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The Impact of Race and Identity on College Student's Mental Health and Academic Self-Concept: Understanding the Interrelationship Between Ethnic Identity and Perceived Racial Discrimination

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Abstract

Despite the detailed history of racism in the United States and the centuries that have passed since slavery and the genocide of native communities, many ethnic populations continue to suffer the impact of racism. As racism persists in the modern era of American life, one must wonder how emerging adults are dealing with racism; especially college students. Therefore, it is important to describe the role played by racial discrimination, especially in the way individuals interact with those who are similar or different from them. The purpose of this study was to compare the perceptions of racial discrimination among all ethnic group members and to investigate if these perceptions had an impact on student's mental health and academic factors. Participants comprised a sample of convenience consisting of 109 college students (i.e. 80 females and 29 males) enrolled in a private university in southeastern United States. Data was collected on perceived racial discrimination, ethnicity, gender, ethnic identity, mental health, internalized racism, academic achievement, and academic self-concept using the Reybana Life Experience Scale (R-LES). Results indicated that the more one identifies with their ethnicity the less one experiences perceived racial discrimination, less internalization of racism, and poorer mental health. This relationship was statistically significant indicating that ethnic identity has a meaningful relationship with perceived racial discrimination, internalized racism, and mental health. The remaining questions of this study showed that there is a need for more research with larger samples, more ethnic group variation, and better survey design.

Keywords: perceived racial discrimination, internalized racism, academic self-concept, academic achievement, ethnicity, ethnic identity, mental health, *R-LES*

The Impact of Race and Identity on College Student's Mental Health & Academic Self-Concept: Understanding the Interrelationship Between Ethnic Identity & Perceived Racial Discrimination.

Social interactions in the United States (U.S.) can and have been sometimes strained, especially on the basis of race and ethnicity. Racism and racial discrimination is a fact of American life. Despite the detailed history of racism in the U.S. and the centuries that have passed since slavery and the genocide of native communities, many ethnic populations continue to suffer the impact of racism (Sue & Sue, 2016). Researchers have identified a new construct known as perceived racial discrimination, it is defined as the belief that one is being treated unfairly because of one's race and ethnicity (Kaduvettoor-Davidson & Inman, 2013). In dispute of being treated unfairly, many forms of protest have emerged in defense of one's alienable rights as a citizen of the U.S. For instance, much is written about the controversy between *Black Lives Matter* (i.e. a movement that surfaced to stand up against police brutality and anti-Black racism in society) and All Lives Matter (Frosch, & Calvert, 2015; Sider & Simon, 2015; Tharoor, 2016).

Additionally, the media's spotlight has covered the National Anthem protests beginning with 49ers quarterback Colin Kaepernick and supported by many others by sitting out or taking a knee during the national anthem; in effort to combat the injustice posed from police brutality, which in return has made Kaepernick unemployable by the National Football League (NFL) in the 2017 football season (CNN Wires, 2016; Fox News, 2016; Lee, 2016). On September 24, 2017, more than 200 NFL players kneeled during the National Anthem in support of players who were originally protesting racial injustice and in objection of President Trump's critiques and tweets (Associated Press, 2017). These tweets stated that, "If a player wants the privilege of

making millions of dollars in the NFL, or other leagues, he or she should not be allowed to disrespect our Great American Flag (or Country) and should stand for the National Anthem. If not, YOU'RE FIRED. Find something else to do!" (Curtis, 2017). This stance engendered a strong emotional reaction among many across the nation and continues to do so (Associated Press, 2017).

Since the 2016 election, many could say that the sting of discrimination has increased. CNN reported 867 cases of hateful harassment or intimidation in the U.S. just 10 days after the election. For example, a group called "Americans for a Better Way" sent letters to five mosques in California calling Muslims "vile and filthy people" and advocating for a Muslim genocide (Yan, Sgueglia, & Walker, 2016). Additionally, on Saturday August 12th 2017, counter protesters confronted white nationalists and other right-wing groups in Charlottesville, Virginia who were rallying against the pending removal of the confederate general Robert E. Lee (Dwyer, 2017). Clashes broke out. Local officials declared the rally an "unlawful assembly," and the governor declared a state of emergency (Dwyer, 2017). Within hours of the protest, a gray Dodge Challenger rammed into a crowd of counter protesters walking down a street in downtown Charlottesville (Bowman & Davis, 2017; Yan, Sayers, & Almas; 2017).

Social media has also become a tool for racial angst, especially among the youth. At a high school in Creston Iowa, an African American football quarterback was sent a picture from his teammates wearing white hoods that evoked the Ku Klux Klan. One brandished a gun, another held a Confederate flag, and they stood next to a little burning cross. Even though the participants in this photo were kicked off the football team, the African American quarterback was left confused and distraught about his teammate actions (Munson, 2017).

In New Hampshire on August 28, 2017, an eight-year-old boy survived being hung from a rope by a group of teenagers who were taunting him with racial slurs (Sampathkumar, 2017). In Alabama on September 15th 2017, two high school students kicked off the National Hispanic Heritage Month at a pep rally with signs saying “Trump: Make America Great Again” and “Put the Panic Back in Hispanic” (Boddiger, 2017). Shortly after the American University in Northwest Washington Spring 2017 graduation, bananas were found hanging from a noose shaped string on the main campus. These bananas were marked “AKA” initialed after the Alpha Kappa Alpha sorority that is primarily comprised of Black individuals (Larimer, 2017).

As racism persists in the modern era of American life, one must wonder how emerging adults are dealing with racism, especially college students. Since 2014, news stations have publicized student led racial protests that have taken place on college campuses nationwide, such as the John Hopkins University, Ithaca College in upstate New York, University of Alabama, University of California, and many others (Griggs, 2015; Hartocollis, & Bidgood, 2015; Hubstaff report, 2015; USA Today Staff, 2016). In March 2016, Southern Adventist University’s School of Education and Psychology (SEP) in collaboration with Black Christian Union (BCU) held a protest named “SEP Black Out” in response to racial hate speech made on Yik Yak® (an anonymous local feed for posting ideas and having conversations) following the BCU Vespers.

It is important to describe the role played by racial discrimination in the way individuals interact with those who are similar or different from them. The current study focused on the perceptions of racial discrimination held by college students as a function of their ethnicity. With this knowledge counselors, social workers, professors, and even students can have a better grasp of how different groups perceive racial discrimination as an effort to minimize racial tension through discussions on social justice and advocacy.

Literature Review

The population of minority Americans is projected to continue to increase, it is thus important to begin to understand how racial discrimination and stereotypes impacts the quality of life of those who experience it. Empirical research is a modality by which we can begin to understand the impact of racial slurs. Based on research terminology, people of non-European descent are often referred to as *people of color*. Therefore, for the purpose of this study, the term *people of color* or *students of color* were used to identify individuals from minority groups (Johnson & Arbona, 2006; Nadal, Mazzula, Rivera, Fujii-Doe, 2014; Pieterse, Carter, Evans, & Walter, 2010). The following review examines the empirical base of research on the implications of perceived racial discrimination on ethnic identity and health and academic outcomes.

What is Ethnic/Racial Identity?

