



**STRESSFUL LIFE EVENTS, SCHOOL ADJUSTMENT AND LIFE
SATISFACTION OF IMMIGRANT AND NON-IMMIGRANT HIGH
SCHOOL STUDENTS IN CYPRUS**

By

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**STRESSFUL LIFE EVENTS, SCHOOL ADJUSTMENT AND
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GRANT HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS IN CYPRUS**

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Ioanna Maroulli

Dedication

This Dissertation is dedicated from the bottom of my heart, to my dad in heaven.

Acknowledgements

First and foremost, I am extremely grateful to my three supervisors, Dr Olga Solomontos-Kountouri, Dr Dagmar Strohmeier and Dr Ioulia Televantou for their invaluable and continuous advice, emotional support and patience during my academic research. Their knowledge and experience have encouraged and inspired me throughout all the stages and process of this Dissertation.

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Abstract

Immigrants constitute a large proportion of Cyprus' population; however, little is known about immigrant adolescents. This cross-sectional study, explored immigrant and non-immigrant high school adolescents' level of life satisfaction and school adjustment in relation to psychological trauma. 253 high school students with an average age of 14.3 (SD=0.9), completed a self-report questionnaire. Data was analyzed using analysis of variance and correlation tests. Results indicated that first-generation immigrant adolescents, experienced significantly more stressful life events than non-immigrant adolescents. However, despite this finding, no significant differences between the three groups of students with regard to school-related interpersonal and intrapersonal outcomes were detected. Increase in level of life satisfaction was evident in a similar way among the three groups. However, second-generation immigrants expressed significantly lower levels of expected life satisfaction (future life satisfaction) than non-immigrant students. These results, aid in understanding non-immigrant and immigrant adolescents' mental health and well-being and can help develop more effective education policies and student-centered school-based interventions.

Keywords: immigrants, adolescents, stressful life events, life satisfaction, school adjustment

Table of Contents

Plagiarism Statement.....	ii
Dedication	iii
Acknowledgments.....	iv
Abstract	v
Table of Contents	vi
List of Tables	ix
Introduction.....	xi
CHAPTER 1: LITERATURE REVIEW	1
1.1. History of Immigration in Cyprus	1
1.1.1. Attitudes Toward Immigrants in Cyprus.	3
1.1.2. Intercultural Education Policies in Cyprus.	4
1.2. Acculturation.....	8
1.2.1. The Impact of Stress on Adaptation.....	10
1.2.2. Immigrant Paradox.....	12
1.3. Immigrant Students' Mental Health	13
1.4. Scholastic Well-Being	15
1.4.1. School Anxiety.....	16
1.4.2. School-related Psychosomatic Complaints	18
1.4.3. School Autonomy	19
1.4.4. School Motivation and Interest	20
1.4.5. Peer Relationships.....	23
1.5. Stressful Life Events and Life Satisfaction	26
1.5.1. Stressful Life Events	26
1.5.2. Psychological Well-Being and Life Satisfaction	30
1.6. COVID-19 Pandemic-Related Stress	31
1.7. Significance of the Present Study.....	32

CHAPTER 2: RESEARCH AIMS, QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES	35
2.1. Research Aims	35
2.2. Research Questions and Research Hypotheses.....	35
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY	41
3.1. Method and Design.....	41
3.2. Participants.....	42
3.3. Measures	43
3.3.1. Demographic Information.....	43
3.3.2. School Motivation and Interest and Peer Relationships	43
3.3.3. School Autonomy	44
3.3.4. School Anxiety.....	44
3.3.5. School-related Psychosomatic Complaints.....	44
3.3.6. Psychological Well-Being	45
3.3.7. Life Satisfaction	45
3.3.8. Stressful Life Events	45
3.3.9. COVID-19 Pandemic-Related Stress.....	46
3.4. Procedure	46
3.5. Data Analyses	47
CHAPTER 4: RESULTS.....	49
CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION.....	61
5.1. Current Findings	61
5.1.1. Immigration status and number of stressful life events	61
5.1.2. Immigration status, school anxiety and school-related psychosomatic symptoms	62
5.1.3. Immigration status, school autonomy, peer relationships, school motivation and school interest	63
5.1.4. Immigration status and life satisfaction	64
5.1.5. Immigration status and COVID-19 pandemic-related stress.....	65
5.1.6. Stressful life events and the correlation with psychosocial outcomes..	65

5.2. Implications and Practical Applications	68
5.3. Methodological Considerations	69
5.4. Recommendations for Future Research	70
5.5. Conclusion	71
REFERENCES.....	73
APPENDICES	95
Appendix A: Study proposal to the Pedagogical Institute of Cyprus	96
Appendix B: Letter of approval of the study	99
Appendix C: Letter to school principals about the study’s aims and procedure.	100
Appendix D: Greek and English versions of parental consent form.....	102
Appendix E: Greek and English version of the questionnaire	104

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1: <i>Reliability test (Cronbach's alpha) for the scales used</i>	49
Table 4.2: <i>Frequencies of immigrant and non-immigrant participants</i>	50
Table 4.3: <i>Descriptive statistics regarding the age of the three groups</i>	51
Table 4.4: <i>Descriptive statistics of demographic information of the three groups</i>	51
Table 4.5: <i>Descriptive statistics for immigrant students</i>	53
Table 4.6: <i>Descriptive statistics for immigrant students' ethnicity</i>	54
Table 4.7: <i>Percentages for country of origin based on ethnicity and generation</i>	54
Table 4.8: <i>Descriptive statistics for the total number of stressful life events</i>	56
Table 4.9: <i>ANOVA test for the number of stressful life events experienced by students of different immigrant status</i>	56
Table 4.10: <i>Descriptive statistics for the five outcomes of interest for all students</i>	57
Table 4.11: <i>Statistical significance regarding future life satisfaction of students</i>	58
Table 4.12: <i>Descriptive statistics for the question regarding future life satisfaction</i>	58
Table 4.13: <i>Correlations between stressful life events and other outcome measures</i>	59

INTRODUCTION

“Immigrant” is a term used to describe foreign nationals who enter a country for purposes of permanent resettlement (Birman, 2006) and one can be first-generation, second-generation, third-generation or higher generation immigrant. In the current study, first-generation, second-generation and non-immigrant students were considered. To classify students in the current research, Solomontos-Kountouri and Strohmeier’s (2021) distinction was used. As cited in their paper, students whose either their mother or father were born abroad and who were themselves born abroad, are considered as first-generation immigrants whereas students whose mother or father were born abroad, but who were themselves born in Cyprus, are considered as second-generation immigrants. Students whose parents were born in Cyprus, and who were themselves born in Cyprus are classified as non-immigrants.

As cited in Sandoval-Hernández et al. (2018), there exist several interpretations of immigration, that have led to academic debate over the past decades. Some, blame the international division of labor and the construction of a world economy for the displacement of workers from different regions of the world (Harvey, 2007), whereas in other cases, immigration is conceptualized as the result of globalization processes and the increase of relations and networks between countries (Castells, 2010). A third, more influential interpretation, poses that immigration is a process that is responsible for the loss of the importance of the nation state, which consequently causes the reconfiguration of forms of state control and national barriers (Sassen, 2014). Other researchers, view immigration as displacements caused by wars or conflicts within nations. As cited in Urzua et al. (2019), a simpler interpretation exists, which states that immigration is the movement of people from one country to another in order to improve social, material or personal conditions. Regardless of the interpretation, immigration has become a phenomenon of increasing importance and magnitude all over the world (Garay et al., 2015). According to the UN Population Report (2002), immigration is considered a world-wide phenomenon, which involves millions of people.

Due to the settlement and arrival of immigrants in many countries, particularly after the nineteenth century, many societies have developed a heterogenous character (Lynch, 1989), where people with different linguistic, religious, ethnic and cultural backgrounds live

together. Cyprus has always been considered a multicultural country, where Greek, Arab, Armenian, Maronite, Turkish, Turkish-Cypriot and Romani populations amongst many others reside (Akçali, 2007). Since the 1990's, Cyprus has become a host country for many immigrants who left their countries for different reasons. This, has transformed the island from an emigration country to an immigration country, particularly after its accession in the European Union in 2004 (Hajisoteriou, 2010). The last five years, Cyprus has also become a destination country for a large number of asylum seekers and refugees (Gravani, et al., 2019). Immigrants who have arrived in Cyprus over the years, are mostly Georgians, Filipinos, Pakistanis, Syrians, Lebanese, and Iranians (Trimikliniotis & Demetriou, 2005). According to a more recent study by Gravani et al. (2019), European immigrants living in Cyprus come mostly from Greece, UK, Romania, Bulgaria and Poland, whereas most non-European immigrants come from Philippines, Russia, Sri Lanka and Vietnam. These groups are spread across all the Greek-Cypriot provinces (Cyprus Statistical Service, 2011).

Because of the progressive influx and settlement of immigrants in Cyprus, especially during the last two decades, the student population and educational system have been affected as well. As a result of the historical segregation of the Greek-Cypriot and Turkish-Cypriot educational systems, the Greek-Cypriot educational system has always been monocultural, therefore, it is not surprising that immigration has caused major challenges and brought many changes to the Greek-Cypriot profile in schools. In the school year 1995-1996, 4.41% of the Cyprus school population consisted of immigrant students. In 2007-2008, this percentage rose to 7.7% and in 2009-2010, it escalated to 12% (Zembylas & Lesta, 2011). Today, there are schools where the vast majority of the school population constitutes of non-indigenous students. According to Theodosiou-Zapiti et al. (2011), this situation is predicted to continue in an accelerated fashion, causing rapid demographic and more social changes in society and schools.

For immigrant students, the transition into a new educational system can create linguistic, cognitive, psychological and social challenges, making it very difficult for them to adjust to the new settings. Immigrant students face multiple challenges, as the process of immigration often involves losing close relationships and social support networks, while at the same time having to form new relationships in new and often intimidating conditions (McIntyre et al., 2011). According to Tong et al. (2006), a successful transition to a new country is accomplished when immigrants manage to develop an emotionally comfortable, secure and stable "cross-cultural identity". A stable identity is formed when the values and

practices of one's home country are balanced with the values and practices of the host country in an efficacious manner.

Schools represent a microcosm of the new society in which immigrant adolescents have to live. Within the school settings, they will become participating citizens by building supportive and trusting relationships and by interacting with peers and adults. Both socialization and the building of nurturing bonds, are essential for all students, but especially for immigrant adolescents (Suarez-Orozco et al., 2009), as research shows that they serve as protective factors regarding social adjustment (Barowsky & McIntyre, 2010). Gangi and Barowsky (2009), also found that the way immigrant students interact with school personnel, greatly affects their achievement, behaviour, self-image and motivation, as well as their ability to develop a healthy intercultural identity, while serving as a protective factor in the development of psychopathology.

In Cyprus, despite the increasing number of immigrant students enrolled in public and private schools, limited research exists investigating students' experiences and perspectives regarding their psychological and academic adjustment. Available research is limited only to a few qualitative studies, which investigate issues of multicultural/intercultural education in Cypriot schools (Angelides et al., 2003;2004; Panayiotopoulos & Nicolaidou, 2007; Papamichael, 2008) and face methodological problems. In general, there are not many studies investigating phenomena such as acculturation and adaptation of immigrant youth in Cyprus. This lack of literature, indicates that the notion of immigrant adolescents' overall well-being and adaptation requires further research.

The aim of this research, is to investigate immigrant and non-immigrant high school students' level of life satisfaction (psychological well-being) and school adjustment [school motivation and interest, peer relationships and school-related psychological outcomes (school anxiety and psychosomatic complaints)] in relation to psychological trauma (experience of stressful life events). Specifically, the study aims to investigate how well immigrant adolescents have adjusted to the Cypriot culture at school, at social level and well-being and how stressful life events might have affected the process of overall adjustment in comparison to their non-immigrant peers. For the purpose of this research, 253 high school immigrant and non-immigrant students of Cypriot schools completed a questionnaire which examined their perspectives and experiences regarding school, stressful life events and life satisfaction.

A brief history about research on different aspects of immigration is included at first, as background knowledge on the subject. In chapter two, the research aims, questions and hypotheses are stated. These, were formed based on existing literature, as presented in chapter one. The methodology of the study including the design, the measures, the procedure and the data analyses used, is presented in chapter three. Chapter four, includes description of the main findings of the research. In the final chapter (chapter five), findings are discussed with regard to implications and practical applications, recommendations for future research and methodological considerations.

CHAPTER 1: LITERATURE REVIEW

This section assesses the body of previous research that addressed topics related to immigrant students. Past research in this area, has focused mainly on acculturation and phenomena such as the “Immigrant Paradox” and “Acculturation Stress”, as well as on factors regarding immigrant students’ (mental) health and school performance. Interestingly, despite adolescence being such an important and critical developmental period, research on immigrant adolescents and youth, especially in Cyprus, is limited, thus there is no sufficient knowledge to improve the situation on both social and educational level.

To add to the understanding and knowledge of this field, the present research investigates whether first-generation immigrant, second-generation immigrant and non-immigrant students differ with regard to experiencing stressful life events, their level of life satisfaction and their ability to adjust to Cyprus school settings. Using in-depth methodological procedures, the aim is to fill the gaps of past research and provide answers that will help the educational system improve and embrace immigrant students.

The following sub-sections of this literature review, which are dedicated to each of the main, most-cited aspects of immigration, describe how different studies examine phenomena and patterns with regard to immigration and present what research findings suggest.

1.1. History of Immigration in Cyprus

Cyprus is a small island in the Eastern Mediterranean, with a total population of approximately one million (Cyprus Statistical Services, 2019). The island is a former British colony which became independent in 1960 (Gravani et al., 2019). In the following years (1963-1967), intercommunal clashes between the Greek Cypriot majority and the Turkish Cypriot minority, and finally the Turkish invasion in 1974, led to the division of the island. As a result of the invasion, two separate communities were created, with almost one third of Greek-Cypriots (600,000) living in the south part of the island and 45,000 Turkish-Cypriots to the north part (Zembylas et al., 2010). Due to the presence of these two major communities, but also because of three religious minorities (Armenians, Latins and Maronites) that

pre-existed and live in Cyprus, the country has always had a multilingual and multicultural character (Hajisoteriou & Angelides, 2018).

Throughout the 20th century, Cyprus has been a country of out-migration (Cypriots were permanently leaving Cyprus to settle in other countries). However, due to the quick economic boom in the 1990's, migration of labor in Cyprus had begun and turned the island into an immigrant recipient country (Spyrou, 2009).

As cited in Gravani et al. (2019), immigration flow in Cyprus is regulated by laws which date back to the British Colonial era. These legal frameworks cover aspects regarding their stay, residence and departure. In late 1980s, as Cyprus was becoming an immigration host country, policies regarding immigrants' entry and labour conditions were quite restrictive (Miloni et al., 2015). However, in the years after 1991, policies had changed. As cited in Hajisoteriou (2020), the division of the island, brought major changes in the economic organization and employment patterns of the Greek-Cypriot (southern) part, which resulted in a quick economic development. These changes together with international factors, led to the "economic miracle" as it was called, which was the main cause for amendments of policies regarding immigrants. The abandonment of the restrictive immigration policies, led to the arrival of even more immigrants in Cyprus.

With the accession of Cyprus to the European Union in 2004, more people of other nationalities have migrated to the island (Gravani et al., 2019). Immigrant individuals coming to Cyprus from third world countries, include asylum seekers, political refugees and workers mainly in the area of hospitality, housing and hotel catering. However, a large number of immigrants are undocumented workers who work in the 'black economy'. These individuals work hard in difficult positions in sectors such as manufacturing, agriculture and construction (Hajisoteriou, 2020).

Despite the new policies and legal frameworks, immigrants do not seem to have equal opportunities to participate in the society as native individuals. According to the Migration Policy Index (MIPEX), a tool which measures policies of different countries to integrate immigrants, Cyprus was placed 30th (out of 31 countries being analyzed) regarding integration of foreigners. This means, that Cyprus does not provide foreigners favorable conditions in order for them to have access to and integrate in the labour market, or actively participate in democratic life (Miloni et al., 2015). According to MIPEX (2019) key findings, between 2015 and 2019, Cyprus showed an increase of two points in its MIPEX score, as small improvements in integration policies benefited non-EU immigrants. However, Cyprus score

was still nine points below the international average, indicating that more integration of immigrants in the society is needed. Furthermore, MIPEx categorizes Cyprus' approach to integration as "Immigration without Integration". This is because immigrants arriving from non-European countries, have many of their basic rights denied and encounter many obstacles with regard to the labour market, education, health and politics.

1.1.1. Attitudes Toward Immigrants in Cyprus

The interaction of non-immigrants and immigrants and the way each group perceives the other, is significantly affected by the way immigrants are treated by the government. Policies in Cyprus, seem to discourage the view of immigrants as equals and rather enhance the notion of them as strangers or subordinates (MIPEx, 2019). Ironically, these representations of immigrants by the government go against one major traditional cultural value of the Greek-Cypriot society, hospitality to foreigners.

According to Demetriou (2013), xenophobic attitudes toward immigrants tend to raise in the Cypriot society. Results obtained from a survey investigating Cypriots' racist and xenophobic attitudes, revealed that Cypriots' xenophobic tendencies are reflected in three ways: (a) they do not appreciate the immigration of people from other foreign countries to Cyprus, (b) they tend to believe that individuals who come to Cyprus from other countries do not enhance the traditions and culture of Cyprus and (c) they have a negative disposition toward the contribution of immigrants to Cyprus' economy. Mainwaring (2008), poses that because Cyprus' government was not prepared for the rapid socioeconomic challenges that were brought to the country due to the increased immigration, immigrants face racism, marginalization and civic exclusion. Trimikliniotis (2009), states that the unresolved political problem in Cyprus (known as the "Cyprus Issue"), complicates even more the issue of immigration, as it creates serious security concerns.

Trimikliniotis and Demetriou's (2012) study, showed that racial violence incidences increased after 2004. Mainwaring (2008), suggested that this violence is a byproduct of the fear natives feel concerning the loss of economic security and their perceived threat regarding the country's national identity. Native Cypriots' fear is believed to be fueled by the existing myths and stereotypes about immigrants, which are further enhanced by the economic conditions, the political and media discourses (which portray immigrants as a burden on society and economy), education and policy-making (Miloni et al., 2015). Unfortunately, these tendencies are found in youth attitudes as well. As cited in Zembylas et al. (2010),

studies on attitudes of native Cypriot children and adolescents, revealed that there is a negative predisposition toward immigrants, since they believed that stereotypes and racism are justified and that crime is positively correlated to immigrants.

The Centre for the Study of Childhood and Adolescence, investigated Greek-Cypriot children's attitudes toward foreigners, using a sample of 288 fifth and sixth graders of 10 schools in Nicosia and found that children hold negative perceptions of immigrants. 75% of children, reported that they believed there are too many foreigners living in Cyprus and only 14.6% reported that it was good that non-Cypriots live in the island. Furthermore, more than half of the participants, stated that foreigners play a significant role in increasing the crime in Cyprus. However, despite the disappointing findings, Spyrou (2004), argued that the fact that not all participants held negative perceptions about foreigners, was a good and encouraging sign.

According to Zembylas (2010), these negative stereotypes are even more intense in contexts where ethnic conflict exists, because native children need to deal with the constant increasing flow of immigrants while at the same time, having to overcome the challenges of living together with individuals they perceive as enemies. These intense emotional reactions toward immigrants, may be a form of a defense mechanism children develop against those who they perceive as being different or threatening. Sen (2006), poses that racist and nationalist attitudes (believing that one's national identity is superior to others), are more frequent in conflict-ridden societies, such as Cyprus.

Research suggests that the case of Cyprus is very interesting for investigating phenomena such as immigration, due to the characteristics of the local context. The political and ethnic division of the island, its relatively recent accession into the European Union, the increasing flow and the major impact of immigrants on the economy of the country, make Cyprus a complex landscape, offering researchers the opportunity to study various aspects of immigration. Results obtained from studies in these areas, can be used to promote further integration of foreigners in the country, in fields such as education, workforce and legislation formation.

1.1.2. Intercultural Education Policies in Cyprus

According to Maniatis (2012), intercultural education involves the promotion of interaction, solidarity, empathy and pluralism in educational practice. It should take into consid-

eration students' needs and interests and question the educational system (teaching strategies, curricula), with the goal of societal change. Intercultural education and inclusion should involve students, teachers and parents and should aim to prevent academic and social exclusion.

As cited in Zembylas et al. (2010), in countries where ethnic conflict exists, such as Cyprus, education is separated along ethnopolitical lines. In fact, after the division of the island in 1974, in each of the two newly formed communities (Greek-Cypriots and Turkish-Cypriots), the process of homogenization was enhanced for political reasons. Because of this separation, two different educational systems were created, each one focusing on different curriculum and educational practices and also creating prejudice and negative stereotypes about the other. This, over the years, resulted in monocultural educational systems that perpetuated conflict and division. In the area of education, monoculturalism acts as an assimilation mechanism, which demands immigrant students' adjustment to the host country, culture and school values, instead of aiming for changes in school and social stances in order to meet their needs (Banks & McGee-Banks 2009).

In Greek-Cypriot society, intercultural education is a relatively new educational policy. Despite the fact that official curricula and policy documents involve statements regarding respect for human rights and humanistic ideas, non-native children are still being marginalized, seen as different and needing to be assimilated in the Cypriot society (Panayiotopoulos & Nicolaidou, 2007).

Education debates concerning inclusion appeared in Cyprus in 1997, after UNESCO carried out an appraisal study on the Cypriot educational system and warned policy makers about certain groups of students being excluded and marginalized (Hajisoteriou, 2020). Following this, immigration issues appeared in the agenda of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sport and Youth (MoECSY) of Cyprus in 2001, when it expressed its willingness to take into account the changes in the cultural character of Cypriot schools, which resulted from the large number of immigrants who arrived in Cyprus (Hajisoteriou & Angelides, 2016).

According to previous research, one of the most important factors that have led to changes in the education system as a response to immigration, is Cyprus' accession to the European Union (Hajisoteriou & Angelides, 2018). This was because, equal access to education to increase awareness in the Greek-Cypriot society was included in the negotiations for the accession of Cyprus to the European Union (Hajisoteriou & Angelides, 2016b). Furthermore, Trimikliniotis (2001), posed that Greek-Cypriots' exposure to anti-discrimination

movements in Europe, aided the liberalization of immigrant policies. As cited in Hajisoteriou (2020), an example of a major change in response to Europeanization, was the amendment of the ‘Aliens and Immigration Law’, which was adjusted in order to agree with the European advices regarding family reunification and long-term stay. Hajisoteriou (2020), essentially argues that Cyprus’ political and social responses to immigration were encouraged by the European Union, which had “forced” its members to consider immigrants’ rights and alter legislations to promote their inclusion. Inclusion is a term/an act, related to both society and education systems. Because education is required for immigrant children’s social and cultural development, Cyprus had to respond in such ways to support their inclusion through education.

