women are more likely to experience it. Findings from this study are also contrary to that of Wood et al. (2017) that found significant differences in discrimination based on gender, with discrimination against women significantly higher than discrimination against men. Wood et al. (2017) highlighted that gender stereotypes and bias which are sometimes imbedded historically and culturally can reinforce discrimination against women. These stereotypes frequently present women as weaker, more sensitive, and less competent in specific fields. Findings from this study might be contrary to those of other studies (Kefayati, 2016; Wood et al., 2017) because of cultural differences and perceptions towards women. Cultures that promote equality would probably not record these gender disparities.

The results from this study also reveal that there is no significant difference in emotional states such as depression, anxiety, and stress according to gender. This result is also similar to the findings of Paterson et al. (2014) that there was no significant gender difference in depression experiences. In Paterson's study, the scores for women were marginally higher than the scores for men but not significant. On the contrary, the findings of Breji et al. (2022) in the study to determine sex and gender differences in depressive symptoms showed that being female was associated with more depressive symptoms than being male. Women were seen to have more depressive symptoms than their male or masculine counterparts. But in accordance with the findings of Paterson et al. (2014), results also show the depression scores for women were marginally higher than that of men but not

significant. This is because there may be differences in how depression symptoms are recognized, diagnosed, and reported between men and women as men may be more prone to underreport or mask their symptoms (Paterson et al., 2014).

Findings from this study also reveal that there is also no significant difference in ethnic identity according to gender which is contrary to the findings of Mossakowski (2018) that suggests that strong ethnic identity was more significant for men than it was for women. Mossakowski (2018) found that men have higher level of ethnic identification than women. Findings from this study are also contrary to those of Borus et al. (1998) that showed that strong ethnic identity was more significant for girls than it was for boys. Borus et al found that there were significant gender differences in ethnic identity as girls had higher level of ethnic identification than boys. Results may differ as a result of Westernization. As western cultural practices, beliefs, and conventions are gradually absorbed, notably through colonialism or globalization, traditional ethnic identities disintegrate for both genders. Sometimes one gender more than the other.

The findings from this study reveal that discrimination is positively correlated with age. This result agrees with the findings of Dwyer (2017) that older students experience more discrimination. Older students are frequently portrayed as less adaptable, motivated, and competent than younger students. The results are also similar to the findings of Chou et al. (2011) that older people experience more discrimination. This may be because of the widespread negative stereotypes society holds about old people.. These preconceptions may result in discriminatory or unfair treatment towards older students (Dwyer, 2017).

The results from this study also revealed that there are significant religious differences in discrimination experienced with Christian international students experiencing more discrimination than any other religious group. This result agrees with that of Perchoc (2015) that found significant religious differences in discrimination which was mostly targeted at Christians. Christians are possible targets due to their minority position in areas like the Middle East, Asia, and North Africa and as such would report more experiences of religious discrimination in these regions. The findings from this study show that there is no significant difference in depression and stress according to religion but a significant difference in anxiety according to religion.

The result from this study shows that there is significant difference in depression, anxiety, and stress according to educational level. This is also similar to the findings of Evan

et al. (2018) that graduate students are six times more likely to experience depression and anxiety than counterparts. Master's students may experience higher levels of stress and anxiety due to the need to balance multiple responsibilities, such as the financial burden of getting a masters degree, school research, internships, as well as the pressure to excel academically. Balancing work-life with education was seen as one of the main reasons why masters students have higher levels of depression and anxiety (Evan et al., 2018).

The findings from this study also show that there is significant difference in discrimination experienced according to the educational institution being attended with EMU taking the lead over NEU. Discrimination scores for EMU were higher than that of NEU. According to Greyson (2014) Discrimination tends to be lower in schools with a more diverse student body and a strong emphasis on cultural awareness and inclusion. Discrimination will be lower in schools that offer sufficient help for incorporation of international students into the academic and social fabric of the institution.

CHAPTER VI

Conclusions and Recommendations

This study investigated the relationship between discrimination, psychological distress, emotional states of depression, anxiety and stress, and ethnic identity among university students in North Cyprus. The results of this study show a positive relationship between discrimination and psychological distress. International students who are discriminated against showed higher levels of stress and depression because they felt left out, as discrimination can bring about social isolation. The study reveals that ethnic identity is negatively correlated with discrimination and psychological distress. The study also shows that ethnic identity does not mediate the impact of discrimination on psychological wellbeing (psychological distress, depression, anxiety, stress). The study also shows a difference in discrimination when you control the impact of the mediating variable (ethnic identity), but this difference is not significant.

Additionally, this study indicates that black international students are the group discriminated against the most with Asians following next and lastly white international students. This study also showed significant disparities in discrimination based on religion with international students who identified as Christians being discriminated against the most. This might be hugely due to the fact that the TRNC is predominantly a Muslim nation. The findings also imply that Black foreign students had greater rates of depression and psychological discomfort than Asian and white international students. According to the findings of this study Asian international students have a stronger feeling of ethnic identification than their counterparts.