The terms race and ethnicity are labels used to categorize individuals into groups for sociopolitical and census purposes. Race is the concept that refers to classifying people into groups based on shared phenotypic characteristics while ethnicity is best described as a group of people who identifying with each other based on nationality, cultural traditions, and shared ancestry (Lee & Ahn, 2013; Umana-Taylor, et al., 2014). However, both race and ethnicity play a role in the development of an individual's identity. The concept of ethnic and racial identity is comprised of bio-ecological, social-ecological, and temporal contexts. According to Umana-Taylor, et al. (2014), bioecological contexts include information constructed from the individual, family, community, and society. The social-ecological context includes the interactions of family, peers, and community members and an individual's understanding of these interactions at the local, national, and global levels. Lastly, the temporal context involves the influences of

socio-psychological processes such as situational circumstances, developmental processes, and the historical context (Umana-Taylor, et al., 2014).

Even though ethnic and racial identity play a role in one's identity development, these constructs are not the same. Rivas-Drake, et al. (2014b) describe that ethnic identity refers to an individual's feeling of pride, belongingness, and involvement with their cultural background, whereas racial identity refers to identities developed in response to race-based oppression and social stratification. However, it is very difficult to separate ethnic and racial identity in terms of measurement and lived experiences.

Development of ethnic identity. Ethnicity refers to one's membership in a group that share common social, cultural, and historical heritage. Ethnic identity as defined by Phinney (1996) is "an aspect of the self that includes a sense of membership in an ethnic group and the attitudes and feelings associated with that membership" (p. 292). However, it is important to note that ethnic identity is not a fixed category; instead it is changeable based on age, time, and circumstance (Sue & Sue, 2016). Phinney (1996) identifies four components of ethnic identity: (a) self-identification, (b) ethnic behaviors and practices, (c) affirmation and belonging, and (d) ethnic identity achievement (Wright & Littleford, 2002).

Self-identification is an individual's self-categorization based on nationality, language spoken, skin color, culture, and other factors. However, self-identification may not be sufficient enough to measure one's attitudes about the group or how much influence that group membership has on their perceptions and life experiences. The following three components of ethnic identity give a clear picture of how connected one might be to his or her ethnic group. Ethnic behaviors and practices emphasize on how involved an individual is with ethnic social activities and cultural practices. Affirmation and belonging places the focus on the individual's

feeling of pride and attachment to the group and lastly, ethnic identity achievement is an individual's feeling of security about their group membership and having a clear sense of the importance of their ethnic background and membership (Wright & Littleford, 2002).

Many researchers have hypothesized that having a secure ethnic identity achievement and a strong feeling of pride in one's ethnic group could be a protective factor against the effects of discriminations on one's psychological well-being (Awad, 2010; Wright & Littleford, 2002; Petersen, Dunnbier, & Morgenroth, 2012; Sellers, Copeland-Linder, Martin, & Lewis, 2006; Sellers & Shelton, 2003; Suyemoto, Day, & Schwartz, 2015; Thomas & Wagner, 2013). That is, a strong identification to one's group can serve as a psychological buffer against prejudice and discrimination as individuals focus on the strengths and positive aspects of their group.

The findings of a longitudinal study conducted by Sellers and Shelton (2003), suggest that the protective property of ethnic and racial identity did not just result from group identification, instead it is the meaning one places on what it is to be a member of the group that protects the individuals from the negative consequences triggered by racial discrimination. However, in a society where minority group members may be constantly reminded (i.e. peers & mass media) to uphold Western standards, they may be frequently placed in situations of extreme conflict and distress regarding their behavioral and physical appearance (Sue & Sue, 2016).

Education and racial/ethnic identity. Chavous, Rivas-Drake, Smalls, Griffin, and Cogburn (2008), report that children who have a strong racial/ethnic identity have a more positive self-concept and higher academic performance. Wong, Eccles, and Sameroff (2003) found that having a greater connection to one's ethnic group buffered negative impacts of school discrimination on academic self-concept, school academic achievement, involvement in problem behaviors, and involvement with peers who had fewer positive qualities (as cited in Sellers, et

al., 2006). Suyemoto et al. (2015), suggest that the development of positive racial and/or ethnic identity may relate to more positive psychological outcomes such as positive self-esteem and well-being, with lower rates of alcohol abuse, and a safeguard against negative effects of discrimination. Although ethnic and racial identity can serve as a buffer for racial discrimination it does not eradicate the fact that racial discrimination exists.

Racial Discrimination

Discrimination refers to behavioral responses that are unfavorable to people of different groups (i.e. race, gender, sexual orientation, etc.). Therefore, racial discrimination as defined by Biasco, Goodwin and Vitale (2001) is the “unjustified, negative, or harmful conduct, verbal or physical, that is directed at an individual behavior of one’s race, color, national origin, or ethnicity” (p. 523). Jackson, Brown, and Kerby (1998) further describe racial discrimination as “intentional acts that draw unfair or injurious distinctions, that are based solely on ethnic or racial basis and that have effects favorable to in-groups and negative to out-groups” (as cited in Noh, et al., 1999, p. 194).

However, it is important to note that racial discrimination is multidimensional. Graham, West, Martinez, & Roemer (2016) and Johnson & Arbona (2006) show that there are many levels of racism such as individual, institutional, and cultural racism. Individual racism is described as racism that individuals experience on a personal level whereas institutional racism is characterized by social and institutional policies that prevent minority groups from the benefits offered to the majority members of society. Cultural racism, on the other hand, are those aspects of society that overtly or covertly attribute value and normality to a superior or dominate culture.

Microaggressions. Another form of racism is expressed using microaggressions—brief everyday exchanges that send denigrating messages to target groups. According to Sue & Sue

(2016), there are three forms of microaggressions: (a) microassaults, (b) microinsults, and (c) microinvalidations, all of which can be experienced by anyone based on ethnicity, gender, age, abilities, and other discriminatory characteristics.

The following terms were defined by Sue and Sue (2016). Microassaults are identified as overt racism in which individuals deliberately convey derogatory messages intentionally (e.g. using terms such as the N word, Redskins, Spec, etc.). Microinsults, on the other hand, are unintentional behaviors or verbal comments that convey rudeness or insensitivity (e.g. Wow, How did you get so good at math; You speak good English). Lastly, microinvalidations are verbal comments or behaviors that dismiss the psychological thoughts, feelings, or experiential reality of the target group, which are unintentional (e.g. color blindness).

Results from a study conducted by Nadal, et al. (2012) indicated that higher frequencies of microaggressions negatively impacted participants mental health. In addition, racial microaggressions displayed a significant relationship with depressive symptoms and negative affect. In a second study conducted by Nadal, et al. (2014), microaggressions were found to be harmful and often occur in educational and work settings. More specifically, international students attending universities in the U.S. who experienced acts of microaggression also experienced an increased feeling of isolation despite the distance they faced from their families and other support systems. As a result, researchers suggested that microaggressions might have harmful effects on the way students see themselves which influences student's self-esteem, mental health, and academic achievement (Nadal et. al, 2014; Sue & Sue, 2016).