As cited in Hajisoteriou (2020), the starting point of the country’s implementation of interculturality-oriented educational policy, was the approval of Act 28 (III) by the Cypriot Parliament (which officially recognized and accepted the Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities by the Council of Europe). In addition, the European Commission against Racism and Intolerance (ECRI), conducted three reports on Cyprus in the years 1999, 2001 and 2006, which played a major role in initiating changes regarding intercultural education in Cyprus. Because the findings of the reports showed that immigrants were portrayed as potential threats to the Cypriot society, ECRI inspectors emphasized the need for diversity respect and advised the MoECSY to add human rights education as a mandatory subject in the curriculum of all levels of education.

In an attempt to prove its ability to create an intercultural policy in response to ECRI reports, the MoECSY between 2003-2004 developed and applied on a pilot basis the ZEP (Zones of Educational Priority) program, in some schools with large numbers of immigrant children. ZEP program’s primary aim was to provide immigrant children with extra intensive Greek lessons, in other words, language support, but also to promote multiculturalism. The purpose behind ZEP, was to create a program to fight school failure, literacy and exclusion in schools with high rates of immigrant students (Hajisoteriou, 2020).

Furthermore, in 2004, the MoECSY used the slogan “Democratic Education in the Euro-Cyprian Society” and started a campaign regarding issues of intercultural education. According to Europeanized discourses, the slogan was used to describe Cyprus’ efforts to embrace interculturalism in the national education system. In addition, in 2008 the MoECSY, in an attempt to promote interculturalism, used the terms ‘intercultural education’ and ‘inclusion’ to replace ‘multicultural education’ and ‘integration’. Another action taken by the MoECSY,

was the formation of new curricula (during school year 2011-2012), which aimed the creation of democratic schools which promote inclusion and respect for diversity and cultural pluralism (Hajisoteriou, 2020). The new curricula, involved discourses of intercultural education and aimed the adoption of an intercultural ideology. However, Hajisoteriou and Angelides (2014) claimed that, because the definition of intercultural education was inadequate in the curricula, a gap was created between practice and policy rhetoric.

In the school year 2015-2016, the ZEP program was replaced by the DRASE program (Actions for School and Social Integration) and was applied in schools with large numbers of immigrant students. Schools that participate in this program, provide students and their families with various services, such as counseling and guidance (for social skills enhancement and prevention of youth delinquency and school failure) and Greek language intensive lessons, in order to avoid social exclusion and fight illiteracy (Hajisoteriou, 2020). In the same year, the MoECSY developed an anti-racist behavior code and a guide for racist incident management and logging. Both the code and the guide, were created to help teachers identify and respond to racist behavior and to promote anti-racist school environment (Hajisoteriou, 2020).

However, despite MoECSY's attempts and the new policies formed, later research revealed that in practice, these policies still related to monoculturalism. As cited in Hajisoteriou (2020), according to Cypriot research findings, the gap between practice and curriculum discourse of interculturalism, was created because the intercultural education policy was developed without actually restructuring or reconceptualizing the Cypriot educational system. As a result, no coherent policies about intercultural education and no clear organizational practices to be applied were communicated to schools by the MoECSY. In other words, even though the MoECSY added an intercultural character to the national and educational policy, it failed to provide the essential resources for the application of these policies to schools.

Hajisoteriou and Angelides (2016), pose that cultural and political reasons (mainly the political problem), also play a significant role for Cyprus' "symbolic" adoption of Europeanized policies regarding intercultural education. Specifically, they stated that because immigrants are perceived by society as a threat to Cypriots' national identity (in the same way as Turkish-Cypriots and Turks are), the MoECSY had not developed effective initiatives for inclusion of immigrants on purpose, so that immigrant students would be in some way "forced" to assimilate in the native culture (Hajisoteriou & Angelides, 2018).

Ultimately, it seems that changes regarding intercultural education in Cyprus have occurred only at the national policy rhetoric level and not at the level of practice in schools. The existing nationalistic teaching discourses, the unchanged (history and religious studies) textbooks used in schools and the goal of linguistic assimilation of immigrant students, represent strong evidence of the lack of change at the level of practice (Theodorou, 2014).

1.2. Acculturation

As cited in Fox et al. (2017), the term ‘Acculturation’ stems from two fields: Anthropology and Archaeology. It is a term that has been initially constructed to describe the changes that result with regard to language and culture, when different groups come together. It was later re-conceptualized, re-operationalized and used in the field of Psychology. More specifically, in the early 1950’s, the Social Science Research Council, added to the definition of acculturation a psychological component, which emphasized the catalytic role of choice(s) immigrants can make, regarding which characteristics of the host country wish to adopt and which heritage/origin culture characteristics wish to maintain (Padilla & Perez, 2003). Over the years, the focus of the term has shifted from the group to the person level and is nowadays used when one refers to changes in an individual’s values, identity and behavior, as a result of first-hand intergroup contact.

Berry and Sam’s (1997) model, is the most prominent and accepted conceptualization in the field of Psychology. According to them, acculturation is “a set of internal psychological outcomes including a clear sense of personal and cultural identity, good mental health, and the achievement of personal satisfaction in the new cultural context”. Furthermore, their model, assumes that acculturation is a process of psychological and cultural adaptation process (that follows intercultural contact), composed of two dimensions/issues: host culture acquisition and heritage culture retention (Berry, 2003). As cited in Handelsman and Gottlieb (2005), the first dimension, refers to the individuals’ willingness to either maintain or change their origin identity and culture, and the second dimension refers to the degree of the individuals’ out-group contact and participation in the host or/and other cultural groups.

According to Berry and Sam (1997), the combination of these two dimensions/issues of acculturation, results in four acculturation strategies: integration, assimilation, separation and marginalization. Integration is the process where individuals interact with other cultures while maintaining their original culture, whereas assimilation is a term used to describe the abandonment of one’s original culture while interacting with other cultural groups. Furthermore, separation is a term used when individuals maintain their original culture but do not

interact sufficiently with other cultural groups and the last one, marginalization, is used to describe the situation where individuals show no interest in contacting other groups, nor maintaining their original culture. Berry (1980), stated that the way each individual experiences acculturation varies, and it is this variation of engagement in the acculturation process that he named “acculturation strategies”. He also used the term “psychological acculturation” to describe life changes of individuals who belong to larger cultural groups, brought by cultural changes. As cited in Serdarevic and Chronister (2005), the most effective acculturation strategy is integration, as it allows individuals to maintain their heritage culture and adopt/accept values and customs of the host culture simultaneously. In fact, Berry and Sam (1997, p.298), stated that “Evidence strongly supports a positive correlation between the use of this strategy and good psychological adaptation during acculturation”.

When it comes to immigration, Berry (2008), defined acculturation as a two-way process, where both immigrant and receiving culture’s individuals, adapt to cultural changes. Cultural changes occur at a political, economic and psychological level. Berry (2008), stated that immigrants compared to individuals of the receiving/host culture, experience more cultural changes. For the vast majority of immigrant individuals, the process of acculturation begins upon arrival in the host country.

As cited in Serdarevic and Chronister (2005), another way to conceptualize acculturation in the context of immigration, is a process consisting of three stages: relief, disappointment (regarding the host culture) and finally acceptance over the course of time. Relief is usually felt during the first stages of immigration, when immigrants idealize the host country. However, as immigrants have more contact with the people and the mentality of the receiving country, they may become disappointed. If this feeling of disappointment continues for a long period of time, it may trigger the development of psychological problems and psychological maladjustment (Ben-Sira, 1997). In the case where individuals do not face such difficulties, acceptance of host society is achieved over time.

Past research shows that acculturation is a process that has a significant impact on developmental outcomes, particularly in early adolescence, a period when radical physical and psychological changes occur (Cooper, 2011). Cheung et al. (2011), called this period, “sensitive period” for acculturation. As cited in Schwartz et al., (2015), especially immigrants and adolescents from minority groups, seem to face more issues regarding their identity, because they must maintain a balance and place themselves somewhere between their country/culture of origin and the new host country. This process, could be very challenging and

potentially create psychological incongruences, as adolescents are “forced” to adopt and fulfill various different, incompatible and/or conflicting roles and expectations.

Acculturation is considered both a social and an individual-level phenomenon, which continues throughout life. It is a complex and dynamic two-way/bidimensional process, which includes changes and adaptations by both culture(s) and individuals involved. The stages of acculturation process change over time, as immigrants’ context and society’s perception of them change, thus it is important to think of acculturation as a non-linear process (Serdarevic & Chronister, 2005). As researchers suggest, it is very important to become aware of these chronosystemic changes in immigrants’ experiences. Further understanding of their mental health needs and their needs in general, will result in better and more effective policy-making in different societal contexts.

1.2.1. The Impact of Stress on Adaptation

As cited in Sirin et al. (2012), by definition, acculturation stress or else acculturative stress, refers to the possible psychological and social challenges immigrant individuals encounter while they negotiate the differences between their host and home culture. According to Bilewicz et al. (2020), after their arrival in the host country, immigrants often experience negative feelings, such as anxiety and low self-esteem and is also common for them to feel uncertain and threatened. Adverse experiences such as prejudice, discrimination and negative attitudes/stereotypes held by the host culture, enhance these feelings further, sometimes leading to high levels of stress and isolation. Other aspects of the acculturation process, such as learning and adapting to new cultural expectations and rules, also give rise to acculturation stress. Language skills, work challenges/pressure for academic excellence and intercultural relations, are all considered potential causes of acculturation stress (Zacarian et al., 2017; Bilewicz et al., 2020). In other words, acculturation stress is bidimensional, as it involves both the intrapersonal experiences of the individual (managing or struggling with negotiating cultural differences) and the host culture’s attitudes toward the individual (prejudice and discrimination). Research shows that the nature of the host society plays a major role in determining the degree to which immigrant individuals experience acculturation stress, and in fact, it is suggested that the higher the discrepancy between the host and the home culture, the more stressful the acculturation process will be (Lee et al., 2004).

As cited in Sirin et al. (2012), the body of research regarding the effects of acculturation stress on adolescent populations is not large. However, findings from research on a similar construct known as “minority stress”, show that racial discrimination, negative stereotypes

and hostile attitudes can significantly affect in a negative way youth in minority groups. Minority stress theory was initially developed to understand sexual minority groups' mental health, and poses that mental health disorders in minority groups, are mainly caused by the hostile conditions and social stressors created by prejudice and stigma (Wu et al., 2020). The theory was later extended and applied in research examining the effects of racism and discrimination on ethnic minority groups' mental health.

Research on minority stress, has yielded strong evidence that adolescents who experience high levels of minority stress during the process of identity formation, are more prone to developing mental health disorders [e.g., depression and anxiety disorders, psychosomatic complaints and lower self-esteem (Sirin et al., 2012)]. Furthermore, according to the minority stress model, undocumented immigrants are more vulnerable for psychological distress, as they experience multiple chronic social and cultural stressors and more losses [e.g., family separation, loss of rights, social status and well-being (Garcini et al., 2019)] compared to documented immigrants

In 2007, Carter used the term "race-based traumatic stress", to describe the psychological harm caused by stress, racism and trauma. He specifically stated that everyday real or perceived experiences of ethnic discrimination, as well as dangerous events of discrimination (e.g., physical injuries and humiliation) can lead to the development of post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) and other mental health problems in ethnic minority groups, which can then affect negatively their emotional well-being (Wu et al., 2020).

All things considered, research on acculturation of immigrants indicates that individuals who manage to successfully integrate their minority identity with the new host country/culture, show better adaptation and suffer less from acculturation stress (Bilewicz et al., 2020). On the other hand, those who feel inferior/marginalized and are unable to cope with acculturation stress, face a higher risk for developing mental health problems (Da Silva et al., 2017).

As cited in Urzua et al. (2019), immigration as an experience is not necessarily what causes stress, but the conditions under which it occurs can fuel acculturation stress, which in turn can have adverse effects on the physical and psychological well-being immigrants. In fact, according to Walsh et al. (2018), immigrant adolescents (and especially first-generation immigrants), who cope with acculturation stress successfully and experience a smooth cultural transition, have many opportunities for development brought up by immigration.

Positive adaptation of immigrant individuals is known in the literature as the “immigrant paradox”.

1.2.2. Immigrant Paradox

The “Immigrant Paradox” hypothesis poses that first-generation ethnic minority groups such as immigrants, appear to have better educational and health outcomes compared to their native-born peers, despite coming from similarly disadvantaged backgrounds. This phenomenon is also known as “Healthy Immigrant Effect” (Palacios et al., 2008)

As cited in Xu and Wu (2016), scholars explain this paradoxical phenomenon among immigrants by mainly using two perspectives; the cultural perspective and the self-selection perspective. The main difference between the two theoretical perspectives is that cultural perspective is often ethnicity-specific, whereas the self-selection perspective applies to nearly all immigrant groups.

The cultural perspective, which is mostly used by sociological research, posits that the differences found between native and immigrant children’s outcomes, are a result of cultural and behavioral characteristics unique to immigrant individuals. Based on this assumption, two theories of assimilation have been put forward. The first one, the “linear assimilation theory”, suggests that the degree of assimilation of immigrant children, defines their success. In other words, this theory suggests that the more one tunes with the host culture and abandons their origin culture, the more likely they are to perform similarly to their native counterparts and assimilate more smoothly onto the host culture.

The second theory of the cultural perspective, is called “the segmented assimilation theory” and was formed to improve the aforementioned model. This theory emphasizes that not all patterns of adaptation/assimilation are desirable. Some immigrant groups for example, succeed because they distance themselves from the host society and accommodate instead of assimilate into the new culture, whereas some others succeed because they assimilate into the new host culture through the acculturation process (Xu & Wu, 2016)

Nonetheless, according to Portes and Rumbaut (2001), the most successful immigrants, are in fact those who both selectively keep traits of their own culture (e.g., social cohesion, close family bonds, strong work/study ethics) and are integrated, instead of assimilated, into the host culture.

The self-selection perspective on the other hand, emphasizes the psychological characteristics of all immigrant individuals, who have moved voluntarily to the new/receiving country, such as their high aspirations and strong motivation. This approach suggests that adult immigrants usually have usually higher motivation than native individuals regarding employment and educational attainment, a trait which is then passed on to their children. In other words, this immigrant drive to thrive, reinforces immigrant adolescents' school adaptation and leads to academic excellence and outperformance over their native peers.

As cited in Xu and Wu (2016), research suggests that compared to their native peers, children of immigrants build better relationships with their teachers, show greater motivation and hold more positive attitudes towards school and learning. More specifically, according to Greenman (2013), findings from numerous studies suggest there exists a consistent pattern in which either first-generation immigrant children, second-generation immigrant children, or both groups achieve higher results (test scores and GPA) and have lower drop-out rates than their third-and-higher/native peers. This educational advantage of immigrant students, who might be thought to be educationally disadvantaged due to language and social barriers, has been termed the "Immigrant Paradox" in education (Palacios et al., 2008).

Despite numerous studies demonstrating supporting evidence for the Immigrant Paradox across psychological, educational and physical outcomes, research findings are non-consistent. Some studies for example, showed that first-generation immigrants in general outperform natives, however, by the second and third generation, this changes to an immigrant health disadvantage. In addition, the "Immigrant Paradox" was found to exist in the USA, but not in European countries. As cited in Zehr (2009), research collected from more than 40 counties, showed that in most (European) counties, first-generation immigrants have worse health and educational status than future generations. Therefore, it is believed that its existence is highly debated and may be different depending on ethnic backgrounds, demographic characteristics and outcome measures (Noam et al., 2014).

1.3. Immigrant Students' Mental Health

Adapting to the host country, can be a very challenging and stressful process, requiring both sociocultural and psychological adaptations. According to Berry (2005), not every individual responds to the acculturation process in the same way. Individuals who find it difficult to manage the changes that occur after displacement, face a higher risk for developing

anxiety disorders and depression. As cited in Kieseppä et al., (2021), the comorbidity between anxiety disorders, PTSD and depression in the general population is high, and as some studies suggest, it might even be higher among immigrant individuals.

Research on immigrant adolescents' mental health has provided mixed results. Some studies suggest that immigrant adolescents show more psychiatric symptoms and adjustment problems than the general population, whereas some others report they show less. These two perspectives are called the "Migration Morbidity" and the "Immigrant Paradox", respectively. From the perspective of the Migration Morbidity, immigrant individuals show worse mental health and overall adjustment, whereas from the Immigrant Paradox, as discussed in the previous section, immigrants outperform natives (Parviainen et al., 2021).

Research in Europe examining the correlation between adolescent mental health problems and immigration, has yielded supporting evidence for the perspective of Migration Morbidity, as it has shown that immigrant adolescents face a higher risk for developing mental health problems than their native peers (Minas et al., 2013). Some reasons for these results, include lesser access to professional healthcare, experiences of discrimination in the host country/society (Social Stress Theory), stress caused by the acculturation process itself (Acculturation Theory) and facing the various challenges brought up by immigration. Pre-migration factors, such as living conditions (e.g., war, poverty) and stressful or traumatic experiences associated with leaving one's country and family members, can also trigger mental health problems, as they evoke feelings of loss and uncertainty. Especially for immigrant teenagers, who are undergoing important developmental changes, such social losses in combination with acculturation stressors, can have detrimental effects on their mental health (Minas et al., 2013).

Supporting evidence for the Migration Morbidity, comes also from research on externalizing and internalizing mental health problems. More specifically, findings from research on immigrant adolescents' mental health, suggested that immigrant adolescents show more internalizing (depression, anxiety and somatic pains) and externalizing (observable behaviors such as aggression and delinquency) symptoms compared to their native peers (Fang et al., 2020). Studies focusing further on gender differences between immigrant and non-immigrant adolescents regarding mental health, have shown that despite girls in general experiencing more internalizing problems than boys, the correlation was more robust among immigrant adolescents. Findings also revealed that immigrant girls displayed more mental health problems than their native female peers (Nolen-Hoeksema & Girgus, 1994; Flink et

al., 2012). These differences have not been fully explored; however, some scholars believe that girls' and boys' differential access to society resources, asymmetric power relationships between them and differences regarding traditions and gender-based expectations of the host culture and the country/culture of origin, might account for these differences (Shoshani et al., 2016).

Nonetheless, as cited in Shoshani et al. (2016), there are also numerous studies that showed no differences between immigrant and non-immigrant adolescents' mental health outcomes, or even better mental health among immigrant adolescents. For example, Stevens and Vollebergh (2008), conducted an international literature search regarding first- and second-generation immigrant children's mental health and found that there is not sufficient evidence to indicate that immigrant children face an increased risk for developing mental health problems compared to their non-immigrant counterparts. In addition, another study of both first- and second-generation immigrant adolescents living in 13 different countries, showed that immigrants had less mental health problems than their native peers (Berry et al., 2006) (Immigrant Paradox). As cited in Noam et al. (2014), Qingwen et al. (2010), posed that immigrant adolescents have important protective factors, such as family environment and relationships which reduce the risk for developing mental health problems.

All things considered, studies on the psychological health of immigrant adolescent population remain inconclusive, with some showing immigrant adolescents doing better than their native peers and others finding increased rates of symptoms such as depression, anxiety, aggression, low self-esteem and dependency. These contradictory results, are considered to be potentially linked to differences in cultural/ethnic background, gender, host population, and many other factors that affect the processes of immigration and acculturation and indicate the importance of further investigating their relationship with immigrant adolescents' adjustment (Noam et al., 2014).

1.4. Scholastic Well-Being

As cited in Obermeier et al. (2021), scholastic well-being is a highly relevant area in educational research. Findings of numerous studies have suggested that there is a strong influence of scholastic well-being on successful learning and health status of students, and have emphasized that scholastic well-being is an important indicator of school quality.

Scholastic well-being as a context-specific part of general well-being, involves (cognitive and affective) evaluations of experiences within the school settings. The cognitive component includes both self-related (e.g., scholastic self-concept) and contextual aspects (e.g., positive attitudes towards school), whereas the affective component includes whether a student experiences enjoyment in school and whether physical expression of emotions (e.g., headaches, dizziness) with regard to school achievement, is present. Social problems at school also represent a further dimension of scholastic well-being. Scholars, point out that well-being can act as a determinant of academic achievement, but at the same time can be regarded as an outcome of students' achievement as well (Obermeier et al., 2021).

With regard to immigrant students, as cited in Motti-Stefanidi et al. (2008), school is considered one of the most important cultural contexts, because it offers them the opportunity to be exposed to the host culture's norms and values, allowing them to gain numerous acculturative experiences. Some of the most important markers of effective adaptation to the host culture, include psychological well-being, academic achievement, peer relationships and obeying the rules. These domains, are evaluated within the school context and are considered some of the key developmental tasks of adolescence.

According to scholars, success in these domains is an indicator of positive adaptation, both from the point of development and acculturation, and is considered an important predictor of positive adult outcomes as well (Berry et al., 2006). School success is also found to be greatly associated with fewer future societal problems, such as teenage pregnancy and criminal behavior. Thus, given the fact that immigrant youth comprise a large part of many societies all over the world, assuring they succeed in school, will benefit both immigrants as individuals, but also the society as a whole (Motti-Stefanidi & Masten, 2013).

To measure immigrant adolescents' success and ability to adapt and adjust, researchers need to take into account school environment and psychological intrapersonal and interpersonal factors related to school, such as school anxiety (cognitive and physical symptoms), school autonomy, school motivation and interest and peer relationships.

1.4.1. School Anxiety

As cited in Suárez-Orozco et al. (2009), immigration stressors complicate immigrant students' adjustment to new schools, leaving them more vulnerable to academic failure compared to their native peers. Despite studies demonstrating that immigrant adolescents hold more positive attitudes toward school and greater optimism about the future than their native

peers, some of them fail to perform well academically on various academic indicators (achievement tests, grades, dropout rates, and school attendance).

School environment can have a great impact on students' sense of belonging and identity/personality formation. As cited in Walsemann et al. (2011), school environment plays a vital role in shaping students' worldviews as well, as it allows the reproduction of cultural and social inequalities. Schools convey either covertly or overtly information to students regarding the meaning of race and class, who is more powerful in a society, and whose beliefs are more valued. Such messages are mainly conveyed through the structure within the schools in terms of power, the extent of attention academic staff gives to racial conflicts within the school settings and through the parental and school personnel's stereotypes and attitudes. According to Tummala-Narra and Claudius (2013), both covert and overt forms of ethnic and racial discrimination are not isolated events that happen occasionally, but rather may be a normative experience for immigrant youth, which can contribute to adverse developmental outcomes.

Research findings suggest that the racial composition of schools, may form an environment where some students feel respected and valued, whereas others feel isolated because of their ethnic background. Immigrants, being a minority group, are more likely to experience discrimination compared to their native peers. Discrimination in turn, a socially-derived stressor, can influence both mental and physical health of immigrant adolescents. In fact, perceived discrimination has been shown to be linked to depressive symptoms and greater psychological distress (Walsemann et al., 2011).

As cited in Gillen-O'Neel et al. (2011), perceiving one's group as stigmatized can be a very stressful experience. Within the school environment, stress associated with stigma can be expressed as academic anxiety. According to research findings, individuals who belong to ethnic minority groups (such as immigrant individuals), who are repeatedly reminded that their group is stigmatized, tend to show more anxiety than individuals who are not reminded of their group's stigmatization. Steele (1997), posed that even though all students experience anxiety in the school environment (e.g., concern over others thinking of them as fools for giving the wrong answer), students who belong to minority groups for which negative stereotypes concerning academic abilities exist, suffer more from anxiety. For these students, not giving the correct answer could be personally damaging, but the fact that it confirms the negative stereotype toward their ethnic group, is even worse.

