Southern Methodist University

SMU Scholar

Education Policy and Leadership Theses and Dissertations

Education Policy and Leadership

Spring 5-10-2024

School Leaders Supporting Undocumented Asian and Black Students

Lorena Tule-Romain
Southern Methodist University, ltuleromain@smu.edu

Follow this and additional works at: https://scholar.smu.edu/simmons_depl_etds

 Part of the Educational Leadership Commons, and the Immigration Law Commons

Recommended Citation

Tule-Romain, Lorena, "School Leaders Supporting Undocumented Asian and Black Students" (2024). *Education Policy and Leadership Theses and Dissertations*. 20.
https://scholar.smu.edu/simmons_depl_etds/20

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Education Policy and Leadership at SMU Scholar. It has been accepted for inclusion in Education Policy and Leadership Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of SMU Scholar. For more information, please visit http://digitalrepository.smu.edu.

SOUTHERN METHODIST UNIVERSITY

SIMMONS SCHOOL OF EDUCATION AND HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

SCHOOL LEADERS SUPPORTING UNDOCUMENTED ASIAN AND BLACK STUDENTS

By

Lorena Tule-Romain

An Applied Dissertation submitted to the
Department of Education Policy and Leadership
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Education

Spring 2024

Dissertation Approval

SMU SIMMONS
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION & HUMAN DEVELOPMENT

EdD Dissertation Approval

This dissertation submitted by Lorena Tule-Romain has been read and approved by the following members of the students' doctoral committee. The final dissertation has been examined by the committee, and the signatures which appear here verify the fact that the student successfully defended the dissertation, that any necessary changes have been incorporated and that the dissertation is now given final approval.

The dissertation is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education.

Dissertation Committee Chair	Alexandra Pavlakis Name	Epl Department
	DocuSigned by: Alexandra E. Pavlakis Signature	3/21/2024 Date
Dissertation Committee Member	Meredith Richards Name	H Department
	DocuSigned by: Signature	3/21/2024 Date
Dissertation Committee Member	Germán A. Cadenas Name	Rutgers GSAPP, Clinical Psychology Department
	DocuSigned by: German Cadenas Signature	3/25/2024 Date

Dedicatoria

Esto se lo dedico a todos los niños que arriesgaron sus vidas para cruzar o que están por cruzar; especialmente a la niña de nueve años que duró ocho horas en el desierto sin saber si llegaría. ¡Llegamos y triunfamos! A todos esos niños, que como las mariposas monarcas siguieron sus instintos y se dejaron llevar por el viento a rumbos desconocidos, no permitan que sus alas se detengan. Y como las mariposas monarcas, ustedes mis niños tienen en su genética la perseverancia de seguir luchando; no se rindan porque el viaje es largo pero nuestra resistencia es más fuerte. Para mi hijos Julian Alexandre, Alexandria, y Vixamar: sientan que ser hijos de padres inmigrantes es su súper poder. Por la dignidad de todos los niños inmigrantes que se merecen todo nuestro apoyo. Esto es para ustedes.

Acknowledgements

I want to start by thanking God and la Virgencita for granting me the strength and wisdom to complete this degree. Secondly, my husband Jheison Vladimir Romain and mi familia for all the support along this journey. Of course, my chair Alexandra Pavlakis, and committee members Meredith Richard and Germán Cadenas for all your guidance and for being part of this process. Special thanks to Dr. Germán Cadenas for your acompañamiento in and outside of this monumental moment. To my dear husband for understanding and supporting me unconditionally during the late nights and long weekends- without you -I would not be part of the 1% of Latinas that has the distinct honor to be called a Doctora. ¡Te Amo! Gracias a mis padre, Socorro Tule De La Paz y Juan Tule Torres, por todo el sacrificio que tuvieron que hacer para traerme a los Estados Unidos y por su apoyo incondicional. Ojalá se sientan orgullosos de tener una hija Doctora. Esto no sería posible sin mis abuelos Carmen De La Paz, María Tule Torres, Daniel De La Paz, y José Tule Torres, quienes no lograron obtener una educación formal, esto es para ustedes también. To my hermanas, sobrinas, and sobrinos this is for all of you so you can see a glimpse of what is possible. To my best friend Christina Maria Wright for being my rock for decades and calling me to check to make sure I was making it throughout this degree. To all my friends who have been here for me – thanks for sticking around. Thank you to my "sweet and sour patch" cohort for being a source of inspiration and motivation. The ability to obtain this degree is truly a privilege and a dream come true. ¡Lo Logre!

Abstract

There are 5.6 million K-12 students who are either undocumented or living with at least one undocumented parent (Passel & Cohn, 2018). In 2021, FWD.us estimated that approximately 620,000 K-12 students are undocumented; 34% of these students migrated from countries in Asia, sub-Saharan African, and Caribbean countries. These students have unique needs in schools, such as support for lower frequency language services, wraparound supports, and classroom curricula that should account for their cultural heritages and traditions. While scholars have conducted research on the largest group of undocumented students, Latinx, existing knowledge of the students coming from Asian and African countries is based primarily on research conducted in higher education settings. The dearth of research leaves school leaders ill-equipped in how to support many undocumented Asian and Black students. To address this gap, this generic qualitative study aims to explore how school leaders in four states support undocumented Asian and Black students in K-12 schools. The findings reveal that school leaders who support undocumented Asian and Black students often respond to situations in a reactive manner. They face a challenging dilemma at the intersection of immigration and education, as they are unable to identify who is undocumented, making it difficult to provide targeted support. Nevertheless, they are still expected to support these students' education. As a result, it is recommended that school leaders operate under the assumption that they are *always* serving undocumented Asian and Black students. This study offers education practitioners proactive approaches to supporting this group of students.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

Chapter 1: Introduction

In a four-day span in 2024, the CBS News show *60 Minutes* reported 600 migrants crossing a barbed-wire border fence; among those crossing there were Indian, Vietnamese, Afghan, and Chinese national children and their families (Alfonsi, 2024). What happens to these children after they enter the U.S. is not often covered by the media. It is worth understanding that immigrants have the legal right to request refugee and asylum status in the U.S. (Caron, 2020). However, our immigration system is broken, and obtaining legal stay involves a lengthy vetting process that can take years or even decades (Haverkamp et al., 2009). The long wait and complexity of gaining legal immigration status has created an automatic group of 11 million undocumented immigrants living in the U.S. (Celbulko, 2014). According to a 2016 Pew Hispanic Center report, 45% of 11 million undocumented people were subject to immigration inspection and became undocumented by overstaying their visas. The report goes on to explain that the remaining 55% of undocumented people enter without inspection, evading immigration ports of entry. While 73% of undocumented people come from Latin American countries, 27% are from countries in Asia and Africa (Migration Policy Institute, 2018). With the understanding that there are multiple ways people enter an undocumented status coupled with a non-homogeneous profile of who is undocumented, school leaders are faced with integrating students regardless of immigration status, race, country of origin, or level of educational attainment. To this end, further analysis from scholars estimates that there are 5.6 million K-12 students who are either undocumented or live with at least one undocumented parent (Passel & Cohn, 2018). Importantly, no matter how and when school-age children become undocumented, the law guarantees them a K-12 education.

Problem of Practice

Since the *Plyler v. Doe* landmark Supreme Court case, America's schools have struggled to adequately integrate and serve undocumented students (Ee & Gándara, 2020). Several renowned scholars have expanded the understanding of undocumented students' and families' experiences in schools (Crawford & Dorner, 2019; Crawford, 2017; Ee & Gándara, 2020; Gonzales, 2016; Gonzales, Heredia, & Negrón-Gonzales, 2015; Suarez-Orozco, 2001). Yet, most of the literature has centered around undocumented Latinx stories, leaving out all other experiences. In this study, "Latinx" is an inclusive, gender-neutral term for people of Latin American descent or heritage whom the Census has historically labeled Hispanic (Torres, 2018). There are gaps in the literature around the experiences of undocumented Asian and Black students in educational environments, particularly those students who are not from Spanish-speaking countries. In response, scholars like Russell (2022) and Chan (2010) have devoted their work to highlighting the stories of undocumented Black and Asian. However, the gap persists in K-12 settings.

The lack of visibility into undocumented Asian and Black students within the larger undocumented group creates additional educational challenges (Russell, 2022; Chan 2010). In fact, Russell argues that the undocuBlack college student experience is "invisibilized" by the system of higher education (Russell, 2022, p. 3). However, there have been explicit examples of undocumented students utilizing their inherent value as assets to pave their educational path (Gonzales, 2016). The academic success of undocumented students is also impacted by the degree to which their families are involved in their education (Lopez, 2001; Sohn & Wang, 2006; Turney & Kao, 2009). Scholars Ma, Torres, and Akoto (2023) conducted a school-based intervention for Spanish-, Arabic-, and Bangla-speaking students who were recent immigrants.

Their linguistically and culturally responsive mental health intervention yielded positive outcomes, indicating the students "felt safe and supported and were able to build a sense of trust" with other peers in school (p.14). Another community- and school-based intervention study demonstrated an increase in math and reading academic scores for immigrant children, which narrowed the achievement gaps between English language learners and immigrant children proficient in English (Dearing et al., 2016). The benefits of tailored intervention for undocumented and immigrant students are evident in literature. However, there is still a lack of clarity about which specific interventions for undocumented Asian and Black students have worked.

The impact of school leaders in shaping how schools respond to supporting the influx of undocumented students has been well documented (Cisneros et al., 2022; Ee & Gándara, 2020; Cadenas et al., 2021; Hirschman, 1994; Suarez-Orozco, 2001). Public school leaders are already wrestling with scarcity of funding and resources, yet there are studies that suggest the academic benefits of providing targeted support to undocumented students and their families. Education researchers Ee and Gándara (2020) indicated a significant negative impact for both students and educators resulting from the presence of immigration enforcement agencies around schools. The experience of school leaders supporting undocumented Asian and Black students is understudied; as such, there is little to draw from to understand what is different for undocumented Black and Asian students.

This study is grounded in Undocumented Critical Theory (UndocuCrit) in education (Aguilar, 2019; Aguilar 2021). That framework stems from Critical Race Theory (CRT) in education which established the legal framework and social context of how certain communities are privileged while creating disadvantages for the underprivileged. The formation of

UndocuCrit in education (2021) traces back to Latino/a Critical Theory (LatCrit) and Tribal Critical Race Theory (TribalCrit). These theories explore the nuance of the non-binary immigrant experience and explore how individuals navigate the impacts of a fluctuating immigration status and how empowerment can arise from the intersection of these experiences. The theoretical framework of UndocuCrit in education focuses on the failed education and legal systems that marginalize the experience of undocumented students in K-12 schools. Through this lens, my study analyzes how undocumented Asian and Black students navigate their experiences so that school leaders can better understand and support them in schools (Aguilar, 2019). These students live at the intersection of immigration and education policies that impact their educational outcomes. Unsuccessful congressional attempts to create a pathway to citizenship for young migrants has created an uncertain path to higher education before these students even set foot in school. Given the status quo, undocumented Asian and Black students will continue to integrate into schools and face unprecedented challenges in navigating the education system unless school leaders do something about it. As such, my research question is how do K-12 school leaders support undocumented Asian and Black students? The answer to this question aims to provide school leaders with some best practices to support students.

Significance

The purpose of this study is to understand existing practices utilized by school leaders to support undocumented students, especially those who are Asian and Black. A generic qualitative study magnified the experiences of school leaders already grappling with this issue and helped understand this predicament. Moreover, a generic qualitative study allows for a meaningful analysis of a group of leaders whose experience can assist other leaders in addressing similar undocumented Asian and Black student populations in their schools. This study draws from 15

semi-structured interviews with school leaders already serving Asian and Black people to garner a deeper understanding of their experiences and potential interventions. Themes that surfaced from these interviews concentrated on wraparound services such as newcomer centers, translation, and transportation. The findings also provided a wealth of information around proactive approaches that school leaders would have wanted to have in place prior to supporting these students. These proactive approaches centered around creating access to professional development, hiring more specialized support staff, and implementing a more culturally responsive curriculum to support all students. Moreover, this study formulates practical implications for school leaders and other educational practitioners who may need to support the influx of Asian and Black students. It also offers recommendations for educational practitioners, educational preparation programs, and policymakers.

Conclusion

Immigration patterns have changed over the last decade, and while undocumented students tend to be Latinx, recent immigrant waves have also placed greater numbers of undocumented Asian and Black students in U.S. classrooms, with Asians as the fastest-growing undocumented racial group (Asian American Advancing Justice, 2019; Rosenblum & Ruiz Soto, 2015). The change in the demographic makeup of undocumented students contradicts the national conception of who and where immigrants come from. This misconception, along with the scarcity of undocumented Asian and Black student stories, creates a gap in the ability of school leaders to respond to their needs. As school leaders serve undocumented Asian and Black students, they should be well versed in immigration laws, educational challenges, and interventions that can benefit this group of students and increase the odds of academic success.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

Immigration has been front and center of political debates, and each U.S. president has dealt with their share of immigration turmoil. During President Obama's term, a record number of deportations were conducted, and they gained him the title of "Deporter-in-Chief," as reported by the podcast, *Latino USA* (2017). Anti-immigrant sentiments peaked in 2016 fueled primarily by President Trump's “build the wall” speeches, even prompting one teacher in the Fort Worth Independent School District to tweet a request to deport her undocumented students (Murphy & Johnston, 2019). The Pew Research Center estimates that roughly 4.1 million K-12 students are undocumented or living in mixed-status households with at least one undocumented immigrant parent (Passel & Connor, 2018a). In some states like Texas and New York, more than 10% of children enrolled in K-12 are negatively impacted by their parents’ or their own immigration status (Batalova & Alperin, 2018; Capps, Fix, & Zong, 2016).

The short- and long-term impact of immigration rhetoric affects students both inside and outside of the classroom. Regardless of the national rhetoric, undocumented students and their families integrate into our society and interact with different government services, including schools. Reece (2021) suggested that the root of all immigration policies is heavily guided by racist and anti-immigrant sentiments that target the forceful and long-term incarceration of undocumented people, especially Black immigrants. In addition to the challenges these families face fleeing their home countries and enrolling their children in school, they must also contend with policies intentionally created to make them feel unsafe and unwelcome in school. These policies range from English only school enrollment forms to the school-to-deportation pipeline.

Schools serving undocumented students and families address the “unique emotions, social, and cognitive needs” and account for other factors that include “language, educational, health, cultural, and religious perspectives” (Stegelin, 207, p. 3).

Racial demographics dictate an immigrant’s ability to obtain a legal immigration status in this country. While immigrants leave their home countries for various reasons, their ability to gain a permanent immigration status is not always guaranteed (Reece, 2021). To better understand immigrants and where they come from, a Migration Policy Institute report detailed the countries of origin of the estimated 11 million undocumented people that live in the United States. Of the 11 million undocumented people, 56 percent are from Mexico, 15 percent from Central America, 14 percent from Asia, 6 percent from South America, 4 percent from Europe, 3 percent from Africa, and 2 percent from the Caribbean (Rosenblum & Ruiz Soto, 2015). In the last few decades, there has been a shift in the racial makeup of immigrants.

Notably, academic research and school policies focus on undocumented Latinx experiences and leave out undocumented Asian and Black student' narratives (Chan, 2010). Russell (2022) argued that "although undocu-Black students face similar challenges to other undocumented students, their experiences are different as a result of intersecting domains of oppression and deserve a place in the ongoing discourse" (2022, iv). Adding to the argument, Chan (2010) elevated the feeling of invisibility and shame experienced by undocumented students from the Philippines, South Korea, Russia, Germany, and Nigeria due to the perception of immigration being a Latinx issue. These students chronicle the consequences of their "invisibility" and not fitting the racial profile of undocumented students, which translates to not being able to share their status with their high school counselors and missing out on resources

(Chan, 2010, p. 30). Regardless of a student's immigration status, schools receive them in classrooms, and teachers are tasked with providing an education.

My research aims to gain a deeper understanding of how school leaders support undocumented Asian and Black students. This chapter starts by sharing the general framing of literature that centers undocumented students in K-12, especially those who are Asian and Black. Afterward, I will elevate policies impacting school operations, specifically *Plyler v. Doe* and the deportation of students, which are policies that live at the intersection of education and immigration. Weaving in between literature around newcomer resource centers, transportation and language services provided to English language learners also known as emergent bilinguals. This is followed by a section addressing the literature on how schools have historically responded to supporting marginalized students. The last section focuses on how I plan to close the gaps in literature addressing the support of Asian and Black students in grades K-12.

Undocumented Students in K-12

The intersection of immigration and education creates tension for undocumented students. This tension converts into negative and colorblind racial attitudes associated with teaching immigrant students (Cadenas et al., 2021). Negative attitudes from teachers have a detrimental impact on outcome expectations for immigrant students, and this sentiment becomes unequivocally part of the school culture unless addressed by the school leader. Moreover, school leaders are kept in the dark of who is and who is not undocumented due to FERPA and *Plyler v. Doe* (1982). Yet, school leaders can make assumptions about the data they do have and whatever information the parent shared with the school. While the benefits of protection are defined by this policy, it limits the ability of a school leader to know exactly who needs support. Furthermore, not knowing who is undocumented and who is not can create a barrier for school

leaders trying to target specific resources. These challenges may be even more difficult for Asian and Black students, whose intersection of race and immigration status creates a unique educational experience that is often overlooked (Russell, 2022). Given the invisibility of the immigration status of the students, it becomes a task for school leaders to understand the demographics, educational challenges, educational assets, and relevant policies impacting undocumented K-12 students.

Undocumented Student Demographics

A 2021 report from the U.S. Department of Homeland Security's Office of Immigration Statistics estimated that the top countries of origin for undocumented Asian and Black migrants were India, China, and the Philippines. The National Center for Education Statistics reported that by the fall of 2020, amid the coronavirus pandemic, 5 million students were enrolled in school under the English learner (EL) category, making them the fastest-growing population of a classified students category (2023). This report stated that the top non-Spanish home languages were Arabic, Chinese, Vietnamese, Portuguese, Russian, Haitian Creole, Hmong, and Urdu (National Center for Education Statistics, 2023). Furthermore, the Asian American Advancing Justice report estimated that of the 12.3 million Asian American and Pacific Islander (AAPI) immigrants in the U.S., 1.7 million are undocumented (Asian American Advancing Justice, 2019). This report outlined the 2017 undocumented Asian-origin countries: 37% from India, 17.9% from China, 10.3% from the Philippines, 9.8% from South Korea, 4.8% from Vietnam, and 2.9% from Pakistan (Asian American Advancing Justice, 2019, p. 47). Authors Ramakrishnan and Shaw (2017) came to the same conclusion as the American Advancing Justice (2019), reporting the Asian undocumented population as the fastest-growing group in the United States with the argument that it should be studied further.

Like undocumented Asian immigrant students' experiences, the stories of undocumented Black students are not dominant in the media. According to "*The State of Black Immigrants*" report, "Black immigrants are one of the fastest growing demographics in the United States," yet they have the lowest growth rate of any undocumented racial group (Morgan-Trostle & Zheng, 2020, p. 25). While one in ten Black people are immigrants, they are less likely to be undocumented, and they statistically tend to enter the United States with some legal status (Tamir, 2022; Morgan-Trostle & Zheng, 2020). According to the Pew Research Center, Black immigrants make up 5.4% of the total undocumented population, yet they comprise 20.3% of undocumented immigrants in deportation proceedings (Tamir, 2022; Morgan-Trostle & Zheng, 2020). The significantly disproportionate deportation proceedings of Black immigrants highlight the impact of racialized policies (Morgan-Trostle & Zheng, 2020).

Moreover, that same report established that Black immigrants come from four main countries: Jamaica, Haiti, Nigeria, and Ethiopia (Tamir, 2022). In addition, only one percent of DACA recipients are Black, coming from Jamaica, Trinidad and Tobago, and Nigerian (Anderson, 2017). The UndocuBlack Network, a non-profit organization that creates space for currently and formerly undocumented Black immigrants, coined the term "UndocuBlack" to refer to all undocumented Black immigrants living in the U.S. (n.b.). While the undocumented Black population is a minority today, there has been an increase in Haitian refugees at the Texas border in the last decade alone (Rose, 2022). These waves of Haitian migrants are not a new phenomenon. In 1994, the Broward County school administrators released a plan to support the influx of Haitian refugees (Hirschman, 1994). The plan detailed the community and translation services that the school needed in order to support incoming Haitian students and families. As

demonstrated by Broward County Schools' response, administrators and school leaders must understand where student experiences are in order to provide adequate support.

A 2013 report estimated that there are 25.1 million foreign and U.S.-born individuals who are considered “Limited English Proficient (LEP)” as defined by the U.S. Census Bureau (Zong & Batalova, 2015). The report found that 20.4 million of those LEP individuals are immigrants who make up eight percent of the total U.S. population (Zong & Batalova, 2015). As of 2013, Texas had 3.4 million LEP individuals living in their state, New York had 2.5 million, Nevada 303,800 and Colorado 305,600 (Zong & Batalova, 2015).

In summation, the immigration patterns of undocumented individuals are an unstable phenomenon that brings people into communities and classrooms. Moreover, the racial makeup of undocumented migrants has fluctuated, and societal integration has become inevitable as many cannot return to their home country. The racial makeup of undocumented students oscillates and it requires a response to integrate students, as in the case of Broward County Schools. Under those circumstances of school integration, a school leader's understanding of where students come from, their racial makeup, educational challenges, and assets is critical.

Education Challenges

In terms of educational challenges, numerous scholars suggest that undocumented students' educational experience and academic outcomes are directly impacted by their or their parent's immigration status (Crawford & Dorner, 2019; Crawford, 2017; Ee & Gándara, 2020; Gonzales, Heredia, & Negrón-Gonzales, 2015; Suarez-Orozco, 2001). However, the impact of their precarious immigration status goes beyond the classroom and manifests in visible, physical, and emotional ways (Cadenas et al., 2020; Mcleigh, 2010).

Lovato and Abrams (2021) conducted a qualitative phenomenological study of eight Californian Latinx families to understand the aftermath of forced family separation. This study found that family members experience a range of negative impacts ranging from economic instability to emotional loss due to separation (Lovato & Abrams, 2021). Sulkowski (2017) provided a literature review of the state of undocumented students in public education which found that "undocumented students and families often feel particularly isolated and ostracized from participating in U.S. society" (p. 67). Lovato and Abrams (2021) and Sulkoski (2017) concluded that children with undocumented parents have a higher risk of experiencing other short- and long-term psychological and emotional problems such as depression, poor educational outcomes, and behavioral problems. Additional research shows that three-quarters of the children with undocumented parents had family incomes below the federal poverty level (Mcleigh, 2010; Stubel, 2014). Poverty, along with the ongoing rise of deportations, the fear of separation from their families, and the trauma that it causes are among the leading factors that negatively impact K-12 students' academic outcomes (Allen, Cisneros, & Tellez, 2015; Chen, et al., 2010; Hlass, 2018; Macías & Collet, 2016). These factors impact a student's ability to be integrated into and adequately served by the education system.

The increase of recent immigration raids in the last decade, along with the presence of Immigration Customs Enforcement (ICE) agents in the proximity of schools, affects the ability of students to attend school (Cleaveland, 2017; Gonzalez, 2013). According to ICE's official website, the agency has criminal and civil discretion, which allows them to deport millions of individuals in the name of national security and public safety — even if this means entering schools to enforce such discretion (US Homeland Security, 2018). In a span of four years (2009-2013), about two million undocumented parents of U.S.-citizen children were deported (Capps et

al., 2017). That same report established that approximately 20,752 of those deported were children between zero to nineteen years of age (Capps et al., 2017). Moreover, immigration detention can leave physiological, emotional, and economic consequences for undocumented parents and their children. A study by McLeigh (2010) yielded two main findings. First, one in five children with detained undocumented parents had internalized the issue, which manifested via signs of depression, anxiety, and withdrawal. Secondly, one in three children externalized the problem via aggression, attention problems, and disruptive behavior. The impact of immigration policies affects not only undocumented children but also their U.S.-born children.