Internalized Racism

According to Sue & Sue (2016), internalized racism can be defined as racial self-hatred, in which people dislike themselves for being Native Indian, African American, Asian, Latino, or

Arab American. However, internalization can be both positive and negative (Umana-Taylor, et al., 2014). Awareness and internalization of positive and negative stereotypes is a unique aspect of public regard. Public regard refers to the extent to which an individual feel that others view their ethnic-racial group positively or negatively (Chavous, et al. 2008; Contrada, et al., 2001; Steele, 1997; Thames, et al., 2013). Low public regard signifies that an individual is internalizing negative stereotypes and high public regard would indicate the internalization of positive stereotypes (Sellers, et al. 2006). Therefore, public regard has been demonstrated to be associated with perceived discrimination both as a protective factor and outcome.

Consequently, internalizing negative racial or ethnic remarks can be harmful to the overall identity of the individual. For instance, youth who develop low positive regard develop identity self-denial, in which, there is an attempt to hide or minimize one's ethnic-racial background (Sellers, et. al, 2006; Sue & Sue, 2016). According to Steele (1997), stereotype threat is an outgrowth of stereotype consciousness. This can be interpreted as a specific expression of public regard in which an individual is at risk of confirming a negative stereotype about one's ethnic-racial group. Stereotype threat has supported the notion that an individual's awareness of negative stereotypes against their own group prompts the fear of living up to those stereotypes, inducing anxiety and undermining his or her performance (Chavous, et al. 2008; Contrada, et al., 2001; Brondolo, et al. 2005; Steele, 1997; Thames, et al., 2013).

Graham, et al. (2016) characterize internalized racism as the persistent influence of racial discrimination propagated by the dominant society about one's racial/ethnic group. Researchers further describe the psychological consequences of internalized racism, which includes self-doubt and self-devaluation of one's race and oneself. Internalized racism is a direct consequence of recurrent and damaging experiences of racism, which can lead to poor self-esteem and higher

levels of psychological distress (Graham, et al., 2016; Hipoltio-Delgado, 2008). According to Jones (2000), internalized racism isolates people of color from one another and continues to support division among and within ethnic groups. Inferior status of people of color is constantly reinforced by the mass media through television, movies, newspaper, radios, and magazines. Many have become ashamed of who they are, reject their own group identification, and attempt to identify with the desirable “good” White majority (Sue & Sue, 2016). Therefore, it is not only important to understand the various forms and impact racial discrimination has on people but also how it is perceived.

Perceived Racial Discrimination

People of color may experience the phenomenon known as perceived racial discrimination, which is defined as “a minority group members’ subjective perception of unfair treatment based on racial prejudice and ethnocentrism” (Jackson et al. 1998 as cited in Noh, et al., 1999, p. 194). However, much of research investigating perceptions of racial discrimination has overlooked the Caucasian/White population as it is the dominant culture. Therefore, in this study, perceived racial discrimination will be defined as the belief that one is being treated unfairly because of one’s race and ethnicity (Kaduvettoor-Davidson & Inman, 2013).

Clark, Anderson, Clark, and Williams (1999) described the biopsychosocial effects of perceived racism and noted that perceptions of racism results in amplified psychological and physiological stress responses that are influenced by environmental stimulus such as (a) constitutional factors (i.e. occupational status and personal income), (b) sociodemographic factors (i.e. socioeconomic status, age, and ethnicity), and (c) psychological and behavioral factors. As a result, perceived racism is a potential source of stress having both chronic and acute consequences. Thames, et al. (2013), concluded that both stereotype threat and perceived racial

discrimination negatively affected neuropsychological testing. This indicated that chronic stress induced by perceived racial discrimination has detrimental effects on one's cognition and performance. Thames, et al. (2013) reported that functional neuroimaging studies display distinct regions of the brain that are activated when participants feel threatened such as areas needed to complete tasks, especially cognitive ones. Seaton, Neblett, Upton, Hammond and Sellers (2011) posit that perceived racial discrimination is linked to lower life satisfaction, decreased self-esteem, and an increased in depressive symptoms, anxiety, anger, and behavior problems. Among students specifically, perceived racial discrimination may decrease academic motivation, GPA, school engagement and academic self-concept.

Impact on mental health. Perceived racial discrimination and its relationship to individual health has received much attention from the empirical world. According to Polanco-Roman, Danies, and Anglin (2016), perceived racial discrimination was associated with a history of major depressive disorder, posttraumatic stress disorder, and substance-use disorder. Clark, et al. (1999) also noted that perceived racism might be one of the several pathways by which racism affects mental health. Perceptions of racial discrimination may prompt chronic feelings of helplessness and hopelessness, which in return evoke feelings of frustration, depression, resentment, distrust, or paranoia (Clark et al., 1999; Rivas-Drake, et al., 2014; Thames, et al., 2013). It would appear that the more one experiences racial discrimination the worse his or her mental-health seems to be.

A meta-analysis of 23 studies, Lee and Ahn (2011) concluded that racial discrimination among Asian Americans was associated with an “increased levels of depression, anxiety, suicidal ideation, overall distress, and lower wellbeing” (as cited in Liu & Suyemoto, 2016, p. 137). Among Latinos, Cheng and Mallinckrodt (2015) found that ethnic discrimination and racial

stigma increased heavy drinking among adults, youth, and immigrants. Additionally, perceptions of racial discrimination also threaten individuals physically in similar ways to other types of trauma (i.e. rape and terrorist attacks) leading to believe that perceptions of racial discrimination can be identified as a traumatic stress. As stated by researchers, racial/ethnic discrimination is experienced as a traumatic event because incidents often happen suddenly, are beyond a person's control, and are psychologically stressful (Cheng & Mallinckrodt, 2015; Hipolito-Delgado, 2008).

Hwange and Goto (2009) found that perceived racial discrimination is associated with higher psychological distress, anxiety, depression and suicidal ideation. Studies have shown that perceived discrimination has been linked to many psychological related variables such as negative self-esteem, concentration difficulties, intrusive thoughts about specific racism encounters, and an increased risk for mental and physical illness such as depression, anxiety, substance abuse, hypertension, cardiovascular disease, and increases of abdominal fat and headaches (Cheng & Mallinckrodt, 2015; Clark, et al., 1999; Pieterse & Carter, 2007; Reynolds, et al., 2010; Sellers & Seaton, 2003). As a result, the cumulative effect of the stress and strain of daily racism has been shown to decrease the wellbeing and quality of life in people of color (Hwang & Goto, 2009; Kaduvetoor-Davidson & Inman, 2013; Liu & Suyemoto, 2016; Pieterse, et al., 2007; Reynolds, et al., 2010; Sellers & Shelton, 2003; Sue & Sue, 2016).

Mental health includes our emotional, psychological and social well-being, therefore, being mentally healthy is imperative for one to function at their best (Mental Health, n.d.). However, if our mental health is clouded by the perception of racial discrimination, one must wonder how this relationship could interfere with student academic success.

Academic Environment

The academic environment plays a significant role in how students are able to engage and be motivated to pursue their academic goals (Singh, et al., 2008; 2010). The academic environment is conceptualized by two primary elements: (a) school belongingness and (b) the racial climate.