Furthermore, research showed that peer victimization within the school setting, can have a detrimental effect on minority group adolescents' academic self-efficacy. Specifically, research findings show that there is a negative correlation between peer victimization/rejection and perceived academic competence (e.g., test grades, exam performance and ability to pass grades), possibly because victimized and marginalized individuals receive negative messages about themselves, which are then expressed as negative overall self-evaluations and diminished sense of academic self-efficacy (Thijs & Verkuyten, 2008).

Lastly, as cited in Bankston and Zho (2002), another possible explanation for immigrant adolescents' school-related anxiety, is parental pressure. In an attempt to adjust and establish themselves in the new environment (mobility orientation), immigrant parents, over-pressure their children to achieve positions of prestige and respectability through schooling. Thus, children of immigrants may develop lower self-esteem and become more prone to academic anxiety.

1.4.2. School-related Psychosomatic Complaints

The belief that somatic symptoms can be a way of expressing emotional distress has existed in the literature for many decades (Lipowski, 1988). Individuals suffering from elevated psychological distress, anxiety disorders and/or mood disorders may also develop psychosomatic (or somatic) symptoms. Somatization, has been broadly defined as the presentation of one or more medically unexplained somatic symptoms, that does not meet the criteria of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM) for somatization disorder, or other somatoform disorders (Ritsner et al., 2000).

According to epidemiological studies' estimates, the prevalence of somatization in the general population, ranges from 4% to 20%, depending on the diagnostic criteria used in each study. With regard to the immigrant population all over the world, findings from several studies have indicated that individuals of this group have a higher risk of developing psychosomatic symptoms, since they experience significantly more psychological distress and stressful life events than members of native populations (Ritsner et al., 2000).

Research on immigrant adolescents' mental health, has provided empirical evidence suggesting that perceiving oneself as a target of discrimination by members of a dominant outgroup, is considered one of the main acculturative stressors linked to psychological symptomatology (e.g., anxiety and depression) and psychosomatic symptoms among immigrant

youth (Titzmann & Silbereisen, 2012). As cited in Cardoso et al. (2021), prolonged activation of the stress response system due to experiencing acculturation stress and discrimination, can lead to a variety of internalized symptoms/reactions in adolescent immigrant youth, such as generalized anxiety and somatic symptoms (including headaches, stomachaches, backaches, and morning fatigue).

Children often inform others about their well-being by expressing complaints concerning their subjective health, both in school and other settings. In 2008, Stevens and Volleberg conducted a large study on Nordic adolescents' subjective psychological and physical health, by assessing their subjective health complaints. Findings revealed that adolescents of foreign backgrounds, reported more subjective health complaints (e.g., headache, back pain, loss of appetite, stomach pain) than native adolescents. Numerous studies conducted in Denmark, yielded similar results. More specifically, as cited in Leth et al. (2014), a study examining mental and physical health-related problems among 7,056 immigrant and native Danish students, showed that immigrant students displayed higher levels of health-related problems than native Danish students.

Furthermore, as cited in Sam et al. (2008), findings of a study using a large cross-national sample of immigrant and native youth adolescents living in Finland, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, and Sweden, indicated that being a first-generation immigrant is correlated with poorer life satisfaction and higher levels of depressive and somatic symptoms, anxiety and low self-esteem, in comparison to native students or second-generation immigrant students.

All things considered, co-occurrence of psychosomatic and emotional symptoms, are common manifestations of stress reactions. Especially, among young immigrant individuals, these reactions seem to impact their school performance and adaptation to school demands. School-related stress in turn, causes higher prevalence of somatic complaints in this population, within the school environment (Sonmark et al., 2016).

1.4.3. School Autonomy

The ability to self-regulate one's behavior, is a part of the process of self-governance and is known as 'behavioral autonomy'. Behavioral autonomy is considered one of the most important aspects of adolescent development and a basic psychological need. During adolescence, individuals' sense and need of autonomy is increasing, usually leading them to seek new experiences (Titzmann & Silbereisen, 2012).

Within the school settings, the term ‘school autonomy’ is used to define “the behavior the teacher provides during instruction first to identify, then to vitalize and nurture, and eventually to develop, strengthen, and grow students’ inner motivational resources” (Reeve 2016, p. 130). As cited in Alivernini et al. (2019), teaching styles that support autonomy involve taking students’ points of view into account and allowing them to make their own choices with regard to learning and school activities. Research on school autonomy, suggests that when students feel that their autonomy is supported, they then feel more understood and respected by the teaching staff. According to Self-Determination Theory (SDT), such encouragement from teachers, improves students’ mental health, because it helps satisfying their basic psychological needs of autonomy, relatedness and competence (Alivernini et al., 2019).

Moreover, Roeser and Eccles (1998), reported that adolescents who believe their school provides them a greater degree of student autonomy (e.g., opportunities for students to share their suggestions and ideas), experience higher levels of self-esteem and have a lower risk for experiencing depressive symptoms. In a similar study, Way et al. (2007), found that when students are encouraged to participate in decision making and defining their school rules, their self-esteem increases.

Democratic school settings have been found to provide adolescent students with the opportunity to feel empowered and experience a sense of meaningful membership in society in the future. According to research, these positive effects of a democratic school environment are even more salient with adolescents of immigrant background. As cited in Özdemir and Stattin (2014), when immigrant adolescents are exposed to ethnic devaluation, they receive the message that their suggestions, input and ideas are not well respected or accepted by the ethnic majority group. Such messages, may lead them to perceive themselves as suppressed and devalued. On the other hand, when the school environment emphasizes the importance of inclusion and the need of valuing every student’s voice, in-group/out-group distinctions are prevented, ethnic harassment on students’ self-processes and psychological health is diminished and social cohesion is promoted. Thus, immigrant students feel integrated and the risk of school adjustment difficulties is significantly lowered (Özdemir & Stattin, 2014).

Research on immigrant adolescents' school autonomy is not sufficient. However, a study conducted by Alivernini et al. (2019), showed that when immigrant adolescents perceive teachers as adopting an approach that is supportive of autonomy, they tend to report significantly higher levels of psychological wellbeing.

1.4.4. School Motivation and Interest

Based on Bronfenbrenner's (1979), ecological systems theory, various studies on immigrant individuals have investigated how the experience of immigration itself is related to education, parenting and students' motivation in school. School motivation comprises of many constructs including goal orientation, motivation, self-schema and interest. Researching motivational constructs is very important, since motivation predicts future academic success of students.

According to SDT, human motivation has a universal multidimensional structure based on different regulation types that reflect different levels of self-determination. These types of regulation, are organized along a self-determination continuum, ranging from autonomous motivation to controlled motivation and amotivation. Autonomous motivation involves self-endorsed engagement in activities, whereas controlled motivation involves engagement in activities due to external or internal pressures. Amotivation on the other hand, refers to the complete absence of any form of motivation. Along this self-determination continuum, exist five types of motivation, arranged according to individuals' degree of autonomy. As cited in Manganelli et al. (2021), the five types of motivation are: intrinsic motivation (which represents the highest level of self-determination and involves studying for enjoyment and interest), identified regulation (which occurs when individuals consciously consider studying as valuable for themselves), introjected regulation (which is a lower level of self-determination and occurs when students are not fully involved with studying and they do it in order to avoid feelings of guilt), external regulation (which is the lowest level of self-determination and occurs when adolescents study to obtain rewards or avoid punishments.) and finally amotivation (which occurs when self-determination is totally absent).

According to SDT, when individuals feel they can satisfy their psychological need for autonomy, self-determined motivation is encouraged. Some study findings, suggest that sometimes, and especially when individuals live under disadvantageous socioeconomic conditions, this need for autonomy is not met. Thus, adolescents with a lower socioeconomic status, such as immigrant individuals, have a higher risk to experience negative emotions and psychological distress at school (Manganelli et al., 2021).

Research regarding academic motivation of high school students across different countries and cultures, is insufficient and inconsistent. However, a recent study by Manganelli et al. (2021), which compared the level of academic motivation between immigrant and non-immigrant adolescent students, showed that immigrant adolescents had lower levels of identified regulation and higher levels of amotivation, external regulation and introjected regulation than non-immigrant students.

As cited in Motti-Stefanidi et al. (2015), evidence regarding the effect of students' immigrant status (first-, second- or later generation) on school motivation and school engagement is inadequate, and results are inconsistent too, with some studies finding higher school motivation and interest among first-generation immigrant students and other studies finding higher school motivation and interest among second-generation immigrant students. This is known as "inter-generational effect" (Sánchez-Ordaz & Mosqueda, 2021). Both directions of research findings will be discussed further in the next paragraph.

With regard to the first direction of research findings, supporting evidence comes from studies that found that first-generation immigrants value school success, show higher school engagement and receive better grades than both their native peers and second-generation immigrant peers. Scholars suggest that this could be attributed to the fact that more recently immigrated youth (first-generation immigrant adolescents), place more value on education and put more effort in school (Duong et al., 2016). Research also shows that more recent immigrants, display lower rates of social and behavioral problems, put more effort into their school work and hold more positive attitudes toward school (Duong et al., 2016). Fuligni (1997), posed that on average, first-generation immigrants, compared to later generations of same-race immigrants, are perceived as more hardworking. Thus, it is not surprising that first-generation immigrant students are found to have higher school motivation and interest compared to second-generation and natives.

However, this phenomenon is not universal. With regard to the second direction of research findings, various studies have shown that second-generation immigrants often have better school outcomes compared to their first and later generation immigrant counterparts. Kao and Tienda (1995), proposed a variation of the Immigrant Paradox model which suggests the existence of an educational advantage of the second-generation over first- and later-generation immigrant students. They hypothesized that many recent immigrant parents hold higher expectations regarding their own and their children's upward mobility compared

to later immigrant generations, a phenomenon they named “immigrant optimism”. They further suggested that second-generation immigrant students seem to have a significant educational advantage over first- and later-generation immigrants, due to their mastery of the host country’s national language coupled with immigrant optimism (Duong et al., 2016). According to Kao and Tienda (1995), immigrant parents’ own experience of discrimination and low social status in the host country, drive them to hold high expectations and aspirations for their children’s upward social mobility through the educational system. Parental involvement in students’ school work seems to further positively influence students’ school engagement and performance (Duong et al., 2016).

Supporting evidence for second-generation immigrants’ educational advantage comes from a study by Portes and Rumbaut (2001) as well, who found that second-generation immigrants report to have both higher educational aspirations and school motivation than first- and later generation immigrant students. In addition, a meta-analysis carried out by Duong et al. (2016), revealed that second-generation students performed significantly better than first-generation immigrant students on standardized test scores and they outperformed later-generation immigrants on school grades. Researchers posed that, second-generation immigrant students’ advantage, may derive from a combination of these students’ protective cultural values and availability of resources.

Moreover, as mentioned before, results on generational differences regarding school motivation and interest among immigrant youth are not clear. In fact, according to Motti-Stefanidi et al. (2015), (either first- or second-generation) immigrants adolescents’ school motivation and school engagement is contingent on the host society and the immigrant group.

All in all, despite study findings suggesting an educational advantage of either first- or second-generation immigrant students, there are some common factors which negatively affect school motivation, school interest and educational aspirations of both groups. According to research, immigrant families’ low socioeconomic status, parents’ pre-immigration education, cultural familiarity with the receiving country’s educational system, linguistic proficiency, parental involvement in education, parental aspirations and students’ academic self-concept, are all considered variables that influence all aspects of academic performance. These variables should be therefore taken into account in school policy development, in order to efficiently integrate immigrant adolescents within each host country’s school system (Areepattamannil & Freeman, 2008).

1.4.5. Peer relationships

Peers play a very important role for adolescent development. According to Erik Erikson (1968), during adolescent years (ages 12–18), individuals establish peer relationships while seeking to develop self-identity and autonomy from their parents (Chen, 2005). Steinberg and Brown (1989), highlighted that even though parents have the most salient influence on their children’s long-term educational path, peers are more influential on their everyday behaviors in school. For example, time spent on homework, how they behave in the classroom and attitude toward school, seem to be associated with peer relationships. Researchers in the United States, have also found that peers affect all aspects of a student’s life (not only educational aspirations) and especially emotional and social adjustment (Chen, 2005).

As cited in Chen (2005), it is reasonable to expect that peers influence one another’s academic engagement and outcomes, due to the many hours they spend together every day at school. During adolescence, peers act as social mirrors, validating each other’s self-image. Thus, the experience of being accepted by peers in a social setting such as the school, is critical for the adolescent’s self-esteem (Saminathen et al., 2021).

According to Masten (2014), both developing and maintaining positive peer relations are very important developmental tasks that predict individuals’ future adaptation. Acceptance by peers, promotes and protects the psychological well-being and adaptation of adolescents, whereas rejection by peers, increases risk for negative outcomes. Research shows that good-quality friendships and trusted close friends, can buffer victimization and protect anxious adolescents. In particular, study findings showed that having social support and acceptance by peers, increase validation and decrease social anxiety (Du & Field, 2020). In addition, research shows that positive peer relationships at school, lead adolescents to perceive school more favorably and perform better academically (Motti-Stefanidi et al., 2008).

According to Plenty and Jonsson (2017), belonging to an ethnic minority group is considered as a risk factor for exclusion among peers. Social identity theory suggests that individuals in general, desire to identify with and belong to social groups perceived as superior to others. Within the school settings, students strive for a high position within the social hierarchy and may deliberately or unintentionally distance themselves from individuals who are perceived as belonging to a group of lower status (such as immigrants).

Feeling accepted by non-immigrant peers is considered a crucial acculturative task for immigrant adolescents, as it promotes their overall well-being and their positive adaptation to the host culture. As cited in Asendorpf and Motti-Stefanidi (2017), research suggests that acceptance and rejection of immigrants by peers and classmates depend mainly upon four distinct factors that often overlap. These factors are: in-group preference, immigrants' societal status, immigrant composition of the classroom, and intergroup contact.

In-group preference, refers to the tendency of people to prefer members of one's in-group to those of one's out-group, a phenomenon also known as “homophily”. Adolescents often choose to make friends who are similar to themselves, in terms of ethnicity, age and socioeconomic status. Consistent with this phenomenon, known as “friendship homophily”, immigrant adolescents seem to prefer making friends with individuals from their own ethnic group (Motti et al., 2008). In multi-ethnic contexts, differences in ethnicity often result to in-group preference. Within the school setting, in mixed classrooms consisting of non-immigrants and immigrants, immigrant status might also result to an in-group preference of immigrants, even if students are of different ethnicities (Asendorpf & Motti-Stefanidi, 2017).

With regard to immigrants' societal status, research shows that in multi-ethnic groups, ethnic (sub) groups of higher social status, are preferred more than groups of lower social status. This preference, reflects hierarchies in society (Asendorpf & Motti-Stefanidi, 2017).

Moreover, the third factor, the immigrant composition of the classroom, seems to play a major role in adolescents' peer preferences. As cited in Asendorpf and Motti-Stefanidi (2017), as the proportion of immigrants in a multi-ethnic classroom increases, immigrants' profit from immigrant classmates' in-group preference increases too. Immigrant students and especially those who have a more visible minority status, find it more difficult to gain group membership and a sense of belonging in a classroom with a high proportion of majority/native group students. This is because, in such context, they may face more discrimination and stigmatization.

Rejection by classmates can potentially have detrimental effects on immigrant adolescents' sense of self-image, and thus it can lead to lower levels of perceived psychological well-being among them. In contrast, according to research, when immigrant adolescents are surrounded by a high proportion of other students who are foreign-born too or have foreign-born parents, they have better chances of experiencing a stronger sense of belonging, and consequently maintaining a higher level of psychological well-being (Saminathen et al., 2021). Numerous studies conducted in Northern American and European countries, confirm

these findings and highlight that especially immigrants with non-European backgrounds, experience less victimization in schools with higher proportions of immigrants (Plenty & Jansson, 2017).

The fourth factor affecting peer relationships of immigrant adolescents, is opportunity for intergroup contact. As cited in Asendorpf and Motti-Stefanidi (2017), various meta-analyses of studies in this area, have revealed that in most social settings, prejudice is negatively associated with the length and quality of intergroup contact and is in fact more profound among societal majority members. Scholars attribute these findings to the fact that cross-ethnic contact does affect prejudice, by reducing the initial intergroup bias (both in-group favoritism and out-group discrimination). Findings of longitudinal studies, suggest that the higher the intergroup contact the less the intergroup bias over time. For example, Titzmann and Silbereisen (2009), reported that recently immigrated German-Russian adolescents, had over a period of three years, increasingly more cross-ethnic friends in German schools. Similarly, Titzmann et al. (2012), found that within a period of two years, Jewish-Russian immigrant students in Israel had a significant increase of cross-ethnic friendships.

As cited in Barrett et al. (2012), the interethnic dynamics of diverse school environments have been found to affect immigrant students' academic motivation and achievement. More specifically, school-based supportive peer relationships that promote a sense of acceptance by other ethnic groups, have been shown to enhance both immigrants' behavioral and cognitive engagement, leading to higher grades.

Nevertheless, despite literature identifying factors influencing immigrant adolescents' peer relationships and school adjustment, empirical findings regarding differences in social exclusion between majority and immigrant adolescents have been mixed. Some studies found that individuals belonging in ethnic minority groups, report more bullying than majority youth and are liked less than individuals belonging in the ethnic majority group (Motti-Stefanidi et al., 2008; Strohmeier et al., 2011). However, other studies found no such differences (Fandrem et al., 2009), or found the complete opposite [that ethnic minority groups are less likely than ethnic majority groups to be identified as victims (Strohmeier et al., 2008)].

1.5. Stressful Life Events and Life Satisfaction

1.5.1. Stressful Life Events

As cited in Ward et al., (2021), psychological stress refers to the physical and/ or psychological outcome of a perceived environmental demand on an individual. These environmental demands (stressful events), could range from chronic stressors (e.g., chronic illness and community violence), to time-limited high-severity stressors (e.g., natural disasters). According to Thoits (2010), stressors can be categorized into three general categories: negative events, chronic strains, and traumatic stressors. Negative events, are single aversive demands on a person's life, chronic strains are characterized by demands that are persistent or repeated, and traumatic stressors occur in situations in which the individual believes that there is a threat to their life, bodily integrity, or sanity. All three categories of stressors, cause physiological and psychological responses that affect both physical and mental health.

An individual's response to stressors can be physical and/or mental, depending on the individual's social and cultural resources, psychological makeup and needs of the situation. According to research, a factor that affects an individual's response to stress, is the nature of the stressor. Greater perceived severity of the stressor, longer duration and closer proximity to the stressor, are all associated with more problematic stress responses.

Gagne (1998, p.356), defined trauma as a 'shock that is deemed emotional, and substantially damages over a long time period', can have long-lasting effects (such as PTSD and depression) not only on the individual who experienced it, but also on later generations of that individual's family.

Within the immigration context, immigrant trauma may involve traumatic stressful events, such as interruption of schooling, housing and/or food instability, discrimination due to race, religion or language, lack of physical and medical care, poor mental health, separation from parents or family, war, or political chaos in their country of origin (Murphy, 2016). According to Torres et al. (2018), immigrant individuals may go through three different stages of traumas: pre-immigration trauma (involves pre-existing stressors in their country of origin), trauma during immigration process and post-immigration trauma (involves stressors in the host country).

The experience of stressful and/or traumatic experiences by immigrant individuals, increases the risk for psychological distress and disorders. According to a study by Perreira

and Ornelas (2013), during the immigration process, about 29% of immigrant adolescents and 34% of their parents/guardians, experience at least one traumatic event. Amongst those who were exposed to trauma, about 9% of adolescents and 21% of their parents were at risk for developing PTSD. Sack et al. (1999), found that PTSD tends to persist in immigrant population and it may even develop 6-12 years after arrival in the host country. According to another study by Fazel et al. (2012), 8- 9 years after displacement, post-immigration experiences were more important for immigrant youth mental health than pre-immigration experiences.

Murphey (2016), posed that immigrant children and adolescents are significantly affected by traumatic experiences and emphasized that exposure to trauma can possibly create a path for symptoms of toxic stress.

Liang et al. (2020), carried out a study to investigate the relationship between childhood trauma and negative academic, social and behavioral outcomes, using a sample of immigrant children in China. Researchers were specifically interested in exploring internalizing and externalizing behaviors, by asking immigrant children to complete both child behavior checklist and traumatic experience history screenings. The most common traumatic events reported by the children, were witnessing violence outside of their home (24.24%) and experiencing domestic violence (13.98%), whereas less common traumatic events were disasters (2.61%), earthquakes (2.71%) and one or more sexual harassment encounter (5.18%). Researchers further categorized traumatic events based on the degree of exposure to the event. The three categories that emerged were: low trauma exposure (meaning participants had a low probability of exposure to a traumatic event), vicarious/secondhand trauma exposure (meaning participants had a moderate probability of exposure to a traumatic event) and multiple trauma exposure (meaning participants had moderate or high probabilities of traumatic exposure). According to the findings, children showed significant differences in symptoms (such as aggressive and delinquent behavior, withdrawal, and somatic complaints), depending on the type of trauma they were exposed to. Furthermore, the findings indicated that children exposed to more severe traumatic events, had higher scores for both internalizing and externalizing behaviors.

With regard to school context, in the case of immigrant students, research has documented that the trauma of uprooting and adjusting to a new host culture, can cause significant psychological distress and acculturation stress that can in turn have detrimental conse-

quences on their peer relationships, self-esteem and self-efficacy (Frabutt, 2006). Experiencing trauma can also impact immigrant adolescents' educational outcomes and their relationship to the new school system (Zacarian et al., 2017). According to research findings, stressful experiences in childhood can lead to behavioral issues in the classroom, making adjustment in the education system even more challenging (Balfanz et al., 2014).

According to research, repeated exposure to stressful life events, complicates immigrants' integration onto the new host country and creates new stressors for this group, that accumulate into compounded trauma (Torres et al., 2018). The impact of trauma is thought to be passed down through generations (intergenerational transmission). In other words, behavior patterns, symptoms and values in relation to trauma that appeared in one generation, will affect not only the generation that was victimized but also next generations. Danieli (1998), suggested that trauma will be passed down as the family legacy to children born after trauma, regardless of whether survivors talk about it or not. As cited in Straussner and Calnan (2014), the impact of trauma remains decades after the original traumatic experience and mental health symptoms may increase when individuals experience further traumas. Therefore, it can be concluded that the frequency of traumatic events experienced (multiple traumatic exposures), is an important predictor of long-term mental health outcomes, particularly for traumatized immigrant and refugee groups.

The dynamics of intergenerational transmission of trauma were first identified in studies of adult children of Holocaust survivors (Danieli, 1998), and were later confirmed by researchers investigating refugee populations from all over the world (Bogic et al., 2012).