Ee and Gándara (2020) studied the impacts of increased immigration enforcement policies in schools after 2016. Over 3,600 educators teaching in schools with high immigrant student populations participated in the survey, which concluded that Title 1 school students were likely to encounter an anti-immigrant school climate. The focus of the study was to gain a deeper understanding of "how extensive these effects are and how they are experienced by the schools that enroll immigrant students" (Ee & Gándara, 2020, p. 841). Their survey concluded that students feared immigration enforcement and showed a decrease in academic achievement and an increased number of absentees. Of those surveyed, 85% expressed witnessing students' fear of separation due to the presence of Immigration and Customs Enforcement (ICE) (Ee & Gándara, 2020). From that amount, 44% labeled the fear in the highest degree category of "extensive" (Ee & Gándara, 2020). Moreover, the researchers established the educators' need to gather immigration information and resources to better serve immigrant students and their families (Ee & Gándara, 2020). Students who were not directly impacted were also affected by immigration enforcement. The study yielded more immigrant students being affected in settings where there were higher percentages of White students in their classrooms (Ee & Gándara,

2020). Another finding was that secondary schools experienced a more significant impact than elementary schools, and the assumption was that younger children are less aware of the potential harm and stress experienced by parents (Ee & Gándara, 2020). The authors also found that educators had a more challenging time teaching students who are impacted by immigration due to the increase in anxiety and stress. The researchers concluded that schools, especially those labeled as Title 1, cannot provide an equitable education under those conditions.

Adding to the discussion were researchers Salinas, Vickery, and Franquiz (2016) who found that a student and educator can exhibit a "parallel and yet divergent path towards citizenship" based on their privilege and lack thereof (p. 329). This study emphasized discriminatory practices and structures in schools that "outright reject citizenship" as part of the student experience (Salinas, Vickery, & Franquiz, 2016, p. 330). This single case study highlighted the need for pre-service educator programs that discuss and interrogate the notion of citizenship and its impact in schools. This interrogation of the concept of citizenship can lead to redefining civic participation through the "tension of race, class, gender, immigration status, and so forth" (Salinas, Vickery, & Franquiz, 2016, p. 334). This single study adds more emphasis on the importance of understanding how students are supported in and outside of school. This is important because every year, about 65,000 undocumented students graduate from high school around the country (Passel, 2003). As highlighted in this case study, undocumented college students endure many challenges and unique experiences (Salinas, Vickery, & Franquiz, 2016). These two studies showcase the experiences at home and those encountered at school, creating an opportunity for educators to breach that divide.

Most literature heavily focuses on either generalization of all undocumented student experiences or focuses primarily on Latinx students; therefore, the experience of the

undocumented Asian and Black students in K-12 remains mostly overlooked. Adding to literature, Cadenas et al., (2021) found “evidence that color-blind racial attitudes play a negative role in teachers’ ” expectations serving immigrant students. The Cadenas et al. (2021) study analyzed 323 teachers completing an alternative program and uplifted the need for teacher preparation programs to focus more on developing educators’ cultural responsiveness to support immigrants and racially marginalized student groups. Moreover, this study recommends school leaders to “consider ways of providing ongoing opportunities for teachers to engage with issues of immigration and race/ethnicity” (p. 937). Additional literature that sheds light on the intersectionality of immigration and race has primarily surfaced in the higher education sector. For example, researchers Salinas Velasco, Mazumder, and Enriquez (2015) found that undocumented Asian and Black college students suffer from a lack of access to material resources and social support due to “language barriers, limited visibility of their ethnic group, and relatively less visibility as public activist” (p. 6). Russell also dedicated her doctorate studies to provide a deeper understanding of the undocuBlack collegiate experience (2022). She found that undocumented Black students need more visibility across the board and that educators and supporting staff need to create resources and services for this group (Russell, 2022). Adding to the conversation of higher education and experiences of undocumented Asian and Black students, Enriquez coined the term "racialized illegality" to describe the different experiences created by the racialization of being undocumented (2019, p. 258). Enriquez conducted 57 interviews with undocumented college students and found that the Asian American Pacific Islander (AAPI) group was less likely to be associated with being undocumented; this excluded them from access to resources and supporting structures in higher education (2019). Given the research from Gándara, Ee, Gonzales, and Suarez-Orosco, there is a correlation between the

experience in K-12 and higher education; in both settings, a student's ability to navigate the education setting is defined by their immigration status.

In conclusion, research shows that having an undocumented status results in trauma and emotional distress, and it ultimately affects how students experience school. The aftermath of interactions or potential interactions with immigration officers creates a negative association and potential student removal. Moreover, the response of school administrators and school leaders points to the lack of training and resources provided to educators to support students faced with immigration challenges (Ee & Gándara, 2020). To address this lack of training, researchers suggest the need to close the gap by incorporating immigration conversations as part of the pre-service programs for educators and school leaders.

Educational and Familial Assets

Undocumented students and families possess educational and familial assets, but there is limited literature that helps explain these assets as they relate to school interactions. Nevertheless, existing literature finds that undocumented students and families embody unique qualities that allow them to thrive despite hardship. Scholars on both ends of the education spectrum of K-12 and higher education highlight educational and familial assets exhibited by undocumented students and families. This section will elevate the role education and familial assets play in the school's setting for immigrant students, especially those that are undocumented.

Suárez-Orozco et al. (2015) and Gonzales (2016) depicted qualities of undocumented students as academically determined, hopeful, resilient, and very civically engaged advocates. Crosnoe and López Turley (2011) found that Asian and Black immigrants outperform their peers in schools, especially in secondary school. Suárez-Orozco et al. (2015) used a national survey of

909 self-identified undocumented college students to explain how these qualities allow undocumented college students to navigate hostile and oppressive institutions that challenge students' sense of belonging. On the other hand, Gonzales' (2016) 12-year ethnography of 150 undocumented students in California provided multiple examples of students who demonstrate resilience, advocacy, and academic determination in their journey from high school into adulthood. Wiemelt and Maldonado (2018) further added to the various forms of resistance, resilience, and leadership of K-12 undocumented students and explained how school leaders can capitalize on those assets to support students in completing their education. The authors urged school leaders to consider peer mentorship because student-to-student support was the most genuine and empathetic approach to building trust at school (Wiemelt & Maldonado, 2018). Adding to the transferable assets exhibited by K-12 undocumented students, Contreras' (2009) qualitative case study of twelve Latinx students captured the resilience of undocumented students in pursuing higher education in the midst of living in fear and financial uncertainty. While resilience and hard work are not viewed as traditional forms of assets, immigrants, especially undocumented ones, exhibit them daily.

Crawford and Dorner (2020) compiled numerous immigrant case studies into a book to highlight best practices for educational leaders when supporting immigrant students and families. This book emphasizes the importance of having school leaders trained and equipped with the necessary resources and knowledge around the intersections of immigration, which include legal status, race, religion, and gender. This book highlights the stories of undocumented Asian and Black students to increase the understanding of race as another component of the experience of undocumented students. The story of an African Muslim immigrant shows that despite the hostile school environment, this student's perseverance prevailed as she continued to show up in

school (Crawford & Dorner, 2020). Another example of Asian and Black perseverance is the story of Jose Antonio Vargas, an undocumented Filipino, whose memoir depicts the bravery and liberation achieved after his story was widely shared in the media (Vargas, 2018).

In conclusion, researchers have emphasized the educational and familial assets portrayed by undocumented students and their families. Numerous authors uplift the resilience demonstrated by immigrants as a common trait in their experience. The Asian and Black educational and familial assets are similar to those of the undocumented Latinx.

Relevant Policies Impacting Undocumented K-12 Students

Throughout history, there have been laws implemented to control the influx of immigrants. Examples include The Nationality Act of 1790; The Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882; *United States v. Wong Kim Ark (*1898); The Immigration and Nationality Act of 1952; *Plyler v. Doe* (1982); The Illegal Immigration Reform and Immigrant Responsibility Act of 1996; Homeland Security Act (2002); and DACA (2012), among others (Reece, 2021). These laws significantly affected the access to and possibility of permanent legal adjustment, impacting groups of people from certain parts of the world more than others. To further explain the current system, Rubinstein-Avila (2016) stated three main guiding principles that allow a path for a person to gain lawful stay: (1) family reunification, (2) employment sponsorship, and (3) refugee and asylum-seeking status. These three legal immigration categories have strict year and per-country ceilings because they aim to admit only immigrants with skills that are deemed valuable to the U.S. economy, to protect refugees, and to promote diversity (American Immigration Council, 2016). While these principles create several pipelines for citizenship, less than 10% of the undocumented immigrant population qualify for a path to permanent legal status under the current system (American Immigration Council, 2016).

Today, four central immigration policies impact K-12 undocumented students outside of the traditional routes for the adjustment of legal status: *Plyler v Doe*, Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA), Temporary Protective Status (TPS), and the school-to-deportation pipeline. *Plyler v. Doe* (1982), a Supreme Court decision that anchors the legal protection for all undocumented students to attend K-12 schools, was followed by temporary status granted by either Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA) or Temporary Protective Status (TPS). DACA and TPS require consistent renewal, which is not a guarantee. DACA and TPS are precarious statuses that can create gaps in legal status; students can fall out of legal status and become undocumented at any given time. There is no path to gaining permanent citizenship under DACA or TPS. Given the complexity of the immigration legal system along with current policies, the focus of this research remains explicitly on the undocumented student population who have been excluded.

Immigration policies do not stand alone; rather, they entangle with criminal law and school policies that negatively impact students. The merging of immigration policies and criminal policies creates a significant entanglement, coined by Hlass (2018) as the school-to-deportation pipeline. This pipeline derives from school policing of students, which leads to the permanent deportation of those who are undocumented. In order to understand the origin of the school-to-deportation pipeline, there must be an examination of the legal ramification of the Supreme Court's decision in *Plyler v. Doe,* which established the legal precedent for undocumented students today. The section below expands on the legal reminiscence of the *Plyler v. Doe* case and the impact of the school-to-deportation pipeline, all of which affects undocumented students.

Plyler v. Doe

The most influential decision regarding education and immigration was arguably the United States Supreme Court case *Plyler v. Doe*. In 1982, the U.S. Supreme Court agreed to hear arguments addressing the constitutionality of a Texas statute that prohibited state funds from being disbursed to local school districts if those funds were earmarked for the education of undocumented students (*Plyler v. Doe,* 1982). In deciding the case, the Supreme Court rendered a decision based on the 14th Amendment's Equal Protection Clause, which prohibits states from treating similarly situated people in a dissimilar manner (*Plyler v. Doe,* 1982). Here, the U.S. Supreme Court found that Texas created two separate classifications of students. By creating these two separate classifications and effectively discriminating against undocumented students, the U.S. Supreme Court found that the state of Texas violated the 14th Amendment Equal Protection Clause. While the Court stated that education is not a fundamental right, they ruled that undocumented students may not be treated as a suspect class. It also states that they are afforded protections because the Texas statute was imposing a "lifetime hardship on a discrete class of children not accountable for their disabling status" (*Plyler v. Doe,* 1982, p. 202). The Court further elaborated that the social and economic impacts of depriving a student of education outweighed the cost. The nexus of education and undocumented students emerged in the wake of this pivotal U.S. Supreme Court decision, after which public education in Texas and across the country recalibrated to ensure they were functioning within the confines of the U.S. Constitution.

In conclusion, the political discourse around whether undocumented students should have access to education continues to be debated, with the most recent threat emerging from the governor of Texas, Greg Abbott, who has committed to challenging the legality of *Plyler v. Doe* (McGee, 2022; Martin, 2022). Regardless of the legal challenges that *Plyler v. Doe* might face in

the foreseeable future, undocumented students will continue to integrate into schools across the country. As such, school leaders across the nation must consider the implication of this monumental Supreme Court case. In that vein, the section below will detail the consequences of having undocumented students in K-12 schools and the creation of newcomer resource centers.

Newcomer Resource Centers

Under the legal scrutiny of *Plyler v. Doe (1981)* and Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, school districts are obligated to educate immigrant and refugee students without discrimination (Friedlander, 1991). Tracing back to the early 1970s, school districts responded to the influx of immigrant students by creating "temporary transitional programs [and schools] designed to meet the unique needs of newcomer students in the context of a nurturing and supportive educational environment" (Friedlander, 1991, p. 4). Newcomer schools, also known as newcomer resource centers, were "developed as a response to the local needs of individual school districts, not as a result of an integrated state or federal education policy" to exclusively support immigrant students who had recently arrived to the U.S. (Friedlander, 1991, p. 7). Due to the lack of legal structure, programs and schools that cater services and resources to new immigrant students have challenged the coining of the terms "newcomer program", "newcomer resource centers", and any other name (Friedlander, 1991; Pryor, 2001; Scully, 2016). Scholar Friedlander (1991) further describes the context in which schools perceived the need to respond to the influx of "newcomer students" — school-age immigrant and refugee children who are entering the education system — by creating specialized schools or programs meant to centralize education resources, curriculum, and wraparound services catering to the needs of this student population. Over the years, scholars have described inconsistencies and evolutions of these schools and programs (Friedlander, 1991; Pryor, 2001; Scully, 2016; Short & Boyson, 1997).

Some districts create an entire school site to serve newcomer students, while others attach programming to an existing campus. Given this variation of a school versus a program, they may run full-day or half-day programming for students. In addition to these structural differences, the services and admission processes fluctuate at these schools, ranging anywhere from entrance assessment, parental interviews, health services, parental outreach, career education, special programs, to extracurricular activities (Friedlander, 1991; Short & Boyson, 1997). These centers became part of wraparound services. Scholars Burns and Golman (1999) defined wraparound services as "a philosophy of care that includes a definable planning process involving the child and family that results in a unique set of community services and natural supports individualized for that child and family to achieve a positive set of outcomes" (p. 27).

The extent to which such programs or schools are effective has been heavily debated (Friedlander, 1991; Pryor, 2001; Scully, 2016; Short & Boyson, 1997). To this end, scholar Scully embarked on an ethnographic study of students from a New York High School for New America (HNA) to understand if this newcomer school was meeting the needs of students from the perspective of former students (Scully, 2016). This study found that while the school met the "linguistic and acculturative needs" of the students, it did not properly prepare the students for integration into general education after they left HNA, thus creating a sense of segregation for these students (Scully, 2016, p. 614). To this end, Feinberg (2000) reinforces the finding from Scully's (2016) study around the unintentional impact of segregating newcomer students into isolating schools from the general population, even when the intent is to help ease the transition to the general student population. Both Feinberg (2000) and Friedlander (1991) warned school districts with newcomer programs or schools of the potential risk of investigation by the Department of Education's Office for Civil Rights (OCR) and Title VI. While Feinberg (2000),

Friedlander (1991), and Scully (2016) cautioned education practitioners about the negative impacts of newcomer programs, other scholars contradict these findings, arguing the complete opposite. Scholars McDonnel and Hill (1993) argued that the quality of schooling of immigrant students "depends on the capacity of the local communities," with some resource schools adequately serving newcomer students (p. xii).

The School-to-Deportation Pipeline

Hlass challenged school leaders to look beyond the surface and address the troubling history of school policies (2018). Hlass argued that the rate of deportation among school-age children was part of the school-to-prison pipeline, which is a system of oppression that impacts children of color in the school system (Hlass, 2018). This same research also compared different disciplinary practices and other school policies, such as "zero-tolerance," and how they impact students. This continuous school-to-deportation pipeline has pushed school districts to seek resources in support of their communities and the students they serve (Hlass, 2018). There is an additional layer of racist history when it comes to immigration, which is also rooted in school policies. To this extent, the Miseducation Project by ProPublica provides a national interactive map that compares the racial disparities across both school discipline structures and educational opportunities among students (Groeger, Waldman, & Eads, 2018). This website also shows that Black students are in some states 11.7 times more likely to be suspended compared to their White student counterparts (Groeger, Waldman, & Eads, 2018). Since school data omits immigration status as a stipulation and protection of FERPA, it is unknown how many undocumented students are impacted by disciplinary actions. Thus, the number of undocumented Asian and Black students impacted by disciplinary action is undetermined.

However, there are media stories of undocumented Latinx high school students caught in the intersection of school disciplinary enforcement and immigration; a recent example being the case of the Houston student who was arrested after a school fight and consequently transferred to immigration custody (Gamboa, 2018). Adding to the conversation, the ACLU documented the extent to which the school-to-deportation pipeline increased the reported incidents of "schools falsely accusing Latinx students of gang involvement, leading to them being arrested and charged, and ultimately into ICE custody facing deportation" (Tran, 2018). The confusion over the implementation and limitations of ICE in schools is created when politicians use the education of undocumented students as an issue to advance other agendas. For example, Secretary of Education Betsy DeVos and Attorney General Jeff Sessions both encouraged the intervention of ICE in schools as they used their pulpit to incite anti-immigrant rhetoric (Tran, 2018). The spilled-over impact of policies in classrooms is inevitable, and therefore, schools should formulate responses to support marginalized undocumented students and families.

Translation Services and Language Justice

The Migration Policy Institute brief on legal protection for K-12 English learners (EL) describes the protections de jure that students and parents have when it comes to translation services (Sugarman, 2019). The reports lay out the seven staggering policies, laws, and Supreme Court cases that, over the decades, have established the legal precedent granting English learners and their families the right to services through the education system (Sugarman, 2019). Some of the most significant protections are grounded in Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which prohibited discrimination based on national origin; Title III funding, which required the annual reporting of English learners and newcomer students; Lau v. Nichols (1974), which was codified in the 1974 Equal Education Opportunity Act (EEOA); Castañeda v. Pickard (1981), which

created the Castañeda standards to support student language acquisition; and the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965, which added EL as underserved groups (Sugarman, 2019). By 2015, the U.S. Department of Education of Justice and The Office for Civil Rights issued a "dear colleague letter" to reestablish ten main obligations that states and schools have to English learners. This brief also outlines the legal requirements schools are held to when it comes to supporting parents with limited English proficiency. The obligation to serve EL parents with translation services in order to guarantee they can participate in their student's education falls under several statutes, such as the 1970 memo on Title VI, Executive Order 13166 Title I, and Title III of the 2015 Every Student Succeed Act (ESSA) (Sugarman, 2019).

While the federal government has outlined the operating guidelines for schools when serving EL and their families, studies show that the implementation at the state, district, and school levels only sometimes equates to students being adequately served. Consistent with previous research, Tang et al. (2022) conducted a participatory action research (PAR) study of culturally linguistically diverse immigrant families and caregivers of children with special education experience and found that schools are "providing poor, inconsistent, and inadequate interpretation and translation services that negatively impacted their children's special education" (p. 452). A longitudinal study by Orellana (2009), which accompanied immigrant families from three different communities during a 12-year period, found that children carry the burden as language brokers for their families when the translation services are not provided in and outside of schools. This study also coined the term "Translating Childhoods" to describe how immigrant children become culture brokers and translators for their non-English speaking families (Orellana, 2009, pp. 118-126). Among the countless testimonies in this study, Maria's

and Estela's accounts of their responsibility as interpreters during parent-teacher conferences highlighted the lack of translation support provided by the school (Orellana, 2009, pp. 79-94).

Adding to the research on the experience of parents with students who serve as language brokers, Morales and Wang's (2018) study found that the higher the percentage of time Latinx students serve as language brokers, the "higher on anxiety and depression while also feeling closer parent-child bonding" (Morales & Wang, 2018, p. 323). Focusing on a study that surveyed 294 New York City (NYC) non-English speaking families with children in schools, the researchers found five areas that needed to be addressed (Lipsit, 2003). The author recommended the NYC Department of Education create solutions to address their findings, which included: "(1) Most immigrant parents reported that they had experienced problems communicating with the staff and/or teachers at their children's school. (2) Half of all survey respondents said that written notices sent home from their children's school were not translated into their native language. (3) 40 % of immigrant parents surveyed said the school did not ask for their input regarding placement in grade, class, and/or school when their child was first enrolled. (4) A majority of parents who said their children experienced discriminatory treatment in school were not satisfied with the way the school worked to resolve problems. (5) The majority of parents surveyed said they had never received information in their home language from the Department of Education explaining the various education options for their children (Lipsit, 2003). While explicit federal laws and court rulings protect immigrant English learners and their families in the school setting, these legal provisions are yet to be adequately implemented.

School Responses to supporting Marginalized Students and Families

Undocumented students are marginalized, and as such, they require interventions that target their needs in order for academic success to be achievable. Mayer and Jimerson (2019)

described marginalized students as those who suffer from peer rejection, causing a decline in their academic and social-emotional behavior outcomes. They defined marginalized students as those who are "lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer or questioning (LGBTQ) students, students of color and culturally and linguistically diverse students, young people with serious mental health issues, and those with serious problem behaviors and school failure trajectories, including students with disabilities" (Mayer & Jimerson, 2019, p. 121). The authors focused on the importance of culturally responsive classroom practices that support marginalized students; however, they did not include immigration status as part of the marginalized category. Hos and Argus (2021), on the other hand, included undocumented and mixed immigration status as a factor that qualifies under the marginalized group definition. Research shows undocumented parents and students experience numerous challenges throughout their educational journey (Ee & Gándara, 2020; Gonzales, 2016; Suarez-Orozco, 2001). Case studies, such as the one conducted by Parkhouse and colleagues (2020), consisted of 18 in-depth interviews of educators of undocumented students and yielded clear data supporting the effectiveness of intervention targeting undocumented academic success. These interventions included providing emotional support, providing safe and supportive classrooms, and at times, providing basic needs (Parkhouse et al., 2020). Like other scholars, Parkhouse and colleagues (2020) emphasized the importance of educators understanding the lived experiences of undocumented marginalized students. They urged educators to provide a responsive curriculum and actively advocate beyond classroom interactions to adequately serve this population (Parkhouse et al., 2020).

Understanding the multilayer factors that impact marginalized, undocumented students provides actionable insights for educators and school administrators to implement interventions. Thus, in addition to examining the incorporation of immigration legal status as a part of a

marginalized group, scholars suggest looking at other factors such as sense of belonging, parental engagement, classroom support, and leadership interventions because they also impact students. These scholars expand on the need for marginalized students to have targeted, culturally responsive support and working partnerships with families of those marginalized students in order to ensure better academic outcomes (Mayer & Jimerson, 2019). Research shows that under certain conditions, effective interventions support the success of undocumented students in schools. However, in order for that effectiveness to be accurate, leaders must consider other factors like sense of belonging, parental involvement, classroom support, and school leadership interventions.

Sense of Belonging as Part of School Culture

Romero described a sense of belonging in school occurs when students "feel socially connected, supported, and respected" (2018, p. 1). This sense of belonging is one aspect of school culture. A Harvard Graduate School of Education article defined school culture as a series of overlapping and cohesive interactions between people guided by beliefs, values, norms, tangible evidence, and actions (Shafer, 2018). Carpenter (2015) contributed to the definition of culture as a combination of rituals and traditions that are developed over time by students, parents, and administrators. In looking at the importance of belonging as part of school culture and sense of belonging, Gonzales (2016) highlighted multiple stories of undocumented students who utilized school as a vehicle of stability and safety. Some students disclosed their immigration status to their educators and school administrators and received supportive responses, allowing them to leverage that as they transitioned to higher education (Gonzales, 2016). In a different study, Zayas and Gulbas (2017) documented 83 middle childhood and early adolescents with mixed immigration status and found that the sense of belonging was a strong

predictor of academic success. Zayas and Gulbas (2017) along with Gonzales (2016) made a connection between students who self-report immigration status to an educator with having a greater chance of academic success and having a sense of belonging in schools.

In the case of undocumented Black college students, Cisneros et al. (2022) found that a sense of validation and mattering is critical for academic success. Qian Julie Wang's memoir "Beautiful Country" adds the undocumented Asian narrative to the conversation, which uplifts the importance of belonging in schools (2021). This author vividly depicts her childhood school memories when classmates and educators humiliated her for being from a foreign country and her feeling the absence of belonging to a community (Wang, 2021). Whether it is through the individual story or the qualitative research, these scholars agree that a sense of belonging in school is important for undocumented students. It is important to note that creating belonging in school is just one aspect of supporting students.