School belonging. Many will agree that humans have a fundamental need to belong. As further described by Layous, Davis, Garcia, Purdie-Vaughns, Cook and Cohen (2016), a lack of felt belonging can prompt poorer cognitive functioning and decrease physical and mental health. Research has supported the notion that a student's ability to feel a sense of belonging in the school has a positive influence in that student's school experience (Rivas-Drake, et al., 2014a; Singh, Chang, & Dika, 2008, 2010; Steele, 1997). School belonging is defined as the extent to which a student feels personally accepted, respected, included, and supported by others in the school setting (Singh, et al., 2010). School belonging develops as student experiences positive interactions with their peers, teachers, and other school community members. When a student has acquired a sense of community and belonging to their school they are able to view their school as a positive environment. Students who "fit in" are more likely to engage in their learning and experience academic success.

Smerdon (2002) expanded the definition of school belongingness among college students to include one's sense of commitment to the institution, commitment to work in this setting and a sense of one's abilities being recognized by others (as cited in Pittman & Richmond, 2008). In regard to students in higher education, results from several studies have confirmed that a sense of university belonging is linked to students' positive self-perceptions of social acceptance and academic competence (Ostrove & Long, 2007; Pittman & Richmond, 2008). According to

researchers Johnson, et al. (2007), college students sense of belonging also stem from the atmosphere in classrooms and student's residential hall or dormitory. In a study conducted by Layous, et al. (2016), it was reported that undergraduate students who did not feel at home in college might underperform academically and socially. More specifically, it was narrated that first-generation college students reported lower sense of belonging in school. Ostrove and Long's (2007) study found that social-class background was strongly related to student's sense of belonging at college which influenced their social and academic adjustment to college, the quality of their college experience, and their academic performance.

Racial school climate. Reynolds, et al. (2010), concluded that many students of color experience negative effects of bias and racism. Reynolds et al., further illustrate that racism often contributes to a negative racial climate in campus, which is viewed as a significant source of stress for college students. As a result, students of color may have difficulty adjusting to their campus environment, particularly on predominately White campuses. College students of color have the ability to succeed academically when they have a positive racial school climate and the college/university has a commitment to diversity. Therefore, racism and discrimination often contributes to a negative school climate inducing stress and anxiety among students of color. Often times this fosters a climate of alienation and hostility towards students of color, which in return can lower the rates of educational success (Nadal, et al., 2014; Tynes, Del Toro, & Lozada, 2015; Tynes. et al., 2013).

Furthermore, the Internet and social media applications are accessed by college students to socialize, discuss school related-issues, and network for job and internship opportunities (Tynes, et al., 2013). The Internet and social media now play a central role in campus life. However, interactions online can become hostile against students of color increasing an

unwelcoming school racial climate. Tynes, Hiss, Ryan & Rose (2015), found that higher levels of online discrimination were related to lower reports in academic motivation (as cited in Tynes, et al. 2015). Students of color are exposed to commentary and images that question and demean their intelligence especially when these messages are about people of color whom these students admire or identify with. As described by Tynes, et al. (2015), students of color are exposed to racially discriminatory messages through texts, videos, memes, name-calling, and racial joking in social media spaces which contributes to the school climate, sense of belonging and overall environment. Hence, the school environment plays a leading role in formulating the foundation for which one will view him or herself as a student and whether they believe they will be able to succeed academically.

Academic Self-Concept

Thomas and Wagner (2013) define academic self-concept as an individual's perceptions regarding the effectiveness with which he or she can perform academic tasks or achieve academically. In addition, Matovu (2014) adds that academic self-concept is a composite view of oneself across various sets of specific academic domains, abilities, and perceptions. According to Reynolds, et al. (2010), self-motivation, university comfort, self-belief, and a well-developed academic self-concept are necessary for the academic survival and achievement for students of color. Various international studies have found links between ethnic identity and facets of academic self-concept among minority group members (Bodkin-Andrews, Denson, & Bansel, 2013; Umana-Taylor, et al., 2014). Academic self-concept has been consistently identified as an accurate predictor of academic achievement in various context (Marsh & Martin, 2011; Matovu, 2014; Singh, et al. 2010; Thomas & Wagner, 2013).

In a study conducted by Chavous, et al. (2008), findings suggested that peer and classroom discrimination could lead to the development of low academic self-concept, academic motivation, and negative school attitudes all of which influences academic performance and achievement. Trujillo and Tanner (2014) reported that stereotype threat can affect student's affective experiences in the classroom to the degree that academic performance can suffer. Steele (1992) and Cokley (2003) have written about how negative school experiences, such as teacher bias, lack of representation in the curriculum, and harmful social messages, can profoundly influence college student's academic self-concept and motivation.

Thus, numerous researchers have agreed that perceived racial discrimination has damaging effects among people of color's health and academic success. However, more studies are needed to understand the relationship between perceived racial discrimination and its impact on ethnic group member's life experience. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to compare the perceptions of racial discrimination among ethnic group members and if these perceptions impact one's mental health and academics.

Research Methodology

Research Design and Procedures

A non-experimental descriptive, correlational, comparative design using survey methodology guided this study. The researcher contacted professors from different disciplines during the last summer session and fall semester of 2017. Professors were emailed a brief overview of the study and permission to advertise participant recruitment either in class or through a forwarded email. Once students were briefed on the research study, those who were interested had access to the Survey Monkey® link in order to complete the survey: *Reybana Life Experience Scale* (R-LES). An electronic version of the survey was used as a buffer to eliminate

social desirability among participant's responses. After the link was opened, the homepage displayed a disclosure statement communicating that proceeding to the survey would give the researcher permission to use the data provided. Once the survey was completed, participants were informed of free counseling services provided on campus if needed after reflection of racial discrimination exposure.

Participants

Participants comprised a sample of convenience consisting of 109 college students enrolled at Southern Adventist University (SAU) who were at least 18-years-old. Participants were recruited from SAU's 2017 third summer session and fall semester courses, both graduate and undergraduate. All participants were treated in accordance with the ethical principal of Psychologist and Code of Conduct of the American Psychological Association and the Ethics and Professional Standards of the American Counseling Association (American Counseling Association, 2014; American Psychological Association, 2010).

Materials

The instrument used in this study was the *Reybana Life Experience Scale* (R-LES) which was comprised of 142 items with a Cronbach alpha of 0.87. R-LES consisted of demographic variables, Brief Perceived Ethnic Discrimination Questionnaire-Community Version (Brief PEDQ-CV), Multi-Group Measure of Ethnic Identity (MEIM), Internalized Racial Discrimination Scale (IRDS), Academic Self-Concept Scale (ASCS), and the Mental Health Inventory (MHI).

Brief Perceived Ethnic Discrimination Questionnaire-Community Version. The Brief PEDQ-CV is an adaptive version of the PEDQ-CV both developed by Brondolo, et al. (2005), which are modified versions of the Perceived Ethnic Discrimination Questionnaire developed by

Contrada, et al., (2001). The Brief PEDQ-CV was created from the 34 items of the Lifetime Exposure scale of the full PEDQ-CV to assess perceived exposure to ethnic discrimination in college students from any ethnic or racial background when time-constraints make it difficult to administer the full PEDQ-CV. The brief PEDQ-CV is reported to have good convergent validity and construct validity as it was correlated with Perceived Racism Scale (Brondolo, et al., 2005).