With regard to the relationship between immigrant status, immigrant generational status and the number and severity of traumatic events experienced, evidence is neither clear nor sufficient. Sam et al. (2006), compared the general psychological adaptation of first-generation, second-generation and non-immigrants adolescents living in 13 different countries and found significant differences in only four countries (Canada, Finland, Norway, and Sweden). In these countries, non-immigrants and second-generation immigrants had better psychological adaptation than first-generation immigrants, while no differences between non-immigrants and second-generation immigrants were observed. These results, confirm that first generation immigrants may be at increased risk of mental illness and higher rates of PTSD (Close et al., 2016), and that second-generation adolescents have an advantage over their parents (Papademetriou et al., 2009).

However, other studies suggest that despite the fact that children of immigrants (second-generation immigrants) should feel that they have a similar future to their native-born peers, they may experience more traumatic events compared to first generation immigrants, due to racism and discrimination (Dreby, 2012).

Because there is no sufficient research exploring the differences and similarities between first-generation, second-generation and non-immigrants with regard to the experience of stressful life events, the current study will address this with a research question.

1.5.2. Psychological Well-Being and Life satisfaction

According to Da Conceição et al. (2008), subjective well-being refers to how people perceive and evaluate their lives. Most researchers in this area, pose that there are three specific components of subjective well-being that can be operationalized and measured. Two of these components belong to the affective domain and include the presence of positive feelings (such as happiness) and the absence of negative feelings (such as anger and anxiety), and the third component, (the cognitive component), refers to the intellectual evaluation of one's life satisfaction, either with respect to specific life domains or globally. Because well-being can be understood as a continuum in the same way as health, it is important to measure both negative and positive dimensions. According to Obermeier et al. (2021), well-being can be considered high when self-evaluation is in favor of positive dimensions.

With regard to 'Life Satisfaction' as a term, Shin and Johnson (1978) defined it as an overall assessment of an individual's quality of life, according to his unique chosen criteria. As cited in Kogan et al. (2018), life satisfaction from the socio-psychological perspective, is a subjective evaluation process, through which individuals compare their (perceived) situations with their hopes and expectations of how the situation should be (ideal/reference situation). As far as immigrant individuals are concerned, existing studies have identified three dimensions that are directly connected to immigrants' subjective evaluation process. These are: cultural, social, and economic integration.

Research on life satisfaction among immigrant groups is limited and inconsistent, however, findings in general show a constant pattern of low life satisfaction among ethnic and racial minority groups compared to the ethnic majority group, after their arrival in the host country. According to Verkuyten (2008), this result is still found when certain demographic and other factors are controlled. For instance, in a national survey conducted in the Nether-

lands, it was found that the general life satisfaction of immigrant and ethnic minority individuals was significantly lower than that of the ethnic Dutch, even when controlling for income, educational level, physical health, age, and gender. Thus, it seems that just belonging in an ethnic minority group, can lower general life satisfaction. Reasons for lower levels of life satisfaction, include both immigration specific factors and contextual host country effects (Arpino & de Valk, 2018).

Acculturation research has shown that attitudes of the majority group toward minority groups are important for understanding ethnic minority groups' life satisfaction, their attachment to their own ethnic group and their attachment to the larger society. More specifically, research findings suggest that ethnic minority members who feel unwelcome, excluded or discriminated, are more likely to feel less satisfied with their life in the host country (Verkuyten, 2008). Furthermore, other contextual characteristics of the host country, such as immigrants' status in the socioeconomic hierarchy, immigrants' employment prospects within the host country, mobility barriers preventing second-generation immigrants from social advancement and the extent to which immigrants' cultural heritage is compatible with the host culture and values, are all factors that affect immigrants' perceived level of well-being and life satisfaction (Kogan et al., 2018). According to numerous empirical studies, taking into consideration the national-level characteristics can aid understanding the variation in immigrants' life satisfaction after settling in different countries all over the world.

Moreover, as cited in Borraccino et al. (2018), research suggests that the level of life satisfaction differs between first- and second-generation immigrants, however, findings are inconclusive because there have been only a few studies comparing well-being in more than one generation of adolescent immigrants. Some studies have found that the second-generation is less satisfied with life than the first-generation, while some others found the exact opposite, or no differences at all.

Research findings regarding differences in life satisfaction of immigrant and non-immigrant adolescents, are inconsistent as well. In addition, the Immigrant Paradox of life satisfaction (i.e., that immigrants have higher levels of life satisfaction than non-immigrants) has not been sufficiently supported by empirical evidence (Tang, 2019).

Based on the fact that there is lack of systematic patterns in the literature, one of the aims of the current study, is to identify whether immigrant status (immigrant or non-immigrant) and immigrant generational status (first-or second-generation) are associated with differences in the level of life satisfaction of adolescent students in Cyprus.

1.6. COVID-19 Pandemic-Related Stress

The COVID-19 international situation and the associated consequences, such as lockdown measures and school closures, had negatively affected the mental well-being of adolescents. As cited in Soest et al. (2020), with schools being closed and the implication of major social restrictions, children may have missed out on experiences that can offer self-realization and affirmation. Social distancing may have caused feelings of loneliness and isolation, which are risk factors for mental health problems and disconnection, and many may have felt anxious about infection and illness, which may have negatively affected their quality of life and well-being. In fact, in Austria, Pieh et al. (2022), found a significant decrease in mental well-being as well as a high prevalence of mental disorders in adolescents, one year after the COVID-19 outbreak.

Research regarding the effects of the pandemic on immigrant populations are not sufficient or clear yet. Some studies showed that individuals with immigrant background had poorer mental health outcomes during the pandemic (Gibson et al., 2021), while some others reported the opposite (Liu et al., 2020), or even no differences at all (Akkaya-Kalayci et al., 2020). Generally, most scholars suggest that youth belonging to minority groups have a greater mental health risk related to the pandemic than individuals belonging to the majority group. According to research, this is because adolescents in minority groups are affected by social distancing measures in the same way adolescents of majority group do, however, immigration factors such as inadequate supplies, lack of information, financial concerns and disease-related stigma, exacerbate these effects (Endale et al., 2020). Another possible reason for the exacerbation of the pandemic effects on immigrant individuals, is that because interventions and other aids (i.e., help-lines and telehealth) were less accessible to these populations during the pandemic, possibly due to language barriers and differences in digital literacy (Wagaman et al., 2022).

To conclude, the existing literature with regard to COVID-19 pandemic, suggests that vulnerabilities of immigrant youth seem to increase by the pandemic, making them more prone to developing mental health problems (such as anxiety) and experiencing lower levels of life satisfaction. One of the aims of the current study, is to examine a) whether the pandemic influenced the level of stress experienced by immigrant (first- and second- generation) and non-immigrant adolescent high-school students and b) whether the number of past

stressful life events affected this experience. In other words, in this study, COVID-19 pandemic is conceptualized as an added psychological stressor (stressful life event) that could have potentially affected immigrant and non-immigrant adolescents in Cyprus.

1.7. Significance of the Present Study

This study's findings will reveal whether there are any differences and/or correlations between immigrant (first-and second-generation) and non-immigrant high school students in Cyprus, with regard to school adjustment, life satisfaction and experience of stressful life events. These results in turn, will help in understanding the current status quo of the Cypriot educational system regarding immigrant students and the psychological experiences of high school students in Cyprus in general. In addition, the findings would be of major importance and contribution in understanding and assessing how adolescents of different ethnic backgrounds feel and react to environmental and emotional stressors and thus will aid in improving school environment and integration policies, especially for immigrant students. Research in Cyprus in this area is limited and international research has yielded mixed results, therefore this study's aim is to provide novel and helpful information in an attempt to increase young individuals 'quality of life and improve their educational experiences in supportive and potentially discrimination-free school settings.

CHAPTER 2: RESEARCH AIMS, QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

2.1. Research Aim

Because there exists limited research conducted in Cyprus regarding immigrant adolescents' overall well-being, the current research aids to the understanding of such a significant area. The aim of the current study, is to investigate the differences between two groups (immigrant and non-immigrant high school students) enrolled in Cypriot schools, with regard to stressful life events, life satisfaction and various aspects of school adjustment. Research questions and hypotheses, are based on the findings of previous research. In this way, past knowledge is tested while at the same time, new knowledge is added and expanded.

2.2. Research Questions and Research Hypotheses

Based on previous literature on these topics, the following research questions (RQs) and Research Hypotheses (Hs) were formed:

RQ1: Is immigration status (first-generation immigrants, second-generation immigrants and non-immigrants) correlated to the number of stressful life events?

Literature on the experience of stressful life events, suggests that first-generation immigrants experience more traumatic life events than second-generation immigrants. First-generation immigrants face more traumatic situations in their country of origin and in relation to the journey and immigration process (Giammusso et al., 2018), thus it is expected they will report a larger number of stressful life events than second-generation immigrants and non-immigrants, who normally do not go through such experiences. According to these findings, the following hypothesis has been formed:

H1: First-generation immigrants will have experienced more stressful life events than their native peers and second-generation immigrants. Second-generation immigrants will not have experienced more stressful life events than their native peers.

RQ2: Does immigration status predict different levels of school anxiety and school-related psychosomatic symptoms?

Previous research regarding immigrants' mental health in general, and with regard to immigration and generational status, has provided mixed results. However, a common finding, is that first-generation immigrants are more vulnerable than second-generation immigrants to experience psychological distress/anxiety. This is because second-generation immigrants are socialized and educated in the mainstream society, thus they don't face as many obstacles in their daily lives as first-generation immigrants (Hirschman, 1996). With regard to psychosomatic symptoms, it has been found that first-generation immigrants report higher levels of somatization (higher frequency and more severe symptoms) than non-immigrant and second-generation immigrant individuals (Morawa et al., 2017; Sam et al., 2008). Therefore, based on these findings the following hypothesis was formed:

H2: First-generation immigrants will have experienced higher levels of school anxiety and school-related psychosomatic symptoms compared to their native peers and second-generation immigrants.

RQ3: Does immigration status predict different levels of school autonomy, peer relationships, school motivation and school interest?

Research on immigrants' school motivation and interest, has provided controversial results. Some studies found that first-generation immigrants have higher school motivation and interest than second-generation immigrants and some found the exact opposite. Some researchers suggest that because more recent immigrants are more hardworking and value school success and education more than second-generation immigrants and non-immigrants, they score higher grades (Duong et al., 2016). Other researchers, who found an educational advantage of second-generation immigrants over first-generation immigrants, pose that their educational success is attributed to their mastery of the host country's national language and to their higher educational aspirations driven up by their parents' expectations of them, regarding their upward social mobility (Duong et al., 2016; OECD, 2015). Some second-generation immigrant student groups, have been found to even outperform non-immigrant adolescents (Azzolini et al., 2012).

As cited in Azzolini et al. (2012), in general, it is believed that second-generation immigrant adolescents tend to outperform first-generation immigrant adolescents in school, because they do not directly face the hurdles of immigration and the challenges of adapting to new contexts, languages and educational systems.

With regard to peer relationships, previous research provided mixed results as well. However, a common finding is that adolescents with immigration background, are more likely to experience bullying (Motti-Stefanidi et al., 2008), exclusion and discrimination than their non-immigrant peers (Plenty & Jonsson, 2017). Because of the exclusion and prejudice against them, immigrant individuals' sense of school autonomy can be potentially indirectly affected. Existing literature, suggests that when immigrant adolescents perceive themselves as unaccepted or non-likable by the ethnic majority group, they feel devalued and as a result, they do not feel they belong to the school community (Özdemir & Stattin, 2014). This in turn, leads to lower self-esteem and more psychological distress (Manganelli et al., 2021).

Based on these findings, the following hypotheses were formulated:

H3¹: Second-generation immigrants will have experienced higher levels of school motivation and school interest compared to their non-immigrant peers and first-generation immigrants.

H3²: Non-immigrant adolescents will have experienced higher levels of school autonomy and better peer relationships compared to first- and second-generation immigrants.

RQ4: Does immigration status predict different levels of expected increase in life satisfaction?

Research in this area is both inconsistent and limited. However, there are some studies showing that recent immigrants report better mental health and higher life satisfaction than non-immigrant/native individuals (Dorsett et al., 2019). Studies carried out by Borraccino et al. (2018) and Lemos (2013), have also shown that first-generation immigrants have a higher level of positive well-being and score significantly higher than second-generation immigrants on the general quality of life index, respectively. Second-generation immigrants on the other hand, seem to report similar life satisfaction levels with native individuals, possibly because of their successful integration in the host country (Tay, 2020). Because of these findings, for the purpose of this study, the following hypothesis was formed:

H4: First-generation immigrants will have experienced higher levels of expected increase in life satisfaction than second-generation immigrants and non-immigrant adolescents. Second-generation immigrants will have experienced similar levels of expected increase in life satisfaction with non-immigrant adolescents.

RQ5: Does immigration status predict different levels of COVID-19 pandemic-related stress?

The psychological consequences of COVID-19 pandemic have not been extensively investigated yet. Findings of studies, generally showed that individuals belonging in minority groups have a greater mental health risk related to the pandemic than non-immigrants. This is possibly because of limited access to services, and social distancing measures (e.g., isolation and closing of schools), which add to the already existing challenging immigration factors they are experiencing (Endale et al., 2020; Wagaman et al., 2022). To test any differences between the three groups, the following hypothesis was formed:

H5: First-generation immigrants and second-generation immigrants will have experienced higher levels of COVID-19 pandemic-related stress than their non-immigrant peers. First-generation immigrants will not have experienced higher levels of COVID-19 pandemic-related stress than second-generation immigrants.

Three more research questions and six hypotheses focusing on the effect of experiencing stressful life events on adolescents' mental health and school-related interpersonal and intrapersonal factors were formed. Based on previous research suggesting that stressful life events have a damaging effect on psychological well-being and can lead to negative health outcomes (Thoits, 2010), it was hypothesized that the experience of stressful life events would have a negative impact on all outcomes of interest. More specifically, the following research questions and hypotheses were formulated:

RQ6: Does the number of stressful life events predict adolescents' mental health (i.e., school anxiety and psychosomatic symptoms)?

H6¹: More stressful life events experienced, predict higher levels of school anxiety in all adolescents.

H6²: More stressful life events experienced, predict more school-related psychosomatic symptoms in all adolescents.

RQ7: Does the number of stressful life events predict school-related interpersonal and intrapersonal factors?

H7¹: More stressful life events experienced, predict lower levels of school motivation and school interest.

H7²: More stressful life events experienced, predict lower levels of school autonomy.

H7³: More stressful life events experienced, predict poorer peer relationships.

RQ8: Does the number of stressful life events predict COVID-19 pandemic-related stress?

H8: More stressful life events experienced, predict higher levels of COVID-19 pandemic-related stress.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

3.1. Method and Design

To investigate the current study's research hypotheses and questions, quantitative methodology was used. Quantitative methodology emphasizes reliability, validity and replicability (Albery & Munafo, 2007), in contrast to qualitative research, which is not concerned with numerical representativity, but with the deepening of understanding a given problem (Queirós et al., 2017).

Despite qualitative research focusing on the deeper understanding and explanation of dynamics of processes and phenomena, collection and analysis of data requires significant preparation, is very time-consuming and can be costly. The main disadvantage of qualitative approaches though, is that their findings cannot be generalized to the general population with the same degree of certainty that quantitative analyses can, because they are not tested to discover whether they are statistically significant or due to chance (Atieno, 2009). For these reasons, and because existing research regarding immigrant adolescents in Cyprus is qualitative (e.g., Papamichael, 2008; Theodorou & Symeou, 2013), it was decided that the most suitable methodology to use in this study, was quantitative.

Data was collected using a survey through close-ended questions. As cited in Glasow (2005), surveys are capable of obtaining information from large samples of the population and are also well-suited to gathering demographic data that describe the composition of the sample. In addition, surveys require minimal investment to develop and administer, are relatively easy for making generalizations and can also provide information about constructs that are otherwise difficult to measure using observational techniques.

Cross-sectional design was utilized in the study, as participants were observed only once, at a particular time (Albery & Munafo, 2007). Participants were selected by purposive sampling method (also known as judgment sampling). Purposive sampling is a non-random sampling technique, as it involves deliberately selecting participants based on particular variables of interest. In other words, people with particular characteristics are chosen to take

part in the study. The researcher decides what information needs to be known and reaches out to people who can provide the information by virtue of experience or knowledge (Etikan, 2016). In the current study, we purposely approached two high schools with large immigrant student population, in order to access the desired sample.

3.2. Participants

Initially, the desirable number of participants was 300 (150 non-immigrant and 150 immigrant) first-year high school students. Questionnaires were given out to four different high schools in Nicosia and Larnaca district, however, due to COVID-19 pandemic restrictions, data was collected only from two high schools in Larnaca. The sample was consisted of a total of 253 participants, of which 119 were immigrants and 134 were native Cypriots. They were all high school students (50.2% enrolled in “Evriviadeio” high school and 47.8% enrolled in “Faneromeni” high school) and had a mean age of 14.3 (SD=0.9). Data was collected from the whole student population of each school (first, second- and third-year classes).

With regard to gender, 106 were females and 140 were males. Seven students did not report their gender. A percentage of 64.4 of the students’ parents were married, 26.9% were divorced and 3.2% were separated. A small percentage of students (4.4%) reported that either their father or mother was deceased. Regarding parents’ education, most of the students reported that their father or mother have completed high school (Lyceum), 2.4% reported that their father did not receive any education and 3.6% reported that their mother did not receive any education. Furthermore, 19.8% and 25.3%, reported that their father or mother respectively hold a university degree. The majority of the students reported that their father (79.4%) or mother (66.8%) works in Cyprus and 34% rated their family’s SES as good. A total of 167 of the students stated that they live with their parents and siblings, 55 with one parent and siblings, two with their grandparents and 28 with someone else. One student did not report with whom they live.

Of the 119 immigrant students, 88 reported that their family rents a property and 29 that they own a property. A small percentage (0.8%), reported that their family lives in a state-funded accommodation. Based on immigrant students’ answers, 14.2% were born in Cyprus, 9.5% in Greece, 6.3% in Romania and 2.4% in Russia. Smaller percentages were reported for Syria (2%) and Bulgaria (2%). In total, 22 different countries were mentioned as countries of birth of immigrant students. According to Population census (2015) of the

Statistical Service of Cyprus, the diversity of immigrant groups in the study, represents the general immigrant population of Cyprus very well. With regard to immigrant students' father country of birth, 8.3% reported that their father comes from Greece, 7.5% from Georgia and 5.9% from Romania. Smaller percentages were reported for countries like Cyprus (3.6%), Syria (2.8%) and Palestine (2.4%). In total, 26 different countries were mentioned as father's country of origin. Concerning immigrant students' mother country of birth, 7.5% reported that their mother comes from Greece, 6.7% from Georgia, 6.7% from Romania and 4.7% from Russia. Smaller percentages were reported that their mother was coming from countries like Palestine (2.8%), Bulgaria (2.4%), Moldova (2%) and Syria (2%). In total, 28 different countries were mentioned as mother's country of origin.

Out of the 77 immigrant students who responded to the question regarding their age when coming to Cyprus, 35 reported coming after the age of 10 and 42 before the age of 10. In addition, 13.8% of them reported staying in Cyprus between 11-15 years, 9.5% between 6-10 years, 11.5% between 2-5 years and 6.3% one year or under. Regarding the reasons for moving in Cyprus, most of the students (30%) reported parents' search for work or work obligations, 5.5% reported war, 2.8% reported studies, 0.4% reported asylum seeking and 5.5% reported other, not specified reasons.

3.3. Measures

All variables were measured once, at a particular time. Participants were given a self-reported questionnaire, which included the following scales (see Appendix E).

3.3.1. Demographic Information

Questions regarding demographic information were also included in the questionnaire. All students were asked to report their age, gender, their parent's marital status, education and employment status, their family's socioeconomic status and with whom they live. Immigrant students were asked to complete a final section of the demographics which included questions regarding their parents' country of origin, their country of birth, their age when arrived in Cyprus, the reasons their family moved in Cyprus, the duration of their stay in Cyprus and their family's housing status.

3.3.2. School Motivation and Interest and Peer Relationships

To measure school motivation and interest and to obtain information regarding school motivation and interest and peer relationships, subscales of the questionnaire used in the ViSC program were used (Solomontos-Kountouri et al., 2017).

School Motivation and Interest

School Motivation and Interest were assessed with 10 items, focusing on growth in abilities and competencies, on students' comprehension of subject content (e.g., "I want to learn many new things") and on efficacy expectations in learning situations (e.g., "I am convinced that I can be good at tests"). Answers to all questions were given on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) neither agree nor disagree, (4) agree and (5) strongly agree.

Peer Relationships

Peer relationships were measured with three items developed by Eder and Mayr (2000) (e.g., "In our class all students work together well and help each other"). All items were answered using a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) neither agree nor disagree, (4) agree and (5) strongly agree.

3.3.3. School Autonomy

Students' need for school autonomy was operationalized by the researcher. Five self-developed items occurred, focusing on students' sense of autonomy (e.g., "I would like to participate in the decisions how we learn in school"). All questions were answered using a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) neither agree nor disagree, (4) agree and (5) strongly agree.

3.3.4. School Anxiety

School anxiety was measured using four items taken from the Test Anxiety Inventory (Wieczerkowski et al., 1974), focusing on stressful situations in school (e.g., "When I am called on by a teacher, I am afraid I will say something wrong"). Students responded on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) neither agree nor disagree, (4) agree and (5) strongly agree.

3.3.5. School-Related Psychosomatic Complaints

School-related psychosomatic complaints were measured using six items. This domain was built based on Hascher's (2004) conceptualization of school well-being. Hascher developed six dimensions of school well-being, namely, positive attitude towards school (PAS), enjoyment in school (EIS), positive academic self-concept (PASC), worries in school (WIS), social problems in school (SPC) and physical complaints in school (PCS). For the purpose of this study, only the PCS dimension was used, focusing on students experience of physical symptoms (e.g., "Before there is a test or an exam, my heart starts beating very much"). Two questions ("During an exam, I get an unpleasant feeling in my stomach" and "When I am occupied with school related problems, I am not able to fall asleep") were self-developed and added to this domain. Participants responded on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) neither agree nor disagree, (4) agree and (5) strongly agree.

3.3.6. Psychological well-being

Psychological well-being, was measured using the Satisfaction with Life scale (Diener et al. ,1985). This tool, is a 5-item scale designed to measure global cognitive judgments of one's life satisfaction (e.g., "I am satisfied with my life", "In most ways, my life is close to my ideal"). Participants indicated how much they agree or disagree with each of the five items using a 5 point-rating scale, ranging from (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) neither agree nor disagree, (4) agree and (5) strongly agree.

3.3.7. Life Satisfaction

To investigate students' current and future/expected life satisfaction, an additional measure (Cantril ladder scale) was included. The Cantril ladder scale (Cantril, 1965), is a simple visual scale which makes it possible to assess general life satisfaction. The result may depend on the health, living, and studying conditions, and quality of social relations. Participants were asked "On which step do you think you will stand at this time" and "On which step do you think you will stand in the future?" and were presented a ladder consisting of 10 steps ranging from 0 (worst possible life) to 10 (best possible life). They then had to choose a step on the ladder which they believed represented their current and future life satisfaction. For the purpose of this research, the higher the score calculated (higher step on the ladder), the higher the level of life satisfaction.