The results indicate that international students of the Eastern Mediterranean University reportedly experienced more discrimination than those of Near East University. The study also shows that masters students reported more cases of depression, anxiety and stress than undergraduate and PhD students.

Recommendations for future research

- The convenience sampling method that was used for the data collection of this study has the drawback of not accurately representing the population being studied and limiting the ability to generalize the results. As a result, it is suggested that additional research be carried out to include more universities in North Cyprus in order to

acquire a deeper comprehension of the research questions and ascertain whether or not the outcomes are consistent.

- A self-report questionnaire was used to measure discrimination, psychological distress, emotional states of depression, anxiety, stress, and ethnic identity which are susceptible to response bias. Future research should consider utilizing objective measures of discrimination and ethnic identity. Clinical assessment, which is helpful in making accurate diagnoses of mental health issues, may also be taken into consideration by researchers.

Recommendation for Practice

- It is recommended that academic institutions encourage the knowledge of, and empathy for, the difficulties experienced by international students as a result of discrimination. This may be accomplished through educational initiatives, training sessions, and gatherings that promote inclusion, cultural sensitivity, and empathy.
- Educational institutions can enhance or broaden the range of support services offered to international students in order to help them adjust to their new environment and maintain good mental health. Such support services could include orientation programs, counselling and mental health services, international student clubs and organizations among others.
- Based on the findings from this study which reveals that discrimination increases mental health issues such as depression anxiety and stress, it is recommended that University administrations create and improve systems for reporting instances of discrimination or harassment. Encourage kids to come forward with such instances and make sure the proper steps are done to resolve them. Academic institutions can also create a supportive network and platform for international students to support one another and raise awareness of discrimination-related issues by working together.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Participants Informed Consent Form

Dear Participant,

You are asked to take part in a study being conducted to better understand the impact of discrimination on the psychological wellbeing and ethnic identity of international students. The information gathered using this scale will be utilized to analyse the psychological effects of discrimination on international students here in North Cyprus. No more than 15 minutes should be needed to complete the quiz. The research is completely voluntary, and if you choose not to participate, it won't affect your term grades. No personally identifying information will be obtained or utilized in the report; the data collected will only be used for academic purposes. By getting in touch with the researcher, you can withdraw your consent at any moment. Your information will thereafter be deleted from the research database. Please get in touch with us using the details shown below if you have any questions or concerns about the study.

Samuel Obinna Okolie

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Dr Gloria Manyeruke

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By signing below, you agree to take part in the study.

Signature.....

Date.....

Appendix B

Participant information sheet

Dear Participant,

This scale is a component of a study we are undertaking in order to examine the impact of discrimination on the psychological wellbeing and ethnic identity of international students in North Cyprus. The researcher will concentrate on psychological problems such as depression, anxiety, and psychological distress. Using the data acquired from this scale, it will be possible to examine how discrimination affects international students psychologically. By completing the following scale, you give your agreement to taking part in this study.

Your participation in this research is voluntary. Your exam grades won't change if you agree to participate in the research or not. No outside parties will be made aware of the participants' identities. The questionnaire does not include any inquiries about personal data like names or student Numbers. The data will be saved in password-protected files that will be deleted a year after the study is finished, and it will only be used for academic purposes. Anytime you decide to stop participating in the study, your information will be deleted from the research files. If our study harms you or upsets you, please let the researchers know so they can provide you with emotional help. If you have any additional questions, kindly get in touch with us using the details provided below.

Samuel Obinna Okolie

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Appendix C

Demographic Questions

1. What is your gender?

a) Male b) Female

2. What is your age? (Please specify)

3. Country of origin. (Please specify)

4. What is your race?

a) Asian (Pakistan, Philippines, India, Malaysia, Vietnam) b) Black c) white (Europe, middle east, North Africa)

5. What is your educational level?

a) Undergraduate b) master's c) PhD

5. Educational Institution?

a) EMU b) NEU

6. What is your religion?

a) Christian b) Muslim c) Other

Appendix D

Everyday Discrimination Scale (EDS)

Instruction: Below is a collection of statements about your everyday experience with discrimination. Using the 0-6 scale below, please indicate how often you currently have each experience. Please answer according to what best reflects your everyday experience. The accompanying 6point scale is: 0 (almost every day), 1 (At least once a week), 3 (A few times a month), 4 (A few times a year), 5 (Less than once a year) and 6 (never).