Parental Engagement

Lopez (2001) studied immigrant families to increase visibility and expand the concept of parental involvement for immigrant families. As a matter of fact, Lopez (2001) challenged the definition of parental involvement to also include the educational value of witnessing hard work; this derives from seeing parents' arduous physical work performed outside the home. This study found that transferring values of hard work by immigrant parents is a form of parental involvement; these immigrant parents exposed their children to burdensome field labor to emphasize the importance of education (Lopez, 2001). The authors suggested taking this new approach to parental involvement to engage parents in a new creative way that accounts for at-home interactions and instilled values.

On the other hand, Sohn and Wang (2006) detailed the various ways Korean immigrant mothers encountered obstacles in parental involvement. The authors pointed to several factors that hinder the involvement of Korean mothers at school, which included limited English proficiency, cultural barriers, racial discrimination, and lack of school structural support (Sohn & Wang, 2006). Thus, the authors suggested interpreting services, translation of documents, and overall training to help educators better understand Korean families (Sohn & Wang, 2006). Both the challenge in the definition of parental involvement and responsive language translation can create a positive experience for families engaging with school. Adding to the conversation, Turney and Kao (2009) used the Early Childhood Longitudinal Study - Kindergarten Cohort (National Center for Education Statistics, 2001) data from 1,000 schools to examine race and immigrant differences in barriers to parental involvement at school. They indicated that race and immigration status are predictors of the degree of parental engagement and concluded that the undocumented Asian group is less likely to participate in some school activities, such as volunteering (Turney & Kao, 2009). These scholars urge schools to develop systematic interventions that address race and immigration differences between students and parents (Turney & Kao, 2009).

Therefore, parental engagement considers the unique attributes of immigrant parents and non-traditional forms of school participation. Interactions between schools and parents should account for language and cultural differences. In the same way, relationships should also be cognizant of racial dynamics.

Classroom Support for Marginalized Students

Hos and Argus (2021) devoted a book for K-16+ educators with best practices, recommendations, and stories to increase support for undocumented students and families

through their educational journey. The authors concluded that educators must be aware, empathetic, and active advocates of undocumented students, especially those experiencing "double exile," which means they are alienated from both country and family (Hos & Argus, 2021, p.111). The authors further defined "double exile" students as vulnerable undocumented students who identify as lesbian, gay, bisexual, trans, and queer (Hos & Argus, 2021, p.111). They argued that educators are responsible for understanding the intersection of class, race, sexual orientation, and undocumented status. Furthermore, Hos and Argus provided a series of classroom best practices for educators, which range from utilizing culturally responsive pedagogy to in-class activities for students to explore their identity as an asset (Hos & Argus, 2021). Parkerhouse and colleagues (2020) suggested teachers should be provided with a "status-responsive curriculum, such as literature that can help undocumented students see themselves represented and that offers a means of processing emotionally challenging and even traumatic experiences" (P. 545). Ann Jaramillo's (2006) novel *La Línea* is a specific example of a book utilized by an eighth-grade teacher to validate the experiences of undocumented students (Hos & Argus, 2021). These authors all share the common message of the urgency for targeted school support that addresses the needs of marginalized students.

The Role of Leader Interventions

School leader interventions create inconsistent outcomes that ultimately impact the educational results for students in K-12; this is especially true for undocumented marginalized students. Palmer and colleagues found that the principals' implementation of equity audits and the Texas Accountability Interventions System (TAIS) as interventions positively impact student learning outcomes for English Language Learners (ELL) and Special Education (SPED) students (Palmer et al., 2019). Wiemelt and Maldonado (2018) elaborated on how school leader practices

are colorblind and negatively impact a "newer immigrant student population" that is more racially diverse (p. 6). They concluded that school leaders and educators need to contextualize racial equity and institutional interventions that address the "intersecting forms of racial, xenophobic, and linguistic oppression" experienced by undocumented students (Wiemelt & Maldonado, 2018, p. 12). They argued that increased awareness of immigration topics by school leaders and educators creates a safe learning environment when race consciousness and understanding are applied to decisions (Wiemelt & Maldonado, 2018). Cadenas et al. (2018) added to Wiemelt and Maldonado's (2018) findings and stated that a similar teacher colorblind racial attitude is negatively associated with teaching outcomes and expectations for immigration students. Scholar Stegelin (2017) offered a strategy guide for school personnel who support immigrant students and families in public elementary and secondary schools. Moreover, Stegelin (2017) described the role of public schools and school leaders as one that is constantly balancing the political and legal implications of serving immigrant students. Stegelin (2017) emphasized that schools should be "serving several purposes, including academic and socio-emotional support for the child, assisting the immigrant families, and fostering a collaborative home-school relationship that benefits everyone" (p. 2). Schools are tasked with serving undocumented students within the federal and legal guideline (Stegelin, 2017) parameters dictated by court cases and education policy. A case study of nine school leaders at the border by Crawford et al. (2018) found that the advocacy and agency of school leaders make a positive difference by creating systems to support undocumented immigrant students, but it comes at the cost of "professional repercussions" (p. 73). This particular study demonstrated that school leaders have to navigate at the intersection of immigration and education, and their advocacy forces them to engage in "blurring the edges of the borderlands that demarcated cultural, psychological,

geographical, and figurative borders for students" (Crawford et al., 2018, p. 74). If school leaders do not address the specific needs of this population, research shows that students and educators end up suffering from a lack of guidance and resources (Parkhouse et al., 2020).

Ja*ƒ*fe-Walter (2018) disagreed with prior scholars who frame immigrant students as needing school interventions because he argues this leads to "exclusionary logic" (p. 147). His ethnographic study encourages school leaders to move "away from models of segregation, tracking, and exclusion" when serving immigrant students (Ja*ƒ*fe-Walter, 2018, p. 150). The study underscores the idea that a "team-based structure of the school ensures that teachers have a thick web of peer support and ongoing learning opportunities that enable them to better serve their students" as a model that provides multiple adults who are collectively responsible for the academic success of any students (Ja*ƒ*fe-Walter, 2018, p. 150). To this end, Loiu (2016) added that an anti-deficit perspective by school leaders should incorporate a race and equity lens. This study places school leaders as responsible agents to "counteract the racialization of immigrant students by promoting positive expectations and taking political action" (p. 87). Loiu (2016) agreed with Ja*ƒ*fe-Walter (2018) in that it takes a community of committed educators and stakeholders with an asset mindset to adequately support immigrant students in schools. Therefore, this body of research demonstrates that the role of school leaders is critical to supporting undocumented students.

Framework

The theoretical framework guiding this study is Undocumented Critical Theory (UndocuCrit) in education (Aguilar, 2021). UndocuCrit was birthed from a combination of Critical Race Theory, Latino/a Critical Theory (LatCrit), and Tribal Critical Race Theory (TribalCrit). These theories cast a critical eye on favoring privileged communities and

disadvantaging the underprivileged communities of color through historical legal systems and social context (Bell, 1980; Crenshaw, 1991; Delgado, 1995; Delgado & Stefancic, 2023; DeCuir & Dixson, 2004). It is essential to understand that UndocuCrit finds its origin in Critical Race Theory (CRT), which over the years has been credited to Black feminist scholars including Kimberlé W. Crenshaw (Crenshaw, 1991; DeCuir & Dixson, 2004). CRT Scholars have fostered a critically conscious understanding of the legal doctrine through a social-racial hierarchy that explains marginalized people's inequalities in regard to their proximity to whiteness (Bell, 1980; Crenshaw, 1991; Delgado, 1995; Delgado & Stefancic, 2023; DeCuir & Dixson, 2004). Education scholars such as Landson-Billing and Tate (1995) integrated this theory into education. The foundation of UndocuCrit is critical to understanding its evolution and application to the education system.

UndocuCrit uses an "assets-based" approach to analyze "stories of resilience and success despite adversities, highlighting experiences encountered by undocumented individuals and documented family members who defy the legal versus illegal narrative through differing and nuanced realities" (Aguilar, 2021, p. 50; Aguilar, 2019, p. 156). This theory has four essential components: (1) there is a negative impact associated with the fear of deportation and anti-immigrant rhetoric, but this fear can be transformed into a positive source of motivation, (2) the navigation of immigration status over a person's life "translates into different experiences of reality" (Aguilar, 2019, p. 2), (3)"*Sacrificios*:" a form of capital derived from the migration journey of parents creates a motivated generation of undocumented students, and (4)"*Acompanamiento*:" the supportive nature derived from "the embodiment of mentorship, academic redemption, and community engagement" is the last component of this theoretical framework (Aguilar, 2019, p. 2). UndocuCrit acknowledges that while its roots are cemented in

Latinx stories, the immigrant experience transcends racial lines because “not all undocumented students are Latinx/a/o, and not all Latinx/as/os are undocumented” (Aguilar, 2021, p. 151).

Aguilar uses the four tenets of UndocuCrit to contextualize the experience of undocumented individuals as a lens to examine education (2021). However, the four tenets are applied to a “deficit-based account of the education system” which has played a fundamental role that “continues to devalue and dehumanize the lives of marginalized and overwhelming Communities of Color" (Aguilar, 2021, p. 150). Additionally, Aguilar (2021) introduced the amplification of the students’ immigration status as a structural barrier in education that produces “illegality” in and outside of the school system (p. 155). This theoretical framework suggests that to “improve the educational experience and outcomes of marginalized communities,” teachers should engage in abolitionist teaching that centers the humanity of their students (Aguilar, 2021, p. 158). As I’ll explore in future chapters, Undocucrit provides a helpful perspective, though it could be enhanced by integrating the role of school leaders as critical change agents in the process beyond adopting abolitionist teachings.

My study is grounded in UndocuCrit in education because the stories of undocumented Asian and Black students are told through the perspective of leaders who provide support and not directly through the voices of students themselves. Additionally, the questions posed to the school leaders are intended to interrogate the role of the education system (see Appendix B). For example, questions 4, 5, 6, 9, and 10 gather evidence of how the education system takes a “deficit-based” approach when it comes to supporting undocumented Asian and Black students (Aguilar, 2021, p. 150). Asking participants open-ended questions about the education system allows for a deeper understanding of how it is designed to “devalue and dehumanize” (Aguilar, 2021, p. 150).

Ethical codes derived from this theoretical framework help create meaning from the interviews. The framework also serves as an opportunity to challenge current practices that historically center undocumented Latinx stories. For example, in question 4b, participants are asked to recall their first encounter with Asian and Black students. Moreover, in question 8, participants are asked to recall a story when working with undocumented Asian and Black students. Questions 4 and 8 provide an opportunity for untold stories to emerge. UndocuCrit in education provides framing for understanding how school leaders support immigrant communities through a race-conscious approach that focuses on the failed design of the education system. The order of the interview questions was constructed to first elicit a general approach from the school leader supporting undocumented students and then ask them for specific examples of Asian and Black students. For example, question 6b asked participants what they could do better to support Asian and Black students. Utilizing UndocuCrit allows for the examination of questions that require interviewees to recall their experiences with undocumented Asian and Black students. This approach helps to understand the nuance of these stories, which are not commonly portrayed in the media. UndocuCrit enhances the analysis, coding, and themes rooted in comprehending the support for undocumented Asian and Black students.

In using UndocuCrit, I aim to expand on the interconnectedness of the immigration legal system, the education system, and the impact on school leaders who support undocumented Asian and Black students. UndocuCrit in education influenced this study's interview questions, methodology, and implications for school practitioners. The framework contextualizes the experience of school leaders who support undocumented Asian and Black students. These experiences are analyzed within a dysfunctional education system that inherently excludes undocumented students. Therefore, rather than finding meaning behind why school leaders might

have limited awareness of this population, I approach the analysis with the premise that the education system is designed to leave students out.

Gaps in Literature

This study provides school leaders and educational practitioners with a deeper understanding of the diversity of undocumented students and the importance of targeting educational interventions, especially for Asian and Black students. As mentioned earlier, existing literature centers the experiences of undocumented Latinx students and renders Asian and Black students invisible (Russell, 2022).

Moreover, field researchers emphasize the importance of educators understanding the impact an undocumented status has on students' academic success (Ee & Gándara, 2020; Gonzales, 2016; Suárez-Orozco et al., 2015). In addition to the classroom experiences of undocumented students, immigration patterns have changed over the last few decades. These geographical shifts have resulted in immigrant populations from diverse countries of origin. In fact, Asian undocumented students have become the fastest-growing population (American Advancing Justice, 2019; Ramakrishnan & Shaw, 2017). To this end, a 2019 Pew Hispanic study found that undocumented immigrants from Latin American countries significantly declined from 2007 to 2017; however, during that same period, there was an increase in undocumented immigrants from countries in Asia and Africa (Passel & Cohn, 2019).

The increase of undocumented Asian and Black immigrants, combined with the rise of students with mixed-status family members, underscores the need to understand this population (FWD.us., n.d.). Scholars have found that the educational experiences of Asian and Black students are different compared to the Latinx student population (Cisneros et al., 2022; Russell, 2022; Salinas Velasco et al., 2015; Turney & Kao, 2009; Wang, 2021). To adequately serve

students, school leaders must understand what tailored supports are needed to ensure that a diverse set of undocumented students can succeed academically. Therefore, this study seeks to fill the gap in the literature for school leaders who support undocumented Asian and Black students.

Summary

The shift in the diversity of the undocumented community calls for tailored educational interventions that consider the race, language, and cultural differences of students and families. Demographically, undocumented Latinx students continue to make up most of the undocumented population in the education system. However, of the undocumented Asian and Black group, two ethnic groups stand out. First, the undocumented Asian community is the fastest growing group, and second, the undocumented Black population faces the highest risk of deportation (Asian American Advancing Justice, 2019; Morgan-Trostle & Zheng, 2020). Literature primarily focuses on developing stories and resources that target undocumented Latinx students. While there is a wealth of research in the literature on this topic, gaps exist for Asian and Black students. These gaps in literature create an absence of understanding and resources that target undocumented Asian and Black students. There is a limited understanding of undocumented Asian and Black experiences in higher education settings (Cisneros, et al., 2021; Russell, 2022; Enriquez, 2019).

There is also evidence of the multiple challenges students face due to their own or their parent's immigration status (Crawford & Dorner, 2019; Crawford, 2017; Ee & Gándara, 2020; Gonzales, Heredia, & Negrón-Gonzales, 2015; Suarez-Orozco, 2001). However, students and families continue to attend school regardless of the hardships faced outside of it. The changes in federal immigration laws and deportation policies are among these challenges. The last strand of

the literature demonstrates the positive effect of interventions for marginalized students. Wiemelt and Maldonado (2018) urged educators to create a safe and welcoming school environment. Ee and Gándara (2020) added to the conversation their specific classroom and campus strategies to support undocumented students. Given school leaders' power in shaping student outcomes, a school leader's advocacy and effectiveness are pivotal to supporting a diverse undocumented student population and a student's ability to navigate the education system. Given that current academic research around supporting undocumented students has focused on the Latinx experience, there is a need to fill the gap in the undocumented Asian and Black student experience. Furthermore, since the landmark *Plyler v Doe* (1982) decision, it has been unclear how school leaders can support undocumented Asian and Black students and families.

Chapter 3: Methods

Research Design

This study utilized a generic qualitative research design to understand how school leaders support undocumented Asian and Black students. Harris and Holley (2019) explained qualitative research as studies that seek to "understand the lived experiences of people and how they make sense of their everyday lives" (p.4). This study aimed to understand the experiences of school leaders across various states and their efforts to cater to a population of students that are not prominent in their school population; a qualitative approach supports this inquiry approach. Percy et al. (2015) described “generic qualitative inquiry [as a design that] investigates people's reports of their subjective opinions, attitudes, beliefs, or reflections on their experiences of things in the outer world” (p. 78). Scholars Ellis and Hart (2023) added that generic design studies aim to gather a more descriptive and in-depth understanding of experiential phenomena through the participant's lens. The flexibility of the generic qualitative design of this study allows my analysis to be guided by "perceptions deemed significant to the interviewee to be identified and described" in order to understand what is occurring in the phenomenon (Ellis & Hart, 2023, p. 1764). Given the topic of my study, a generic qualitative design was suitable to help understand the experiences and perceptions of a sample of school leaders currently serving undocumented Asian and Black students and families. This study took place in the summer of 2023 over a two-month period. Fifteen school leaders serving in schools in Texas, New York, Colorado, and Nevada participated in a snowball sampling. Snowball sampling is useful for studying hard-to-reach populations, and in this case, undocumented Asian and Black students. The generic qualitative research design lays the ground for this research and provides the foundation

formulated from this study to answer my research question of how school leaders support undocumented Asian and Black students.

Site Selection

This study was bound by collecting data from school leaders situated within schools located in New York, Texas, Colorado, and Nevada. Texas and New York are two states served by ImmSchools, the host organization for this study. ImmSchools is an immigrant-led non-profit that partners with educators and community leaders to foster safe and inclusive schools for undocumented and mixed-status students and families. Given the limitations school leaders face in determining whether they are adequately serving Asian and Black students, I decided to utilize the host organization's location. ImmSchools has operated in Texas and New York since 2018, and both states rank in the top ten states with the highest number of K-12 undocumented students and families. As such, I launched this study by reaching out to school leaders who had received services from this organization. In the recruiting email, I also asked participants to share the study with other colleagues in their respective school leadership networks who they thought might serve undocumented Asian and Black students. This led to school leaders from Texas and New York referring participants from Colorado and Nevada. The referrals to school leaders in Nevada and Colorado are unsurprising; statistical data reveals that Nevada has 17.6% and Colorado has 10.2% of the share of K-12 students with undocumented immigrant parents compared to other states (Passel & Cohn, 2019).

To understand the issues further, this generic study aimed to understand the experiences of a group of school leaders and their approaches to this population because it allows the undocumented Asian and Black student phenomenon to be better understood from a real-world perspective (Ellis & Hart, 2023; Percy et al., 2015). Due to the scarcity of literature on

undocumented Asian and Black students in K-12, this generic qualitative study aimed to expand on unmarked territory and provide a perspective of Asian and Black immigrant experiences in the educational system. As a co-founder and Chief Operating Officer of ImmSchools, I have direct decision-making authority over different aspects of the organization. I leveraged my organization as my host site to garner access to school leaders. The goal was to narrow down a handful of school leaders that fit a description of serving Asian and Black immigrant students and ask them to refer me to others in a similar position. Demographic data and Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) contracts already exist, which created a path for this research. While the organization's programming provides a general understanding of the undocumented student experience, it does not focus on undocumented Asian and Black experiences. This generic qualitative study provided an opportunity to identify school leaders already working with undocumented students who have already invested time learning about this topic. This study focused on undocumented Asian and Black students in order to close the literature gap where limited research addresses the increase of Asian and Black students or parents currently navigating the school system. Furthermore, ImmSchools is an appropriate host organization because it provides proximity to school leaders working with undocumented Asian and Black students who might have explored this topic with other school leaders in similar situations.

Data Collection

To address my research question, I drew from three types of data sources: interviews, artifacts, and memos. The semi-structured interviews were the primary source of data, followed by the interview memos. The participants were asked for artifacts that offered insight into the support their school is providing to this population of students.

Semi-structured Interviews

The interviews were one-hour, recorded, and semi-structured conversations. I collected data from 15 interviews with school leaders who serve Asian and Black immigrant students. These interviews were conducted utilizing an online zoom video conferencing format followed by a transcription. Participants engaged in a one-hour interview that included the informed consent process, followed by semi-structured interview questions. The participants were prompted to answer ten open-ended questions, and additional probing questions were then formulated to ensure in-depth answers were collected regarding undocumented Asian and Black students. See appendix A for the interview protocol I implemented.

Most of the interview questions were derived from the theoretical framework mentioned above. The first few questions targeted a general understanding of the school and demographic profile of immigrant students and families. After those, the questions then focused on the support (or lack thereof) geared toward Asian and Black students and families. I sought to understand the interventions that support Asian and Black students and families.

Participant-Provided Artifacts

At the closing of the interviews, I asked school leader participants if their schools had any artifacts they could share. For example, if they actively translate school communication for a specific language other than Spanish for students and families, I collected those documents. I gathered five artifacts from the interviews. See appendix D - H. After the interview, each participant was presented with a $10 gift card. Participants were not notified of the incentive until after interviews were conducted to minimize the perception of coercion.

Memos

I allocated 30 minutes after each interview to write a total of 15 interview memos. Holley and Harris (2019) found that memos, along with observation notes, are a good source of data for qualitative studies. For example, there are three memos (see Table 1) that particularly stood out during the analysis. Saldaña (2021) explained that memos are a form of an active dialogue between the data that enables critical thinking. The critical thinking derived from the memos helped create meaning from the data that can assist school leaders in supporting undocumented Asian and Black students and the families they serve. The table below combines artifacts and memos gathered from this study.

Table 1

Descriptive Memo & Artifacts

Date	**Type**	**Description**	**Location**
May 26, 2023	Artifact	Website of schools districts' welcoming center	Appendix D
June 6, 2023	Memo	Note: Interviewee spoke about ICE's raids at her school and we took a couple of breaks due to her distress as she recounted her experience	
June 2, 2023	Artifact	Digital poster from IDRA "Welcoming Immigrant Students in Schools"	Appendix E
June 10, 2023	Artifact	Website ImmSchools: Inclusive immigrant digital posters (8 different languages)	Appendix F
June 25, 2023	Artifact	Digital poster from Center for Constitutional Rights & Immigrant Defense Project (Language Spanish) "Ice en la Casa"	Appendix J
July 6, 2023	Memo	Note: Interviewee had their office decorated with flags from different countries	
July 18, 2023	Memo	Note: Interviewee wore a shirt that said "Hello" in multiple languages	

Participant Selection

Given that undocumented people tend to live in geographical clusters in urban areas, I narrowed the focus to schools whose feeder patterns likely serve undocumented Asian and Black students, and I sent individuals from those schools an invitation to participate in this study. Harris and Holley described purposive sampling as having multiple strands, and I primarily focused on participants who met a minimum requirement of completing training with ImmSchools to initiate the search of participants. Utilizing the list of schools served by the organization also meant having access to prior school demographic data. Another strategy I utilized was snowball sampling, which Harris and Holley described as soliciting "names of other possible participants." This is proven most "effective for populations which may be hard to locate," which is the case for undocumented Asian and Black students (2019, p. 137). The combination of purposeful sampling and the snowball sampling approach was the most appropriate for school leaders working with undocumented Asian and Black students and parents. Participants were contacted via an email in which I introduced my study. This first email explicitly asked for support identifying other potential participants in their network. Participants also received an email reminder before the interview. The research encompassed 15 semi-structured hour-long interviews; Table 2 below describes the school leaders who participated in this study:

Table 2

Demographics of School Leaders Participating in this study

Name	State	Describe School District	Current Role	Years of Experience	Racial or Ethnic Identity	Racial or Ethnic identity of Asian and Black student they served
Astrid	NY	Charter school	Assistant Principal	1-3	Black	Black
Terra	TX	Public School	Principal	10+	Black	Black
Monica	TX	Public School	Principal	7-10	Black	Black South Asian Indian
Brian	TX	Charter School	Assistant Principal	1-3	East Asian or Asian	Black
Maya	NV	Charter School	Head counselor/ other admin	4-6	East Asian or Asian	Black East Asian or Asian
Emmanuel	TX	Charter School	Assistant Principal	1-3	Latinx or Hispanic	Black East Asian or Asian
Korina	TX	Charter School	Head counselor/ other admin	4-6	Latinx or Hispanic	Black
Dario	TX	Public School	Principal	7-10	Latinx or Hispanic	Black East Asian or Asian
Lucero	TX	Public School	Head counselor/ other admin	7-10	Latinx or Hispanic	Black East Asian or Asian
Sofia	TX	Public School	Head counselor/ other admin	1-3	Latinx or Hispanic	Black South Asian or Indian Middle Eastern or Arab
Maria	NY	Charter School	Head counselor/ other admin	4-6	Non-Hispanic White	Black

Hannah	CO	Public School	Head counselor/ other admin	10+	Non-Hispanic White	Black East Asian or Asian South Asian or Indian Middle Eastern or Arab
Jane	CO	Public School	Principal	7-10	Non-Hispanic White	Black East Asian or Asian South Asian or Indian Middle Eastern or Arab
Patty	CO	Public School	Principal	7-10	Non-Hispanic White	Black East Asian or Asian South Asian or Indian Middle Eastern or Arab
Amber	NV	Public School	Principal	10+	Non-Hispanic White	Black South Asian or Indian

During this generic qualitative research, the interviews were conducted virtually through Zoom, and the audio transcription was analyzed to generate these findings. The participants from this study lived in one of the following states: Texas, New York, Nevada, or Colorado. These school leaders brought various perspectives based on their years of experience as campus leaders. The participants were diverse, with four individuals representing 1-3 years of novice experience; four others were "experienced" school leaders with 4-6 years; four more represented 7-10+ years of experience; and three had 10+ years of experience as school leaders. Nine participants were either principals or an assistant principal. The remaining six were lead counselors or held school administrative positions. The racial and ethnic demographic makeup of the participants consisted of: two East Asian or Asian individuals; three Black individuals; five Latinx individuals; and five White individuals. When participants were asked to select (to the best of their knowledge) the racial or ethnic identities of the undocumented Asian and Black

students they served, they unanimously selected Black; seven also selected East Asian or Asian; six also selected South Asian or Indian; and four also selected Middle Eastern or Arab. For the purpose of this study, defining undocumented Asian and Black students refers to the population served by these school leaders which include Black, East Asian, Asian, South Asian, Indian, Middle Eastern, and Arab. Moreover, the school leaders in this study all worked in urban types of schools, with six of them working in charter schools and nine working in public schools.