3.3.8. Stressful Life Events

To measure students' exposure to stressful life events, 11 items were taken from the Stressful Life Events questionnaire (Bean, et al., 2006). The Stressful Life Events (SLE) questionnaire is a checklist of 12 dichotomous (yes/no) questions about the experience of stressful life events. Questions cover three primary areas of stressful life events (separation from family, physical or sexual violence and war or armed conflict). In the current study, participants were directed to indicate whether they have experienced 11 different types of possibly traumatizing events. The question regarding experience of sexual abuse was excluded. The SLE measures occurrence, but not intensity or duration of experiencing the different stressful events. Whether a stressful life event had occurred, was assessed by questions like "Has someone died in your life that you really cared about". A total sum score was calculated based on the number of events the participants report to have been exposed to.

3.3.9. COVID-19 Pandemic-Related Stress

Students' attitudes and concerns regarding COVID-19, were measured using the Perceived Coronavirus Threat Questionnaire (Conway et al., 2020). This self-report measure includes six items, loading on a single factor, assessing the COVID-19 threat perceptions (e.g., "Thinking about the Coronavirus makes me feel threatened") and concerns about contracting illness (e.g., "I am stressed around other people because I worry, I will catch the Coronavirus"). For the purpose of this study, students responded on a 5 point-rating scale, ranging from (1) strongly disagree, (2) disagree, (3) neither agree nor disagree, (4) agree and (5) strongly agree.

3.4. Procedure

In order to ensure that the current research follows all ethical standards, a proposal of the study with the aim, method and whole procedure had to be approved by the Center of Educational Research and Evaluation of the Pedagogical Institute of Cyprus (see Appendix A). After the approval by the Pedagogical Institute of Cyprus (see Appendix B), the principals of the two schools were contacted. Then, they were sent a letter informing them about the aims and the procedure of the study (see Appendix C) and the parental consent forms (either in Greek or English), to be signed by the parents who agreed their child taking part in this study (see Appendix D). These forms, were later collected by the teachers.

Data was collected in May 2021. On the day of data collection, signed parental consent forms were given back to the researcher, prior to handing out the questionnaires. The questionnaires were given to the teacher of each class by the researcher and were handed out to the students. Those who wished to participate in the study (and had returned the parental consent form), completed the questionnaire in the classroom. Those who did not bring the parental consent form, or their parents disagreed, were present in the classroom while the rest students completed the questionnaire, but did not participate. The questionnaire was created both in English and Greek and was given to the students depending on their language preference and fluency (see Appendix E).

Prior to and during the research, participants were informed that complete confidentiality was maintained with regard to any personal information, or information acquired by them during the data collection. In order to maintain anonymity and prevent any identification, no names were recorded. Instead, questionnaires were divided by school and each one of them was randomly numbered in ascending order, to aid data analysis. Participants were also ensured that they can feel free to withdraw from participation in the study at any point they wished to, without the fear of penalization. No deception was used during data collection.

During the completion, the researcher was present to answer any enquiry in regard with the questionnaire. After the completion of the questionnaires, the researcher collected them and sealed them in folders, to ensure confidentiality while debriefing students about the aim of the study.

3.5. Data Analyses

After questionnaires were collected and coded with numbers, data was entered and analyzed in SPSS, a statistical software used to carry out advanced statistical analyses. During the process of entering the data, a total of 22 questionnaires were discarded (9% of the total number of the questionnaires returned), either because only a few items were completed or there was complete absence of response. These questionnaires were not included in data analysis.

Firstly, in order to ensure the internal consistency of the scales used in the study's questionnaire, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for each was calculated. Second, descriptive statistics (means, standard deviation, percentages, minimum-maximum values and frequencies) for demographic information of students were reported. Third, a one-way

ANOVA test was also carried out to investigate any differences between the three groups with regard to the number of stressful life events experienced. One-way ANOVA tests were also carried out to compare the three groups of students with respect to the variables of interest (peer relationships, school motivation and interest, psychological well-being, school anxiety, psychosomatic symptoms at school, COVID-19 pandemic-related stress and school autonomy). Then, a Mixed ANOVA test was conducted to examine any differences regarding the expected increase in life satisfaction between the three groups. Finally, a Pearson correlation analysis was conducted to investigate any relationships between the variables of interest.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

4.1 Reliability

The Table 4.1 presents the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for each scale. A value higher than 0.7 is considered good (Gliem & Gliem, 2003). In the current study, all of the scales used had a coefficient higher than 0.8, which is signifying high reliability.

Table 4.1
Reliability test (Cronbach's alpha), Means and SD, for the scales used

Scale	Number of items	Number of cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Reliability
Peer Relationships	3	252	4.1	0.9	0.8
School Motivation & School Interest	10	230	3.6	0.7	0.9
School Autonomy	5	238	3.5	0.8	0.8
School Anxiety	5	243	3.2	1	0.8
Psychological Well-Being	5	245	3.4	0.9	0.8
Psychosomatic Symptoms at School	8	242	2.6	1	0.9
Covid-related Stress	6	243	2.6	0.9	0.8

4.2 Descriptive statistics

Differentiation and Demographic Characteristics of All Participants

For the analyses presented here, three groups of adolescents were differentiated (see Table 4.2). Following Solomontos-Kountouri & Strohmeier (2021), three groups of adolescents were used: non-immigrant Cypriots, first-generation immigrants and second-generation immigrants. For the categorization, their fathers', their mothers', and their own country of birth were taken into consideration. The adolescents whose mother or father were born abroad, and who were themselves born abroad were classified as *first-generation immigrants* ($N = 83$) and represented 32.8% of the sample. The adolescents whose mother or father were born abroad, but who were themselves born in Cyprus, were classified as *second-generation immigrants* ($N = 36$) and represented 14.2% of the sample. The adolescents whose mother and father were born in Cyprus and who were themselves born in Cyprus, were classified as *non-immigrant adolescents* ($N = 134$) and represented 53% of the sample.

Table 4.2

Frequencies of immigrant and non-immigrant participants.

	Frequency	%
Non-immigrant adolescents	134	53.0
First-generation immigrants	83	32.8
Second-generation immigrants	36	14.2
Total	253	100.0

Using one-way ANOVA, descriptive statistics regarding the age of the three adolescent groups (see Table 4.3) were obtained. According to the results of the analysis, the mean age of the three different groups was similar. The average age of the whole sample was 14.3 years ($SD=0.9$). The minimum age reported by all adolescents was 13 years and the maximum was 18 years.

Table 4.3

Descriptive statistics regarding the age of the three groups.

Age	N	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
First-generation immigrants	76	14.4	1.1	13	17
Second-generation immigrants	35	13.9	0.7	13	16
Non-immigrant	123	14.3	0.9	13	18
Total	234	14.3	0.9	13	18

To obtain descriptive statistics regarding further demographic information of the sample that was measured categorically, chi-square tests were carried out. No significant differences were found ($p > .05$), meaning that groups were equivalent with respect to their background characteristics. Results are summarized in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4

Descriptive statistics of demographic information of the three groups.

Demographic	Non-immigrants <i>N=134</i>		First-generation immigrants <i>N=83</i>		Second-generation immigrants <i>N=36</i>	
	n	%	N	%	N	%
<i>Gender</i>						
Female	56	43.1	32	39.0	18	52.9
Male	74	56.9	50	61.0	16	47.1
<i>Parents' marital status</i>						
Married	92	70.2	49	59.0	22	61.1
Divorced	30	22.9	26	31.3	12	33.3
Separated	4	3.1	4	4.8	0	0.0
Mother not alive	3	2.3	0	0.0	1	2.8
Father not alive	2	1.5	4	4.8	1	2.8
<i>Father's education</i>						
No education	2	1.7	2	2.7	2	7.1
Elementary school	6	5.0	3	4.1	3	10.7

Junior High school	20	16.8	15	20.3	6	21.4
Demographic	Non-immigrants <i>N=134</i>		First-generation immigrants <i>N=83</i>		Second-generation immigrants <i>N=36</i>	
High school	43	36.1	28	37.8	12	42.9
University	29	24.4	17	23.0	4	14.3
Postgraduate	19	16.0	9	12.2	1	3.6
<i>Mother's education</i>						
No education	3	2.4	4	5.1	2	6.9
Elementary school	5	4.0	4	5.1	0	0.0
Junior High school	13	10.5	7	8.9	5	17.2
High school	45	36.3	33	41.8	12	41.4
University	34	27.4	22	27.8	8	27.6
Postgraduate	24	19.4	9	11.4	2	6.9
<i>Father's employment</i>						
Unemployed	16	12.4	15	19.7	5	16.1
Employed	113	87.6	61	80.3	26	83.9
<i>Mother's employment</i>						
Unemployed	37	28.2	31	37.8	8	24.2
Employed	93	71.0	50	61.0	25	75.8
<i>Family's SES</i>						
Very bad	5	3.8	5	6.2	1	2.9
Bad	13	9.8	5	6.2	0	0.0
Neither good or bad	32	24.2	28	34.6	11	32.4
Good	45	34.1	26	32.1	15	44.1
Very good	37	28.0	17	21.0	7	20.6
<i>Relatives in the same house</i>						
Both parents and sibling(s)	98	73.1	46	56.1	23	63.9
One parent and sibling(s)	26	19.4	22	26.8	7	19.4
Grandparents	2	1.5	0	0.0	0	0.0
Someone else	8	6.0	14	17.1	6	16.7

Demographic Characteristics of Immigrant Participants

First-and second-generation immigrants were asked to report their type of residence, length of stay in Cyprus and reasons for moving to Cyprus (see Table 4.5). With regard to type of residence, according to the results, most of first-generation immigrants (77.1%) and second-generation immigrants (67.6%) rent a house/flat. As shown in Table 4.5, most of first-generation immigrants (33.3%) live between two to five years in Cyprus and most of second-generation immigrants (90.5%) live between 11 to 15 years in Cyprus. With regard to the reason for moving to Cyprus, both first-generation and second-generation immigrant students, reported that the main reason was work (63.0% and 82.8% respectively).

Table 4.5

Descriptive statistics for immigrant students.

Demographic	First-generation immigrants N=83		Second-generation immigrants N=36	
	N	%	n	%
<i>Type of residence</i>				
Own a house/flat	17	20.5	11	32.4
Rent	64	77.1	23	67.6
State-funded place	2	2.4	0	0.0
<i>Length of stay in Cyprus</i>				
0-1 year	16	19.8	0	0.0
2-5 years	27	33.3	2	9.5
6-10 years	24	29.6	0	0.0
11-15 years	14	17.3	19	90.5
<i>Reason for moving to Cyprus</i>				
Work	51	63.0	24	82.8
Studies	7	8.6	0	0.0
Asylum	1	1.2	0	0.0
War	12	14.8	2	6.9
Other reason	10	12.3	3	10.3

A question about the immigrant students' country of origin was also included in the demographics section of the questionnaire (see Table 4.6). According to the results, most first-generation and second-generation immigrant students were of European origin (68.8% and 67.6% respectively) or Arabic origin (19% and 17.1% respectively).

As shown in Table 4.7, the majority of first-generation immigrants of Asian ethnicity, came from Iraq (3.8%), whereas the majority of Asian second-generation immigrants came

from Palestine (5.7%). European first-generation immigrants, came mostly from Greece (26.3%), whereas second-generation immigrants came mostly from Georgia (48.6%). Only a small percentage of immigrant students came from African countries. First-generation immigrants came from Somalia, Sudan and Nigeria (1.3% respectively) and only one second-generation immigrant student reported Cameroon as country of origin. Two first-generation students were of South American ethnicity, and came from Brazil and Benezuela. Furthermore, most first-generation and second-generation immigrant students of Arabic ethnicity, came from Syria (6.3% and 5.7% respectively).

Table 4.6
Descriptive statistics for immigrant students' ethnicity.

Demographic	First-generation immigrants <i>N</i> =83		Second-generation immigrants <i>N</i> =36	
	N	%	n	%
<i>Ethnicity</i>				
Asian	1	1.3	4	11.4
European	55	68.8	24	68.6
African	3	3.8	1	2.9
American	2	2.5	0	0.0
Arabic	19	23.8	6	17.1

Table 4.7
Percentages for country of origin based on ethnicity and generation.

Ethnicity	First-generation immigrants <i>N</i> =83	Second-generation immigrants <i>N</i> =36
	%	%
<i>Asian</i>		
Iraq	3.8	2.8
Kazakhstan	1.3	0.0
Pakistan	0.0	2.9
Palestine	0.0	5.7
India	0.0	2.9

Iran	0.0	2.9
Nepal	0.0	2.9
	First-generation immigrants <i>N</i> =83	Second-generation immigrants <i>N</i> =36
Ethnicity		
	%	%
Greece	26.3	0.0
Romania	18.8	0.0
Poland	2.5	0.0
Russia	3.8	2.8
Bulgaria	5	0.0
Georgia	2.5	48.6
UK	1.3	5.7
<i>African</i>		
Somalia	1.3	0.0
Sudan	1.3	0.0
Nigeria	1.3	0.0
Cameroon	0.0	2.9
<i>American</i>		
Brazil	1.3	0.0
Venezuela	1.3	0.0
<i>Arabic</i>		
Syria	6.3	5.7
Egypt	2.5	0.0
Lebanon	2.5	0.0

4.3. Stressful Life Events

There were eleven questions elucidating students' stressful life events experiences. These were analysed both separately and collectively, after adding them together in one variable whose values ranged from 0 (no experience of stressful life events) to 11 (the student denoted yes to all questions related to stressful life events). Only 242 participants (95.6%) responded to this scale.

In investigating the extent to which students from different immigration status (first-generation immigrants, second-generation immigrants or non-immigrants) exerted differences in the number of stressful events (of the total eleven presented to them) that they

experienced (see Table 4.8), a statistically significant result was detected, $F(2,239) = 3.5$, $p < .05$, using a one-way ANOVA (see Table 4.9). Post hoc analyses using the Scheffé post hoc criterion for significance, revealed a statistically significant difference in the number of stressful events experienced by first-generation immigrants ($M=3.6$, $SD=2.3$) and non-immigrant peers ($M=2.9$, $SD=2.2$), but not between the first-generation and second-generation immigrant students or between the second-generation immigrants and non-immigrant students.

Table 4.8
Descriptive statistics for the total number of stressful life events.

	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
First-generation immigrants	3.6	2.3	82
Second-generation immigrants	2.8	1.9	34
Non-immigrant students	2.9	2.2	126
Total	3.1	2.3	242

Table 4.9
ANOVA test for the number of stressful life events by students of different immigration status.

Source of variance	Total Squares	Sum of Degrees of Freedom	Mean Squares	F
Between-Group	34.39	2	17.2	3.5*
Within-Group	1119.7	239	4.9	

* $p < .05$

4.4. Analysis of variance for the five outcomes of interest for non-immigrant, first-generation and second-generation immigrant students

To observe any differences between the three groups with regard to peer relationships, school motivation and interest, psychological well-being, school anxiety, psychosomatic symptoms at school, COVID-19 pandemic-related stress and school autonomy, analyses of variance were conducted. According to the results, participants on average agreed that that climate in school (in terms of peer relationships) was pleasant ($M=4.1$, $SD=.9$) and they reported high school motivation and school interest scores ($M=3.6$, $SD=0.7$). The psychological well-being and school anxiety scores were moderate ($M=3.4$, $SD=0.9$ and $M=3.2$, $SD=1$ respectively) while psychosomatic symptoms at school were at relatively low level ($M=2.6$, $SD=1$), as well as COVID-19 pandemic-related stress ($M=2.6$, $SD=0.9$). On

the other hand, school autonomy scores were high ($M=3.5$, $SD= 0.9$), denoting that, on average, students had high-levels of interest in participating in school actions and learning (see Table 4.10). Analysis of variance tests for all outcomes, revealed no statistically significant differences between the three groups of students ($p >.1$).

Table 4.10

Descriptive statistics for the five outcomes of interest for all students.

	Peer Relationships	School Motivation & School Interest	Psychological Well-Being	School Anxiety	Psychosomatic Symptoms at School	COVID-19 stress	School Autonomy
Non-immigrant adolescents	N=134 4.1 (0.9)	N=122 3.5 (0.8)	N=130 3.4 (0.9)	N=126 3.1 (1.1)	N=128 2.5 (1.0)	N=132 2.7 (0.9)	N=128 3.4 (0.9)
First-generation immigrants	N=82 3.9 (0.9)	N=73 3.6 (0.6)	N=80 3.4 (0.9)	N=82 3.3 (1.1)	N=80 2.6 (1.1)	N=76 2.5 (1.0)	N=76 3.5 (0.9)
Second-generation immigrants	N=36 4.1 (0.7)	N=35 3.7 (0.6)	N=35 3.4 (0.8)	N=35 3.4 (0.9)	N=34 2.6 (0.9)	N=35 2.7 (0.9)	N=34 3.6 (0.8)
Total	N=252 4.1 (0.9)	N=230 3.6 (0.7)	N=245 3.4 (0.9)	N=243 3.2 (1)	N=242 2.6 (1)	N=243 2.6 (0.9)	N=238 3.5 (0.9)

4.5. Expected Increase in Life Satisfaction

A mixed ANOVA test was run to investigate differences between the three groups of students, in terms of their current and their expected future life satisfaction. Results, indicated that the main effect of time was statistically significant ($p<.001$), with all students regardless of immigration status, expecting higher life satisfaction in the future ($M=7.6$, $SD=2.3$), as opposed to how they viewed their life at the present ($M=6.4$, $SD=2.2$). The main effect of immigrant status, was also found to be significant, $F(2,239) = 3.2$, $p < 0.05$ (see Table 4.11). Post-hoc analysis using Scheffé's test, revealed that a statistically significant difference existed only between the second-generation immigrant students and non-immigrants, with the former group denoting lower expectations ($M=6.7$, $SD=3.0$) for the future than the latter ($M=7.8$, $SD=2.0$) (see Table 4.12). The interaction effect of immigrant status and time was not statistically significant, suggesting that the relative improvement

between current and future life satisfaction was similar across the three groups of students considered (non-immigrants, first-generation and second-generation immigrants).

Table 4.11
Statistical significance regarding future life satisfaction.

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Immigrant status	33.678	2	16.839	3.2	.04
Error	1271.628	239	5.321		

Table 4.12
Descriptive statistics for the question regarding future life satisfaction.

	Mean	Standard Deviation	N
First-generation immigrants	7.5	2.4	78
Second-generation immigrants	6.7	3.0	33
Non-immigrants	7.8	2.1	131
Total	7.6	2.3	242

4.6. Correlations

To investigate any further relationships between the variables, a correlation test was conducted. Table 4.13, shows the correlation between stressful life events and the other variables of interest. According to the results, there exists a weak, negative and statistically significant correlation between the number of stressful events and peer relationships ($r = -.27, p < .01$), school motivation and interest ($r = -.22, p < .01$) and COVID-19 pandemic-related stress ($r = -.14, p < .05$). This suggests, that the more stressful events the students have reported that they experienced in their lives, the less positive are their views for peer relationships, the lower their school motivation and interest and the less they seem to worry about COVID-19. Weak positive, but statistically significant correlation was found between the number of stressful life events and school anxiety ($r = .15, p < .05$) and psychosomatic symptoms at school ($r = .34, p < .01$). These correlations, signify that as the number of stressful life events increases, the more school anxiety and psychosomatic symptoms at school the students experienced. A moderate to large negative correlation exists between the number of stressful events and the students' psychosocial well-being ($r = -0.41, p < 0.01$), suggesting that the more the stressful events experienced by the students, the lower their psychological well-being is.

School autonomy was not found to have a statistically significant correlation to the number of stressful life events experienced by the students.

These correlations remained the same after controlling for students' immigrant status (non-immigrant, first-generation immigrants, second-generation immigrants). Thus, it can be concluded that what affects the variables of interest, is the number of stressful life events experienced and not the immigration status of the students.

Table 4.13
Correlations between stressful life events and other outcome measures.

		Stressful life events: Sum of all variables	Peer Relationships	School Motivation & Interest	Psychological Well-Being	School Anxiety	Psychosomatic symptoms at School	COVID-19 stress	School Autonomy
Stressful life events: Sum of all variables	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	1	-.268**	-.223**	-.409**	.154*	.341**	-.139*	-.059
			.000	.001	.000	.019	.000	.034	.371
	N	242	241	222	235	233	232	232	230

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

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

Previous international research regarding immigrant adolescents has yielded mixed results and research in Cyprus is limited for conclusions to be drawn. The purpose of this study was to explore immigrant and non-immigrant high school students' level of life satisfaction (psychological well-being), school adjustment (school motivation and interest and peer relationships) and school-related psychological outcomes (school anxiety and psychosomatic complaints) in relation to psychological trauma (experience of stressful life events), through a survey. The main goal, was to gain a better insight of the perspective and experiences of immigrant and non-immigrant adolescents living in Cyprus. This chapter, discusses the findings of the study. Implications and practical applications, methodological considerations and recommendations for future research, are also discussed.

5.1.Current Findings

Overall, findings of the study, suggested that first- and second-generation immigrant adolescents' school adjustment and psychological adaptation was as good as non-immigrants' (native) adolescents. A possible interpretation of these results, is that immigrant adolescents are successfully integrated in educational settings and in the Cypriot society in general. Thus, it can be assumed that stressful life experiences and negative feelings are counterbalanced by positive adaptation in the host country (Cyprus). Another possible interpretation, is that immigrant adolescents show high resilience and are able to thrive academically and socially, despite the adversities. In the following paragraphs, findings for each research question are presented and discussed in relation to the existing literature.

5.1.1 Immigration status and number of stressful life events

According to the results of the study, immigration status is correlated to the number of stressful life events experienced. More specifically, data showed that first-generation immigrants experienced statistically significant more stressful life events ($M=3.6$ $SD=2.3$) than non-immigrant students ($M=2.9$, $SD= 2.2$). No statistically significant differences were found between first-generation and second-generation immigrant students or between second-generation immigrant and non-immigrant students. Based on the analysis of data, H1, is partly confirmed, since no differences were found between non-immigrant and second-generation immigrant students as expected. The results regarding first-generation immigrants (more stressful life events experienced), are in line with findings of previous research suggesting that second-generation immigrants have better psychological adaptation than first-generation immigrants (Sam et al., 2006).

According to the existing research, first-generation immigrants are at a higher risk of experiencing stressful life events, because they go through the process of immigration and displacement. Pre- and post-immigration stressful experiences (e.g., family separation, war, poverty, acculturation, sociocultural adaptation), cause intense psychological distress and can lead to the development of mental health problems (Close et al., 2016). As cited in Salerno et al., (2019) even the process of adjusting to a new language can be very stressful and can have serious consequences for first-generation immigrants. Other stressors, such as experiencing prejudice and intergroup hostility for the first time, could also negatively affect their mental and physical health (Hirschman, 1996). On the contrary, second-generation immigrants and non-immigrant adolescents, who are born in Cyprus, do not go through such experiences, thus reporting better scores.