The brief PEDQ-CV consists of 17- items assessing exposure to ethnic discrimination using a 5-point scale *never experienced* (1) to *experience very often* (5). Scores can range from 17 to 85 with the higher scores indicating more one was exposed to racial discrimination.. In addition, the past week discrimination scale from the full PEDQ-CV will also be used. The past week discrimination scale contains 10 items inquiring about everyday experiences of stigmatization, threat, and exclusion/rejection. These items are rated on a 4-point scale *never in the past week* (0) to *3 or more times in the past week* (3). Lastly, five items were pulled from Section B of the full PEDQ-CV instrument to measure racial discrimination exposure.

Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM). The MEIM consists of 12 items to measure ethnic identity. Two factors of ethnic identity are measured using this instrument (a) ethnic identity search and (b) ethnic identity commitment. Total scores range from 12 to 48, with higher scores indicating a stronger ethnic identity. In measuring the validity of MEIM with college students, Phinney (1992) reported a Cronbach's alpha of .90, which indicated the appropriateness of using the MEIM when measuring ethnic identity.

Internalized Racial Discrimination Scale (IRDS). The IRDS consists of 32 items on a 7-point scale ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (5). The first ten items are taken and modified from Cross Racial Identity Scale internalization subscale (Cross & Vandiver, 2001) and the remaining 22 items were recreated items inspired by the work of Helm's People of

Color Racial Identity Attitude Scale (Perry, Vance, & Helms, 2009). The Internalized Racial

Discrimination Scale served as a pilot in this study and obtain a reliability of $\alpha = .74$. Ten of the items are reversed score. Total scores will range from 30 to 210 with higher scores indicating a high level of internalizing racial discrimination.

Academic Self-concept Scale (ASCS). The ASCS consists of 40 items on a 4-point scale ranging from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (4), with items keyed in a positive academic self-concept direction. The purpose of this instrument was to measure “an academic facet of general self-concept” (Reynolds, 1988). The ASCS was scored by summation providing a total score ranging from 40 to 160 with a low score indicating lower academic self-concept. Fifteen of the items were reversed scored. The ASCS has an internal consistency reliability coefficient of $\alpha = .91$ and a test-retest reliability coefficient of .88 (Choi, 2005; Reynolds, 1998).

Mental Health Inventory (MHI). MHI consists of 18 items that measure overall emotional functioning (Viet & Ware, 1983). The MHI has 4 subscales: (a) anxiety, (b) depression, (c) behavioral control and (d) positive affect. Eight items were reversed score with overall total score range from 0-100 with higher scores indicating better mental health. MHI has a Cronbach’s alpha of $\alpha = .82$.

Data Analysis

All survey data were scored and coded according to the scoring key and entered into SPSS 22 for analysis. For this present study, all listed statistical tests were two-tailed with an alpha level of .05. The following seven research questions were addressed in this study:

1. Are there differences in perception of racial discrimination as a function of one’s ethnic group membership?
2. Are there gender differences in perception of racial discrimination?

3. What are the relationships among academic self-concept, academic achievement, and perceptions of racial discrimination?
4. Are there ethnic differences in internalizing racism?
5. Are there differences in individual's mental health as a function of ethnic group membership?
6. What is the relationship between perceptions of racial discrimination, internalized racism, ethnic identity, and mental health?
7. In what context (i.e. media, home, peers, work, church or school) are students exposed to racist attitudes, beliefs, and actions?

Results

One hundred and nine students (i.e. 80 female students and 29 male students) enrolled at SAU were given the R-LES. Only 78 students (i.e. 57 female students and 21 male students) successfully completed the R-LES from beginning to end. The majority of the participants reported to be of White/Caucasian decent ($n = 62$) and within the 2017 freshmen class ($n = 55$). See Table 1 and 2 for a visual description of participant reported ethnicity and class standing. Overall, participants reported to have high levels of internalized racism ($M = 91.51$, $SD = 18.54$) and ethnic identity ($M = 38.76$, $SD = 9.39$) with moderate levels of academic self-concept ($M = 90.99$, $SD = 5.39$).

The last 10 questions of the R-LES examined if students were treated differently within the last week based on their ethnicity. For instance, one of the questions asked, "based on your ethnicity, did someone look at you in a mean or nasty way?" From this statement, 10 students responded once, four students responded twice, and two students responded with three or more times (See Table 3). Seven research questions guided this study and the results are as follows.

Perceived Racial Discrimination and Ethnicity

Research Question 1: Are there differences in perception of racial discrimination as a function of one's ethnic group membership? At a glance, participants from African/Black American ($M = 46.70$, $SD = 12.15$) and Latino ($M = 42.91$, $SD = 16.06$) descent appeared to have perceived racial discrimination slightly more often than those identified in the Caucasian ($M = 39.17$, $SD = 12.60$) and Other group ($M = 37.33$, $SD = 12.40$). A one-way ANOVA was used ($N = 77$) to test if this difference in means was statistically significant [$F(3,74) = 1.22$, $p = .31$]. Although the results showed a slight difference between the degree to which one perceives racial discrimination and ethnicity, the results were inconclusive.

Perceived Racial Discrimination and Gender

Research Question 2: Are there gender differences in perception of racial discrimination? Male students ($M = 43.05$, $SD = 12.84$) appear to have perceived racial discrimination slightly more often than the female students ($M = 39.49$, $SD = 13.18$). Even in analyzing gender differences as a function of ethnicity, male students continue to appear to experience perceived racial discrimination more often than female student (See Table 4). An independent sample t test was used ($N = 77$) to test if the difference in means was statistically significant ($t_{(76)} = .58$, $p = .29$, ns). Although the results show a slight difference between the degree to which one perceives racial discrimination and gender, the results were inconclusive.

Perceived Racial Discrimination, Academic Self-Concept and Academic Achievement

Research Question 3: What are the relationships among academic self-concept, academic achievement, and perceptions of racial discrimination? Overall, participants appeared to have slightly high levels of academic achievement (GPA ranging from 3.1-4.0, $n = 91$) and academic

self-concept ($M = 99.22$, $SD = 13.36$). To examine the linear relation among these variables a Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was used.

Result showed a weak negative correlation between student's experiences of perceived racial discrimination and GPA. Showing that students who experience more perceived racial discrimination have a tendency of reporting lower GPA scores. However, this tendency was not statistically significant ($r_{(77)} = -.16$, $p = .17$, *ns*).

In examining the relationship between perceived racial discrimination and academic self-concept, it appears that the more racial discrimination one perceives the lower one's self concept tends to be. Although there is a weak negative correlation, results are inconclusive ($r_{(78)} = -.12$, $p = .36$, *ns*). Lastly, the relationship between academic self-concept and academic achievement showed to have a weak positive correlation. Meaning, that students who reported to have high GPA scores have a tendency of reporting higher levels of academic self-concept. Nonetheless, results were inconclusive ($r_{(92)} = .26$, $p = .01$, *ns*).

Ethnicity and Internalized Racism

Research Question 4: Are there ethnic differences in internalizing racism? At a glance, African American ($M = 98.55$, $SD = 17.64$) students appeared to have higher levels of internalizing racism followed by Caucasian students ($M = 92.89$, $SD = 13.15$). To test this research question, a one-way ANOVA was used ($N = 84$) to test if this difference in means was statistically significant [$F(3,84) = 2.11$, $p = .11$, *ns*]. Although the results show a slight difference between the degree to which one internalizes racism and ethnic group membership, the results are inconclusive (See Table 5).