Positionality

Positionality is described by Holmes as influences that impact the process, outcomes, and results of the study, such as an "individual's worldview" and "social and political context" (2020, p. 1). My dissertation focuses on a personal topic derived from my own lived experience as an undocumented student in the U.S. Therefore, I remained mindful of the approach and manner of each aspect of the study and relied on the reliability and validity checkers to ensure consistent objectivity. Moreover, the leadership position in my organization is another factor of influence about which I maintained awareness of during the process of conducting my study.

According to Holmes, positionality "requires an explicit self-consciousness and self-assessment by the researcher about their views and positions and how this might, may, or have, directly or indirectly influenced the design, execution, and interpretation of the research data findings" (2020, p. 1). The position in the organization and my lived experience as an undocumented student was specifically identified as an area for my chair and committee members to continue evaluating throughout the process. Another consideration kept in mind are my progressive views towards immigration policy, which may impact my approach and interpretation of findings.

Data Analysis

After conducting the semi-structured interviews, I read over each interview transcript derived from Zoom four times to ensure accuracy. I proceeded to assign a pseudonym to participants in order to protect the identity of the school leaders, and I only referenced general non-identifiable descriptors to further limit any details of their identity. The interviews and the artifacts were coded using open coding to draw upon an initial set of categories, themes, and concepts. I formulated the meaning of the data using coding strategies after re-reading each interview. After utilizing open coding, I used "in vivo" codes to draw from direct words of interviewees to honor their stories (Saldaña, 2021, p. 137). In vivo coding allowed me to be mindful of my bias and positionality by allowing the data to be centered on the participants' experience. Holley and Harris stated that "etic codes come from the perspective of the researcher and the framework, literature, and research questions of the study" (2019, p.158). After a round of in vivo coding, I began to reference etic codes — derived from UndocuCrit language − followed by the themes found in literature. After completing one cycle of etic coding for the collected data, I transitioned to emic coding. Emic codes draw "on the participant's perspective and are not always bound to the aims or goals of the study" (Holley & Harris, 2019, p.158). The final run of emic coding ensured that there are new learnings from the data before creating categories. Saldaña described the process of creating categories as "patterns observed and constructed by the analyst" (2021, p. 259). He differentiates this from "short coding or category labels" because it draws on "major ideas through the use of an extended-phrase or sentence (2021, p. 261). Saldaña (2021) and his colleagues Holley and Harris (2019) suggested analyzing data using the four steps: (1) organizing data and etic codes, (2) coding data multiple times, (3) organizing the finding, and (4) writing the findings (Holley & Harris, 2019, p.166).

I utilized descriptive coding for the five artifacts collected, which included district websites, multiple digital posters, and a non-profit website. See Table 1. Saldaña (2021) says that descriptive coding categorizes data using nouns. Utilizing descriptive coding for selected sections of the website that included text, images, and videos allowed for the extraction of general ideas from those data points. I wrote down short words and phrases describing sections of the website or digital poster. After a second coding round, I referenced themes that surfaced from the interviews.

Trustworthiness

This study utilized triangulation, thick description, and peer review as strategies to increase the reliability and validity of the interviews and artifacts collected. The first strategy I used was "triangulation," which utilizes "multiple methods of data collection or sources of data to verify and deepen their understanding of what is occurring in the study" (Holley & Harris, 2019, p. 167). Triangulation is a good way of double-checking information across different data types. For example, I was able to utilize participant interviews and compared them against each other to develop triangulation across data sources. Another example was looking at the school website to triangulate against theories in the literature. The second strategy I used was "thick description," which is meant to "promote external validity or transferability" due to the detailed depth of the findings (Holley & Harris, 2019, p. 171). The thick description consisted of direct quotes from participants and lengthy descriptions throughout the findings in my dissertation. This approach is appropriate for the study because it will "provide sufficient context" to draw on the transferability of the study (Holley & Harris, 2019, p. 171). I relied on peer review to increase validity and ensure my bias is in check. Holley and Harris (2019) mentioned that peer review is a "professional peer in the same field [that reviews] the preliminary findings and

conclusions," which can include a committee member for my dissertation (p. 169). My dissertation chair and committee members were leveraged to align my findings and conclusions.

Ethical Considerations

Some specific ethical considerations are my positionality, the dynamics between my research, and the potential interpretation of coercion from participants who have a contract with my organization. The other ethical consideration maintained is that this topic is sensitive, and there are FERPA protections for this population. I carefully handled information about undocumented families and students that school leaders might have accidentally shared that is identifiable. To mitigate the risk of sensitive information, I omitted any compromising details during the transcription of interviews.

Chapter 4: Findings

Review of Findings

At the heart of this research is understanding how K-12 school leaders support undocumented Asian and Black students. The interviews yielded two sets of findings: one set was reactive to situations, and another addressed proactive action that gets to the heart of how school leadership responds and meets the needs of the undocumented Asian and Black students. The first section of the findings elaborates on participant experiences as they attempt to support undocumented Asian and Black students navigating newcomers' welcome centers, translation services, and school transportation services. My findings indicate that school leaders need to increase their awareness of undocumented Asian and Black students in order to further adapt wraparound services and campus supports. I demonstrate that the participants positively utilized the district wraparound services to support newcomer students. However, they left out services for undocumented Asian and Black students who have been in the country for more than five years and are no longer considered newcomers or English language learners.

Moreover, the study found that accessing language services for non-Spanish speakers who also tend to be Asian and Black can create barriers for students and families. Even the handful of school leaders working at school districts with robust language services tend to leave out families who do not read or write a prominent foreign language outside of Spanish. Another component of the wraparound services referenced by the school leaders in this study explores the higher degree of difficulty for undocumented Asian and Black students compared to undocumented Latinx students navigating the school transportation system.

The second aspect of the findings suggests that school leaders who have wrestled with the challenges of supporting this sub-group of undocumented students have knowledge that can be

implemented or adopted as preventative actions to better serve undocumented Asian and Black students. As a result of working with undocumented Asian and Black students, school leaders in this study have envisioned three preventative approaches that include professional development, specialized personnel, and a culturally responsive curriculum. Moreover, using the UndocuCRIT framework supported the limitations and marginalization of this group of students from the lens of the school leaders. This chapter utilizes vignettes of each participant to elaborate on the opportunities and gaps in support provided to undocumented Asian and Black students from the experience of 15 school leaders.

Wraparound Services

The evidence yielded that 12 school leaders in the study proactively supported students and families by utilizing one or multiple wraparound services provided by their school district. The three primary wraparound services mentioned as the most utilized included district-specialized department services from the newcomer center, language translations, and transportation. The findings revealed that student-facing services are a critical determining factor that provides both support for students, and their absence can hinder students' and families' full participation in the K-12 educational system. Astrid is a New York City assistant principal working at a charter school, where she described serving primarily undocumented Black students. She detailed her charter school's failure to include immigration services as part of the wraparound services. She recalled:

> In the New York City charter school space, all three of the schools that I worked at hand, would say that they champion that approach [referring to supporting undocumented Asian and Black students]. Except immigration was not ever thought of as needing to be a part of our wraparound services. Maybe we can't offer a service on what to do to get

> your papers, or how to get to your papers. But maybe we can connect you to a pro-bono attorney or an organization doing work with immigrant communities. So I would include immigrant supportive resources and connecting immigrant students and families with CBOs [community based organizations], and other organizations that support them as part of this wraparound, the wraparound services we give to students and families.

Wraparound services like the newcomer service center are pivotal to integrating, especially for undocumented Asian and Black newcomer students. Scholar Feinberg (2000) defined these centers as a program embedded into an existing school or "a school located at a site separate from other schools, whose student population is exclusively immigrant" (p. 120). Sofia, a three-year principal in Dallas, TX, reported the undocumented Asian and Black students she served as Black, South Asian, Indian, Middle Eastern, and Arab. She described the need beyond the newcomer centers, explaining, "we need more wraparound services for them [undocumented newcomer students] like mental health services or counseling in my school, because leaving your family, leaving your culture coming here, like that is a big shock ticket. And families need that too, but you know, mostly kids." This principal made a point of explaining that newcomer center services are only available for students who have recently arrived in the United States and exclude any students who have been in the system for longer. She stated, "I know they [referring to students] are newcomers because they have paperwork from the newcomer center in my district. You know, I don't know if they are transferring from another school unless they tell me." Her statement highlights the idea that once a student exits the newcomer service centers, there is a risk that undocumented Asian and Black students may be "invisibilized" by the system (Russell, 2022). This is particularly true when undocumented status is portrayed as a Latinx issue, reinforcing the "racialized illegality" argument made by Enriquez (2019).

Another wraparound service discussed by participants was language services. To this end, the ten school leaders interviewed reflected on their navigation of translation language services to support undocumented Asian and Black students and families. School leaders shared their experiences with reliable and unreliable translation services and the challenges they created. Emmanuel, a principal at a charter school in Dallas, TX, described serving undocumented students and families from African and Asian countries who had recently arrived to the U.S. He spoke about how he leveraged the community because his charter did not provide translation services. He recalled, “It’s very hard to find a Somali translator, but again, leveraging the community and the families, we were able to get a Somali translator and a Vietnamese translator.” Further illustrating the need for translation services was Amber, a 10+ year principal in Nevada serving Black, South Asian, and Indian immigrant students at a public school. Amber reflected on how much she had to support her school because the district did not provide her with translation services. She said, “I find myself sometimes translating the written things that were from the school for them, or, I mean, I'm always using my translation apps to translate my basic communication into the language of the family.” She described how she leaned on her Spanish-speaking staff to verify the Spanish translation before communications went out. However, all languages other than Spanish or English were unable to be verified for accuracy. The harms of having irrelative translation services were often an obstacle for many students and their families’ integration into and navigation of their K-12 education journey.

The last form of service, which is explained in greater detail below, is access to transportation, which is especially important for those schools with a significant amount of new undocumented Asian and Black students. Five school leaders detailed their experiences navigating transportation services with undocumented Asian and Black students. The section

below aims to elaborate in greater detail on the opportunities and gaps in support provided to undocumented Asian and Black students from the experience of 15 school leaders.

Newcomer Service Center

The first form of wraparound support was available for eight of the school leaders interviewed, with services directly targeting newcomer students. While there is no universal consensus on the name of these districts for the purpose of this study, they are named "newcomer service centers" (Friedlander, 1991). These centers support students who have recently arrived in the country with specific navigation of and entry to the school system. These centers support school placements, testing for language, grade placement, uniform assistance, and food assistance — some even provide complete reports to the school leader prior to the student's first day on campus. Patty is a 10-year principal of a school in Denver, CO, that serves newcomers from Africa, East Asia, Asia, South Asia, India, and Middle Eastern and Arab countries. She describes the support from their newcomer center as a partnership that allowed the student to have an initial intake experience at the campus with the counselor upon arrival, have access to a buddy system for more straightforward navigation to campus, and be introduced to the teachers and campus resources. The school leaders leveraging their district newcomer service center had more information to support the recently arrived students, including home language, academic history, and mental health needs. Dario, a seven-year school leader working in San Antonio, TX, reported serving recently arrived students from Haiti, Congo, Brazil, and Japan. He went on to describe his experience serving immigrant students at a traditional public neighborhood school:

> I was principal there were busloads of children and families being left in basically downtown San Antonio. And so our district had some pretty good protocols around ensuring that we started with the International Welcome Center to begin with, and then

> our best worked in conjunction with the district to help students you know, identify the right placement, identify the right schedules, most of the kids that came in were in the middle of the school year. And at times, there were kids that were not living in the neighborhood, but that the district felt would be better served at our school as a dual language school and those students were bussed in.

Dario went on to describe how his district newcomer service center provided students and families with assessments, mental wellness check-ins, asset mapping of services provided in their community, and support to apply for state and federal programs outside of school. Some of the wraparound services were confirmed by an artifact provided by Dario on May 26, 2023 (see Appendix D). The website confirmed the district provided resources to newcomer students and parents. Some services listed on the website were links to social service resources, frequently asked questions, and registration requirements. It is worth noting that the website has a translation button located in the top right corner that is powered by Google Translate, which offers a drop-down menu of 100 languages to choose from. Another school leader also confirmed the newcomer center's benefits.

Jane, an eight-year principal in Denver, CO, shared that her school district offered additional onboarding support for schools with newcomer students. The school leaders described the support, explaining, “My newcomer teachers are able to go to quite a bit of professional development” in effort to create a culturally and responsive approach to serving undocumented Asian and Black students. She went on to mention how newcomer demographics had changed: “When I started, I was serving almost exclusively Spanish-speaking students, and now I have 14 top languages, mostly from African and Asian countries. The district really tries to keep up but not sure if they are providing services in the appropriate language to families.”

While these newcomer service centers exist for some school leaders, they only provide support for students in the newcomer group upon entry to the school system, excluding students who have been in the system past the enrollment stage. Amber, a principal in Las Vegas, NV, works in a district without a newcomer service center. She recalls “leaning in heavily on the ESL department to help with resources” after walking into a classroom and seeing an ESL student isolated and on the computer because there was a lack of curriculum and textbooks to support language acquisition. This experience provides a clear connection to what a school leader describes as the root problem of missing services; she argued that

> schooling systems aren’t really designed to support students [in reference to undocumented Asian and Black students] as a whole. We tend to have a particular student in mind when we design schools that comes in with a certain level of English Proficiency and has a certain level of schooling experience, and maybe isn't even dealing with the traumas that some of our kids were dealing with.

While these services are available to eight school leaders in this study, similar services were not mentioned as part of the district services provided to the other school leaders being interviewed. Like the other school leaders, Jane could not elaborate on whether or not the services provided at the newcomer service centers were translated or adapted to be more inclusive of African or Asian cultures. Therefore, it is inconclusive whether the newcomer centers mentioned by the school leaders had incorporated more translation language services to adapt to the influx of non-Spanish speakers. Even on the website provided by Dario as an artifact, some of the referral forms remained in English even after Spanish was selected as a language from the drop-down translation menu (see Appendix D). Given these school leaders' interviews, it is unclear to what extent the newcomer service centers create a different experience for undocumented Asian and

Black students in comparison to Latinx students. While newcomer service centers were part of the experience of just some of the participants in this study, a more significant number of school leaders dealt with access to translation services when working with Asian and Black students.

Language Justice

Another wraparound service mentioned by ten of the participants in this study centered around access to translation services. School leaders across the study identified translation services as a point of tension for serving undocumented Asian and Black students. This is because the primary default language provided by the district is often Spanish, which excludes many of the undocumented Asian and Black students who are often non-Spanish speakers. Hannah, a 13-year educator who had become a school leader, stated her undocumented Asian and Black students identified as Black, East Asian, Asian, Indian, Middle Eastern or Arab. At the time of her interview, she was serving students in Colorado and describes the translation services at her school as follows:

> My district is phenomenal with getting us resources for translation services. Sometimes we have to use the teller line to do this, but we're also able to order translation to come in person for some of our bigger events. We wanted a way for families in their languages to be able to see upcoming events or information. And that was a big shift. We have to pay extra for a newsletter format. But it's really great for the phone…And it translates into like 99 languages.

Hannah shared that her school district has increased the access to the translation service over the time she has been there. She mentioned that while she appreciates having access to district translation services, there are some limitations when serving students whose parents do not know how to read or write. She stated:

> And, like, sometimes they're [referring to parents] not literate in their first language. So like Google Translate, it is not going to help. Like Korean, the language is not on Google Translate. So for the kids who speak Korean, even if they're literate in Korean, which I've been told is the most different from English, they will have to translate. So it will be hard to communicate with them [referring to parents].

The access of language services was particularly innovative in Patty's school, where the district invested resources and created "language cards." After parents are identified, they are provided a small laminated card the size of a business card that states their preferred language. Patty described the student and family experience:

> [They] come into the building, and instead of just feeling uncomfortable, they can hand over the card, and then we know who to call for translation or what language they're asking for. So even the smallest gesture like that, I think, does lessen the barrier and almost opens the doors a little bit more for that two-way communication, and also allows families to feel comfortable.

These language cards showcase a great example of creating norms for how to support students who speak other languages. After an interview on July 18th, 2023, with Korina, a Texas school leader at a charter school, I noted in the post-interview memo that she wore a T-shirt with the word "Hello" in the middle, which was surrounded by the same word translated in multiple languages. While I did not inquire why she chose to wear this particular T-shirt during our interview, I was left wondering to what extent she thought about translation services at her campus. Jane, the school leader in Colorado, shares how her district supported her with an influx of students. In her reflection she commented:

> When you asked about our biggest demographic, those top 14 languages were mostly African and Asian in nature, and from very, you know, war-torn places in the world. So for example, we had a huge Arabic speaking population from Iraq, Iran. We had a huge Farsi and Urdu population from Afghanistan. We had, you know, hundreds of students from the Congo and Ethiopia or had been placed in a refugee camp in Thailand.

Jane, like Hannah, shared that her district provides translation services to students and parents, but it excluded some languages and dialects.

On the other hand, half of the school leaders shared that their district provided them with some form of direct translation services; some relied on community translators or Google translate to cater to students' language needs. Dario, a principal serving in San Antonio, TX, recalled, “When I became principal, we started seeing a huge surge, specifically of families coming from the Congo, and we needed translation beyond English and Spanish. That is also where we turn to our community, especially one of the churches I mentioned where those parents attended as well as some other church leaders.” Conversely, other school leaders shared that they needed to provide translation services when communicating with students or parents but did not establish a formalized incorporation of translation for their communication. Maya, a school counselor in a charter school in Las Vegas, NV, described her student population in the following way, “I would say about 30%, Black, African American, 40%, of Latinx, and the 10%, White, and then 20%, Asian American Pacific Islanders. And our students who were an undocumented population, I think it's about good five to 10%.” When she elaborated on translation services, she stated that educators at her school used Google Translate or other translation apps to translate worksheets for students. There is a disparity in serving students and their families when it comes to language services provided to non-Spanish speakers. She

explained that she still wonders what happened to a student who spoke French Creole and could not communicate with school staff. She recalled:

> I had a student who was from Haiti, and stayed with us. That student struggled with a lot of the language because we didn't have access, right, like the language access for our families and students. When they [referring to school district translation service] think about it, they think of just Spanish or Tagalog, because of the Filipino population in our city. But there are less. That demonstrates the need for other languages around that. And one day, they [referring to the student] never showed up.

In a memo written on July 6, 2023, after Maya's interview, I noted that her office walls were decorated with flags from different countries. Yet, in her interview, she grappled with her inability to support undocumented Asian and Black students with language access at the charter school she was working for at the moment of the interview.

Patty also described how challenging it was to adjust to the increased language diversity they had to provide. To that end, she explained, "This year, we have 33 different languages spoken on my campus." Other school leaders also share the burden that comes with the responsibility of translating documents. For example, Maria, a five-year school counselor in New York City, works with undocumented students whom she identified as Black. She described that these students came from the Caribbean and African countries, and in her interview, she explained the challenges of translating for students and families. She reflected on how students in her high school were usually the ones translating school, legal, and health-related documents for their family members. Lucero is a seven-year school counselor and intervention specialist in Fort Worth, TX. She described the population of her students in the following way: "The students I'm serving are from all over Latin American countries, as well as some countries in

Africa, and some in the Middle East are predominantly the ones that we serve at my school." Her school only serves sixth to ninth grade students; on average, students are there for about one academic year before being transferred to their neighborhood school. She stated:

> We use the language line with a lot of these students. And I told you at the beginning, the students have very limited English or almost none. Their families are in the same boat, so we use the district language line to make sure that they understand what is being talked about or discussed.

The stories of these school leaders highlight the lack of access to language services for non-Spanish speakers that can harm the ability to support undocumented Asian and Black students and families in a similar way to Latinx Spanish speakers. The consensus from the participants in this study created awareness of the need for school leaders and district leaders to invest resources to increase language access. This study supports the need for undocumented Asian and Black students and families to have access to language services to ensure they are able to navigate the education system.

Transportation

In charter and traditional public-school settings, the access to transportation was in some ways considered a wraparound service, especially for school districts with open admissions. In the instances where the school provided targeted support for newcomers, the access to transportation or bussing was evident. In three interviews, school leaders mentioned the added benefits that the school or district provided the student with bussing to and from school. Maya, the school leader working in a Nevada charter school, described the positive impact of having reliable school transportation and paid public transportation for families. Maya described the impact and said, "That really meant a lot for our families who don't drive or are struggling to get

licenses. So a lot of our parents learned about our school, and a charter school that does buses so that they don't have to take multiple public transportation to find a ride." Moreover, Patty explained her district's transition to creating access for Asian and Black newcomer students' who were from countries in constant conflict where transportation was used as a means for terror. She recalled:

> It was really hard when we were telling families who had just gotten here with obviously no car, 'here's the city bus, let me get you a city bus pass.' That's not appropriate for this age group. They're highly vulnerable students, especially if they're females coming from a specific part of the world where their safety has already been compromised. And so anyway, the district has shifted, in terms of transportation, that is now something that's guaranteed to the students, which I appreciate.

Patty recounted that the lack of access to transportation made it challenging for students to commute to their school, so there was an initiative to make the stories of these students known to district leaders in order to create awareness. Similarly, Lucero, a school counselor working in Fort Worth, TX, supports students from Middle Eastern and African countries. Lucero described the challenges of students navigating transportation to school, saying that, "a lot of them rely even sometimes on public transport or no transport, or they have to wait for a friend to be available." In the case of newcomer students, transportation in their new host country becomes a barrier to navigate. They rely on the access to wraparound services from schools, such as school bussing. In addition to the challenges of supporting students with transportation, Patty recalled the obstacles she faced when working with parents:

> One barrier we do run into often is transportation… If families are truly unable to come in, we've been able to deliver a dinner to them, like a pizza. Or I've been able to coordinate volunteers to go from my PTA to go and pick up families and bring them to the event and take them home. But I feel like there has to be a system that we create that's not reliant on volunteers, right. Just as much as we prioritize getting students to school with this transportation, I would love to figure out a shuttle system or something similar. But I think that transportation still remains a barrier.

These reflections above emphasize the challenges and opportunities that schools face when providing transportation; Patty's account is critical as it highlights the need to understand where students come from and what their experiences have been using transportation. Though the interview did not provide substantial accounts of the difference between Asian and Black and Latinx student experiences as they navigate the school transportation system, it is worth noting that this topic was a surprise finding that derived from the study. The instances when school leaders experienced frustration was when access to transportation was not provided by the district — which meant students had a more difficult time commuting to obtain an education.