5.1.2 Immigration status, school anxiety and school-related psychosomatic symptoms

With regard to students' immigration status and its correlation with school anxiety and school-related psychosomatic symptoms, no statistically significant differences were detected among the three groups. Based on the results, first-generation, second-generation and non-immigrant students experienced similar levels of school anxiety and school-related psychosomatic symptoms. Thus, H2 has not been confirmed and results were not consistent with previous research suggesting that first-generation immigrants experience higher levels of anxiety and psychosomatic symptoms than second-generation immigrant and non-immigrant students (Sam et al., 2008). These are encouraging results, because they indicate that immigrant adolescents in Cyprus may not have a greater risk for developing internalized problems, when compared to their native peers. Similar findings of no differences between

immigrant and non-immigrant adolescents, have been found in a study by Dekeyser et al. (2011) in Sweden.

A possible interpretation, could be that immigrant adolescents feel accepted by the Cypriot school culture, thus experience fewer negative feelings and less mental health problems. In fact, according to a study by Noam et al. (2014), the experience of positive feelings towards school by immigrant students, was negatively associated with depression, anxiety, and psychosomatic symptoms. A second possible explanation of these findings, is that in schools with high proportions of immigrant students (such as the ones used in this study), immigrant individuals experience less marginalization and victimization, and thus they feel fewer negative emotions (e.g., anxiety, depression). Numerous studies conducted in Northern American and European countries, confirm these findings and highlight that this occurs especially among immigrants with non-European backgrounds, (Plenty & Jonsson, 2017).

5.1.3 Immigration status, school autonomy, peer relationships, school motivation and school interest

With respect to students' immigration status and its correlation with school motivation and school interest, no significant differences were detected among the three groups. Based on the results, first-generation, second-generation and non-immigrant adolescents gave similar answers on the scales measuring these variables. Thus, H3¹ has not been confirmed. Existing literature provided mixed results, with some studies suggesting an educational advantage of first-generation immigrants (Fuligni, 1997) and some of second-generation immigrants (Portes & Rumbaut, 2001). In the current study, the overall score of all students for '*school motivation and interest*' was relatively high (M=3.5, SD=0.8), denoting that, students regardless of immigration status, feel motivated and interested in learning. These results are encouraging, since they show that despite the social and language barriers, immigrant students are eager to learn. As cited in Motti-Stefanidi and Masten (2013), school success is an important indicator of both positive developmental adaptation and acculturation of immigrant youth. Thus, based on the results, it can be assumed that immigrant students' school motivation reflects a good adaptation to the Cypriot culture. Another possible interpretation of these findings, could be that because immigrant parents and immigrant children value school success more than non-immigrants, immigrant students invest a lot in education and academic success (Fuligni, 2017).

With regard to students' immigrant status and its correlation with school autonomy and peer relationships, no significant differences were detected among the three groups as well. Based on these results, H3² has not been confirmed. The fact that there were no differences between the three groups, may signify that immigrant adolescents (both first- and second-generation) have found their voice and have adjusted well in schools. Based on the results, the average score regarding school autonomy and peer relationships was relatively high [(M=3.5 SD=0.9 and M=4.1 SD=0.9, respectively)]. This, could possibly mean that immigrant adolescents feel likeable and accepted by their peers (peer relationships) and they feel they are given the opportunities to share their suggestions and ideas (school autonomy). A possible interpretation for these results, could be that because immigrant adolescents feel supported by non-immigrant and immigrant peers of other ethnicities, they feel more confident to express their thoughts and participate in decision making. Previous studies on immigrant adolescents, have demonstrated that support from classmates is very beneficial to immigrant students (Possel et al., 2013). Research has also shown that social resources (e.g., having a feeling of connectivity, belonging and good relationships), are the most beneficial protective factors to foster and preserve immigrant individuals' mental health (Hoi et al., 2015). Therefore, building and maintaining good peer relationships at school, seems to enhance school autonomy as well. A further interpretation, could be that immigrant students' affiliation with other immigrants (peers who share the same marginalized identity), act as a form of resilience, leading to positive outcomes (high levels of school autonomy; Ward et al., 2021).

5.1.4 Immigration status and life satisfaction

With regard to life satisfaction, it was hypothesized that first-generation immigrants will have experienced higher levels of expected increase in life satisfaction than second-generation immigrants and non-immigrant adolescents, and that second-generation immigrants will have experienced similar levels of expected increase in life satisfaction with non-immigrant adolescents. According to the results, all students despite immigration status, have reported an increase in expected (future) life satisfaction. For all participants, future life satisfaction levels were higher than the levels of current life satisfaction, showing that there were no statistically significant differences between the three groups with regard to the expected increase. However, second-generation immigrant adolescents, denoted significantly lower scores for expected future life satisfaction than their non-immigrant peers. Thus, H4 was not confirmed.

Existing research regarding generational differences and life satisfaction has yielded mixed results, with some studies showing same levels of life satisfaction between adolescent immigrant and non-immigrant individuals (Neto & Barros, 2007) and some suggesting higher levels of life satisfaction among first-generation immigrants (Obućina, 2013). Findings of this study, are in line with the findings of a study by Knies et al. (2016), who found that life satisfaction was lower among ethnic minorities, and especially among second-generation immigrants, even after controlling for individual characteristics. A possible interpretation, could be that as a result of immigrants' acculturation into the mainstream, the potential of their original advantage (first-generation) is disappearing from the following generations (second-generation) (Abdul-Rida & Nauck, 2014).

5.1.5 Immigration status and COVID-19 pandemic-related stress

Research regarding immigrant adolescents and COVID-19 pandemic is not sufficient. However, according to the literature, it was hypothesized that first-generation immigrants and second-generation immigrants will have experienced higher levels of COVID-19 pandemic-related stress than their non-immigrant peers, and that first-generation immigrants will not have experienced higher levels of COVID-19 pandemic-related stress than second-generation immigrants. According to the results, there were no statistically significant differences between the three groups, and surprisingly the average score of all participants was relatively low ($M=2.6$, $SD=0.9$). Thus, H5 was not confirmed. These positive results could be attributed to the fact that students' family relationships may have served as a buffer against this crisis, supporting their emotional adjustment in the face of adversity and acting as a protective factor (Conger & Conger, 2002). As cited in Prime et al. (2020), positive family relationships and families' belief systems, have been proved to be very important to adolescents' depressive and posttraumatic stress disorder symptoms in the context of adversities and natural disasters (such as Hurricane Katrina and tsunami exposure in Sri Lanka). Another possible interpretation, is that during the pandemic, adolescents had made good use of social resources. According to Olsson et al. (2003), using social resources can aid in developing greater resilience, which is an important protective factor for recovering from stress.

5.1.6 Stressful life events and the correlation with psychosocial outcomes

With regard to the relationship between the experience of stressful life events and psychosocial outcomes six hypotheses were formed. More specifically, it was hypothesized that more stressful life events experienced, would predict higher levels of school anxiety ($H6^1$),

more school-related psychosomatic symptoms (H6²), lower levels of school motivation and school interest (H7¹), lower levels of school autonomy (H7²), poorer peer relationships (H7³) and higher levels of COVID-19 pandemic-related stress (H8) in all students. According to the results, all hypotheses formed were confirmed except H7² AND H8. From the analysis, it seems that there was no statistically significant correlation between school autonomy and stressful life events and the correlation between COVID-19 pandemic related stress and stressful life events, was negative. Results from the correlation analysis are very interesting, because they suggest that what seems to influence adolescents' psychosocial outcomes, is in fact the experience of stressful life events and not their immigration status.

A possible interpretation for these results, could be that stressful life events affect all adolescents, regardless of their immigration status in a similar way, because they all go through an important process of developmental, emotional and cognitive changes and challenges. As cited in Oliva et al. (2008), the occurrence of potentially stressful situations/events during adolescence, can result in additional difficulties which may exceed adolescents' coping skills and thus increase their vulnerability to maladjustment. Grant et al. (2004), suggested as well that the risk for emotional problems among adolescents increases in response to the experiencing stressful life events. As cited in Bashi (2016), stressful life events put young individuals at risk for lower general life satisfaction, including social and emotional domains. Thus, it is not surprising that results of this study showed increased levels of anxiety, more psychosomatic symptoms and decreased psychological well-being when adolescents reported experiencing stressful life events.

With regard to peer-relationships, existing research suggests that stressful life events have a negative and even damaging effect on adolescents' psychological health, through the interruption of social relationships. As cited in McMahon et al., (2020), adolescents' lack of empathy during a stressful life event, their inability to help in solving the problem along with an increased possibility of challenging personality traits becoming visible during stressful situations, are all factors that can damage the quality of peer relationships. Findings of this study, are in line with these results.

Moreover, according to the results, school motivation and interest also seem to be negatively affected by the experience of stressful life events. The results of this study regarding this outcome, are in line with previous research showing that high levels of stress are associated with low levels of self-efficacy (Park et al., 2008) and other psychological out-

comes. Academic motivation has been defined in terms of self-efficacy as "people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances" (Bandura, 1986, p. 391). Self-efficacy has been found to affect individuals' effort, persistence and choice of activities; thus, it is not surprising that when adolescents experience stressful life events, they report lower school motivation and interest scores.

School autonomy was not found to be significantly correlated with stressful life events. A possible interpretation of these results, could be that because immigrant adolescents manage to successfully acculturate and adopt to the mainstream culture, their sense of autonomy is not affected. In fact, research suggests that school engagement and school autonomy are common precursors of sociocultural adaptation (Ward, 2013), thus if immigrant adolescents manage to maintain their sense of autonomy within the school setting, it would be an indicator of their successful adjustment in the Cypriot culture in general, which is a very encouraging scenario.

With regard to COVID-19 pandemic-related stress, results showed that there was a negative correlation. Surprisingly, despite the novelty and severity of the situation, students experienced significantly low levels of COVID-19 pandemic-related stress. One possible interpretation, could be that all participants had effective coping strategies. According to Kira et al. (2022), the will to survive is the source of most coping strategies. Kira et al. (2022), carried out a study applying the WTELS (will to exist, live and survive) framework for coping with traumatic stress to the COVID-19 situation, and found that WTELS promotes resilience, social support and spirituality and significantly contributes to COVID-19 stressors reduction. In addition, their study provided evidence that the will to exist, leads to the adoption of effective coping strategies which when applied, COVID-19 traumatic stress is reduced. Another study by Ikizer et al. (2021) across 78 countries, showed that despite the fact that COVID-19 is prolonged severe trauma, it may lead to significant posttraumatic growth. More specifically, the study results indicated that despite the pandemic, 40% of the participants reported high levels of psychological flourishing while only 10% reported high levels of mental health problems.

Overall, the results of the current study do support the 'Immigrant Paradox' phenomenon. The findings suggest that both first- and second-generation immigrant adolescents have successfully acculturated in Cyprus, as they do not differ significantly from their non-immigrant peers with regard to their psychosocial outcomes. Significant

differences were found only for the levels of expected life satisfaction (second-generation immigrants lower than non-immigrants) and the number of stressful life events experienced (first-generation immigrants more than non-immigrants).

The results are very encouraging, since they suggest that immigrant adolescents are resilient. This assumption, may apply more for first-generation immigrants though, who despite reporting experiencing more stressful life events, their psychosocial scores did not differ significantly from the other two groups. According to research, coping and resilience may be influenced by the age at which an individual has to first cope with stress and be resilient, with some research suggesting that some degree of early stressful life experiences influences resilience in a positive way (Booth & Neill, 2017). Because first-generation immigrant participants in the current study have already experienced numerous stressful life events, they may have become more resilient to future potential stressors.

From a risk and resilience perspective, immigrant children can do well in a supportive environment despite adversity. As cited in Motti-Stefanidi and Masten (2013), especially for children with immigrant background, access to school services, support from teachers and a positive school climate, can significantly promote a stronger sense of school belonging, and ultimately, better social and academic adjustment. Both non-immigrant and immigrant adolescents in this study, seem to have developed intercultural competence. In other words, both groups, seem to have the ability to mobilize and deploy relevant attitudes, skills, values, and knowledge in order to respond effectively and properly to the challenges, opportunities and demands that are presented in intercultural situations (Ward, 2013).

All things considered, for the case of Cyprus and with reference to the current study, it can be concluded that adjustment of immigrant adolescents in the Cypriot culture and schools is successful, possibly because of non-immigrants' accepting attitudes toward immigrants, the high proportion of immigrant students in schools (closer host/native-immigrant proximity) and the programs already being applied in Cypriot schools regarding immigrant students' social and educational inclusion (successful application of inclusion policies).

5.2. Implications and Practical Applications

The main contribution of this research, is that it provides information regarding immigrant and non-immigrant high school students' mental health, school-related outcomes and subjective well-being. Even though there is a high proportion of immigrants in Cyprus, research examining factors affecting this population is limited. Investigating the psychosocial outcomes of immigrant adolescents in this study, can aid in understanding their

needs and experiences and thus inform the government how to take actions to facilitate their inclusion in schools and in society in general.

Given that stressful life events seem to affect adolescents' psychosocial outcomes regardless of their immigration status, schools should focus on creating school-based counselling interventions. According to Langley et al. (2015), schools can be an optimal location to provide support to children and adolescents who are affected by traumatic life events. Especially for immigrant adolescents who experience numerous stressors, and they lack awareness and access to appropriate services, schools should be their safe place in which their socio-emotional health needs are addressed. As cited in Hughes (2019), counselling can provide guidance and support to individuals, while increasing their sense of self-sufficiency, improving their well-being, providing stability by addressing trauma (or displacement and transitional readjustment when it comes to immigrants) and open up access to, or create opportunities. Counselling services by school psychologists can provide individuals the place and space to find their identity and to gain a sense of optimism for a better future. Immigrants are growing in population within the Cypriot society and their life satisfaction is as important as Cypriots'.

Findings of this study, suggest that peer relationships were positive among all students despite their immigration status. It is therefore possible that both inter-group contact and out-group contact had aided in immigrant adolescents' school and social adjustment. According to previous research, sense of belonging is a very important predictor of life satisfaction among immigrants. Thus, efforts should be made by teaching staff to encourage students to make friends of other ethnicities. In this way, all students will develop intercultural competence and will be more satisfied with their life. It is also recommended that multi-cultural school events should be organized regularly, which will give a feeling of respect and acceptance to immigrant students.

5.2.Methodological Considerations

The results of this study need to be interpreted considering its limitations. First, the sample of the study was relatively small. With larger samples, results would have been more robust, conclusive and representative. In addition, the sample comprised only of students enrolled in high schools of Larnaca district. The proportion of immigrants living in Larnaca district is high and opportunities for out-group contact (which seems to reduce discrimination) are much more compared to Nicosia for example. Thus, it may be that immigrant students feel safer and more accepted in a school/community with high proportion

of immigrants (less school anxiety and psychosomatic symptoms) and are able to succeed academically. Yet, in a different school setting/community, where the vast majority of the students are non-immigrants, immigrants' psychosocial outcomes might have been different. For all these reasons, results of this study might not be representative of the general population, which in turn means that generalizability of the results is lowered (Harry & Lipsky, 2014).

A second potential limitation, is the presence of COVID-19 pandemic. Due to the restrictions and high transmission rates, many students were absent from school, thus the number of available participants was lowered.

A third limitation, is that purposive sampling was used in the study. Purposive sampling can be highly prone to researcher bias, because the sample is created based on the judgement of the researcher regarding specific characteristics that are relevant to the study (Sharma, 2017). As a result, generalization of results is only possible to the population defined by the sample selection criteria. Finally, according to Andrade (2021), the more purposive the sample is, the more limited the external validity will be.

Another limitation, is that the design used in this study was cross-sectional. Cross sectional studies provide only a snapshot of a situation at a specific time, in contrast to longitudinal studies, which provide deeper insight.

Furthermore, the measures used were based on participants' self-reports. Self-report measures have been criticized for being subjective and prone to exaggeration and over-reporting due to social desirability. Limited memory or knowledge may also reduce the accuracy of self-reports (Kormos & Gifford, 2014). Another bias, would be that of language barriers. It is possible that only the immigrants with good communication and comprehension skills in Greek or English participated in the survey. Thus, there is a possibility that immigrants who were not included in the survey, may have had lower scores on the different variables of interest.

5.3.Recommendations for Future Research

There are several recommendations that can be made for future research in the area of immigrant adolescents in Cyprus. Firstly, more research is needed regarding factors associated with immigrant life satisfaction. Results of the current study, indicated that second-generation immigrants report lower expected life satisfaction compared to non-immigrant students, therefore it would be very interesting to investigate which factors lead to these

results. Future research should include questions regarding immigrants' expectations prior to coming to Cyprus, to investigate whether their expected life satisfaction is lowered due to disappointment for not meeting their initial expectations. As a next step, qualitative research should be conducted to determine these factors. Qualitative research methods allow a more in-depth analysis of results and help researchers gain a better understanding of trends and phenomena, by illustrating the unique experiences of participants through their own voices (Patel et al., 2016). Longitudinal studies should also be conducted, in order to gain a clearer picture about variables of interest over time. The present study could only analyze differences between the three groups short-term, due to the cross-sectional nature of data.

Another future research recommendation, is to address the limitations of language barriers. Future surveys, should be translated in multiple languages, in order to increase the number of immigrants that can participate, thereby further increasing the external validity of the study (Field, 2013).

Future studies should also explore how adolescents' demographic characteristics (such as age, gender, mother's and father's education and vocational status, family's SES, their age when arriving to Cyprus and the reason for moving to Cyprus) might affect their psychosocial adjustment. This, could be explored using linear regression analyses.

5.5. Conclusion

In conclusion, this study was one of the very few studies conducted in Cyprus regarding high school immigrant adolescents. The main aim of this study, was to examine whether there are any differences between non-immigrants, first-generation and second-generation immigrants with regard to various psychosocial outcomes. The results of present study found that generally, immigrant adolescents despite their generational status, had good levels of school-related intrapersonal and interpersonal outcomes and life satisfaction. In comparison to their non-immigrant peers, first -generation immigrants were found to have experienced more stressful events and second-generation immigrants have been found to be less optimistic for their future life satisfaction. The most interesting finding, was that for all adolescents, despite their immigration status, the experience of stressful life events was negatively correlated with psychosocial outcomes. Only the variable '*school autonomy*' did not seem to be significantly correlated with stressful life events. The present study was able to highlight the need for school-based interventions and promotion of intercultural contact between students. The results of this study are very encouraging and can contribute to the overall immigration and student literature.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Study proposal to the Pedagogical Institute of Cyprus

ΚΕΝΤΡΟ ΕΚΠΑΙΔΕΥΤΙΚΗΣ ΕΡΕΥΝΑΣ ΚΑΙ ΑΞΙΟΛΟΓΗΣΗΣ

ΑΝΑΛΥΤΙΚΟ ΣΧΕΔΙΟ ΕΡΕΥΝΑΣ

ΚΩΔΙΚΟΣ: 186483

Στάδιο: ΥΠΟ ΓΝΩΜΟΔΟΤΗΣΗ ΚΕΕΑ

Δημιουργία: 18/10/2020 07:21:11 **Υποβολή:** 18/10/2020 08:43:30 PM

Όνομα ερευνητή/ερευνήτριας:

Μαρουλλή Ιωάννα

Ιδιότητα:

Μεταπτυχιακή φοιτήτρια

Μέλη ερευνητικής ομάδας:

Δρ. Όλγα Σολωμόντος-Κουντούρη (Επόπτρια Διπλωματικής Εργασίας-Ακαδημαϊκή Υπεύθυνη Μεταπτυχιακού Προγράμματος Σπουδών Θ.Σ.Ε.Κ)

Δρ. Dagmar Strohmeier (Επόπτρια Διπλωματικής Εργασίας, Καθηγήτρια στο Πανεπιστήμιο Εφαρμοσμένων Επιστημών της Άνω Αυστρίας)

Δρ. Ιουλία Τελεβάντου (Επόπτρια Διπλωματικής Εργασίας, Λέκτορας Στατιστικής και Μεθοδολογίας Θ.Σ.Ε.Κ)

ΚΕΝΤΡΟ ΕΚΠΑΙΔΕΥΤΙΚΗΣ ΕΡΕΥΝΑΣ ΚΑΙ ΑΞΙΟΛΟΓΗΣΗΣ

ΑΝΑΛΥΤΙΚΟ ΣΧΕΔΙΟ ΕΡΕΥΝΑΣ

ΚΩΔΙΚΟΣ: 186483

Επιστημονικός φορέας:

Θεολογική Σχολή Εκκλησίας της Κύπρου (Θ.Σ.Ε.Κ)

Διευθύνσεις ΥΠΠ στις οποίες θα διεξαχθεί η έρευνα:

Μέσης,

Ταχυδρομική διεύθυνση ερευνητή/ερευνήτριας:

Αντιγόνης 4, 2400 Έγκωμη, ΛΕΥΚΩΣΙΑ

Διεύθυνση ηλεκτρονικού ταχυδρομείου:

i.maroulli@theo.ac.cy

Τηλέφωνα / τηλεμοιότυπο (fax):

99119926 /

Τίτλος έρευνας:

«Προσαρμογή στο Σχολικό Πλαίσιο και Ικανοποίηση από τη Ζωή»

Σκοπός -ερευνητικά ερωτήματα/υποθέσεις:

Σκοπός της έρευνας, είναι να εξεταστεί κατά πόσο υπάρχουν διαφορές ανάμεσα στους μετανάστες και γηγενείς μαθητές αναφορικά με την σχολική προσαρμογή και την ικανοποίηση/ευχαρίστηση από τη ζωή. Προβλέπεται ότι:

H1: Ο βαθμός ικανοποίησης/ευχαρίστησης από τη ζωή θα είναι χαμηλότερος στους μετανάστες μαθητές σε σχέση με τους γηγενείς μαθητές.

H2: Όσο μεγαλώνει ο αριθμός των τραυματικών γεγονότων ζωής, τόσο πιο χαμηλός θα είναι ο βαθμός ικανοποίησης από τη ζωή.

H3: Οι μετανάστες μαθητές θα έχουν βιώσει περισσότερα τραυματικά γεγονότα ζωής σε σχέση με τους γηγενείς συμμαθητές τους.

H4: Τα σχολικά κίνητρα των μεταναστών μαθητών θα είναι χαμηλότερα από τους γηγενείς μαθητές.

H5: Το σχολικό ενδιαφέρον των μεταναστών μαθητών θα είναι χαμηλότερο από τους γηγενείς μαθητές.

H6: Το σχολικό κλίμα (σχέσεις) παίζει ρόλο στη σχολική προσαρμογή των μαθητών.

H7: Τα επίπεδα σχολικού άγχους θα είναι υψηλότερα στους μετανάστες μαθητές παρά στους γηγενείς μαθητές.

H8: Το επίπεδο αυτονομίας στο σχολείο θα είναι υψηλότερο στους γηγενείς μαθητές σε σχέση με τους μετανάστες μαθητές.