NO	QUESTION	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	You are treated with less courtesy than other people are							
2	You are treated with less respect than other people are							
3	You receive poorer service than other people at restaurants or stores							
4	People act as if they think you are not smart							

Appendix E

Kessler Psychological Distress Scale (K10)

Instruction: These questions concern how you have been feeling over the past 30 days. Tick the box that best represents how you have been. Each item is scored from 1 'none of the time' to 5

'all of the time'. The accompanying 5-point scale is: 5 (all of the time), 4 (most of the time), 3 (some of the time), 2 (A little of the time), 1 (none of the time).

NO	Please tick the answer that is correct for you:	All of the time (Score 5)	Most of the time (Score 4)	Some of the time (Score 3)	A little of the time (Score 2)	None of the time (Score 1)
1	In the past 4 weeks, about how often did you feel tired out for no good reason?					
2	In the past 4 weeks, about how often did you feel nervous?					
3	In the past 4 weeks, about how often did you feel so nervous that nothing could calm you down?					
4	In the past 4 weeks, about how often did you feel hopeless?					

Appendix F

Depression, Anxiety and Stress Scale (DASS-21)

Instruction: Please read each statement and select a number 0, 1, 2 or 3 which indicates how much the statement applied to you over the past week. There are no right or wrong answers.

Do not spend too much time on any statement. The rating scale is as follows:

0 Did not apply to me at all.

1 Applied to me to some degree, or some of the time.

2 Applied to me to a considerable degree or a good part of time.

3 Applied to me very much or most of the time.

	0	1	2	3
1. I found it hard to wind down				
2. I was aware of dryness of my mouth				
3. I couldn't seem to experience any positive feeling at all				
4. I experienced breathing difficulty (e.g., excessively rapid breathing, breathlessness in the absence of physical exertion)				

Appendix G

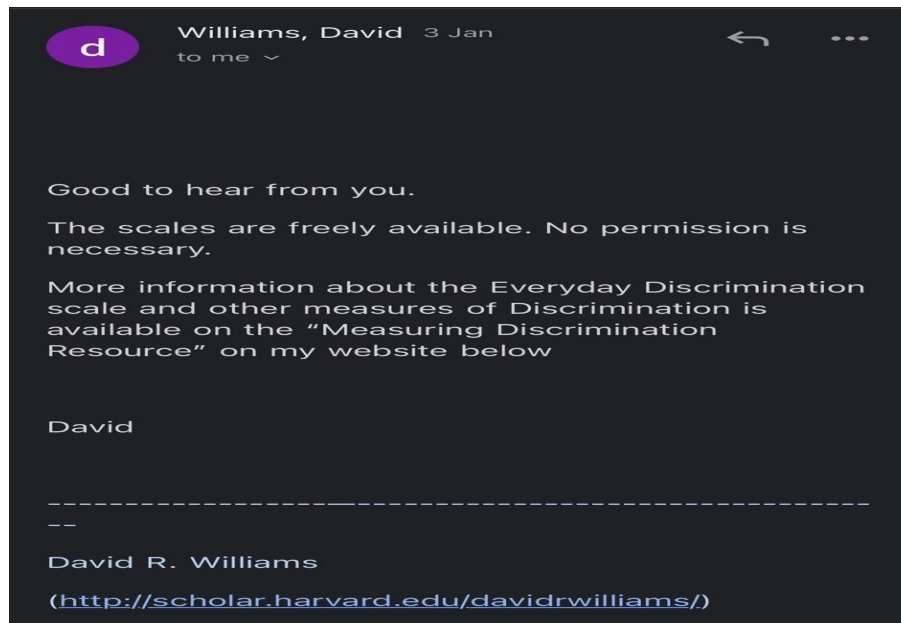
Ethnic Identity Scale-Brief (EIS-B)

Instructions: The next questions focus on your experiences related to your ethnicity in the past 30 days. As you answer these questions, think about the ethnic group that you feel most a part of. There are no right or wrong answers to any of these questions, we just want to know more about your opinions and experiences. Please fill in one response for each item.

	Does not describe me at all. 1	Describes me a little. 2	Describes me well. 3	Describes me very well. 4
1. I am clear about what my ethnicity means to me.				
2. I have attended events that have helped me learn more about my ethnicity.				
3. I have read books/magazines/newspapers or other materials that have taught me about my ethnicity.				
4. I feel negatively about my ethnicity.				
5. I wish I were of a different ethnicity.				
6. I know what my ethnicity means to me.				
7. I have participated in activities that have taught me about my ethnicity.				
8. I dislike my ethnicity.				
9. I have a clear sense of what my ethnicity means to me.				