Conclusion

In summary, this study elevated how wraparound services are critical for students to successfully integrate into the school system. Despite the amount of available public transportation in New York City, none of the school leaders serving New York City students and families mentioned student experiences of navigating transportation in any of the interviews conducted. Moreover, the experience shared by these school leaders highlight the access (or lack thereof) to wraparound services such as district newcomer centers, translation services, and

transportation — all of which determine the ability of students and families to fully participate in schools. The study found that the support provided by school leaders stems from a reactive approach to learning about a student's immigration status when they are already on their campus, which affects the student's participation in school activities. This differs from responding proactively to a situation where school leaders know about the immigration status of the student prior to arriving on campus. These wraparound services were the few proactive institutional services that attempted to support this population. Dario describes the work as a "patchwork" of having some resources (but not others) to serve students, instead of having wraparound services as an inherent part of the district and campus. The next section of the findings addresses the proactive support that school leaders wish they had in place to truly ensure they can fully serve undocumented Asian and Black students.

Pro-Active Support Schools Leaders Wish They Had

The second set of findings centers around the support needed by school leaders who have to respond with a "trial by fire" approach to meet the needs of Asian and Black students on their campus. This study revealed three services in its findings: tailored professional development, specialized personnel, and inclusive curriculum. Six school leaders described their desire for school districts to provide more professional development about how to best support all undocumented students, not just Asian and Black ones. Ten school leaders mentioned they would benefit from additional supporting staff to meet the needs of all students. An additional five school leaders expressed the need for teachers to have access to an inclusive curriculum that is more representative of student backgrounds and cultures. In this study, school leaders agreed on the benefits of having certain knowledge and structural support in place to prepare for their

leadership roles. They also viewed this as an opportunity worth incorporating into school leadership training programs.

Deportation and Threats: Separation of Families in Schools

School leaders said that they would have been better equipped to respond to student and parent separation (due to deportation) if they had training and resources. For example, Astrid recalled one experience; she said, “One of our student parents' mothers actually got deported last year, and the school did not know what to do. It was one of those things where things were all…we could just hope for the best. Pray for them,” she said. This instance highlights the desperate need for structural support. Maya, who was also formerly undocumented, spoke about dealing with the deportation of one parent of a student. She recalled,

> I felt the need to talk to a lawyer, and that's what I shared with the school director. We should talk to a lawyer to see what will happen to the parent and monitor the situation. And then we also did a GoFundMe page, raising money to support the [other] parent, especially because she became a single mom after that one night.

Adding to the conversation, Korina, a school leader who served in charter schools in Austin and Dallas, TX, described the Asian and Black immigrant students as arriving from African countries. She referenced a situation when she worked at an Austin charter school, and U.S. Immigration and Customs Enforcement [ICE] agents conducted a raid by the school. She recalled:

> I remember very vividly, and they [ICE] started doing some raids in Austin. And our principal at that school rented several apartments across the street from the school to be able to protect the families. And we were at a convening, and the principals started getting phone calls and letting them know, like there's a raid happening. There's someone

> outside of the school, teachers were doing what they could and needed to do to protect their students. And, you know, they were telling them like, this is a safe haven, they're [ICE] not allowed in this space, staying until the wee hours of the night in the schools, with students because they were too afraid to go home. So they [teachers], you know, remained in the building with students…And we were able to really know more about the students and have their trust and share that [immigration] information to protect them.

When Korina shared this experience, her voice broke, and she took a moment to gather herself to continue to share this story. The distress in her voice as she recalled these events was also documented in a memo on June 6, 2023. I noted that throughout the interview, there were breaks due to Korina's distress as she recounted her experience. Additionally, Korina sent a copy of a poster, see Appendix J, that she printed out to place on her campus after this incident. This artifact was in Spanish and was created by the Immigration Defense project along with the Center for Constitutional Rights. The poster outlined what to do and say when ICE officials try to enter someone's home. Sophia, a school leader in Dallas, TX, supports undocumented Asian and Black students who she identified as Black, South Asian, Indian, or from Middle Eastern or Arab countries. She recalled having to respond to immigration raids:

> It was like my first or second year as a principal. So that was like 2016, 2017. There were a lot of raids happening in the Pleasant Grove area [a neighborhood in Dallas, TX]. And so parents weren't bringing their kids to school. And so we had to have a conversation with our parents like you know this [referring to the school] is a safe space to help make sure that they were bringing their kids to school because they did not want to bring their kids to school, because they knew that there were a lot of raids there. Most recently, here,

there's been conversations of a student whose parents are going through deportation and he hasn't been coming to school.

Sophia went on to describe the frustration she felt because she was not trained prior to becoming a school leader. She went on to share how she found herself passing out resources. On June 2, 2023, she provided an artifact of the type of poster she passed out to families (See Appendix E). She provided a digital poster from the Intercultural Development Research Association (IDRA) which outlines the legal protections immigrant students have in U.S. schools.

For the four school leaders who experienced a situation in which a student's parent was deported, their response depended either on the school leader's personal experience with an undocumented immigration status or the resources their district provided. Two of the four leaders shared that they were formerly undocumented and took action based on their own experience. While these four accounts of deportation and encounters with ICE did not explicitly convey, they varying responses of school leaders when dealing with Asian and Black versus Latinx immigrant students, it's a topic worth exploring in future studies. The section below elaborates on three concrete proactive supports the school leaders felt they needed to better help undocumented Asian and Black students.

Professional Development

All 15 school leaders who were interviewed unanimously agreed that they were not provided with resources and information about supporting undocumented students during their professional training, whether it was through traditional certification programs or master's programs. Once they entered their campus leadership role, there was an absence of professional development or direct support from the district to build capacity for supporting this population of students. School leaders shared that proactive professional development around this topic would

have enhanced their ability to respond according to situations in the moment. Astrid, the assistant principal in New York City, reflected:

> I don't think that in my seven years as a school leader I ever experienced professional development catering to support undocumented students, other than me seeking out resources or trying to stay up to speed on my policy and law changes. I don't think there was an attempt even in the principal program, which to me is a missed opportunity for us to really think about community and context. We have these national standards for becoming a school leader and becoming principal certified, and yet we don't talk about real issues that we're actually going to confront. When it comes to supporting this particular population of students in our schools, that just feels like a big countenance.

There were a handful of school leaders who mentioned they had to seek out partnerships with organizations to build staff capacity in areas where they felt there was a gap. Similar to Astrid in New York, Maya in Nevada recalls having to create a space for professional development given her own immigrant experience and the urgency they felt because of the anti-immigrant rhetoric. Astrid, who identifies as a Black immigrant, shared, "I applied to give a TED talk at our professional development week. And mine was on supporting all students, including immigrant students… it literally was me taking on an extra role or taking on extra advocacy to make something happen around this issue." There were four school leaders who mentioned the benefits of partnering with an organization that offers professional development for the support of mixed-status immigrant students and families. All four school leaders specifically mentioned receiving professional development from ImmSchools, an immigrant-led non-profit organization that partners with schools to create safe and welcoming campuses for undocumented students and

families in three states. After an interview on June 10, 2023, I obtained an artifact in the form of a website (see Appendix F). The website was from ImmSchools, and a school leader referred to it as a resource their school used and shared with their teachers. This school leader added that every teacher at their school received a printed poster that reads, “This is a Safe & Inclusive Space for Everyone”, which is translated into eight different languages. They also placed these posters by their school entrance.

Emmanuel is a school leader of a charter school in Texas. When asked to describe the students he served, he responded, “I have kids from Cambodia, from Vietnam, and Somalia.” He said, “we have had trainings from an organization called ImmSchools, so that was something that was really transformative. We had trainings a couple of times within our organization. So we're very fortunate for that.” Another school leader added, “we truly need more of that training to keep our toolkit ready to support undocumented students and families.” These school leaders took initiative to seek support and professional development because it was not provided to them by their district or through their formative professional development.

Furthermore, most of the school leaders expressed not having district-level conversations about supporting undocumented or immigrant students. Brian, an assistant principal at a charter school in Texas, described the undocumented students he served. “I have served new newcomers from where, as you know, if we're talking about non-Latinx, I would say, we had an interesting number of students from French-speaking African countries,” he said. He went on to share the disparity between the availability of information and the occasions when the topic of supporting immigrant students would arise. Brian reflected on how the topic “would come up like students have a right to an education regardless of race, blah, blah, blah, blah, but immigration status, like that's what you got. But that was it.” The study yielded that school leaders across the board can

support undocumented Asian and Black students but lack the professional development and structure to ensure they are equipped with necessary knowledge. The lack of professional development around supporting all undocumented students, not only Asian and Black, leads to another opportunity to have the campus and district-level staff support the work. Nevertheless, the invisibilization of the undocumented Asian and Black student group makes it even more critical to ensure professional development incorporates an inclusive set of stories surrounding this issue.

Specialized Personnel

Every participant in this study referred to the need for specialized supporting staff, including but not limited to social workers and multilingual educators. Dario, the school leader serving newcomer students from Haiti, Congo, Brazil, and Japan, mentioned that his campus could benefit from an additional "social worker that was culturally and linguistically responsive." He added that he worries about his limitations due to the absence of staff that speak the languages of the students they serve. He heavily relies on the community, but he knows it is not the responsibility of external organizations to provide adequate translation services. Patty added that her campus needs "a full-time school psychologist, a full-time counselor, a full-time social worker" to meet the needs of the students because those types of personnel were not being provided at a full-time capacity. Amber, who serves Black, South Asian, and Indian immigrant students at a public school in Nevada, expressed her desire to have a social worker but also a "free clinic that can support the social emotional wellbeing of the students." In total, 10 school leaders specifically mentioned wanting additional counselors on their school team due to the disproportionate student-to counselor ratio at their campus. Korina, a five-year school leader at a charter school in Texas, described her perfect team as consisting of two academic counselors, a

trauma counselor, two intervention specialists, two social workers, a parent coordinator, an outreach specialist, and an in-house specialized curriculum coach to support teachers. Hannah, a school leader in Colorado, expressed the need for more educators that could dedicate "extra time that students might get interventions. They might receive additional support if they are struggling academically." The school leaders expressed their need for more staff overall. The additional staff capacity would not only benefit undocumented Asian and Black students, but all students on their campus. School leaders need resources not only in wraparound services but also in the form of personnel to provide an equitable education to undocumented Asian and Black students. The section below further elaborates on one particular support needed for educators.

Culturally Responsive Curriculum

In this study, five school leaders described their desire to have an inclusive curriculum that celebrated all students through an "asset-based lens." The absence of a culturally responsive curriculum was described by Dario: "We erase this whole history that actually acknowledges that like, cultural, linguistic, racial, difference," and this occurs for not only undocumented students but for all students. Astrid, who spent five years as an educator before becoming an assistant principal, described her efforts, "I did try as much as possible to talk about the issue and incorporate the issue on my own into the curriculum in the ways that the curriculum offered me flexibility," she said. Korina shared "it wasn't fair to have this one-size-fits-all curriculum," especially when serving this population of students because it's a "mismatch with what the district wants us to teach in terms of curriculum for these students." The conversation that surfaced around the need for a culturally responsive curriculum was primarily from school leaders serving in public schools. Dario described the need to have access to a textbook in Japanese for a Japanese-speaking student to read, which would have been a more culturally

sensitive approach to support their learning. Monica, a 10-year public school leader in Dallas, TX, described her Asian and Black immigrant students as being "from countries like Nigeria, different parts of Africa. I have students who are Asian and are coming from maybe southern Asian countries." She said that access to a culturally responsive "curriculum would have made school integration easier for social life integration" for Asian and Black immigrant students. This study demonstrates the urgent need for school leaders to have more school personnel, especially counselors, to better serve students. Dario and Monica spoke about particular situations with Asian and Black immigrant students who needed a curriculum tailored to their language and experiences, which were different from those of Latinx immigrant students. Dario emphasized how a Japanese textbook would have supported his students academically. For Monica, a curriculum that shared diverse perspectives or stories for students to see themselves represented would have made adapting to school easier for her Nigerian, Southern Asian, and Indian students.

Conclusion

My findings illustrate the challenges and opportunities faced by school leaders supporting undocumented Asian and Black Students. The obstacles faced by school leaders center around whether they had access to needed resources, specifically newcomer service centers, translation services, and transportation. Still, there are many other wraparound services a school district can provide, such as after-school programs, mentorships programs, and counseling. My findings suggest that having access to welcome centers, translation, and transportation made a notable difference for these school leaders and their ability to provide an equitable education for undocumented Asian and Black students.

My findings also highlight a lack of structural support from the school district to truly support the needs of all students, especially those who are Asian and Black and undocumented. The need for more awareness and knowledge about supporting undocumented Asian and Black students is one of the most significant opportunities that certification education programs can take to prepare soon-to-be education practitioners. School leaders in this study expressed numerous aspirations when answering the question, "If you had a magic wand, what would support look like for undocumented Asian and Black students?" An eight-year principal in Dallas serving Asian and Black students from African countries, Terra said she would "use it on all the educators and give them the strategies they need in order to successfully teach our students that come from different places. Like they would automatically know how to differentiate automatically." Lucero added, "I would hope for a bigger campus. And I would hope that there was more staff, like a bigger staff so that more kids can get even more individualized assistance and just attention." Astrid, the assistant principal in New York City, shared:

> I would have a dedicated school team or personnel to have, like multiple checkpoints throughout the semester, throughout the year with this cohort of students and families who belong to this group. And, you know, check in but also these people would be like experts on training. They would have the highest training, they would be experts on our immigration system and knowing what challenges people experience, they would be the most connected to CBO [community-based organization] serving immigrant students. And so they would be kind of like, almost like responders to the challenges, right, and tracking and checking in with students and families about how they're doing.

Emmanuel elevated some of the findings around the need for training and expressed, “non-Latinx students, I think if we had a magic wand to have the linguistic barriers removed. Being able to have additional funding to meet our Asian and Black families where they are in the community would help bridge and build that trust – and just additional funding. Additional funding for training available at any point for any staff member.” Monica also added that she envisioned her school would have sufficient translation services. She said, “where they [students] would be happy. Well, they would not have to worry about if someone understood how they were communicating, where they would be comfortable. Even if they are an Asian and Black immigrant, they would feel comfortable about their immigration status, and would not be worried about it. Definitely, I will have a safe haven for parents to come to learn and to be a part of this system as a whole.” School leaders expressed their desire to rely on resources to better serve students, especially those that are Asian and Black. In spite of the many aspirations school leaders had for the school, the need for professional development, more specialized personnel, and a culturally responsive curriculum to support undocumented Asian and Black students and families in school was clear.

Chapter 5: Implications and Recommendations

The experiences shared by the 15 school leaders formulated answers around how current K-12 school leaders support undocumented Asian and Black students across various states. Their experiences indicated the need for more preparation and knowledge of best practices to support this population; their reaction to support was reactive to the situation rather than proactive. My study reveals that school leaders constantly wrestle with the ever-changing educational landscape. Nevertheless, the mission of educating students remains a fundamental beacon for school leaders after they join the profession. The complexity for these and many other school leaders lies in the constant navigation of situations on their campus. In addition to the complexity of present job hazards, school leaders must navigate supporting students and families caught between the education and immigration systems which are often unknown to them (Crawford & Witherspoon Arnold, 2017; Olivas, 2012; Rubinstein-Avila, 2017). Students and families constantly need support to maneuver these two clashing systems. Research shows that the mixed-status population is projected to continue to climb over the years to come (Asian American Advancing Justice, 2019; Batalova & Alperin, 2018; Passel, 2006; Passel & Cohn, 2016; Ramakrishnan & Shaw, 2017; Tamir, 2022). With this projection of growth for Asian and Black immigrant students entering school systems, there is an increased need to develop awareness and proactive support on campuses. While these supports have the potential to benefit all students, Asian and Black immigrant students benefit the most because it removes their invisibility from the system. For example, actively adding non-Spanish speaking language services creates more access to students and newcomer service centers beyond the first few years. It creates access for students and parents on campus, and a culturally responsive curriculum develops understanding around Asian and Black student experiences.

Moreover, my research highlighted the necessity for school leaders to gain the necessary knowledge and tools to support students by effectively navigating the education system, while considering the needs of undocumented and mixed-status families. This is particularly important as more Asian and Black students enter K-12 school systems. However, school leaders need help to do this work, and they need district infrastructure (Crawford & Witherspoon, 2017) that provides adequate support to serve these students. My study adds to the list of proactive measures needed in school to support students and families who have been invisibilized since being "undocumented" is seen as only a Latinx issue. This chapter aims to elaborate on the implication of this research in the grand scheme of school efforts to support immigrant students, while also adding to the existing literature. The findings of this study provide insight into school leader experiences in supporting undocumented Asian and Black students while not having prior preparation or structural support in place, which coincides with the literature (Crawford & Witherspoon Arnold, 2017; Ee & Gándara, 2020; Siegel et al., 2019). My study contextualizes the findings, providing future education practitioners and school leaders with an understanding of an ever-changing undocumented student population. I emphasize the limitations of this study and encourage incoming scholars to explore the topic of supporting undocumented Asian and Black K-12 students further. The chapter concludes with some practical implementation recommendations for education practitioners and policymakers.

Expanding on Prior Research: Newcomer Centers

This study reinforces the importance of structural wraparound support through access to a district's newcomer service centers, translation services, and transportation. Scholars Wiemelt and Maldonado (2018), Ee and Gándara (2020), Crawford and Witherspoon Arnold (2017) all reinforced the need for the school to create a welcoming environment for students, and newcomer centers are one type of structural district program that yields positive outcomes,

especially for newcomer students. These newcomer service centers are pivotal to a newcomer student's placement, testing, and orientation (Friedlander, 1991; Pryor, 2001; Scully, 2016; Short, & Boyson, 1997). In this study, Patty, Dario and Jane shared their experiences receiving information or training from their district's newcomer center. Cisneros and colleagues (2022) provide evidence of the positive impact of undocumented student resource centers for undocumented black college students. Several of the participants in this study discussed how they received information from the centers such as testing, uniform assistance, and other resources which helped them support the student once they arrived at their assigned campus.

K-12 newcomer service centers have a similar impact on undocumented Asian and Black students, but it is unclear as to what extent. The types of student centers described by the participants in the study align with the benefits attributed to wraparound services by scholars Roxas (2011) and Russell (2022). This further demonstrates the ability to specialize in support for students while building community, support instruction, and connecting families to local resources (Cisneros & Valdivia, 2020; Crawford, 2017; Crawford & Witherspoon Arnold, 2017; Gildersleeve & Vigil, 2015; Roxas, 2011). Additionally, Wiemelt and Maldonado (2018) support my research finding that suggests having newcomer undocumented students paired with a peer helps create a welcoming learning environment. School leader Dario said that once newcomer students arrive to his campus, they are paired with a student that shows them where their classes are and explains other ways to navigate the school. It is worth noting that under Title III funding, schools are required to report the amount of English Language Learner and newcomer students until they have reached English proficiency, and then monitor them for two-additional years before exiting (Sugarman, 2019; Tanenbaum et al., 2012). Therefore, school districts are receiving financial aid allocated to supporting these Asian and Black immigrant students.

Moreover, my study offers a nuanced perspective urging school districts to also support mixed-status students who have aged out or been exited from the newcomer phase to ensure a more inclusive approach to student newcomer service centers. However, Feinberg (2000) warns that creating separated newcomer schools can harm the students by isolating them and creating a hostile environment. From her research, some of these newcomer centers needed more accountability and resources. Feinberg (2000) elevates the danger of potential compliance violation of the guidelines for newcomer centers or schools established in the 1990s by the Office for Civil Rights (OCR). Therefore, the transition of students from newcomer centers to schools should be explored by the school leader to ensure there are supportive measures to integrate the student into the campus.

Expanding on Prior Research: Language Services

Similar to the newcomer service centers, the need for more accessible translation services in multiple languages was a notable finding in my study. My study coincides with the findings of Tan Yan et al. (2022), which "indicate perceived discrimination, poor and inadequate interpretation, and translation services impact children's access to special education services, hinder family's communication with schools and reduce the perceptions of schools as trustworthy institutions" (p. 433). Hannah, Jane, Dario, Maya, and Lucero highlighted the inconsistency of support provided by the school district when it comes to translation services for students and parents. Title III requires district or charter schools to support students in meeting "English proficiency and academic standards; how it promotes family and community engagement; and assurance that it complies with state and federal laws, includes stakeholders in planning and engages in appropriate data sharing" (Sugarman, 2019, p. 6).

Furthermore, several school leaders explicitly stated they had to use Google Translate or other translation applications to communicate with students and families. Additional research agrees with the findings of my study, demonstrating that language barriers negatively affect the ability of students and families to fully participate in school (Cassar & Tonna, 2019; *Immigrant Students at School Easing the Journey Towards Integration,* 2015; St. Amant et al., 2018). I highlight the disparities of language access for the undocumented Asian and Black groups that tend to be from non-Spanish-speaking countries. Morales and Wang (2018) emphasized the negative effects of the lack of language access, which creates a burden on students by turning them into language brokers. Additionally, Lipsit's (2003) study revealed the gaps in providing translated services to parents. This study further reinforced those findings, since school leaders could not verify the accuracy of the translations they provided to students and families due to a lack of staff proficient in multiple languages.

As mentioned by the National Center for Education Statistics, the fastest-growing population of English learners fluent in non-Spanish languages are those who speak Arabic, Chinese, Vietnamese, Portuguese, Russian, Haitian Creole, Hmong, and Urdu (2023). In my study, the interviewees confirmed that these are some of the languages their students speak and need to translate on their respective campuses. Hairston (2020) added that "schools are generally unprepared to handle multiple student languages; they lack the adequate resources (i.e. teacher expertise, curriculum materials, etc.) to support each of their students' language needs" (p. 14). Furthermore, additional research efforts are necessary to understand the racial impact of denying language justice in schools to immigrant students and families.

Expanding on Prior Research: Transportation

Consistent with previous research, this study supports the need for students, especially those recently arriving, to have access to school transportation. Bussing became the venue of desegregation after the landmark Supreme Court decision of *Brown v. Board of Education (*1954); for undocumented students, it has become a reliable form of transportation to and from schools. In one study in Florida, Leon County schools provided public transit to students, which negatively impacted attendance (Munoz & Sandoval, 2022). My study agrees that public transportation is only suitable for some students, especially students just entering the education system. In this study, one school leader elevated the potential re-traumatization of young female students by placing them in public transportation. Moreover, scholar Hu (2017) found that not all immigrants utilized transportation means in the same way, with significant differences among Asian immigrants in the U.S. who utilized transportation based on how long they have been in the states. Hu's (2017) study supports the finding of limited access to transportation mobility for newcomer students. The new contribution from this study is to encourage school leaders and school districts to consider the incorporation of transportation services for students and families, especially those who are undocumented. While the extent to which transportation experience is different for Asian and Black versus Latinx immigrant students is undetermined by this study, the findings highlight that there is a need to ensure and understanding that navigating transportation can cause obstacles for undocumented students as well as parental engagement. Lopez's (2001) study pushes the definition of parental engagement for immigrant families, which this study supports through the narratives of school leaders. Turney and Kao (2009) found the degree of parental engagement different among immigrants by racial group, and this study encourages school leaders to consider undocumented Asian and Black experiences when

supporting their navigation of the education system. Moreover, this is an opportunity for future research exploring the impact of transportation for these students.