ΑΝΑΛΥΤΙΚΟ ΣΧΕΔΙΟ ΕΡΕΥΝΑΣ

ΚΩΔΙΚΟΣ: 186483

Χρησιμότητα-αναγκαιότητα της έρευνας:

Η έρευνα αυτή θεωρείται αναγκαία λόγω του ότι δεν υπάρχουν αρκετές έρευνες που να μελετούν παρόμοιο θέμα στην κυπριακή κοινωνία. Ο αριθμός των μεταναστών μαθητών αυξάνεται κατακόρυφα και η σύνθεση των σχολείων αλλάζει, συνεπώς είναι κρίσιμο να μελετηθεί κατά πόσο η προσαρμογή των μεταναστών μαθητών, υποβοηθάται από το σχολικό κλίμα και τη γενική ευχαρίστηση από τη ζωή. Η πρακτική σημασία της συγκεκριμένης έρευνας αφορά στο ότι τα αποτελέσματά της θα είναι χρήσιμα για τον εκπαιδευτικό τομέα και την εφαρμοσμένη ψυχολογία. Δηλαδή για τη διευκόλυνση της προσαρμογής των μεταναστών μαθητών και τη δημιουργία νέων παρεμβάσεων που να αφορούν στην ένταξή τους.

Διαδικασία συλλογής δεδομένων:

Αφού πάρουμε τη γραπτή συγκατάθεση των γονέων και κηδεμόνων, όπου εξηγείται ο σκοπός και η χρησιμότητα της έρευνας θα δώσουμε τα ερωτηματολόγια στους μαθητές/τριες των οποίων οι γονείς αποδέχθηκαν να συμμετάσχει το παιδί τους στην έρευνα. Τα ερωτηματολόγια θα δοθούν μία περίοδο μη-εξεταζόμενου μαθήματος και θα επιστραφούν την ίδια περίοδο. Ο χρόνος συμπλήρωσης του ερωτηματολογίου υπολογίζεται στα 20-30λεπτά. Τα ερωτηματολόγια είναι ανώνυμα. Τα ερωτηματολόγια θα δοθούν στους Κύπριους μαθητές στα Ελληνικά και στους μετανάστες μαθητές είτε στα Ελληνικά είτε στα Αγγλικά, αναλόγως με την προτίμησή τους ενώ για τους μαθητές που δεν μιλούν καλά καμιά από τις δύο γλώσσες μπορούν να μεταφραστούν στην Αραβική γλώσσα.

Δειγματοληψία:

150 μετανάστες μαθητές/μαθήτριες και 150 γηγενείς μαθητές/μαθήτριες. Σύνολο: 300 μαθητές μέσης εκπαίδευσης. Η συμμετοχή στην έρευνα είναι εθελοντική και οι μαθητές δικαιούνται να αποχωρήσουν όποτε το επιθυμούν.

Σχολεία:

Ευρυβιάδαιο στη Λάρνακα

Φανερωμένη στη Λάρνακα

Παλλουριώτισσα Λευκωσία

Αγίου Βασιλείου Λευκωσία

Ερευνητικά εργαλεία:

Το ερωτηματολόγιο που θα χρησιμοποιηθεί, αποτελείται από διάφορες υποκλίμακες που πάρθηκαν από διάφορα σταθμισμένα δημοσιευμένα εργαλεία:

1.Ερωτηματολόγιο VISC (υποκλίμακες):

-Σχολικό Ενδιαφέρον και Κίνητρα (10 ερωτήσεις 4 Likert-type scale)

-Σχολικό Κλίμα/ Σχέσεις (3 ερωτήσεις 4 Likert-Type scale)

2. Stressful Life Events questionnaire (Bean, Eurelings-Bontekoe, Derluyn, & Spinhoven (2006) (11 ερωτήσεις αναφορικά με τραυματικά γεγονότα ζωής N/O)

3. Psychological Well-being scale [Diener et al. (1985, 2003)] (5 ερωτήσεις αναφορικά με την ευχαρίστηση από τη ζωή Διαφωνώ απόλυτα-Συμφωνώ απόλυτα- 5 Likert-type scale)

4.Cantril-Ladder-Life Satisfaction (0-10)

5. School-related psychosomatic complaints από το ερωτηματολόγιο του Hascher (2004). [8 ερωτήσεις που μετρούν ψυχοσωματικά συμπτώματα, σε κλίμακα 5-Likert (Ποτέ-Πολύ συχνά)].

6. School Anxiety από το ερωτηματολόγιο Test Anxiety Inventory (Wieczerkowski, et al., 1979). [4 ερωτήσεις που μετρούν το σχολικό άγχος σε 5-likert type scale (Ποτέ-Πολύ συχνά)]

7. Need for School Autonomy [5 ερωτήσεις που μετρούν την ανάγκη για αυτονομία στο σχολείο σε 5 Likert-type scale (Διαφωνώ Απόλυτα-Συμφωνώ Απόλυτα)]

Μέσα από το ερωτηματολόγιο θα ληφθούν και δημογραφικά στοιχεία.

ΑΝΑΛΥΤΙΚΟ ΣΧΕΔΙΟ ΕΡΕΥΝΑΣ

ΚΩΔΙΚΟΣ: 186483

Χρόνος απασχόλησης:

20-30 λεπτά της διδακτικής περιόδου

Χρονική περίοδος έρευνας και αναμενόμενος χρόνος αποτελεσμάτων:

Συλλογή δεδομένων κατά το μήνα &#8710;εκέμβριο 2020 και Ιανουάριο 2021

Αναμενόμενος χρόνος υποβολής αποτελεσμάτων:30/05/2021

ΘΕΜΑΤΑ ΗΘΙΚΗΣ ΚΑΙ ΕΡΕΥΝΗΤΙΚΗΣ ΔΕΟΝΤΟΛΟΓΙΑΣ:**Α. ΣΥΝΕΙΔΗΤΗ ΣΥΝΑΙΝΕΣΗ ΓΙΑ ΣΥΜΜΕΤΟΧΗ ΣΤΗΝ ΕΡΕΥΝΑ****Όταν οι συμμετέχοντες είναι ενήλικες:**

1. Έχουν ληφθεί τα απαραίτητα μέτρα για την ενημέρωση των συμμετεχόντων σχετικά με: το σκοπό της έρευνας, τις διαδικασίες συλλογής δεδομένων, το περιεχόμενο των εργαλείων συλλογής δεδομένων και τον απαιτούμενο χρόνο για τη συλλογή των δεδομένων.[NAI]
2. Έχει ληφθεί πρόνοια για ενημέρωση των συμμετεχόντων σχετικά με την εθελοντική συμμετοχή τους στην έρευνα;[NAI]
3. Έχει ληφθεί πρόνοια για ενημέρωση των συμμετεχόντων σχετικά με το δικαίωμα απόσυρσης από την έρευνα οποιαδήποτε στιγμή το επιθυμήσουν;[NAI]
4. Προτίθεστε να εξασφαλίσετε τη συγκατάθεσή τους για την καταγραφή των δεδομένων (π.χ. μαγνητοφώνηση, βιντεοσκόπηση) πριν τη διεξαγωγή της έρευνας;[ΔΙ]

Όταν οι συμμετέχοντες είναι μαθητές:

5. Προτίθεστε να εξασφαλίσετε γραπτή συγκατάθεση από τους γονείς/κηδεμόνες των παιδιών για τη συμμετοχή τους στην παρούσα έρευνα;[NAI]
6. Έχει ληφθεί πρόνοια για ενημέρωση των γονέων/κηδεμόνων για τον σκοπό της έρευνας, τις διαδικασίες συλλογής δεδομένων, το περιεχόμενο των εργαλείων συλλογής δεδομένων και τον απαιτούμενο χρόνο για τη συλλογή των δεδομένων;[NAI]
7. Έχει ληφθεί πρόνοια για ενημέρωση των γονέων/κηδεμόνων ότι η συμμετοχή των παιδιών τους στην έρευνα είναι εθελοντική;[NAI]
8. Έχει ληφθεί πρόνοια για ενημέρωση των γονέων/κηδεμόνων σχετικά με το δικαίωμα απόσυρσης του παιδιού τους από την έρευνα οποιαδήποτε στιγμή το επιθυμήσουν χωρίς οποιοδήποτε συνέπειες για το παιδί;[NAI]
9. Προτίθεστε να εξασφαλίσετε γραπτή συγκατάθεση των γονέων/κηδεμόνων για την καταγραφή των δεδομένων (π.χ. μαγνητοφώνηση, βιντεοσκόπηση), πριν τη διεξαγωγή της έρευνας;[ΔΙ]
10. Στην περίπτωση συνέντευξης/προσωπικής επαφής με το παιδί, έχει ληφθεί πρόνοια για την παρουσία εκπαιδευτικού του σχολείου στη συνέντευξη;[ΔΙ]
11. Έχει ληφθεί πρόνοια για ενημέρωση των ίδιων των παιδιών για τον σκοπό και το περιεχόμενο της έρευνας;[NAI]
12. Έχει ληφθεί πρόνοια για ενημέρωση των παιδιών ότι η συμμετοχή τους στην έρευνα είναι εθελοντική;[NAI]

Β. ΠΡΟΣΒΑΣΗ ΣΤΙΣ ΣΧΟΛΙΚΕΣ ΜΟΝΑΔΕΣ

13. Έχουν ληφθεί τα απαραίτητα μέτρα για ενημέρωση της διεύθυνσης του σχολείου για τη διεξαγωγή της παρούσας έρευνας;[NAI]
14. Έχουν ληφθεί τα απαραίτητα μέτρα για ενημέρωση του εκπαιδευτικού προσωπικού του σχολείου για τη διεξαγωγή της παρούσας έρευνας;[NAI]

Γ. ΠΙΘΑΝΗ ΕΚΘΕΣΗ ΣΕ ΣΩΜΑΤΙΚΟ Ή ΨΥΧΟΛΟΓΙΚΟ ΚΙΝΔΥΝΟ

15. Έχουν ληφθεί τα απαραίτητα μέτρα έτσι ώστε η μεταχείριση των υποκειμένων της έρευνας να γίνεται με τον ελάχιστο δυνατό κίνδυνο, ώστε να μην κινδυνεύσει η σωματική τους ακεραιότητα ή η ψυχική τους υγεία;[NAI]
16. Η έρευνα προβαίνει σε έκθεση των υποκειμένων σε κατάλληλα για την ηλικία τους ερεθίσματα (π.χ. το περιεχόμενο των εργαλείων συλλογής δεδομένων είναι κατάλληλο);[NAI]
17. Η έρευνα προβαίνει σε έκθεση των υποκειμένων σε κατάλληλα για την ιδιότητά τους (π.χ. γονείς, εκπαιδευτικούς) ερεθίσματα;[NAI]

Δ. ΠΡΟΣΤΑΣΙΑ ΑΝΩΝΥΜΙΑΣ ΚΑΙ ΔΕΔΟΜΕΝΩΝ

18. Έχουν ληφθεί τα απαραίτητα μέτρα για την προστασία της ανωνυμίας των συμμετεχόντων;[NAI]
19. Έχουν ληφθεί τα απαραίτητα μέτρα για τη φύλαξη των δεδομένων που θα συλλεχθούν στα πλαίσια της παρούσας έρευνας;[NAI]
20. Έχουν ληφθεί τα απαραίτητα μέτρα έτσι ώστε τα δεδομένα που θα συλλεγούν να μη χρησιμοποιηθούν για οποιοδήποτε άλλο σκοπό;[NAI]

Ε. ΕΝΗΜΕΡΩΣΗ ΣΥΜΜΕΤΕΧΟΝΤΩΝ ΓΙΑ ΤΑ ΑΠΟΤΕΛΕΣΜΑΤΑ ΤΗΣ ΕΡΕΥΝΑΣ

21. Έχει ληφθεί πρόνοια για ενημέρωση των συμμετεχόντων σχετικά με τα αποτελέσματα της έρευνας;[NAI]

ΑΙΤΙΟΛΟΓΗΣΗ ΣΗΜΕΙΩΝ «ΟΧΙ»**ΆΛΛΑ ΘΕΜΑΤΑ ΗΘΙΚΗΣ ΚΑΙ ΔΕΟΝΤΟΛΟΓΙΑΣ****ΑΡΧΕΙΑ ΠΟΥ ΕΠΙΣΥΝΑΦΘΗΚΑΝ:**

LETTER TO PARENTSΑΙΤΗΣΗ.DOCX (25/11/2020, 8:51:54, 81 KB)
 SCALESΑΙΤΗΣΗ.DOCX (25/11/2020, 8:38:20, 45 KB)
 ΒΕΒΑΙΩΣΗ ΚΕΕΑ_Ι ΜΑΡΟΥΛΛΗ (1).PDF (25/11/2020, 8:37:12, 432 KB)
 ΕΠΙΣΤΟΛΗ ΠΡΟΣ ΓΟΝΕΙΣ ΚΑΙ ΚΗΔΕΜΟΝΕΣ ΑΙΤΗΣΗ.DOCX (25/11/2020, 8:37:50, 82 KB)
 ΕΠΙΣΤΟΛΗ ΠΡΟΣ ΔΙΕΥΘΥΝΤΕΣ ΑΙΤΗΣΗ.DOCX (25/11/2020, 8:38:08, 112 KB)

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Appendix B: Letter of approval of the study



ΚΥΠΡΙΑΚΗ ΔΗΜΟΚΡΑΤΙΑ
ΥΠΟΥΡΓΕΙΟ
ΠΑΙΔΕΙΑΣ, ΠΟΛΙΤΙΣΜΟΥ
ΑΘΛΗΤΙΣΜΟΥ ΚΑΙ ΝΕΟΛΑΙΑΣ

ΔΙΕΥΘΥΝΣΗ
ΜΕΣΗΣ ΓΕΝΙΚΗΣ ΕΚΠΑΙΔΕΥΣΗΣ

Αρ. Φακ.: 7.19.46.11/8
Αρ. Τηλ.: 22800664
Αρ. Φαξ: 22428268
E-mail: circularsec@schools.ac.cy

16 Δεκεμβρίου 2020

Κυρία
Ιωάννα Μαρουλλή
Αντιγόνης 4
2400 Έγκωμη

Θέμα: Παραχώρηση άδειας για διεξαγωγή έρευνας

Αναφορικά με τη σχετική με το πιο πάνω θέμα αίτησή σας στο Κέντρο Εκπαιδευτικής Έρευνας και Αξιολόγησης, με ημερομηνία υποβολής 18/10/2020, πληροφορείστε ότι το αίτημά σας για διεξαγωγή έρευνας σε σχολεία Μέσης Γενικής Εκπαίδευσης, με θέμα «*Προσαρμογή στο σχολικό πλαίσιο και ικανοποίηση από τη Ζωή*», στο πλαίσιο έρευνας για την απόκτηση μεταπτυχιακού τίτλου σπουδών στη Θεολογική Σχολή της Εκκλησίας της Κύπρου, εγκρίνεται. Νοείται ότι θα λάβετε υπόψη τις εισηγήσεις του Κέντρου Εκπαιδευτικής Έρευνας και Αξιολόγησης οι οποίες επισυνάπτονται και ότι θα τηρήσετε τις ακόλουθες προϋποθέσεις:

1. θα εξασφαλίσετε τη συγκατάθεση των Διευθυντών/-ντριών των σχολείων, τα οποία θα συμμετάσχουν στην έρευνα,
2. η συμμετοχή των μαθητών/τριών θα είναι προαιρετική,
3. θα εξασφαλίσετε τη συγκατάθεση των γονέων των μαθητών/-τριών στην έρευνα,
4. δεν θα επηρεασθεί ο διδακτικός χρόνος και η ομαλή λειτουργία του σχολείου για τη διεξαγωγή της έρευνας,
5. θα χειριστείτε τα στοιχεία των εμπλεκόμενων με τέτοιο τρόπο, ώστε να διασφαλιστεί πλήρως η ανωνυμία τους, και τέλος,
6. τα αποτελέσματα της έρευνας θα κοινοποιηθούν στο Υπουργείο Παιδείας, Πολιτισμού, Αθλητισμού και Νεολαίας και στα σχολεία που θα σας παραχωρήσουν διευκολύνσεις για τη διεξαγωγή της.

Ευχόμαστε καλή επιτυχία στους ερευνητικούς σας σκοπούς.

Δρ Κυπριανός Δ. Λούης
Διευθυντής
Μέσης Γενικής Εκπαίδευσης

ΒΚ

Υπουργείο Παιδείας, Πολιτισμού, Αθλητισμού και Νεολαίας 1434 Λευκωσία
Τηλ: 22 800 600 fax: 22 428268 website: www.moec.gov.cy

Appendix C: Letter to school principals about the study's aims and procedure

Διεξαγωγή έρευνας με θέμα «Προσαρμογή στο Σχολικό Πλαίσιο και Ικανοποίηση από τη Ζωή»

Με την παρούσα επιστολή ζητάμε τη συγκατάθεσή σας για τη συμμετοχή τμημάτων Α', Β' και Γ' Γυμνασίου του σχολείου σας στην έρευνα «Προσαρμογή στο Σχολικό Πλαίσιο και Ικανοποίηση από τη Ζωή». Η έρευνα διεξάγεται υπό την εποπτεία της υποφαινόμενης, Δρ Όλγας Σολομώντος-Κουντούρη, Υπεύθυνης Μεταπτυχιακού Προγράμματος της Θεολογικής Σχολής Εκκλησίας της Κύπρου και της μεταπτυχιακής φοιτήτριας Ιωάννας Μαρουλλή. Σχετική έγκριση έχει ήδη χορηγηθεί από το Κέντρο Εκπαιδευτικής Έρευνας και Αξιολόγησης, (επισυνάπτεται αντίγραφο).

Λογική της Έρευνας: Η συγκεκριμένη έρευνα έχει σκοπό τη διερεύνηση της σχολικής προσαρμογής και του βαθμού ικανοποίησης από τη ζωή τόσο Κύπριων όσο και μεταναστών μαθητών/τριών. Μέσω της χορήγησης ερωτηματολογίων, θα εξεταστεί το επίπεδο ευχαρίστησης από τη ζωή καθώς και η θέληση και τα κίνητρα για μάθηση των μαθητών/τριών. Μέσα από τα αποτελέσματα θα φανεί κατά πόσο υπάρχουν διαφορές στον βαθμό ικανοποίησης από τη ζωή (αριθμός τραυματικών γεγονότων που βιώθηκαν) και στην σχολική προσαρμογή (κίνητρα, ενδιαφέρον, άγχος) μεταξύ των δύο ομάδων μαθητών. Επιπλέον, θα διερευνηθούν παράγοντες που αφορούν στο σχολικό κλίμα.

Η έρευνα αυτή θεωρείται αναγκαία λόγω του ότι δεν υπάρχουν αρκετές έρευνες που να μελετούν παρόμοιο θέμα στην Κύπρο. Ο αριθμός των μεταναστών μαθητών αυξάνεται κατακόρυφα και η σύνθεση των σχολείων αλλάζει, συνεπώς είναι κρίσιμο να μελετηθεί κατά πόσο η προσαρμογή των μεταναστών μαθητών, υποβοηθάται από το σχολικό κλίμα και τη γενική ευχαρίστηση από τη ζωή.

Η πρακτική σημασία της συγκεκριμένης έρευνας αφορά στο ότι τα αποτελέσματά της θα είναι χρήσιμα για τον εκπαιδευτικό τομέα και την εφαρμοσμένη ψυχολογία. Δηλαδή για τη διευκόλυνση της προσαρμογής των μεταναστών μαθητών και τη δημιουργία νέων παρεμβάσεων που να αφορούν στην ένταξή τους.

Συμμετέχοντες: Στην έρευνα θα πάρουν μέρος μαθητές/τριες της Α', Β' και Γ' τάξης Γυμνασίου των οποίων οι γονείς έχουν αποδεχθεί να συμμετέχει το παιδί τους στην έρευνα (επισυνάπτεται η επιστολή προς τους γονείς).

Διαδικασία: Για τη διεξαγωγή της έρευνας έχει εξασφαλιστεί άδεια από το Κέντρο Εκπαιδευτικής Έρευνας και Αξιολόγησης. Θα πρέπει να έχουμε τη συγκατάθεση και τη συνεργασία των διευθυντών/τριών των σχολείων για παραχώρηση χρόνου, ούτως ώστε να δοθούν τα ερωτηματολόγια καθώς και γραπτή άδεια υπογεγραμμένη από τους γονείς των μαθητών/τριών για συμμετοχή των παιδιών τους στην έρευνα. Η χορήγηση των ερωτηματολογίων θα γίνει από τις ερευνήτριες. Οι μαθητές/τριες θα έχουν στη διάθεσή τους μια μειωμένη διδακτική περίοδο (30 λεπτά) για να συμπληρώσουν το ερωτηματολόγιο. Οι ερευνήτριες θα είναι στην τάξη κατά τη διάρκεια συμπλήρωσης των ερωτηματολογίων φροντίζοντας να κυλήσει ομαλά η διαδικασία και λύνοντας τυχόν απορίες των μαθητών/τριών σχετικά με το ερωτηματολόγιο. Ακολούθως, θα συγκεντρωθούν όλα τα ερωτηματολόγια και τα δεδομένα θα καταχωρηθούν και θα αναλυθούν ποσοτικά στο στατιστικό λογισμικό SPSS.

Αποτελέσματα της έρευνας: Τα συνολικά αποτελέσματα από όλα τα σχολεία θα σας ανακοινωθούν μετά το πέρας της διαδικασίας ανάλυσης και καταγραφής των αποτελεσμάτων. Η ίδια ενημέρωση θα σταλεί στο Υ.Π.Π. και στο Κ.Ε.Ε.Α..

Κλείνοντας θέλουμε να σας ευχαριστήσουμε για τη συμμετοχή σας στην έρευνα και να τονίσουμε τη σημασία της συμβολής εσάς και του σχολείου σας. Σε περίπτωση που έχετε κάποιες ερωτήσεις ή χρειάζεστε κάποιες διευκρινίσεις, μην διστάσετε να επικοινωνήσετε μαζί μας στην ηλεκτρονική διεύθυνση o.solomontos-kountouri@theo.ac.cy.

Σας ευχαριστούμε, εκ των προτέρων, για τη συνεργασία σας.

Με εκτίμηση,

Δρ Όλγα Σολομώντος Κουντούρη
Αναπληρώτρια Καθηγήτρια Αναπτυξιακής Ψυχολογίας,
Υπεύθυνη Μεταπτυχιακού Προγράμματος
Θεολογική Σχολή Εκκλησίας Κύπρου

Appendix D: Greek and English versions of parental consent form

Greek Version

Αγαπητέ γονέα/κηδεμόνα,

Με την παρούσα επιστολή ζητάμε τη συγκατάθεσή σας για να συμμετέχει το παιδί σας στην έρευνα με θέμα «Ακαδημαϊκή Επίδοση και Ικανοποίηση από τη Ζωή Μεταναστών και Γηγενών μαθητών». Ο κύριος σκοπός της εν λόγω μελέτης, είναι να διερευνηθεί η ακαδημαϊκή επίδοση και ο βαθμός ικανοποίησης από τη ζωή μεταναστών και γηγενών μαθητών/τριών. Μέσω της χορήγησης εργαλείων (ερωτηματολόγια), θα εξεταστεί το επίπεδο ευχαρίστησης από τη ζωή καθώς και η θέληση και τα κίνητρα για μάθηση όλων των μαθητών. Η έρευνα διεξάγεται υπό την εποπτεία της Δρ. Όλγας Σολομώντος-Κουντούρη, Λέκτορα Ψυχολογίας και Υπεύθυνης Μεταπτυχιακού Προγράμματος της Θεολογικής Σχολής Εκκλησίας της Κύπρου. Σχετική έγκριση έχει ήδη χορηγηθεί από το Κέντρο Εκπαιδευτικής Έρευνας και Αξιολόγησης.