Ethnicity and Mental Health

Research Question 5: Are there were any differences in student's mental health as a function of their ethnicity? As a result, it appears that students categorized as Other ($M = 40.33$, $SD = 15.45$) and Caucasian ($M = 35.90$, $SD = 16.88$) are slightly healthier mentally than African American students ($M = 28.92$, $SD = 19.92$). However, participants overall appeared to have poorer mental health ($M = 34.91$, $SD = 16.91$), scores ranged 0-100 with higher scores indicating better mental health. To test this research question, a one-way ANOVA was used ($N = 103$) to test if this difference in means was statistically significant [$F(3,103) = 1.16$, $p = .33$, ns]. Although the results show a slight differences between student's mental health level and ethnic group membership, the results are inconclusive.

Perceived Racial Discrimination, Internalized Racism, Ethnic Identity, and Mental Health

Research Question 6: What is the relationship between perceptions of racial discrimination, internalized racism, ethnic identity, and mental health? A Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to examine the linear relationship among these variables.

Results showed a weak positive correlation between perceived racial discrimination and internalized racism. Indicating that students who experienced more perceived racial discrimination tend to report high level of internalized racism. However, results are inconclusive ($r_{(78)} = .05$, $p = .64$, ns). Mental health and perceived racial discrimination appeared to have a weak positive correlation showing that students who experience more perceived racial discrimination they tend to have better mental health. These results were not statistically significant ($r_{(92)} = .06$, $p = .59$, ns). At a glance, perceived racial discrimination and ethnic identity appear to have a weak positive correlation. When examined, the correlation was

statistically significant showing that students who have higher levels of ethnic identity tend to perceive more racial discrimination ($r_{(78)} = .23, p = .02, s, 5.1\%$). In other words, 5.1% of the variation in perceived racial discrimination experiences is due to how much one identifies with their ethnic/racial group (See Table 6).

Internalized racism and mental health appeared to have a weak positive correlation. However, results are not statistically significant ($r_{(85)} = .21, p = .05, ns$). At a glance, internalize racism and ethnic identity appear to have a moderate negative correlation. This showed that students who reported higher levels of ethnic identity also reported less internalization of racism, which was statistically significant ($r_{(85)} = -.45, p = .00, s, 20.3\%$). Signifying that 20.3% of the variation in one internalizing racism is due how much one identifies with their ethnic/racial group. Lastly, a weak negative correlation was found between ethnic identity and mental health. Showing that students who reported higher levels of ethnic identity have a tendency to report poorer mental health, which was statistically significant ($r_{(90)} = -.25, p = .02, s, 6.3\%$). Showing that 6.3% of the variation in one's mental health status is due to how much one identifies with their ethnic/racial group.

Exposure of Racial Discrimination

Research Question 7: In which setting (i.e. media, home, peers, work, church or school) students are exposed to racist attitudes, beliefs, and actions the most? Seven items on the survey addressed this research question and were rated as follow: (a) never, (b) once or twice, (c) sometimes, (d) frequently, and (e) very often. Students appeared to be exposed to racist attitudes, beliefs and actions the most in (1) movies/TV shows (80%), (2) on social media (78%), (3) talk radio/song lyrics (68%), and (4) newspapers/magazines (47%; See Figures 1-4).

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to compare the perceptions of racial discrimination among all ethnic group members and to investigate if these perceptions had an impact on student's mental health and academics. Numerous studies have agreed that perceived racial discrimination has damaging effects towards health and academic success among people of color. However, there was a need to understand the relationship between perceived racial discrimination and its impact on all ethnic group members' life experience.

Research Question 1: Ethnicity and Perceived Racial Discrimination

The results showed that there were no group differences in perception of racial discrimination as a function of one's ethnic group membership. However, there appeared to be a slight difference between non-White students experiencing perceptions of racial discrimination more often than their White counterparts. Research has emphasized that perceived racial discrimination is a phenomenon commonly experienced by people of color (Jackson et al. 1998 as cited in Noh, et al., 1999). However, all ethnic groups are involved and impacted by what they perceive to be racial discrimination. Although results of this research were inconclusive, White students and students of color did appear to have similar ranges of perceived racial discrimination. Showing that White students also believe that they were being treated unfairly because of their race/ethnicity as defined by Kaduvettoor-Davidson & Inman (2013).

Research Question 2: Gender and Perceived Racial Discrimination

Results indicated that there were no gender differences in student's perception of racial discrimination. However, male students appeared to experience more perceptions of racial discrimination than female students even when the function of ethnicity was examined.

Nevertheless, generalizability is limited because the African American and Latino male group outcome was weighed by only one participant's experience.

Research Question 3: Perceived Racial Discrimination and Academic Factors

This research question investigated the inter-relationship between perceived racial discrimination, academic achievement (i.e. GPA), and academic self-concept. Results indicated that students who experience more perceived racial discrimination have a tendency of reporting lower GPA scores. In addition, it also appeared that the more racial discrimination one perceived the lower one's academic self-concept tended to be. This begs to question if resiliency plays any role in a student's ability to succeed despite racial adversity. Lastly, in regard to academic factors, students who reported a high GPA scores had a tendency of reporting high levels of academic self-concept, which is expected specially among college students. Therefore, understanding the school's racial climate would be an important indicator of how students may be performing academically and begin to decrease racial tension within the school system.

Research Question 4: Ethnicity and Internalized Racism

Findings indicated that there were no ethnic group differences in internalized racism scores. At a glance, African American students appeared to have higher levels of internalizing racism followed by Caucasian students. Although results were inconclusive, it interesting to see that the majority of participants scored moderately high on internalizing racial behaviors or actions leading to feel self-hatred for being associated or part of their ethnic/racial group. This is intriguing because as indicated by the results, minority students are not alone in self-doubting and self-devaluing one's race and oneself (Graham, et al., 2016).

Research Question 5: Ethnicity and Mental Health

This research question asked if there were any differences in student's mental health as a function of their ethnicity. Results indicated that there were no ethnic group differences. However, at a glance, it appears that students categorized as Other and Caucasian were slightly healthier mentally than African American and Latino students. Research has indicated that the higher one's perceptions of racial discrimination the worse that individual's mental health appears to be (Clark et al., 1999; Rivas-Drake, et al., 2014; Thames, et al., 2013). This could be one explanation to student's mental health scores, however the majority of the students reported to have poor mental health. Indicating that this sample could simply have poorer mental health than those who did not respond to the survey, known as non-responsive bias.

Research Question 6: Perceived Racial Discrimination and Three Key Variables

This research question investigated the inter-relationship between perceived racial discrimination, internalized racism, ethnic identity, and mental health. Results indicated that students who experienced more perceived racial discrimination tend to report higher level of internalized racism. Although this result was inconclusive, it coincides with previous research which has indicated that the internalized racism is a direct consequence of recurrent and damaging experiences of racism (Graham, et al., 2016; Hipoltio-Delgado, 2008).