Proactive Supports Needed

The second set of findings targets proactive supports that school leaders wish they had prior to serving Asian and Black immigrant students, which has in part been validated by renowned scholars. The bulk of the existing literature suggests that educators and school leaders should have prior knowledge and skills to support undocumented students and families (Cadenas et al., 2022; Chen et al., 2010; Collins et al., 2014; Ee & Gándara, 2020; Gonzales, 2016; Gonzales & Negron-Gonzales, 2015). School leaders in this study also emphasized the missed opportunity within education formation programs to incorporate competencies necessary for serving undocumented students and families as important components of leadership training. Cadenas and colleagues (2022) support the importance of preparing a culturally responsive teaching workforce, and this research adds to the notion that school leaders must also follow this standard of practice. Ee and Gándara (2020) paid close attention to the negative effects of students' fear of deportation and the lack of preparedness felt by educators serving them. The lack of preparation from educators supports the findings in my study because school leaders did not have a planned response when faced with the separation of families due to deportation. Salinas, Vickery, and Franquiz (2016) further supported the need for a pre-service educator program to discuss citizenship as part of their coursework. Crawford and Witherspoon Arnold (2017) add that this same notion applies to school leaders. This research contributes that all pre-service programs for any education practitioner should incorporate this topic. My study also encourages those pre-service programs to be intentional about the undocumented and immigrant coursework being inclusive of the undocumented Asian and Black population.

This study adds to the literature by emphasizing the need for school leaders to address personnel needs to guarantee full educational access to Asian and Black immigrant students. K-12 public schools are underfunded, and more funding will create the opportunity to create additional specialized personnel roles to support students (Dhaliwal & Bruno, 2021). I highlight the gaps within the education field that school leaders want to address in order to facilitate full student participation in the education system. Allen and colleagues (2015) argued that there are long-lasting mental health consequences on students after the deportation of a family member, and they encourage mental health professionals to be equipped with the knowledge of how to cater to this population. Therefore, a school counselor, school psychologist, interventionist specialist, or any other mental health professional working in school should have some knowledge of how to serve undocumented and mixed-status families (Capps et al., 2017; Jefferies, 2014). Moreover, Chen and colleagues (2010) stressed the importance of having school counselors as social justice advocates for undocumented immigrant students, which supports the claims in this study that school leaders need more personnel to serve students. Cadenas and colleagues (2021) added that not having culturally responsive educators in classrooms negatively impacts undocumented students. This furthers the argument that more education practitioners are needed and must be trained.

The last portion of this study focuses on increasing access to culturally responsive curriculum for educators. My findings line up with the recommendation made by scholars to increase professional development for educators and other school practitioners to ensure they are equipped to serve students (Ee & Gándara, 2020; Kugler, 2017; Parkhouse et al., 2020; Turney & Kao, 2009; Rodriguez & Howard, 2020). Scholars Hos and Argus (2021) wrote a book to present teachers with “transformative practices.” Their goal is to ensure educators have the skill

set to respond to undocumented students. These transformative practices include utilizing a culturally responsive curriculum that centers undocumented stories through a positive lens. Hos and Argus (2021) emphasized a culturally responsive pedagogy in classrooms, which aligns with my study's argument that this curriculum is required for undocumented students. The support required to serve students through the curriculum is also supported by higher education research that aims to support undocumented students (Gonzales, 2016; Macías & Collet, 2016; Parkhouse et al., 2020; Rincón, 2010; Sanchez & So, 2015; Wangensteen, 2017). The results brought forward by the study center around ensuring a culturally responsive curriculum that includes Asian and Black immigrant stories.

Examining Findings Through the Lens of UndocuCrit in Education

Utilizing the Undocumented Critical Theory (UndocuCrit) in education (Aguilar, 2021) supported an understanding of the findings in this study through various ways. The most significant contribution in this finding centers around all 15 participants in the study acknowledging that they had no formal training to support undocumented students before embarking on their careers in education. This lack of training for school leaders further reinforces the recommendations from scholars in the field that point to the critical role of having staff development and preparation for how to support immigrant students in schools (Aguilar, 2021; Cadenas et al., 2020; Crawford, 2017; Ee & Gándara, 2020; Gonzales et al., 2015; Suarez-Orozco, 2001). Moreover, this finding validates that the education system is fundamentally designed to exclude undocumented Asian and Black students because it is not actively training its leaders to deal with the issues they might face at their campus regarding this topic (Aguilar, 2021). Astrid's story of having to create professional development for her colleagues at her charter network underscores the burden placed on those school leaders whose school districts do

not prioritize discussions about supporting undocumented students. Principal Dario's feeling of having to offer "patchwork" services when undocumented students arrive to his campus demonstrates that the education system does not have the infrastructure to support students. School leader after school leader pointed out the ways the system was not designed to provide services to students, ranging from lack of training to lack of a curriculum designed to support undocumented students, or a lack of wraparound services and adequate translation services.

Without the direct accounts of school leaders in the study who support undocumented Asian and Black students, there would be less of an understanding of how the education system is designed to marginalize undocumented Asian and Black students in schools. My findings reinforced a central tenet of UndocuCrit in education, which explains that undocumented students' "lived experiences can be initially understood as members of a larger marginalized people — experiences and trajectories later amplified by their legal status" (Aguilar, 2021, p. 157). This amplification of legal immigration status comes to fruition when school leaders are faced with a situation of supporting undocumented students. One of the ways that school leaders experience this amplification is evident through Maya's response in having to resort to using Google Translate to ensure her school was able to communicate with non-English speaking parents. For Maya, the translation services were aspirational and not a service already provided to her, which endorses the fact that education systems marginalize undocumented students in schools (Aguilar, 2021).

Another core tenet of the UndocuCrit framework supported the responses from my participants by explicitly naming the need for what Aguilar describes as "abolitionist teaching" (Aguilar, 2021, p. 158). Aguilar (2021) described abolitionist teaching for undocumented students as the opportunity for educators to reconsider the support, curriculum, pedagogical

practices, and humanization of undocumented students in schools. Five participants in this study supported the effort to implement a culturally responsive curriculum to ensure undocumented students experience their identities being validated. Studies by Eisman et al. (2020) and Cadenas et al. (2022) supported the need for educators and school leaders to have access to a culturally responsive curriculum to better serve undocumented students.

Upon further examination of this theory and my work, I urge future scholars to consider the limitations of UndocuCrit as applied to the education system, such as leaving out the pivotal role school leaders play in the education system. This theoretical framework binds us to start with abolitionist teachings as a precursor to undoing the decolonizing ways of the broken education system. However, given my study, I argue that school leaders cannot apply the framework because they are kept from knowing the immigration status of the students they serve. Thus, applying the framework can be considered under full awareness of the intersection of race and immigration status. I urge scholars to envision a radical world where everyone's humanity is equal in and outside schools. Under this new paradigm, change begins to dismantle systems of oppression that have kept us bound. Only when individuals start to invest in revolutionary decolonizing self-work are laws and systems transformed. While this might seem far from what is possible, I urge us to lean on ancestral practices and teachings in what indigenous cultures have called In Lak'ech (you are my other me) and Ubuntu (you are because I am), which elevate our sense of connectedness through our shared humanity (Delgado-Romero et al., 2021; Letseka, 2012; Naude, 2019; Ribero, 2013). This idea of sharing humanity with our students can be a venue for structural change. This study emphasizes the need for school leaders to be more than allies to diverse groups of undocumented students.

Implications and Limitations

The following section outlines the implications and limitations found in my study, beginning with wraparound services and concluding with proactive approaches to supporting undocumented students as supported by the literature. This was followed by the contributions of this study and the new insight derived from the findings. UndocuCrit served as the guiding theoretical lens for my study and was beneficial for centering the Asian and Black students who are served by the school leaders. This framework revealed the inequalities and gaps in serving undocumented Asian and Black students due to their invisibility and a lack of structural support from the school system. While UndocuCrit guided my study, I acknowledge that other suitable frameworks could have centered school leaders and their particular approach to servicing this population of students — shifting the focus to the school leader's approach rather than the impact on the student. For example, the equity-minded school change framework utilized in the study by Murillo et al. (2023) leverages Oakes' (1992) three dimensions for implementing change: technical, normative, and political. The study by Murillo et al. (2023) utilized this framework to analyze the integration of an immigration family legal clinic in a community school. Through this study, the framework expands on the community school reforms designed to address out-of-school factors about immigration that impact students and families (Murillo et al., 2023). The study by Murillo et al. (2023) suggested there are "potential benefits of integrating legal services onto a school campus that go far beyond typical education outcomes" (p. 386). Furthermore, they explain the complexity of supporting mixed-status students and families and connect the association of immigration and education in schools (Murillo et al., 2023). However, given the topic of my study, UndocuCrit is more suitable for understanding how undocumented Asian and Black students navigate the intersections of their immigration

status within the education system while centering around the broader umbrella of critical race theory. The challenge with all these theoretical frameworks is that *Plyler v Doe* and FERPA create a legal boundary that prevents school leaders from identifying and knowing who in their school is from a mixed-status family, which makes it more difficult to provide services.

Additionally, the focus of this study anchors on comprehending how school leaders support undocumented Asian and Black students. Further research on this topic would benefit from understanding the different groups of school leaders, assessing geographical and political contexts, and evaluating a breakdown of Asian and Black racial student and family groups and their respective supports. For example, the school leaders in my current study represented only four states. My interview questions also didn't explore the state of the political climate. This was intentional in part because I wanted to focus on understanding the approach of school leaders to this population and less on the political context. Additionally, I encourage further studies to concentrate on examining the support for either Asian or Black undocumented students because the undocumented student population is not a monolith.

This study suggests that compared to traditional public schools, charter schools had fewer districts supporting translation services and welcoming centers. For instance, none of the school leaders interviewed from charter schools reported having welcoming center services. Additionally, charter school leaders provided more examples of the lack of translation services compared to their counterparts in public schools. Out of the 15 school leaders interviewed, six worked at charter schools. While this difference was subtle, it is worth further exploration. Therefore, I encourage future scholars to conduct a comparative study that examines the support for undocumented students in charter schools versus traditional public schools.

There were other limitations within my study, such as the impact of the legal battle around Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA), presidential elections, and current and past presidential administrations affecting the experience of school leaders who aimed to support undocumented Asian and Black students. Nonetheless, further studies are needed to understand and explore the impact of federal actions on the intersection of immigration and education. My findings provide insight into school leaders' experiences and highlights the gaps in structural knowledge and resources necessary to support the academic success of undocumented Asian and Black students. It also reveals the conflicted nature of school leaders who do not have access to quantitative data about how many students are impacted by the immigration issues and who might need additional resources. The current study also demonstrates that there are proactive structural measures that school districts can consider adjusting to ensure an equitable education for this marginalized group of students and families. The findings regarding how the invisibility of race for Asian and Black students perpetuates system inequalities are particularly significant to theory and practice. Yet, undocumented Asian and Black students continue to have the agency and resilience to break down educational barriers with the support of knowledgeable school leaders. Additionally, my findings provide recommendations for school leaders to build structural support that includes Asian and Black students and families.

Recommendations

The recommendations below acknowledge that the feasibility of implementation is closely tied to the specific circumstances of immigration and education in the local context. While this study did not examine the impact of local and state comprehensive laws protecting immigrants in schools, it is important to note that the participants of this study resided and worked with students in four different states, each with its own evolving local political climate

(Brace et al., 2004). The Immigrant Legal Resource Center (2024) state map on immigration enforcement provides an analysis of the individual state legislators and governors who have passed sanctuary policies to protect immigrants. According to this report, Colorado has a sanctuary statute protecting immigrants, and New York State has taken "small steps towards reducing immigration enforcement" (n.b. 2024). On the other hand, Nevada did not have any state laws impacting immigrants (n.b. 2024). However, Texas was described as having "particularly aggressive and comprehensive anti-sanctuary laws that force local agencies to be involved in deporting their constituents" (n.b. 2024). Although the federal government still holds the greatest responsibility in the creation and implementation of immigration laws, an increasing number of states are assuming a more significant role, resulting in notable cases being brought before the Supreme Court. Future studies could consider qualitative and quantitative studies that investigate the effects of immigration state and local policies on schools.

The following tangible recommendations focus on integrating practices and awareness of undocumented Asian and Black students into training programs for future school leaders and other educational practitioners. These recommendations are suggestions for school leaders and other educational practitioners to consider in order to increase access to information about how to support undocumented students and families. School leaders in this study all shared that knowledge about this population needed to be integrated into their pre-service coursework or any other training program required for their profession. These scholars also encourage the training of K-12 school mental health providers to ensure they are equipped with trauma-informed practices that support the holistic development of a child (Cadenas et al., 2022). This presents an opportunity to introduce the most effective policies and practices in schools, allowing for a proactive response to situations involving mixed-status students and families on campus.

Education formation programs such as alternative certification programs, principal certification programs, and university education programs should include discussions about serving undocumented students in education.

Similar to education formation programs, public school districts and charter schools should also consider ongoing professional development for educators and school leaders regarding how to best support undocumented students while staying updated on the immigration and education policies affecting them and their families. This recommendation is supported by scholar Kugler, who issued eight best practices for school leaders to consider as a response to strict immigration policies. These practices include (1) build a trusting relationship with each family, (2) be consistent, (3) connect families to resources and legal advice, (4) help develop emergency plans, (5) join a community-based effort (6) build a respectful school culture (7) continue to engage families in learning, and (8) focus on what's important (Kugler, 2017). Moreover, other research encourages "training to promote ally development, cultural competencies, and intergroup contact" to advance inclusivity towards undocumented students (Cadenas et al., 2020).

Additional research demonstrates the potential for a positive impact on a student's academic outcomes when educators are trained on this topic (Collins, et al., 2014; Crawford, et al., 2017; Ee & Gándara, 2020). Given the study by Ee & Gándara (2020), educators do not feel prepared to support undocumented students in school, and as such, schools could consider adding training or conversation around this topic. Additionally, school districts should consider providing structural assistance to these students, starting with the establishment of a newcomer center and extending support to ensure the inclusion of mixed-status students. This suggestion is with the understanding that rail guards should be in place to maintain compliance with the Office

of Civil Rights standards for newcomer centers (Feinberg, 2000). Furthermore, more funding and efforts should be made to create multi-language translation services for diverse students and families to communicate with school and district personnel to guarantee full educational participation (Suárez-Orozco, 2017; Suárez-Orozco et al., 2013). School districts should consider leveraging Title III and Title I funding to adequately service immigrant and English learner students. According to my findings and existing research, school districts also must consider providing students and families with safe and reliable transportation options to guarantee they can participate in school activities.

Policymakers and advocates operating in both spheres of immigration and education should consider the intersection of laws and their impact on the education of future generations. Legislative solutions such as the Uplifting Immigrant Students Act 2023, introduced by Congressman Adriano Espaillat from New York District 13, should become permanent policy. This proposed legislation offers to integrate support through professional development for educators and support staff to provide a more equitable education for English learners and immigrant K-12 students. Prominent immigration and education scholars support the necessity for federal, state, and educational policies to change in order to adequately support undocumented students and families (Crawford & Witherspoon, 2017; Gonzales & Negron-Gonzales, 2015; Hos & Argus, 2021; Kugler, 2017; Suárez-Orozco & Suárez-Orozco, 2009). This necessity continues to be an area of controversy for many school leaders given the political rhetoric. Yet, it remains that immigration and education policies are operating in isolation, and undocumented Asian and Black students continue to arrive at schools where they are likely to be met with inadequate support. Whether the policy change is at the federal, state, or school district level, the application of them is left at the discretion of the school leaders (Crawford et al.,

2018). Thus, school leaders should be prepared to support all students, especially those that are Asian and Black and undocumented.

Conclusion

This study aimed to understand how school leaders support undocumented Asian and Black students. School leaders carry the responsibility to provide a learning environment for undocumented students while navigating the complexities of students' immigration statuses and their educational conditions (Crawford et al., 2018). The current study offers invaluable information to future school leaders, education practitioners, and education activists for how to support Asian and Black students with proactive measures. The insights from this study have the potential to advance the literature and further illuminate a marginalized group of students. Their narrative adds to the comprehension of the immigrant experience in schools from an asset-based perspective (Loiu, 2016; Ja*ffe*-Walter, 2018). School leaders must strive to create inclusive support for all students, especially those who are undocumented and Asian and Black. This study highlights the opportunity for educational certification programs and school districts to support undocumented Asian and Black students in K-12 settings. Finally, scholars like myself — formerly undocumented and from an over-represented Latinx demographic — can serve as allies to undocumented Asian and Black students. We can also ensure that their stories and experiences are represented in the literature and advocate for necessary changes within educational institutions.

Appendix

Appendix A. Pre-Survey Questionnaire for Potential Participants (SMU Qualtrics)

SMU Qualtrics: Participants pre-survey multiple choice and fill in the blank questions

- Full Name (fill in the blank)
- City, State (fill in the blank)
- Racial/ ethnic background (multiple choice/ other)
- Years of experience as a school leader (multiple choice 1-3 years/ 4-6 years/ 7-10 years/ 10+)
- To the best of your knowledge. Which of the following racial or ethnic identity did the undocumented non-Latinx students you served identified as? (multiple choice)

Appendix B. Interview Protocol

Interview Protocol

Research Questions Section:

How do K-12 school leaders support non-Latinx students?

Protocol:

Before interview:

- Email the interviewee and ask for one hour of their time
- Once they agree, schedule a conversation via zoom

Day of Interview:

- Thank the participants for their time
- Re-establish the purpose of the interview/study
- Ask for consent via Qualtrics (Go off camera while participants read consent)
- Start recording and re-thank once the recording starts to make sure consent is on Qualtrics
    - Established norms
    - Begin with the first questions (see below)
- Keep track of time but do not rush the participants
- Take notes of her responses to capture follow-up and transitions

At the end:

- Thank them for her time and express gratitude for them sharing
- Ask for other school leaders they might know (feeder patterns schools) who serve the immigrant non-Latinx population
- Ask for artifacts such as (translation documents/ posters/ website/ etc.)
- Tell participants that you will be following up with them via email and reshare a consent language

Write an observation memo of your reflections

Interview questions:

1. Describe your current campus to me
    a. Where is it?
    b. What are things that are working well on your campus
    c. What challenges does it confront?

2. Describe the immigrant students and families you serve.
    a. What do you know about their status, such as if they are Refugee/ undocumented/ asylum seekers/ Temporary Protective status
    b. Race/ethnicity
    c. Country of origin

3. Tell me about your own educational journey and training. What led you to your current position?

4. Describe any experience or education exposure (training like pre-service, district related or other) that you received specifically around working with immigrant non-Latinx students.
    a. Proving- when was the first time you heard about non-Latinx undocumented students?
    b. First encounter with non-Latinx undocumented parent or student?

5. What support, policy guidance, or training from the school district (if applicable) have you received to support immigrant students and families? What about undocumented non-Latinx students?
    a. Can you think of situations you had to address around the topic of immigration?

6. Tell me about how you or your campus support immigrant students?
    a. Probe assets/strengths in school responses as well as needs, any policies that relate to your work with immigrant students, challenges etc.
    b. In your opinion, what could you or your campus do better to support (non-Latinx) students?

7. As an educator leader, what have you learned about this immigrant community?

8. In your educational career, and without mentioning the name, tell me about a time you worked with an undocumented non-Latinx student or family.
    1. Probe undocumented status and if they knew it at the time
9. If you know a student or family is undocumented, to what extent does that change how you or the school responds to their needs? If possible, provide an example.

10. If you had a magic wand, what would support for immigrant students look like at your campus? What about undocumented non-Latinx students?

Appendix C. Recruitment Email & Flyer

RECRUITMENT EMAIL

My name is Lorena Tule-Romain, and I am a doctoral student at SMU in the Educational Leadership program and Co-Founder of ImmSchools. I'm requesting volunteer participants for my dissertation research study aimed at understanding the experience of school leaders supporting undocumented non-Latinx students in K-12 schools. Non-Latinx undocumented K-12 students' experiences have been under-researched in the literature. In order to best support non-Latinx undocumented students, it's crucial to understand how school leaders' best practices support this population. The research results will provide K-12 school leaders and education practices with resources and practices they can utilize to support undocumented non-Latinx students.

Participant Criteria:

1. Identify as K-12 school leader (principal, assistant principal, head counselor)
2. Support undocumented non-Latinx students and parents
3. Available for a 60–90-minute interview via zoom

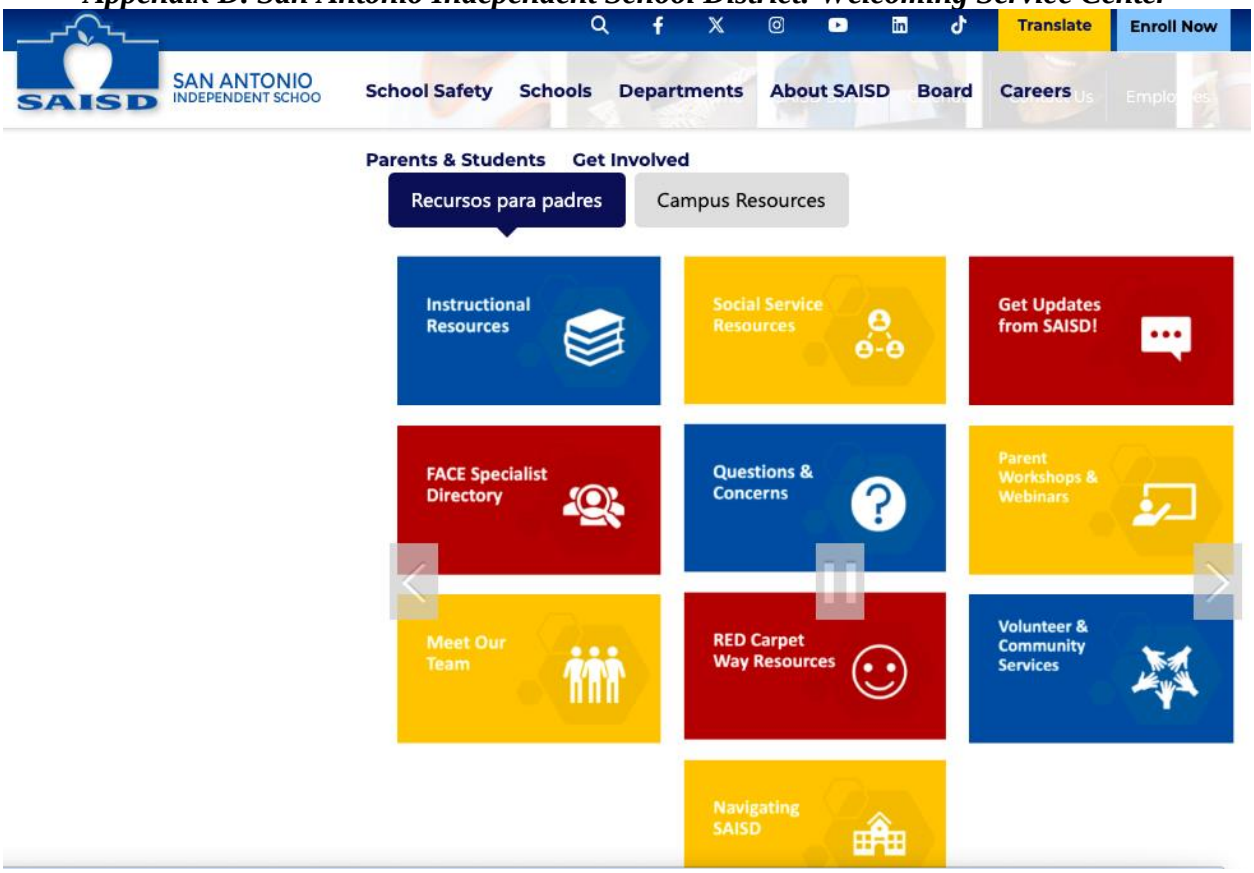
The study will consist of a one-hour semi-structured interview. Participation is entirely voluntary, and all information will be anonymous and confidential. If you or someone in your network can speak to supporting undocumented non-Latinx students, please consider sharing the attached flier. If you have any questions, please reach out to ltuleromain@smu.edu or 214.729.6498.