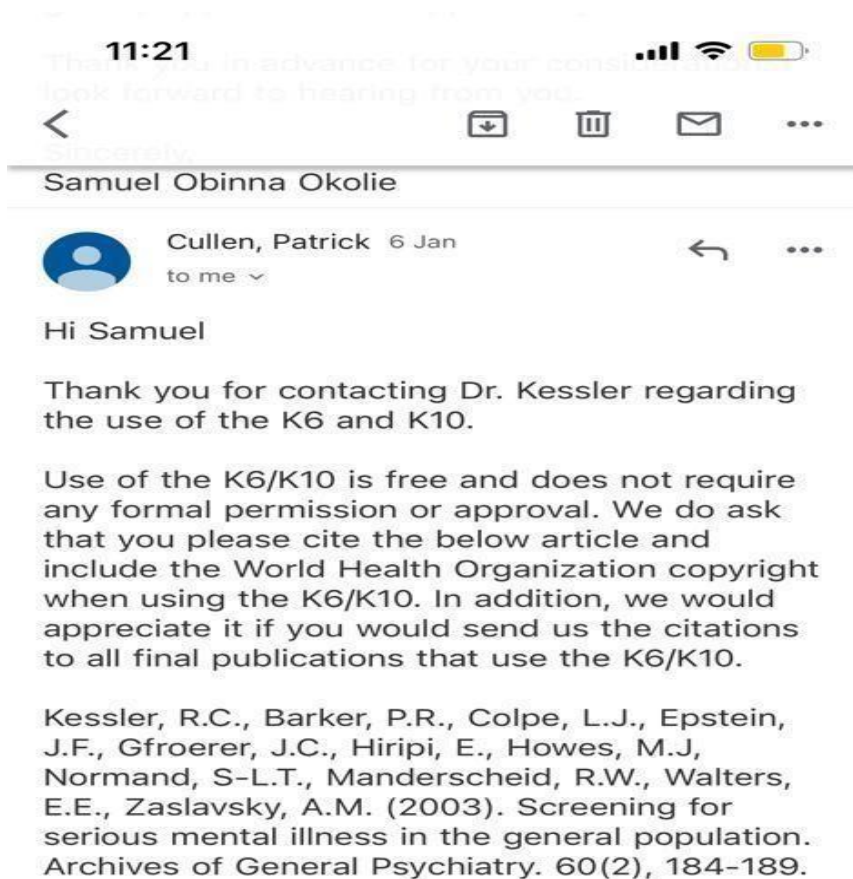
Appendix H

Permission to use the Everyday Discrimination Scale (EDS)



Appendix I

Permission to use the Kessler Psychological Distress Scale (K10)



Appendix J

Permission to use the Depression, Anxiety, Stress Scale (DASS-21)

Not Secure — www2.psy.unsw.edu.au

2. Who can administer and interpret the DASS?

The DASS is a self-report instrument, and no special skills are required to administer it. However, interpretation of the DASS should be carried out by individuals with appropriate training in psychological science, including emotion, psychopathology and assessment.

When the DASS is administered to individuals who have sought professional help, or who are displaying high levels of distress, interpretation should be carried out by an appropriately qualified health professional such as a clinical psychologist.

3. How do I get permission to use the DASS?

The DASS questionnaire is public domain, and so **permission is not needed to use it**. The DASS questionnaires and scoring key may be downloaded from the DASS website and copied without restriction (go to [Download](#) page).

Appendix K

Permission to use the Ethnic Identity Scale (EIS-B)

Using EIS

All researchers have permission to use the EIS, with the following citation: Umaña-Taylor, A. J., Yazedjian, A. & Bámaca-Gómez, M. Y. (2004). Developing the Ethnic Identity Scale using Eriksonian and social identity perspectives. *Identity: An International Journal of Theory and Research*, 4, 9-38.

All researchers have permission to use the EIS-B, with the following citation: Douglass, S., & Umaña-Taylor, A. J. (2015). A brief form of the Ethnic Identity Scale: Development and empirical validation. *Identity*, 15(1), 48-65.

Curriculum Vitae

Educational

Background CURRICULUM VITAE

Personal Data

- Name: Samuel Obinna Okolie
- Date of Birth: July 5, 1999
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- Secondary School / West African Examinations Certificate - 2016
- University of Abuja / Bachelor of Science (Sociology) - 2021
- Near East University / Graduate School of Social Sciences / M.Sc. General Psychology - 2023

Work Experience

- Neptune Securities - 2022

Ethical Approval



NAER EAST UNIVERSITY
SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

05.06.2023

Dear Samuel Obinna Okolie

Your application titled **“The Impact of Discrimination on the Psychological Wellbeing and Ethnic Identity of International Students in North Cyprus”** with the application number NEU/SS/2023/1577 has been evaluated by the Scientific Research Ethics Committee and granted approval. You can start your research on the condition that you will abide by the information provided in your application form.

Prof. Dr. Aşkın KİRAZ

The Coordinator of the Scientific Research Ethics Committee

Appendix N

Turnitin Originality Report

Turnitin Originality Report

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< 1% match (Internet from 03-Oct-2021)

<https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fpsyg.2020.00108/full>

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<https://www.science.gov/topicpages/d/depression+symptoms+results>