Findings showed that students who experience more perceived racial discrimination tend to have better mental health. Although this result is inconclusive, previous research reports the opposite in which more perceived racial discrimination experiences one reports the worse one's mental health tends to be (Hwange & Goto, 2009; Pieterse & Carter, 2007; Seaton, et al., 2011; Sellers & Shelton, 2003). An explanation for these results could be that this sample or student at SAU tend to have better mental health overall.

When the relationship between ethnic identity and perceived racial discrimination was examined, the relationship was statistically significant. Thus, showing that students who have higher levels of ethnic identity tend to perceive more racial discrimination. As reported in previous research, strong ethnic identity can serve as a buffer for the aversive effects racial discrimination can have but it does not eradicate the fact that racial discrimination exists (Sellers, et al. 2006; Suyemoto et al., 2015).

Furthermore, the relationship between internalized racism and mental health was not statistically significant. However, results showed that students who reported to have high mental health scores also appeared to have high levels of internalized racism. Although this is contrary to previous research, which has indicated that poorer mental health is associated with increased racial discrimination, internalization appears to play a factor in one's self-concept/esteem rather than overall mental health indicators such as depression and anxiety (Clark et al., 1999; Graham, et al., 2016; Hipolito-Delgado, 2008; Rivas-Drake, et al., 2014; Thames, et al., 2013).

Results showed that the relationship between internalized racism and ethnic identity was statistically significant. Illustrating that students who reported higher levels of ethnic identity also reported less internalization of racism. This finding coincides with previous research that emphasizes having a secure ethnic identity and a strong feeling of pride in one's ethnic group could be a protective factor against the effects of discriminations on one's psychological well-being (Awad, 2010; Wright & Littleford, 2002; Petersen, Dunnbier, & Morgenroth, 2012; Sellers, Copeland-Linder, Martin, & Lewis, 2006; Sellers & Shelton, 2003; Suyemoto, Day, & Schwartz, 2015; Thomas & Wagner, 2013; Umana-Taylor, et al., 2014).

Lastly, in examining the relationship between ethnic identity and mental health, results showed that the stronger students identified with their ethnicity the poorer their mental health

scores tended to be. This relationship was statistically significant. Interestingly, research has stated that there is a difference between ethnic identity (i.e. feeling of pride, belongingness, and involvement) and racial identity (i.e. identities developed in response to race-based oppression) but it is often difficult to separate the two in terms of measurement and lived experiences (Rivas-Drake, et al. 2014). Therefore, student who have a stronger sense of identity with their ethnicity or race may be predisposed to poorer mental health due to the strain of daily racism (Hwang & Goto, 2009; Kaduvettoor-Davidson & Inman, 2013; Liu & Suyemoto, 2016; Pieterse, et al., 2007; Reynolds, et al., 2010; Sellers & Shelton, 2003; Sue & Sue, 2016).

Research Question 7: Exposure to Racial Discrimination

The last research question investigated which setting (i.e. media, home, peers, work, church or school) do students report to experience racist attitudes, believes, and actions the most? As a result, students appeared to experience racist attitudes, believes, and actions mostly in (a) movies/TV shows, (b) social media, (c) talk radio and song lyrics, and (d) on newspapers and magazines, respectively. Due to technological advances and living in the “instant” world, this may not come as a surprise. The internet, media, and social media play a central role in the lives of college students and much of their time is spent in these avenues (Tynes, et al. 2013, 2015).

Limitations of this Study

The main weakness of this study was the survey design. First, the survey was pretty lengthy and about 30 participants did not fully complete the R-LES which impacted the results of this study and its generalizability. Secondly, after the survey was launched spelling errors were identified and addressed to prevent confusion on responses. Thirdly, professors were given the authority to forward scripted message to their classes for recruitment of participants. However, there was no way for the researcher to confirm if emails were sent once approval was provided.

Lastly, in using an online format the researcher had no control in identifying who completed the survey or address any questions participants may have had during the survey.

In addition, sample size was also a weakness in this study. Originally this study was going to emphasize on citizenship status and sub-ethnic group differences in perceived racial discrimination. However, when data collection was completed group sizes were too small to run the analysis (e.g. 1 Arab American, 4 Asian Americans, 2 DACA students, etc.). Furthermore, ethnic groups in the survey were relatively small compared to the nature of the university's student body population. Lastly, in using online survey methodology the researcher falls prey to nonresponsive bias. In other words, students who were not asked to fill out the survey would have different responses from students who were asked to fill out the survey.

Strengths of this Study

Although this study had many weaknesses and most of the results were inconclusive, it still has scientific merit. This study was the first, to the researcher's knowledge, to compare perceived racial discrimination among all ethnic groups and not solely minorities. In addition, an online survey format was used to collect data as an effort to decrease stereotype threat and participants responses being influenced by social desirability. Lastly, as authority figures, professors were asked to extend the invitation to participate in this study to their students as an effort to increase participant response and provide an extended validation to this study.

Agenda for Future Research

Future studies should examine if there are differences in perceptions of racial discrimination and internalization of racism among individuals living in the U. S. with different citizenship status (i.e. international student, green card, DACA, etc.). In addition, knowing that there are more differences in variations within groups than there are between groups, it would be

interesting to further investigate if there are any differences in the way ethnic sub-groups perceived racial discrimination. Future researchers can also compare how these responses differ among university populations and geographical location such as liberal vs. conservative university, predominately White vs. Black or mixed university, and/or west coast vs east coast university. Additionally, it would be interesting to compare individual's resiliency level and their experiences of perceived racial discrimination.

Future studies should also focus on comparing student's experiences of perceived racial discrimination and that of what faculty members believe student's perceptions are. Lastly, there is a need for qualitative data on perceived racial discrimination. In this day in age, it is important to grasp how individuals from different ethnic groups, and possibly different ages, experience racial discrimination in their day-to-day life.

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Appendix A

Tables

Table 1.
Frequency Distribution of Participant's Ethnicity

Ethnicity	Frequency	Percentage
White/Caucasians	62	57%
Latinos/Hispanic	20	19%
African American/Black	12	11%
Other	13	12%

Notes: Other category includes individual who identified as Asian, Arab, and Multi/Bi-racial

Table 2.
Frequency Distribution of Participant's Class Standing

Class Standing	Frequency	Percentage
Freshmen	55	50%
Sophomores	16	15%
Juniors	9	8%
Seniors	13	12%
Graduate Students	16	15%

Table 3.

Descriptive Statistics of Participants Response on Perceived Racial Discrimination Experiences in the Past Week (N = 78)

	Never	Once	Twice	Three +
Did someone ignore you?	69	3	4	2
Did someone avoid talking to you?	64	10	2	2
Were you left out of an activity or event?	70	6	1	1
Did someone say something mean to you?	64	10	2	4
Did someone look at you in a mean or nasty way?	62	10	4	2
Did someone say or do something threatening?	70	5	1	1
Did someone treat you unfairly?	70	6	1	1
Did someone act as if you couldn't be trusted?	71	5	1	1
Did someone act as if you were lazy?	72	4	0	1
Did someone act like you couldn't be taken seriously or handle responsibility?	69	5	3	1

Table 4.