Best,

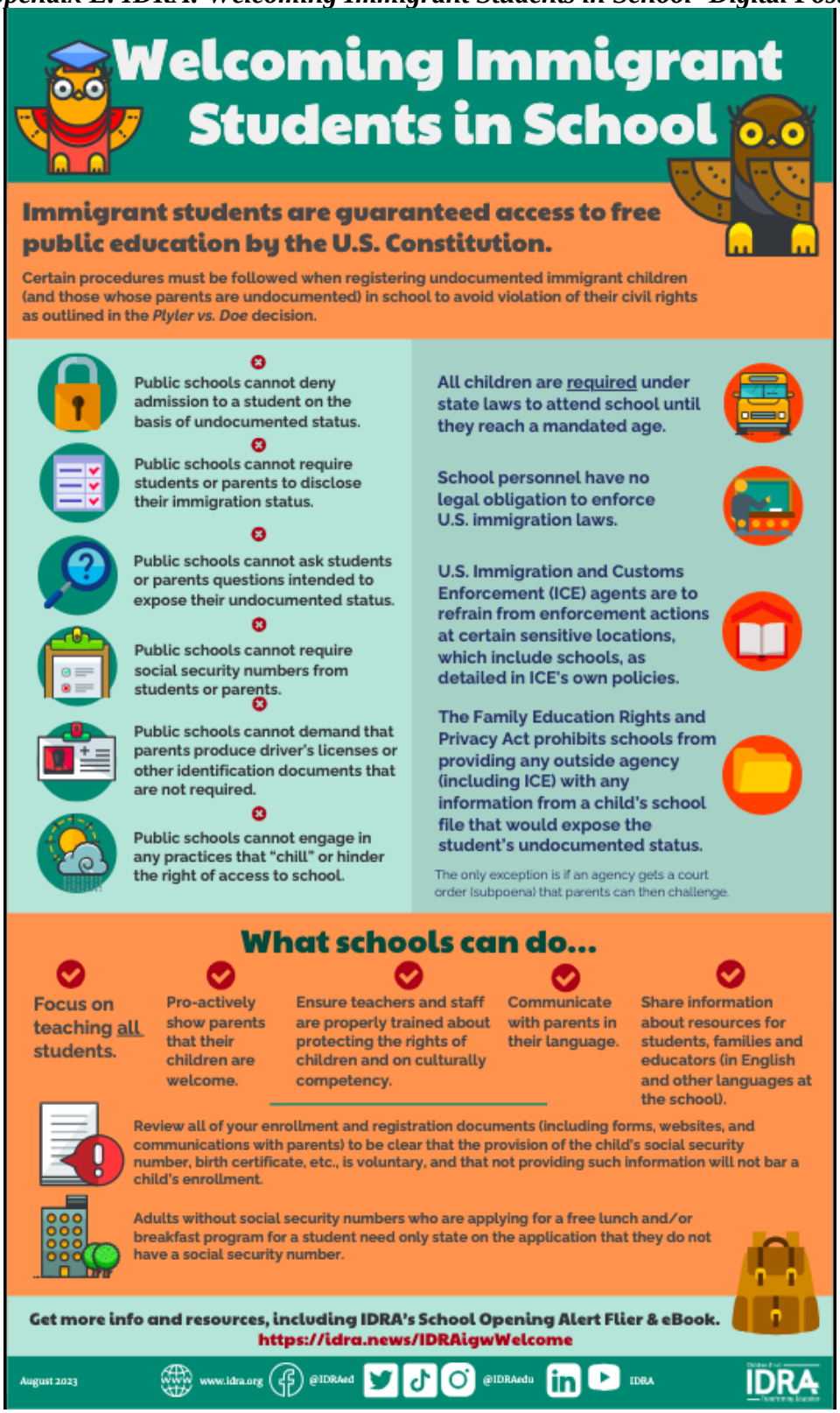
Lorena Tule-Romain
Pronouns: she/hers


Participants Needed For a Research Study
Purpose of the study
The purpose of the study is to understand how school leaders are supporting non-Latinx undocumented students.
Participant Criteria:
• Identify as a K-12 school leader (principal, assistant principal, head counselor)
• Support Undocumented Non-Latinx students and parents
• Available for a 60-90 minutes interview via ZOOM
Interested? Complete this form:
https://bit.ly/ResearchSMU2023
or QR code below
For more information please contact Lorena Tule-Romain via email at: Ltuleromain@smu.edu or by phone 214.729.6498
More information :
214-729-6498
Ltuleromain@smu.edu

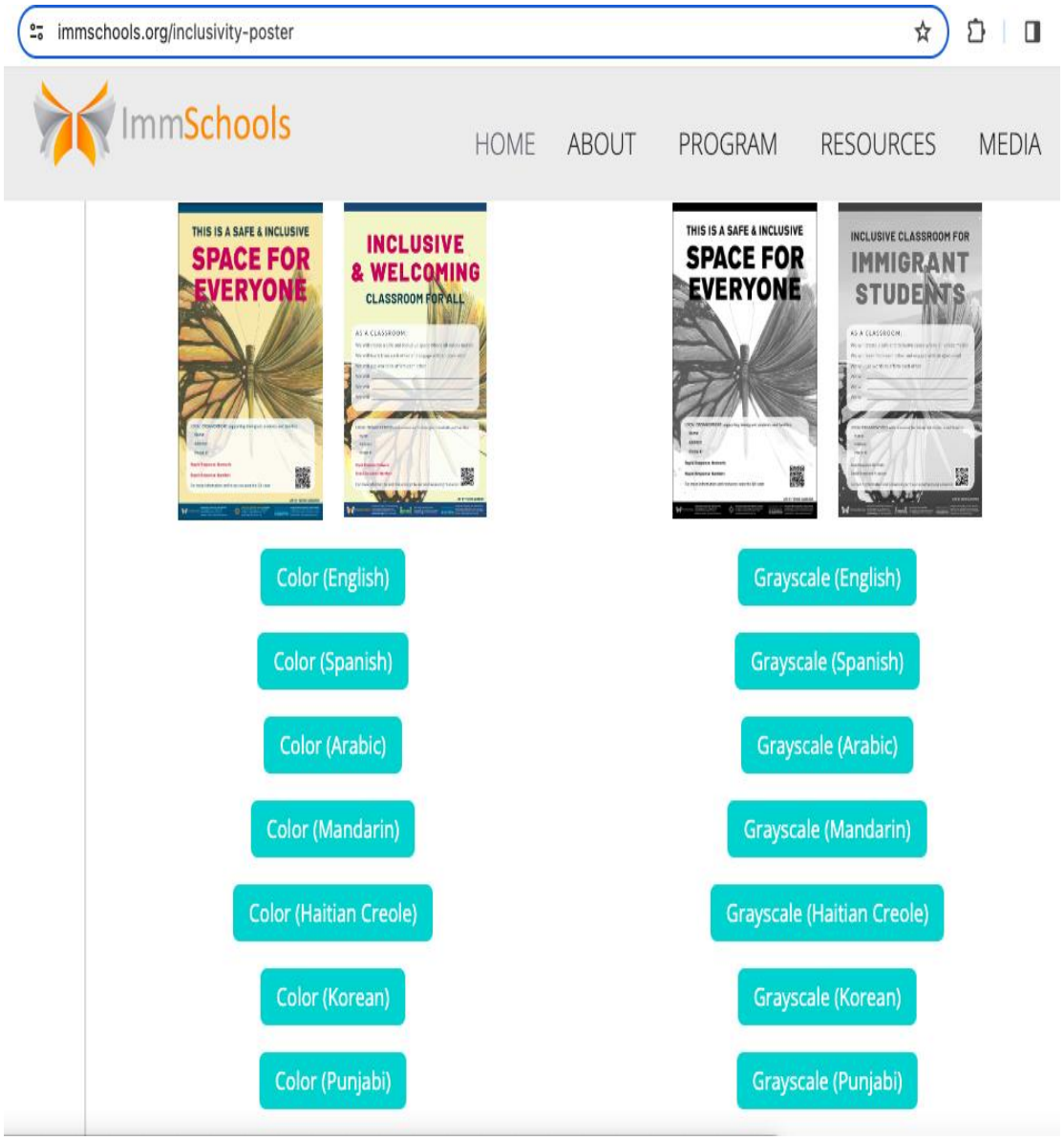
Appendix D. San Antonio Independent School District: Welcoming Service Center



Appendix E. IDRA: Welcoming Immigrant Students in School- Digital Poster



Appendix F. ImmSchools: Resources Website



Appendix J. IDP & CFCR: ICE En La Casa- Digital Poster

ICE EN LA CASA

¡Entérate de tus derechos!

IDP IMMIGRANT DEFENSE PROJECT

center for constitutional rights

¡Cuelga este póster cerca de la entrada, y así puedes recordar los detalles y derechos más importantes si ICE entra a tu casa!

Si ICE se presenta en mi casa, ¿los tengo que dejar entrar?

Si los agentes de ICE no tienen una orden firmada por un juez, no pueden entrar a la casa sin el permiso de un residente que sea mayor de edad. Pídeles que te muestren una orden judicial y que la pasen por debajo de la puerta. Si no la tienen, diles, **"No les doy permiso de entrar."** Es muy probable que ICE trate de entrar sin una orden. Abrirles la puerta cuando tocan no significa que les hayas concedido el derecho de entrar.

"No les doy permiso de entrar."

"Yo no quiero contestar a ninguna pregunta."

"No consiento a ésto. Favor de irse de la casa."

Si agentes de ICE logran entrar a mi casa, ¿puedo pedirles que se vayan?

NO MIENTAS. NO le des ninguna documentación falsa. NI CORRAS NI TE RESISTAS FÍSICAMENTE AL ARRESTO.

Dí, **"Yo no quiero contestar a ninguna pregunta,"** y pídeles que dejen sus datos de contacto. Si entran sin permiso, dí, **"No consiento a ésto. Favor de irse de la casa."**

Si los agentes están adentro, ¿tienen el derecho de pasar buscando a ciertas personas o cosas donde quieran?

Sin una orden legal firmada por un juez dándoles permiso de hacerlo, no deben de registrar tu casa o pertenencias sin permiso tuyo. Si empiezan a tocar cosas o a caminar por la casa, diles: **"No consiento a ésto. Favor de irse de la casa."** Sigue diciéndolo, especialmente si buscan o tratan de llevarse o fotografiar documentos. Quizás no hagan caso, pero es importante que ejerzas este derecho y que informes a un abogado después. Te puede ayudar a ti o a un ser querido en el futuro.

"No consiento a esta búsqueda. Favor de irse de la casa."

Durante un arresto, los agentes de ICE frecuentemente exigen que se reúnan varios documentos de viaje. Solamente hacen ésto para ayudar al gobierno a tratar de deportarte. Entrégale a ICE tu pasaporte o documentos consulares sólo si los agentes de ICE tienen en la mano una orden firmada por un juez que indica claramente tales cosas. Di: **"No quiero llevar conmigo los documentos"** o **"No quiero entregarle nada."** NO les des ninguna documentación falsa o inválida (por ejemplo, una tarjeta de seguro social falsa o visa de inmigrante caducada).

"No quiero llevar conmigo los documentos."

"No quiero entregarle nada."

Si agentes de ICE están en mi casa, ¿qué debería recordar?

Diles de inmediato si: *Hay niños o ancianos presentes.* *Estás enfermo, recibiendo tratamiento o medicina para una condición médica, o estás embarazada o amamantando.* *Te encargas de cuidar a un ser querido y tienes que coordinar su cuidado. *

¿Qué información debo recordar sobre las interacciones con ICE?

Es importante notar cómo se portaron los agentes de ICE en tu casa y avisarle a un abogado. ¡Puede hacer la diferencia en el caso de inmigración! **Usa la sección en el reverso del póster para anotar información importante una vez que ICE se haya marchado.**

Si tu ser querido ha sido arrestado por ICE, puedes iniciar el plan de emergencia. Para aprender más sobre tus derechos con respecto a ICE, visita www.immdefense.org/raids o KYR@immdefense.org. Para reportar una redada de ICE en NY, comunícate al 212-725-6422. Para reportar redadas que ocurren afuera de NY, comunícate con United We Dream (Unidos Soñamos) al 1-844-363-1423.

References

Aguilar, C., 2019. "Undocumented Critical Theory." *Cultural Studies↔Critical Methodologies* 19 (3): 152–60.

Aguilar, C., (2021). Undocumented critical theory in education. *Studying Latinx/a/o Students in Higher Education: A Critical Analysis of Concepts, Theory, and Methodologies*, 149-163.

Alfonsi, S. (2024). *Chinese migrants are the fastest growing group crossing from Mexico into U.S. at Southern Border*. CBS News. https://www.cbsnews.com/news/chinese-migrants-fastest-growing-group-us-mexico-border-60-minutes-transcript/

Allen, B., Cisneros, E. M., & Tellez, A. (2015). The children left behind: The impact of parental deportation on mental health. *Journal of Child and Family Studies, 24*(2), 386-392. doi://dx.doi.org.proxy.libraries.smu.edu/10.1007/s10826-013-9848-5

Anderson, S. (2017, September 08,). Raising up black immigrants in the DACA debate: The black alliance for just immigration is shining a light on the challenges faced by an overlooked segment of the undocumented community. Retrieved from https://inequality.org/great-divide/raising-black-immigrants-daca-debate/

Antony-Newman. (2019). Parental involvement of immigrant parents: a meta-synthesis. *Educational Review (Birmingham), 71*(3), 362–381. https://doi.org/10.1080/00131911.2017.1423278

American Immigration Council,. (2016). *How the United States immigration system works.* (). August 2016: American Immigration Council |. Retrieved from

https://americanimmigrationcouncil.org/sites/default/files/research/how_the_united_states_immigration_system_works.pdf

Asian American Advancing Justice. (2019). *Inside the numbers: How immigration shapes asian america and pacific islander communities.* (). Retrieved from https://www.advancingjustice-aajc.org/sites/default/files/2019-06/1153_AAJC_Immigration_Final_Pages_LR-compressed.pdf

Baker, B. (2021). *Estimates of the unauthorized immigrant population residing in the united states: January 2015–January 2018.* (). online: U.S. Department of Homeland Security : Office of Immigration Statistics. Retrieved from https://www.dhs.gov/sites/default/files/publications/immigration-statistics/Pop_Estimate/UnauthImmigrant/unauthorized_immigrant_population_estimates_2015_-_2018.pdf

Barack Obama and Mitt Romney debate (10/16/2012). . (2015).[Video/DVD] Place of publication not identified: ABC News Productions.

Batalova, J., & Alperin, E. (2018). Immigrants in the U.S. states with the fastest-growing foreign-born populations. Retrieved from https://www.migrationpolicy.org/article/immigrants-us-states-fastest-growing-foreign-born-populations-2016

Bell, D. A. (1980). Brown v. Board of Education and the Interest-Convergence Dilemma. *Harvard Law Review*, *93*(3), 518–533. https://doi.org/10.2307/1340546

Borne, G. (2021). U.S. border crisis: Save the children. *UWIRE Text*, 1–

Brace, P., Arceneaux, K., Johnson, M., & Ulbig, S. G. (2004). Does State Political Ideology Change over Time? *Political Research Quarterly*, *57*(4), 529–540. https://doi.org/10.2307/3219815

Brown v. Board of Educ., 347 U.S. 483 (1954).

Burns, B. J., & Goldman, S. K. (1999). *Promising Practices in Wraparound for Children with Serious Emotional Disturbance and Their Families. Systems of Care: Promising Practices in Children's Mental Health 1998 Series. Volume IV*.

Cadenas, G. A., Cisneros, J., Spanierman, L. B., Yi, J., & Todd, N. R. (2021). Detrimental Effects of Color-Blind Racial Attitudes in Preparing a Culturally Responsive Teaching Workforce for Immigrants. *Journal of Career Development*, *48*(6), 926–941. https://doi.org/10.1177/0894845320903380

Cadenas, G., Peña, D., & Cisneros, J. (2020). Creating a welcoming environment of mental health equity for undocumented students. (1st ed., pp. 71-78) Routledge. doi:10.4324/9780429197277-8

Cadenas, G. A., Neimeyer, G., Suro, B., Minero, L. P., Campos, L., Garcini, L. M., Mercado, A., Paris, M., Silva, M., & Rodriguez, M. M. D. (2022). Developing cultural competency for providing psychological services with immigrant populations: A cross-level training curriculum. *Training and Education in Professional Psychology, 16*(2), 121-129. 10.1037/tep0000380

Called 'deporter-in-chief,' obama weighs deportation changes (2014). National Public Radio, Inc. (NPR).

Capps, R., Fix, M., & Zong, J. (2016, January). A Profile of U.S. Children with Unauthorized Immigrant Parents. Retrieved November 4, 2018, from file:///C:/Users/ltule-romain/Downloads/ChildrenofUnauthorized-FactSheet-FINAL (3).pdf

Capps, R., Koball, H., Campetella, A., Perreira, K., Hooker, S., & Pedroza, J. M. (2017). Implications of Immigration Enforcement Activities for the Well-Being of Children in Immigrant Families: A Review of the Literature. Retrieved November 4, 2022, from https://www.migrationpolicy.org/research/implications-immigration-enforcement-activities-well-being-children-immigrant-families

Caron, R. M. (2020). The U.S. Refugee Resettlement Conundrum. *Peace Review (Palo Alto, Calif.)*, *32*(4), 527–535. https://doi.org/10.1080/10402659.2020.1921416

Cebulko, K. (2014). Documented, Undocumented, and Liminally Legal: Legal Status During the Transition to Adulthood for 1.5-Generation Brazilian Immigrants. *Sociological Quarterly*, *55*(1), 143–167. https://doi.org/10.1111/tsq.12045

Chan, B. (2010). Not just a latino issue: Undocumented students in higher education. *The Journal of College Admissions*, (206), 29.

Chen, E. C., Budianto, L., & Wong, K. (2010). Professional school counselors as social justice advocates for undocumented immigrant students in group work. The Journal for Specialists in Group Work, 35(3), 255–261. https://doi.org/10.1080/01933922.2010.492897

Chang, A. (2011). Undocumented to hyperdocumented: A "jornada" of protection, papers, and PhD status. *Harvard Educational Review, 81*(3), 508-521.

Cisneros, J., & Cadenas, G. (2017). DREAMer-ally competency and self-efficacy: Developing higher education staff and measuring lasting outcomes. *Journal of Student Affairs Research and Practice, 54*(2), 189-203. doi:10.1080/19496591.2017.1289098

Cisneros, J., & Valdivia, D. (2020). "We are legit now": Establishing undocumented student resource centers on campus. *Journal of College Student Development, 61*(1), 51-66. doi:10.1353/csd.2020.0003

Cisneros, J., Valdivia, D., Rivarola, A. R. R., & Russell, F. (2021). "I'm here to fight along with you": Undocumented student resource centers creating possibilities. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education, 15*(5), 607-616. doi:10.1037/dhe0000355

Cleaveland, C.(2017*). How the immigration and deportation systems work: A social worker's guide* Retrieved from - https://heinonline.org/HOL/P?h=hein.journals/jrlsasw44&i=431

Collins, B. A., O'CONNOR, E. E., Suárez-Orozco, C., Nieto-Castañon, A., & Toppelberg, C. O. (2014). Dual language profiles of Latino children of immigrants: Stability and change over the early school years. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, *35*(3), 581-620.

Connor, P. (2021). Immigration reform can keep millions of mixed-status families together. Retrieved from https://www.fwd.us/news/mixed-status-families/

Connor, P. (2021). *At least 600,000 K-12 undocumented students need a pathway to citizenship*. FWD.us. https://www.fwd.us/news/k-12-undocumented-students/

Contreras, F. (2009). Sin papeles y rompiendo barreras: Latino students and the challenges of persisting in college. *Harvard Educational Review*, *79*(4), 610-631. doi:10.17763/haer.79.4.02671846902gl33w

Cornelius, W. A. (2005). Controlling “Unwanted” Immigration: Lessons from the United States, 1993-2004. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies, 31*(4), 775–794. https://doi.org/10.1080/13691830500110017

Crawford, E. R. (2017). The ethic of community and incorporating undocumented immigrant concerns into ethical school leadership. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 53*(2), 147-179. doi:10.1177/0013161X16687005

Crawford, E. R., & Dorner, L. M. (Eds.). (2019). *Educational leadership of immigrants : Case studies in times of change*. Taylor & Francis Group.

Crawford, E., & Witherspoon Arnold, N. (2017). “We Don’t Talk about Undocumented Status… We Talk about Helping Children”: How School Leaders Shape School Climate for Undocumented Immigrants. *International Journal of Educational Leadership and Management, 5*(2), 116-. https://doi.org/10.17583/ijelm.2017.2840

Crawford, E. R., Walker, D., & Valle, F. (2018). Leading for Change: School Leader Advocacy for Undocumented Immigrant Students. *Equity & Excellence in Education, 51*(1), 62–77. https://doi.org/10.1080/10665684.2018.1441763

Crenshaw, K. (1997). Mapping the margins: Intersectionality, identity politics, and violence against women of color. *The legal response to violence against women, 5*, 91.

Crosnoe, R., & López Turley, R.,N. (2011). K-12 educational outcomes of immigrant youth. *The Future of Children; Future Child, 21*(1), 129-152. doi:10.1353/foc.2011.0008

Dearing, E., Walsh, M. E., Sibley, E., Lee-St.John, T., Foley, C., & Raczek, A. E. (2016). Can Community and School-Based Supports Improve the Achievement of First-Generation Immigrant Children Attending High-Poverty Schools? *Child Development, 87*(3), 883–897. https://doi.org/10.1111/cdev.12507

DeCuir, J. T., & Dixson, A. D. (2004). “So When It Comes out, They Aren’t That Surprised That It Is There”: Using Critical Race Theory as a Tool of Analysis of Race and Racism in Education. *Educational Researcher*, *33*(5), 26–31. https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X033005026

Delgado, R. (1995). *Critical race theory : the cutting edge*. Temple University Press

Delgado, R., & Stefancic, J. (2023). *Critical race theory: An introduction* (Vol. 87). NyU press.

Delgado-Romero, E. A., Mahoney, G. E., Muro-Rodriguez, N. J., Atilano, R., Cárdenas Bautista, E., De Los Santos, J., ... & Vazquez, M. (2021). La Clinica In LaK’ech: Establishing a practicum site integrating practice, advocacy, and research with Latinx clients. *The Counseling Psychologist*, *49*(7), 987-1012.

Del Vecchio, D., Toomey, N., & Tuck, E. (2017). Placing photovoice: Participatory action research with undocumented migrant youth in the hudson valley. *Critical Questions in Education*, *8*(4), 358.

Dhaliwal, T. K., & Bruno, P. (2021). The Rural/Nonrural Divide? K–12 District Spending and Implications of Equity-Based School Funding. *AERA Open*, *7*(1), 233285842098254-. https://doi.org/10.1177/2332858420982549

Ee, J., & Gándara, P. (2020). The Impact of Immigration Enforcement on the Nation’s Schools. *American Educational Research Journal*, *57*(2), 840–871. https://doi.org/10.3102/0002831219862998

Eisman, A. B., Kilbourne, A. M., Ngo, Q., Fridline, J., Zimmerman, M. A., Greene, D., & Cunningham, R. M. (2020). Implementing a State-Adopted high school health

curriculum: A case study. *The Journal of School Health; J Sch Health, 90*(6), 447-456. doi:10.1111/josh.12892

Ellis, J. L., & Hart, D. L. (2023). Strengthening the Choice for a Generic Qualitative Research Design. *The Qualitative Report, 28*(6), 1759-1768. https://doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2023.5474

Enriquez, L. E. (2019). Border-hopping mexicans, law-abiding asians, and racialized illegality: ANALYZING UNDOCUMENTED COLLEGE STUDENTS' EXPERIENCES THROUGH A RELATIONAL LENS. (1st ed., pp. 257-277). Berkeley: University of California Press. doi:10.1525/9780520971301-015

Fragomen, A. T. (1997). The illegal immigration reform and immigrant responsibility act of 1996 an overview. *International Migration Review: IMR, 31*(2), 438-460. doi:10.1177/019791839703100208

Federation for American Immigration Reform. Retrieved from https://fairus.org/about-fa

Feinberg, R. C. (2000). Newcomer schools: Salvation or segregated oblivion for immigrant students?. *Theory into practice*, *39*(4), 220-227.