Το παιδί σας, παίρνοντας μέρος στην έρευνα, θα συμπληρώσει ένα ανώνυμο ερωτηματολόγιο. Η διάρκεια της έρευνας δεν θα υπερβαίνει τα 30 λεπτά και θα διεξαχθεί ύστερα από συνεννόηση με το διδακτικό προσωπικό, ώστε να μην επηρεάζεται το πρόγραμμα διδασκαλίας.

Παρακαλούμε συμπληρώστε και υπογράψτε το έντυπο που ακολουθεί και επιστρέψτε το στο σχολείο το συντομότερο δυνατό, μόνο αν επιθυμείτε το παιδί σας να ΜΗΝ συμμετέχει στην έρευνα. Σε περίπτωση που έχετε κάποιες ερωτήσεις ή χρειάζεστε κάποιες διευκρινίσεις, μην διστάσετε να επικοινωνήσετε μαζί μας στην ηλεκτρονική διεύθυνση o.solomontos-kountouri@theo.ac.cy.

Σας ευχαριστούμε, εκ των προτέρων, για τη συνεργασία σας.

Με εκτίμηση,

Δρ Όλγα Σολομώντος-Κουντούρη

Επιθυμώ ο/η μαθητής/τρια
....., της τάξης να ΜΗΝ συμμετέχει στην παραπάνω έρευνα.

Υπογραφή γονέα ή κηδεμόνα:

Όνοματεπώνυμο:

English Version

Dear parent/guardian,

With this letter we ask for your consent for your child to participate in the research on "School Adjustment and Life Satisfaction". The main purpose of this study is to investigate school adjustment and the degree of life satisfaction of Cypriots and immigrant students. Using questionnaires, the level of pleasure from life as well as the will and motivation for learning of all students will be examined. The research is conducted under the supervision of Dr. Olga Solomontos-Kountouri, Associate Professor of Psychology and Head of the Postgraduate Program of the Theological School of the Church of Cyprus. Approval has already been granted by the Centre for Educational Research and Evaluation of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sport and Youth.

Your child, taking part in the survey, will complete an anonymous questionnaire. The duration of the survey will not exceed 30 minutes and will be carried out after consultation with the teaching staff, so as not to affect the teaching program.

Please fill in and sign the form below and return it to school as soon as possible, only if you wish your child NOT to participate in the survey. In case you have any questions or need some clarification, do not hesitate to contact us at o.solomontos-kountouri@theo.ac.cy.

Thank you, in advance, for your cooperation.

With appreciation,

Dr Olga Solomontos-Kountouri

I wish the studentof class..... NOT to participate in the above survey.

Signature of parent or guardian:

Name:

Appendix E: Greek and English version of the questionnaire

Greek Version

Αγαπητοί μαθητές και αγαπητές μαθήτριες,

Το ερωτηματολόγιο αυτό ετοιμάστηκε για εσάς, τους φίλους και τις φίλες σας. Συγκεκριμένα, σχεδιάστηκε για να μετρήσει την ικανοποίηση/ευχαρίστηση από τη ζωή και να εξετάσει παράγοντες που πιθανόν να επηρεάζουν την προσαρμογή στο σχολείο Κυπρίων και μεταναστών μαθητών της ηλικίας σας. Δεν υπάρχουν σωστές ή λάθος απαντήσεις. Σας παρακαλούμε να απαντήσετε με ειλικρίνεια και να μας πείτε τι νομίζετε εσείς προσωπικά για κάθε ερώτηση. Βεβαιωθείτε ότι έχετε απαντήσει σε όλες τις ερωτήσεις που εμπεριέχονται σε αυτό το ερωτηματολόγιο. Το ερωτηματολόγιο περιλαμβάνει έξι (6) σελίδες.

Το ερωτηματολόγιο είναι ανώνυμο και δε θα γνωρίζει κανένας και καμιά τις απαντήσεις που θα δώσετε.

Σας ευχαριστούμε πολύ για την πολύτιμη βοήθειά σας!

Διάβασε προσεκτικά τις δηλώσεις που ακολουθούν. Η κάθε δήλωση μετρά έναν παράγοντα που σχετίζεται με τη σχολική προσαρμογή και την ικανοποίηση/ευχαρίστηση από τη ζωή. Εσύ να κυκλώσεις τον βαθμό που πιστεύεις ότι αντιστοιχεί σε αυτό που νιώθεις. Δεν υπάρχει σωστή ή λάθος απάντηση. Το 1 αντιστοιχεί στο Διαφωνώ Απόλυτα, το 2 στο Διαφωνώ, το 3 στο Ούτε Συμφωνώ ούτε Διαφωνώ, το 4 στο Συμφωνώ και το 5 στο Συμφωνώ Απόλυτα, όπως φαίνονται και στην κλίμακα.

1 Διαφωνώ Απόλυτα	2 Διαφωνώ	3 Ούτε Συμφωνώ, Ούτε Διαφωνώ	4 Συμφωνώ	5 Συμφωνώ Απόλυτα			
1. Στην τάξη μας είναι σημαντικό για όλους μας να είμαστε μια καλή ομάδα.			1	2	3	4	5
2. Στην τάξη μας είναι σημαντικό για όλους μας να περνάμε μεταξύ μας καλά.			1	2	3	4	5
3. Στην τάξη μας συνεργαζόμαστε και βοηθούμε ο ένας τον άλλον.			1	2	3	4	5
1. Για μένα είναι διασκέδαση το να ασχοληθώ με θέματα μάθησης στο σχολείο.			1	2	3	4	5
2. Στον ελεύθερο μου χρόνο ασχολούμαι με θέματα μάθησης του σχολείου, ακόμη και όταν δεν χρειάζεται.			1	2	3	4	5
3. Στο σχολείο μαθαίνω κάτι που είναι σημαντικό για μένα.			1	2	3	4	5
4. Θέλω να μαθαίνω πολλά νέα πράγματα.			1	2	3	4	5
5. Θέλω να κάνω δύσκολα πράγματα ώστε να μάθω νέα πράγματα.			1	2	3	4	5
6. Θέλω να καταλαβαίνω τι μαθαίνω.			1	2	3	4	5
7. Θέλω να είμαι σε θέση να πετυχαίνω όλο και περισσότερο.			1	2	3	4	5
8. Αν προσπαθήσω, μπορώ να λύσω και δύσκολα πράγματα στην τάξη.			1	2	3	4	5
9. Ξέρω ότι μπορώ να καταφέρω να κάνω τα πράγματα που απαιτούνται από εμένα στο σχολείο.			1	2	3	4	5
10. Πιστεύω ότι μπορώ να είμαι καλός/η στα διαγωνίσματα.			1	2	3	4	5
1. Προτιμώ να έχω περισσότερες ομαδικές εργασίες στην τάξη.			1	2	3	4	5
2. Μου αρέσει να επιλέγω πιο συχνά ο ίδιος/η ίδια πόσο γρήγορα εργάζομαι στην τάξη.			1	2	3	4	5
3. Μου αρέσει να είμαι μέρος των αποφάσεων σχετικά με το ποια θέματα θα συζητηθούν στο μάθημα.			1	2	3	4	5
4. Θα μου άρεσε να ήμουν μέρος των αποφάσεων σχετικά με το πώς μαθαίνουμε στο σχολείο.			1	2	3	4	5
5. Θα μου άρεσε να ήμουν μέρος των αποφάσεων σχετικά με το τι εργασίες θα έχουμε για το σπίτι.			1	2	3	4	5

1	2	3	4	5			
Διαφωνώ Απόλυτα	Διαφωνώ	Ούτε Συμφωνώ, Ούτε Διαφωνώ	Συμφωνώ	Συμφωνώ Απόλυτα			
1.	Η ζωή μου στους περισσότερους τομείς, είναι όπως επιθυμώ να είναι.		1	2	3	4	5
2.	Οι συνθήκες της ζωής μου είναι εξαιρετικές.		1	2	3	4	5
3.	Είμαι ικανοποιημένος/η από τη ζωή μου.		1	2	3	4	5
4.	Μέχρι στιγμής, έχω όλα όσα θεωρώ σημαντικά στη ζωή μου.		1	2	3	4	5
5.	Αν μπορούσα να ξαναζήσω τη ζωή μου, δεν θα άλλαζα σχεδόν τίποτα.		1	2	3	4	5

Φανταστείτε μια σκάλα με σκαλοπάτια με το μηδέν στο κάτω μέρος και το 10 στην κορυφή.

Το πάνω μέρος της σκάλας (10) αντιπροσωπεύει την καλύτερη δυνατή ζωή για εσάς και το κάτω μέρος της σκάλας (0) αντιπροσωπεύει τη χειρότερη δυνατή ζωή για εσάς.

Σε ποιο σκαλοπάτι αισθάνεσαι ότι βρίσκεσαι αυτή τη στιγμή; (κύκλωσε έναν αριθμό που θεωρείς ότι αντιπροσωπεύει αυτό που αισθάνεσαι)

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Η ζωή μου δεν θα μπορούσε να ήταν χειρότερη										Η ζωή μου δεν θα μπορούσε να ήταν καλύτερη

Σε ποιο σκαλοπάτι πιστεύεις ότι θα βρίσκεσαι στο μέλλον; (κύκλωσε έναν αριθμό που θεωρείς ότι αντιπροσωπεύει αυτό που αισθάνεσαι)

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Η ζωή μου δεν θα μπορούσε να ήταν χειρότερη										Η ζωή μου δεν θα μπορούσε να ήταν καλύτερη

1	2	3	4	5
Ποτέ	Σπάνια	Κάποιες φορές	Συχνά	Πολύ συχνά
1.	Όταν οι καθηγητές μου ζητούν να μιλήσω, φοβάμαι μην πω κάτι λάθος.			1 2 3 4 5
2.	Όταν έχω εξετάσεις στο σχολείο, κάνω πολλά λάθη επειδή φοβάμαι πολύ.			1 2 3 4 5
3.	Στις εξετάσεις φοβάμαι ότι δεν θα πάρω καλούς βαθμούς.			1 2 3 4 5
4.	Ανησυχώ πολύ αν είμαι ικανός να περάσω αυτή την τάξη.			1 2 3 4 5
1.	Πριν το διαγώνισμα ή την εξέταση, η καρδιά μου χτυπά πολύ γρήγορα.			1 2 3 4 5
2.	Κατά τη διάρκεια της εξέτασης, νιώθω ένα δυσάρεστο αίσθημα στο στομάχι μου.			1 2 3 4 5
3.	Όταν αγχώνομαι για τις εξετάσεις, δεν μπορώ να φάω τίποτα.			1 2 3 4 5
4.	Όταν οι καθηγητές μου ζητούν να μιλήσω, νιώθω ένα δυσάρεστο συναίσθημα.			1 2 3 4 5
5.	Όταν αγχώνομαι για τις εξετάσεις, πονάω το στομάχι μου.			1 2 3 4 5
6.	Κατά τη διάρκεια των μαθημάτων, νιώθω ζαλάδες.			1 2 3 4 5
7.	Όταν αγχώνομαι για τις εξετάσεις, πονάω το κεφάλι μου.			1 2 3 4 5
8.	Όταν σκέφτομαι τα προβλήματα που έχουν να κάνουν με το σχολείο, δεν μπορώ να κοιμηθώ.			1 2 3 4 5

1	2	3	4	5
Διαφωνώ Απόλυτα	Διαφωνώ	Ούτε Συμφωνώ, Ούτε Διαφωνώ	Συμφωνώ	Συμφωνώ Απόλυτα
1.	Όταν σκέφτομαι τον κορωνοϊό αισθάνομαι απειλή.			1 2 3 4 5
2.	Φοβάμαι τον κορωνοϊό.			1 2 3 4 5
3.	Δεν ανησυχώ για τον κορωνοϊό.			1 2 3 4 5
4.	Ανησυχώ ότι εγώ ή οι άνθρωποι που αγαπώ θα αρρωστήσουμε από τον κορωνοϊό.			1 2 3 4 5
5.	Έχω άγχος όταν βρίσκομαι με άλλους ανθρώπους, επειδή ανησυχώ ότι θα μολυνθώ από τον κορωνοϊό.			1 2 3 4 5
6.	Προσπαθώ πολύ να αποφύγω άλλους ανθρώπους, επειδή δεν θέλω να αρρωστήσω.			1 2 3 4 5

Σ' αυτό το μέρος, διάβασε τις ερωτήσεις προσεκτικά και σημείωσε με X το κουτάκι που αντιστοιχεί στην απάντησή σου. Μπορείς να επιλέξεις μία απάντηση (είτε ΟΧΙ, είτε ΝΑΙ). Δεν υπάρχει σωστή ή λάθος απάντηση.

	ΝΑΙ	ΟΧΙ
1. Υπήρξαν μεγάλες αλλαγές στην οικογένεια σου τον τελευταίο χρόνο;	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Έτυχε να χωριστείς ποτέ από την οικογένεια σου, χωρίς να το θέλεις;	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Έχεις χάσει κάποιον δικό σου, για τον οποίο νοιαζόσουν πολύ;	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Είχες ποτέ κάποιο ιατρικό θέμα που να απειλεί τη ζωή σου;	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Ενεπλάκης ποτέ σε σοβαρό ατύχημα;	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Βίωσες ποτέ μεγάλη καταστροφή;	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Έζησες ποτέ πόλεμο ή είδες στρατιωτικές μάχες να λαμβάνουν χώρα δίπλα/κοντά σου ή στη χώρα σου;	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Σε κλώτσησε/χτύπησε/πυροβόλησε ποτέ κανείς ή σε τραυμάτισε με κάποιο τρόπο;	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Είδες ποτέ κάποιον άνθρωπο να τον κλωτσούν/χτυπούν/πυροβολούν ή τραυματίζουν με άλλο τρόπο;	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Έζησες τραυματικά γεγονότα όπου ένιωσες ότι απειλείται η ζωή σου;	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Έζησες τραυματικά γεγονότα όπου ένιωσες ότι απειλείται η ζωή κάποιου ανθρώπου;	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

1. Πότε γεννήθηκες; (ημερομηνία) _____

2. Είσαι Αγόρι Κορίτσι

3. Οι γονείς σου είναι:

παντρεμένοι χωρισμένοι σε διάσταση η μητέρα δεν ζει ο πατέρας δεν ζει

4. Ποια είναι η εκπαίδευση του πατέρα σου;

δεν έλαβε εκπαίδευση απόφοιτος λυκείου
 απόφοιτος δημοτικού απόφοιτος πανεπιστημίου
 απόφοιτος γυμνασίου κατέχει μεταπτυχιακό δίπλωμα (M.A. & Ph.D.)

5. Ποια είναι η εκπαίδευση της μητέρας σου;

δεν έλαβε εκπαίδευση απόφοιτος λυκείου
 απόφοιτος δημοτικού απόφοιτος πανεπιστημίου
 απόφοιτος γυμνασίου κατέχει μεταπτυχιακό δίπλωμα (M.A. & Ph.D.)

6. Ο πατέρας σου εργάζεται;

ναι όχι

7. Η μητέρα σου εργάζεται;

ναι όχι

8. Κατά τη γνώμη σου πώς είναι η οικονομική κατάσταση της οικογένειάς σου

- πολύ κακή κακή ούτε κακή, ούτε καλή καλή πολύ καλή

9. Με ποιους ζεις/μένεις;

- με τους δύο γονείς μου και τα αδέρφια μου.
 με έναν γονέα και τα αδέρφια μου.
 με τους παππούδες μου.
 με κάποιον άλλο, με: _____

***Το τελευταίο αυτό μέρος, να συμπληρωθεί ΜΟΝΟ ΕΑΝ ΕΙΣΤΕ Μετανάστης.**

1. Σε ποια χώρα γεννήθηκε ο πατέρας σου; _____

2. Σε ποια χώρα γεννήθηκε η μητέρα σου; _____

3. Σε ποια χώρα γεννήθηκες εσύ; _____

4. Αν δεν γεννήθηκες στην Κύπρο, σε ποια ηλικία ήρθες στην Κύπρο; _____

5. Γιατί η οικογένεια σου μετακόμισε στην Κύπρο;

- Δουλειά Σπουδές Άσυλο Πόλεμος

Άλλο, συγκεκριμένα: _____

6. Πόσο καιρό είσαι στην Κύπρο; _____ χρόνια και _____ μήνες

7. Στην Κύπρο:

- έχουμε δικό μας σπίτι/διαμέρισμα
 ενοικιάζουμε σπίτι/διαμέρισμα
 μένουμε σε χώρο/σπίτι/διαμέρισμα που χρηματοδοτείται από το κράτος
 άλλο, συγκεκριμένα: _____

English version

Dear students,

This questionnaire has been prepared for you and your friends. Specifically, it has been designed to investigate the level of life satisfaction and the factors that possibly affect school adjustment of Cypriot and immigrant students your age. There are no correct or wrong answers. It is very important for us that you respond with honesty to each question. Please ensure you have answered all questions/statements included in this questionnaire. The questionnaire consists of nine (9) pages.

The questionnaire is anonymous and your answers will be kept confidential.

Thank you for your help!

Carefully read each statement in the boxes that follow. Every box represents a scale which measures how different factors correlate with school adjustment and life satisfaction. Then, circle ONE number (1-5) you believe corresponds to how you feel. There is no correct or wrong answer.

1	2	3	4	5			
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree			
1. In our class being a good community is important to everyone.			1	2	3	4	5
2. In our class it's important to everyone to get along well.			1	2	3	4	5
3. In our class pupils work together and help each other.			1	2	3	4	5
1. For me it is fun to occupy myself with learning matters from school.			1	2	3	4	5
2. In leisure time I occupy myself with learning matters from school even if I do not have to.			1	2	3	4	5
3. At school I'm learning something that is important for me.			1	2	3	4	5
4. I want to learn many new things.			1	2	3	4	5
5. I want to do difficult things in order to learn new things.			1	2	3	4	5
6. I want to understand what I am learning.			1	2	3	4	5
7. I want to be able to achieve more and more.			1	2	3	4	5
8. If I put an effort, I can also solve difficult things in class.			1	2	3	4	5
9. I know that I can succeed in doing the things that are required from me at school.			1	2	3	4	5
10. I am convinced that I can be good at tests.			1	2	3	4	5
1. I prefer to have more group work activities during lessons.			1	2	3	4	5
2. I like to decide more often myself, how quickly I work during lessons.			1	2	3	4	5
3. I like to participate in the decisions about which topics get discussed during lessons.			1	2	3	4	5
4. I would like to participate in the decisions how we learn in school.			1	2	3	4	5
5. I would like to participate in the decisions what kind of homework we get.			1	2	3	4	5

1	2	3	4	5			
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree			
1. In most ways, my life is close to my ideal.			1	2	3	4	5
2. The conditions in my life are excellent.			1	2	3	4	5
3. I am satisfied with my life.			1	2	3	4	5
4. So far, I have gotten the important things I want in my life.			1	2	3	4	5
5. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.			1	2	3	4	5

Please imagine a ladder with steps numbered from zero at the bottom to 10 at the top.

The top of the ladder (10) represents the best possible life for you and the bottom of the ladder (0) represents the worst possible life for you.

On which step of the ladder would you say you personally feel you stand at this time? (circle a number you feel represents the best the way you feel)

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Worst Possible Life										Best Possible Life

On which step do you think you will stand in the future? (circle a number you feel represents the best the way you feel)

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Worst Possible Life										Best Possible Life

1	2	3	4	5	
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often	
1. When I am called on by a teacher, I am afraid I will say something wrong.	1	2	3	4	5
2. When I am having an exam at school, I make many mistakes, because I am too anxious.	1	2	3	4	5
3. During exams, I am worrying I will get bad grades.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I worry a lot whether I am able to pass this grade.	1	2	3	4	5

1. Before there is a test or an exam, my heart starts beating very much.	1	2	3	4	5
2. During an exam, I get an unpleasant feeling in my stomach.	1	2	3	4	5
3. When I am stressed out because of an exam, I am hardly able to eat anything.	1	2	3	4	5
4. When I am called on by a teacher, I get an unpleasant feeling.	1	2	3	4	5
5. When I am stressed out because of exams, I get a stomachache.	1	2	3	4	5
6. During lessons, I get dizzy.	1	2	3	4	5
7. When I am stressed out because of exams, I get a headache.	1	2	3	4	5
8. When I am occupied with school related problems, I am not able to fall asleep.	1	2	3	4	5

1	2	3	4	5	
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	
1. When I think of COVID-19, I feel threatened	1	2	3	4	5
2. I am afraid of COVID-19.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I don't feel worried about COVID-19.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I am afraid that people I love or myself will get COVID-19.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I feel anxious when I have contact with other people, because I am worried, I will contract the virus.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I am trying to avoid other people, because I don't want to get sick	1	2	3	4	5

In this part, carefully read the following questions and place an X in the box that corresponds to your answer. You can choose only one answer (either YES or NO). There is no correct or wrong answer.

	YES	NO
1. Have there been drastic changes in your family during the last year?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Have you ever been separated from your family against your will?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Has someone died in your life that you really cared about?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Have you had a life-threatening medical problem?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Have you been involved in a serious accident?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Have you ever been involved in a disaster?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Have you ever experienced a war or an armed military conflict going on around you in your country of birth?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Has someone ever hit, kicked, shot at or some other way tried to physically hurt you?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Did you ever see someone else get kicked, shot at or some other way physically hurt in real life?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Did you experience any other very stressful life events where you thought that your life was in danger?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Did you experience any other very stressful life event where you thought that someone else was in great danger?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

1. In which year were you born? (date) _____

2. What is your gender? Boy Girl

3. What is your parents' marital status?

Married Divorced Separated Mother not alive Father not alive

4. What is the education level of your father?

Did not receive any education High school graduate
 Elementary school graduate University graduate
 Junior high school graduate Postgraduate degree (M.A. & Ph.D.)

5. What is the education level of your mother?

- Did not receive any education High school graduate
 Elementary school graduate University graduate
 Junior high school graduate Postgraduate degree (M.A. & Ph.D.)

6. Is your father working?

- Yes No

7. Is your mother working?

- Yes No

8. In your opinion, what is the financial situation of your family?

- Very bad Bad Neither bad nor good Good Very good

9. With whom do you live together?

- I live together with both of my parents and sibling/s.
 I live together with one of my parents and sibling/s.
 I live together with my grandparents.
 I live together with somebody else, namely: _____

***This part must be completed ONLY IF YOU ARE NOT a native Cypriot student.**

1. In which country was your father born? _____

2. In which country was your mother born? _____

3. In which country were you born? _____

4. If you were not born in Cyprus, at what age did you move to this country? _____

5. Why did your family and you migrate to Cyprus?

- Work Study Asylum/Refugee War Other, namely: _____

6. How long do you live in Cyprus?

_____ years and _____ months

7. What are your living conditions in Cyprus?

- we own a house or flat
 we rent a house or flat
 we live in a state-funded accommodation
 other, namely: _____