Means and Standard Deviations of Participants Perceived Racial Discrimination as a Function of One's Gender and Ethnic Membership

Gender	Ethnicity	N	M	SD
Male	White/Caucasian	15	44.40	13.51
	Black/African American	1	36.00	0.00
	Latino/Hispanic	1	47.00	0.00
	Other	4	38.79	13.89
	Total	21	43.05	12.84
Female	White/Caucasian	33	36.79	11.61
	Black/African American	9	47.89	12.25
	Latino/Hispanic	10	42.50	16.87
	Other	5	36.20	12.62
	Total	57	39.49	13.18

Notes. Perceived Racial Discrimination: higher the score more racial discrimination is perceived. Scores range from 17-85

Table 5.

Means and Standard Deviations of Participants Internalized Racism Scores as a Function of One's Ethnicity

Ethnicity	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
White/Caucasian	53	92.89	13.15
Black/African American	11	98.55	17.64
Latino/Hispanic	11	80.36	18.47
Other	10	88.70	35.40
Total	85	91.51	18.54

Note. Internalized Racism: the higher the score the more internalization. Score range from 30-120

Table 6.

Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient Matrix among Key Variables

Variables	EI	MH	IR	PRD
Ethnic Identity		-.25*	-.45*	-.26*
Mental Health			.21	.06
Internalized Racism				.05
Perceived Racial Discrimination				

Notes. *N*'s range from 78 to 104 due to occasional missing data. ASC. = academic self-concept. EI- ethnic identity, MH = Mental health. IR = internalized racism, PRD. = perceived racial discrimination. * $p < .05$.

Appendix B
Figures

FIGURE 1. HAVE YOU SEEN NEWSPAPERS/MAGAZINES THAT MAKE YOUR ETHNIC GROUP LOOK BAD?

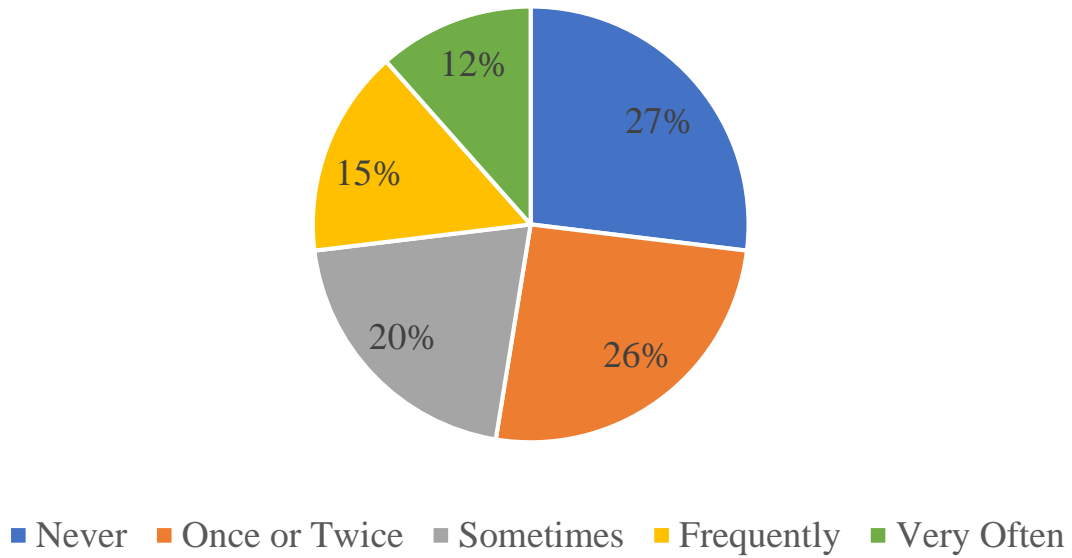


FIGURE 2. HAVE YOU HEARD DISRESPECTFUL COMMENTS ABOUT YOUR ETHNIC GROUP ON SOCIAL MEDIA?

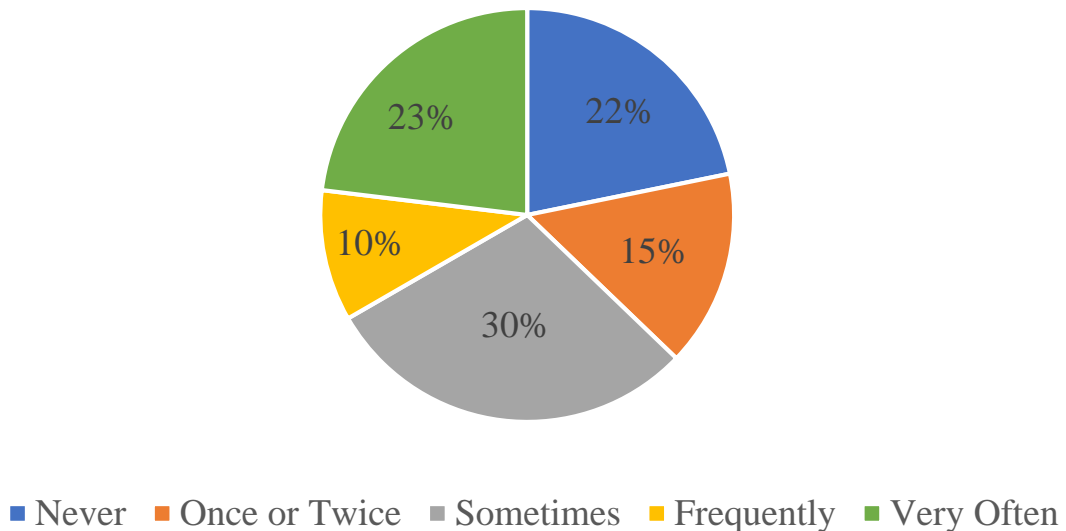
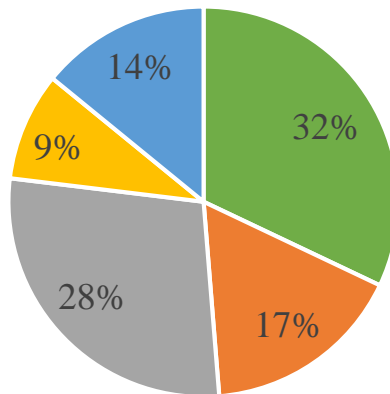
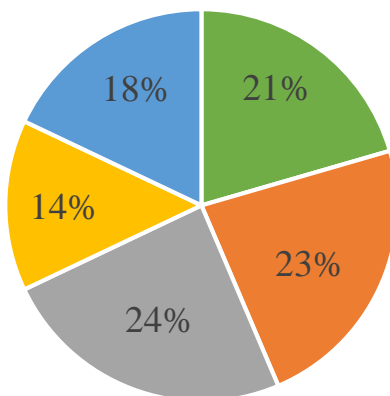


FIGURE 3. HAVE YOU HEARD DISRESPECTFUL COMMENTS ABOUT YOUR ETHNIC GROUP ON TALK RADIO OR IN SONG LYRICS?



■ Never ■ Once or Twice ■ Sometimes ■ Frequently ■ Very Often

FIGURE 4. HAVE YOU SEEN PEOPLE OF YOUR ETHNIC GROUP MADE TO LOOK BAD ON TV OR IN MOVIES?



■ Never ■ Once or Twice ■ Sometimes ■ Frequently ■ Very Often