Friedlander, M. (1991). *The Newcomer Program: Helping Immigrant Students Succeed in U.S. Schools. Program Information Series Guide, No. 8*.

FWD.us. (n.d.). *New data: Some 10.6 million U.S. citizens live with an undocumented immigrant*. https://www.fwd.us/news/new-data-some-10-6-million-u-s-citizens-live-with-an-undocumented-immigrant/

Gamboa, S. (2018, Feb. 15,). In houston, outrage over a school arrest that landed a student in immigration detention A lawyer says his client landed in immigration custody after he reported getting into a fight with a bully. Retrieved from https://www.nbcnews.com/news/latino/houston-outrage-over-school-arrest-landed-student-immigration-detention-n848141

Garcia, N. M., Salinas Jr, C., & Cisneros, J. (2021). Undocumented Critical Theory in Education. In *Studying Latinx/a/o Students in Higher Education*. Taylor & Francis Group.

Garcini, L. M., Cadenas, G., Domenech Rodríguez, M.,M., Mercado, A., Campos, L., Abraham, C., . . . Paris, M. (2021). Lessons learned from undocumented latinx immigrants: How to build resilience and overcome distress in the face of adversity. *Psychological Services; Psychol Serv,* doi:10.1037/ser0000603

Gildersleeve, R. E., & Vigil, D. (2015). Institutionalizing support for undocumented latino/a students in american higher education. *New Directions for Higher Education*, *2015*(172), 39-48. doi:10.1002/he.20151

Gonzalez Fernandez, L. C. (2014). Immigration Detention in America: civil offense, criminal detention. *Harvard Journal of Hispanic Policy*, *26*, 3–.

Gonzales, R. G. (2016). *Lives in limbo: Undocumented and coming of age in America*. Oakland, California: University of California Press.

Gonzales, Heredia, L., & Negron-Gonzales, G. (2015). Understanding Plyler's legacy: undocumented students, schools and citizenship. *Harvard Educational Review*, *85*(3), 318–.

Groeger, L. V., Waldman, A. & Eads, D. (2018). Miseducation. Retrieved from https://projects.propublica.org/miseducation/

Hairston, S. L., Crawford, E. R., & Maitreephun, W. (2020). How Leaders Learn About the Needs of Immigrant Students in a Turbulent Time. In *Educational Leadership of Immigrants* (1st ed., Vol. 1, pp. 205–214). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429197277-24

Haverkamp, E., Kalmykov, K., Keeling, S. E., Koryto, J. F., Le Gall, E., Rosenbluth, M., & Schlegel, C. M. (2009). Immigration and Nationality Law. *The International Lawyer*, *43*(2), 725–739.

Hernandez, R. (1994). Illegal immigrants threatened with school expulsion. *The Hispanic Outlook in Higher Education*, *4*(14), 1.

Hirschman, B., & Earl Daniels Education Writers. (1994). School Officials Plan for Possible Influx of Haitians: Sports Final Edition. Sun-Sentinel (Fort Lauderdale, Fla.). Hlass, L. (2018). The School to Deportation Pipeline. *Georgia State University Law Review*, *34*(3).

Holley, K.A., & Harris, M.S. (2019). *The qualitative dissertation in education: A guide for integrating research and practice.* Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781351044837

Holmes. (2020). Researcher Positionality -- A Consideration of Its Influence and Place in Qualitative Research -- A New Researcher Guide. *Shanlax International Journal of Education*, *8*(4), 1–.

Hos, R., & Argus, S. (2021). *TEACHERS AS ALLIES: TRANSFORMATIVE PRACTICES FOR TEACHING DREAMERS AND UNDOCUMENTED STUDENTS edited by shelley wong,*

elaisa sánchez gosnell, anne marie foerster luu, and lori dodson teachers college press. ISBN 978-08077-5886-1 (paperback, USD 34.95), 978-08077-5887-8 (hardcover, USD 78.00). 216 pages doi:10.1002/tesj.577

Immigrant Students at School Easing the Journey towards Integration. (2015). OECD Publishing.

Ja*ffe*-Walter, R. (2018). Leading in the Context of Immigration: Cultivating Collective Responsibility for Recently Arrived Immigrant Students. *Theory into Practice*, *57*(2), 147–153. https://doi.org/10.1080/00405841.2018.1426934

Joanne Cassar, & Michelle Attard Tonna. (2019). They Forget That I'm There: Migrant Students Traversing Language Barriers at School. *IAFOR Journal of Language Learning*, *4*(1), 7–23. https://doi.org/10.22492/ijll.4.1.01

Jones, R. (2021). *White borders : The history of race and immigration in the united states from chinese exclusion to the border wall*. Boston, Massachusetts: Beacon Press.

Jefferies, J. (2014). Fear of deportation in high school: Implications for breaking the circle of silence surrounding migration status. *Journal of Latinos & Education, 13*(4), 278-295. doi:10.1080/15348431.2014.887469

Kanno-youngs, Z. (2019, August 30). Poor Conditions Persist for Migrant Children Detained at the Border, Democrats Say. Retrieved January 17, 2022, from https://www.nytimes.com/2019/08/29/us/politics/homeland-security-migrant-children.html

Kraft, C. (2018, May 8)Academy of Pediatrics, AAP Statement Opposing Separation of Children and Parents at the Border, https://www.aap.org/en-us/about-the-aap/aap-press-room/Pages/StatementOpposingSeparationofChildrenandParents.aspx.

Kugler, E. G. (2017). Supporting Families IN A TIME OF FEAR.(school leaders' response to tightened U.S. immigration policies affecting immigrant students). *Educational Leadership*, *75*(1), 26–.

Ladson-Billings, G., & Tate, W. F. (1995). Toward a critical race theory of education. *Teachers college record*, *97*(1), 47-68.

Lawson, M. A., & Alameda-Lawson, T. (2012). A case study of school-linked, collective parent engagement. *American Educational Research Journal, 49*(4), 651-684. doi:10.3102/0002831211427206

Landale, N. S., Thomas, K. J. A., & Van Hook, J. (2011). The living arrangements of children of immigrants. *Future of Children, 21*(1), 43-70. Retrieved from http://proxy.libraries.smu.edu/login?url=http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=eric&AN=EJ920367&site=ehost-live&scope=site

Letseka, M. (2012). In defence of Ubuntu. *Studies in philosophy and education*, *31*, 47-60.

Liou, D. D. (2016). Fostering College-Going Expectations of Immigrant Students Through the Sympathetic Touch of School Leadership. *Multicultural Perspectives (Mahwah, N.J.)*, *18*(2), 82–90. https://doi.org/10.1080/15210960.2016.1155152

Lipsit, M. (2003). Newcomers left behind: Immigrant parents lack equal access to New York City's schools. *Milano Graduate School of Management and Urban Policy*.

Lopez, G. R. (2001). The value of hard work: Lessons on parent involvement from an (im)migrant household. *Harvard Educational Review, 71*(3), 416-437. doi:10.17763/haer.71.3.43x7k542x023767u

Lovato, K., & Abrams, L. S. (2021). Enforced separations: A qualitative examination of how latinx families cope with family disruption following the deportation of a parent. *Families in Society, 102*(1), 33-49. doi:10.1177/1044389420923470

Ma, P. W., Torres, A., & Akoto, M. A. (2023). Feasibility, acceptability, and preliminary findings of a school-based intervention for recently arrived immigrant middle-school students. *Psychology in the Schools*. https://doi.org/10.1002/pits.22861

Martin, D. (2022). *Texas matters: Why abbott wants plyler v. doe overturned*. https://www.tpr.org/podcast/texas-matters/2022-05-16/texas-matters-why-abbott-wants-plyler-v-doe-overturned: Texas Public Radio.

Macias Limon, C. C. (2017). *Evaluation of undocumented students support services* University of Southern California Digital Library (USC.DL). https://doi.org/10.25549/USCTHESES-C40-409317

Macías, L. F., & Collet, B. A. (2016). Separated by removal: The impact of parental deportation on latina/o children's postsecondary educational goals. *Diaspora, Indigenous & Minority Education, 10*(3), 169-181. doi:10.1080/15595692.2016.1174110

Merriam, S. B., & Tisdell, E. J. (2015). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation*. John Wiley & Sons, Incorporated.

McDonnell, L., & Hill, P. T. (Paul T. (1993). *Newcomers in American schools : meeting the educational needs of immigrant youths*. RAND Corporation.

McGee, K. (2022, May 5,). Gov. Greg Abbott says federal government should cover cost of educating undocumented students in texas public schools. *The Texas Tribune* Retrieved from https://www.texastribune.org/2022/05/05/greg-abbott-plyler-doe-education/

Mcleigh, J. D. (2010). How do immigration and customs enforcement (ICE) practices affect the mental health of children?*American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, *80*(1), 96-100. doi:10.1111/j.1939-0025.2010.01011.x

Miksch, K. L. (2005). Legal Issues in Developmental Education: Immigrant Students and the DREAM Act. *Research & Teaching in Developmental Education*, *22*(1), 59–65.

Migration Policy Institute. (2018). Profile of the unauthorized population: United States.

Morales, A., & Wang, K. T. (2018). The Relationship Among Language Brokering, Parent–Child Bonding, and Mental Health Correlates Among Latinx College Students. *Journal of Mental Health Counseling*, *40*(4), 316–327. https://doi.org/10.17744/mehc.40.4.04

Morgan-Trostle, J., & Zheng, K. (2020). *The state of black immigrants.* (). online: BAJI, NYU School of Law Immigration Rights Clinic. Retrieved from https://baji.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/03/sobi-fullreport-jan22.pdf

Munoz, E. G., & Sandoval, H. H. (2022). The Impacts of Fare-Free Bus Programs on Educational Outcomes of K–12 Students. *Journal of Human Capital*, *16*(4), 556–584. https://doi.org/10.1086/721376

Murphy, P., & Johnston, C. (2019). A teacher just got fired for asking trump to deport undocumented students. *CNN Wire*,

Murillo, M. A., Liboon, C. A., & Quartz, K. H. (2023). Immigrant family legal clinic: A case of integrated student supports in a community school context. *Journal of Educational Change, 24(2)*, 365–392. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10833-021-09447-x

n.b. (2024). *State map on Immigration Enforcement*. ILRC. https://www.ilrc.org/state-map-immigration-enforcement#:~:text=Three%20other%20states%20also%20have,steps%20toward%20reducing%20immigration%20enforcement.

National Center for Education Statistics. (2023). English Learners in Public Schools. *Condition of Education.* U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences. Retrieved May 11, 2022, from https://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/indicator/cgf.

National Education Association: Education Justice. Safe Zone Schools. (2008). Retrieved November 5, 2022, from https://neaedjustice.org/safe-zones/

National Immigration Law Center. Model Campus Safe Zones Resolution Language (College). (2016, December). Retrieved November 11, 2022, from https://www.nilc.org/issues/immigration-enforcement/campus-safe-zones-language-college/

Naude, P. (2019). Decolonising Knowledge: Can "Ubuntu" Ethics Save Us from Coloniality? *Journal of Business Ethics*, *159*(1), 23–37. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-017-3763-4

Olivas, M. (2012). *No undocumented child left behind: Plyler v. doe and the education of undocumented schoolchildren*. New York: NYU Press.

Orellana, M. F. (2009). *Translating childhoods: Immigrant youth, language, and culture*. Rutgers University Press. https://doi.org/10.36019/9780813548630

Parkhouse, H., Massaro, V. R., Cuba, M. J., & Waters, C. N. (2020). Teachers' Efforts to Support Undocumented Students Within Ambiguous Policy Contexts. *Harvard Educational Review*, *90*(4), 525–549. https://doi.org/10.17763/1943-5045-90.4.525

Passel, J. S. (2003). Further demographic information related to the DREAM Act. https://www.nilc.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/11/dream_demographics.pdf

Passel, J. S. (2006). Size and characteristics of the unauthorized migrant population in the U.S. Retrieved from http://www.pewhispanic.org/2006/03/07/size-and-characteristics-of-the-unauthorized-migrant-population-in-the-us/

Passel, J. S., & Cohn, D. (2016a). Children of unauthorized immigrants represent rising share of K-12 students. Pew Research Center.

Passel, J. S., & Cohn, D. (2016b). Overall Numbers of U.S. Unauthorized Immigrants Holds Steady Since 2009. Retrieved November 1, 2022, from file:///C:/Users/ltule-romain/Downloads/PH_2016.09.20_Unauthorized_FINAL.pdf

Passel, J. S., & Cohn, D. (2018a). Most unauthorized immigrants live with family Members. *Pew Research Center: Washington, DC, USA*.

Passel, J. S., & Cohn, D. (2018b). US unauthorized immigrant total dips to lowest level in a decade. *Pew Research Center*, *17*.

Passel, J. S., & Cohn, D. (2019). Mexicans decline to less than half the US unauthorized immigrant population for the first time. *Pew Research Center*, *12*.

Percy, W. H., Kostere, K., & Kostere, S. (2015). Generic Qualitative Research in Psychology. *Qualitative Report*, *20*(2), 76–85. https://doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2015.2097

Plyler v. Doe. (n.d.). *Oyez*. Retrieved November 4, 2022, from https://www.oyez.org/cases/1981/80-1538

Pryor, C. B. (2001). New Immigrants and Refugees in American Schools. *Childhood Education*, *77*(5), 275–275.

Ribero, A. M. (2013). "In Lak'Ech (You Are My Other Me):" Mestizaje as a Rhetorical Tool that Achieves Identification and Consubstantiality. *Arizona Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies*, *2*, 22-41.

Representative Espaillat introduces the Uplifting Immigrant Students Act. Rep. Adriano Espaillat. (2023, March 12). https://espaillat.house.gov/media/press-releases/representative-espaillat-introduces-uplifting-immigrant-students-act

Rose, J. (2022, September 7). *After del Rio, some Haitian migrants found safety in the U.S.. but many have not.* NPR. https://www.npr.org/2022/09/07/1120775143/after-del-rio-some-haitian-migrants-found-safety-in-the-u-s-but-many-have-not

Romero, C. (2015). What we know about belonging from scientific research. *Mindset Scholars Network, Center for Advanced Study in the Behavioral Sciences, Stanford University. Retrieved from http://mindsetscholarsnetwork. org/wp-content/uploads/2015/09/What-We-Know-About-Belonging. pdf.*

Rodriguez, S., Monreal, T., & Howard, J. (2020). “It’s about hearing and understanding their stories”: Teacher empathy and socio-political awareness toward newcomer undocumented students in the New Latino South. Journal of Latinos and Education, 19(2), 181–198. https://doi.org/10.1080/15348431.2018.

Roxas, K. (2011). Creating communities: working with refugee students in classrooms. *Democracy & Education, 19*(2).

Rincón, A. (2010). *Undocumented immigrants and higher education si se puede!* (1st. paperback ed. ed.). El Paso: LFB Scholarly Publishing LLC.

Rubinstein-Avila, E. (2017). Immigration and Education: What Should K-12 Teachers, School Administrators, and Staff Know? *The Clearing House*, *90*(1), 12–17. https://doi.org/10.1080/00098655.2016.1234817

Russell, F. S. (2022). *The Invisibility of UndocuBlack Students within the Undocumented Community in Higher Education*. ProQuest Dissertations Publishing.

Saldaña, J. (2021). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers* (4th ed.). SAGE

Salinas, C., Vickery, A. E., & Franquiz, M. (2016). Advancing Border Pedagogies: Understandings of Citizenship Through Comparisons of Home to School Contexts. The High School Journal, 99(4), 322–336. https://doi.org/10.1353/hsj.2016.0012

Salinas Velasco, C. F., Mazumder, T., & Enriquez, L. E. (2015). “It’s Not Just a Latino Issue”: Policy Recommendations to Better Support a Racially Diverse Population of Undocumented Students. *InterActions: UCLA Journal of Education and Information Studies*, *11*(1).

Siegel, A., Esqueda, M., Berkowitz, R., Sullivan, K., Astor, R. A., & Benbenishty, R. (2019). Welcoming Parents to Their Child's School: Practices Supporting Students With Diverse Needs and Backgrounds. *Education and Urban Society*, *51*(6), 756–784. https://doi.org/10.1177/0013124517747682

Sanchez, R. E. C., & So, M. L. (2015). UC berkeley's undocumented student program: Holistic strategies for undocumented student equitable success across higher education. *Harvard Educational Review*, *85*(3), 464-477. doi:10.17763/0017-8055.85.3.464

Sanchez, S., Freeman, R., & Martin, P. (2018). *"Stressed, overworked, and not sure whom to trust: How public school educators are navigating recent immigration enforcement".* ().University of California Project. Retrieved from https://www.civilrightsproject.ucla.edu/research/k-12-education/immigration-immigrant-students/stressed-overworked-and-not-sure-whom-to-trust-the-impacts-of-recent-immigration-enforcement-on-our-public-school-educators/teachers-Immig-Enforcement-DRAFT-7.pdf

Scully, J. E. (2016). Going to School in the United States: Voices of Adolescent Newcomers. *TESOL Journal*, *7*(3), 591–620. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesj.226

Short, D. J., & Boyson, B. A. (1997). *Secondary Newcomer Programs in the United States: 1996-97 Directory*. CREDE, Center for Applied Linguistics.

Stanford Law School Policy Lab, Stanford Law School Youth and Education Law Project, & California Charter Schools Association. (2007, June). *Protecting Undocumented and Vulnerable Students*. Retrieved August 25, 2022, from https://dignityinschools.org/wp-

content/uploads/2017/12/CCSA-YELP-SLS-Policy-Lab-Protecting-Undocumented-Students-.pdf

Statement on the effects of deportation and forced separation on immigrants, their families, and communities. (2018b). *American Journal of Community Psychology*, doi:10.1002/ajcp.12256

Status of the U.S. Refugee Admissions Program. (2017). (). Washington: Federal Information & News Dispatch, LLC. Retrieved from Health Research Premium Collection; Military Database; ProQuest One Academic http://proxy.libraries.smu.edu/login?url=https://www.proquest.com/reports/status-u-s-refugee-admissions-program/docview/1955028226/se-2

Stegelin, D. A. (2017). Strategies for supporting immigrant students and families: Guidelines for school personnel.

Stone, R. (2017, September 6,). Community colleges 'stand with' undocumented immigrants; *Advocate OakCliff* Retrieved from https://oakcliff.advocatemag.com/2017/09/community-colleges-stand-undocumented-immigrants/

Stubel, M. (2014, October 31). Child Deportations: How Many Minors Does the U.S. Actually Send Home? Retrieved from https://bipartisanpolicy.org/blog/us-child-deportations/

St. Amant, H. G., Schrager, S. M., Peña-Ricardo, C., Williams, M. E., & Vanderbilt, D. L. (2018). Language Barriers Impact Access to Services for Children with Autism Spectrum Disorders. *Journal of Autism and Developmental Disorders*, *48*(2), 333–340. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10803-017-3330-y

Suárez-Orozco, C. (2017). The Diverse Immigrant Student Experience: What Does it Mean for Teaching? *Educational Studies (Ames)*, *53*(5), 522–534. https://doi.org/10.1080/00131946.2017.1355796

Suárez-Orozco, C., Gaytán, F. X., Bang, H. J., Pakes, J., O'Connor, E., & Rhodes, J. (2010). Academic trajectories of newcomer immigrant youth. *Developmental Psychology, 46*(3), 602–618. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0018201

Suárez-Orozco, C., Katsiaficas, D., Birchall, O., Alcantar, C. M., Hernandez, E., Garcia, Y., . . . Teranishi, R. T. (2015). Undocumented undergraduates on college campuses: Understanding their challenges and assets and what it takes to make an undocufriendly campus. *Harvard Educational Review, 85*(3), 427-463. doi:10.17763/0017-8055.85.3.427

Suárez-Orozco, C., & Suárez-Orozco, M. M. (2009). *Children of immigration*. Harvard University Press.

Suárez-Orozco, C., Martin, M., Alexandersson, M., Dance, L. J., & Lunneblad, J. (2013). Promising practices: Preparing children of immigrants in New York and Sweden. *The children of immigrant in school: A comparative look at integration in the United States and Western Europe*, 204-251.

Sugarman, J. (2019). Legal protections for K-12 English learner and immigrant-background students. *Migration Policy Institute*, *3*.

Sulkowski, M. L. (2017). *Unauthorized immigrant students in the united states: The current state of affairs and the role of public education* doi://doi-org.proxy.libraries.smu.edu/10.1016/j.childyouth.2017.04.006

Tanenbaum, C., Boyle, A., Soga, K., Le Floch, K. C., Golden, L., Petroccia, M., ... & O'Day, J. (2012). National Evaluation of Title III Implementation: Report on State and Local Implementation. *Office of Planning, Evaluation and Policy Development, US Department of Education*.

Tang Yan, C., Bachour, A., Pérez, C. J., Ansaldo, L. P., Santiago, D., Jin, Y., Li, Z., Mok, Y. S., Weng, Y., & Martinez, L. S. (2022). Partnering with immigrant families to promote language justice and equity in education. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 70*(3–4), 433–457. https://doi.org/10.1002/ajcp.12604

Torres, L. (2018). Latinx? *Latino Studies, 16*(3), 283–285. https://doi.org/10.1057/s41276-018-0142-y

Tran, L. (2018, Sept. 20,). A school-to-deportation pipeline? Retrieved from https://www.aclunc.org/blog/school-deportation-pipeline

The Obama Deportation Debacle. (2014). New York Times (Online).

Turney, K., & Kao, G. (2009). Barriers to School Involvement: Are Immigrant Parents Disadvantaged? *The Journal of Educational Research (Washington, D.C.), 102*(4), 257–271. https://doi.org/10.3200/JOER.102.4.257-271

United States, C. (2006). *Porous borders and downstream costs: The cost of illegal immigration on state, county, and local governments : Hearing before the committee on government reform, house of representatives, one hundred ninth congress, second session, august 14, 2006* U.S. G.P.O. :--For sale by the Supt. of Docs., U.S. G.P.O.

United States Department of Education (2015) *Education Department Releases Resource Guide on Supporting Undocumented Students in High School and College*. (2015, October 20).

Retrieved October 4, 2022, from https://www.ed.gov/news/press-releases/education-department-releases-resource-guide-supporting-undocumented-students-high-school-and-college

United States Homeland Security: Immigration Customs Enforcement. (2018, October 07). Retrieved October 4, 2022, from https://www.ice.gov/

Vargas, J. A. (2018). *Dear america : Notes of an undocumented citizen*. New York, NY: HarperCollins Publishers.

Verma, S., Maloney, P., & Austin, D. W. (2017). The school to deportation pipeline: The perspectives of immigrant students and their teachers on profiling and surveillance within the school system. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 673*(1), 209-229. doi:10.1177/0002716217724396

Victor, K. F., Benitez, J., Martinez, W., & Justo-Sanchez, J. (2021). LANGUAGE ACQUISITION AND PROFICIENCY FOR IMMIGRANT CHILDREN IN K–12. *Learning to Read the World and the Word: School-University-Community Collaboration to Enrich Immigrant Literacy and Teacher Education*, 63.

Wang, Q. J. (2021). *Beautiful country : a memoir* (First edition.). Doubleday.

Wangensteen, L. L. (2017). Building undocumented student support in higher education through a culturally-responsive lens. Retrieved from https://www.nacada.ksu.edu/Resources/Clearinghouse/View-Articles/Building-Undocumented-Student-Support-in-Higher-Education-Through-a-Culturally-Responsive-Lens.aspx

Whipps, M. D. M., & Yoshikawa, H. (2016). Mixed-status immigrant families in the United States: The role of social justice in intervention research. In S. S. Horn, M. D. Ruck, & L. S. Liben (Eds.), *Equity and justice in developmental science: Implications for young people, families, and communities* (pp. 231–255). Elsevier Academic Press. https://doi.org/10.1016/bs.acdb.2016.04.003

Zong, J., & Batalova, J. (2015). The Limited English Proficient Population in the United States in 2013. Migration Information Source. *The Online Journal of the Migration Policy Institute*.https://www.migrationpolicy.org/article/limited-english-proficient-population-united-states-2013