Educational Leaders Bridging the Home, School, Community Nexus During Times of Deportability

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A Dissertation submitted to

The Faculty of
The School of Education
of The George Washington University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Education

August 31, 2023

Dissertation directed by

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Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my tiny, but mighty, village.

Mateo, mi regalito de Dios. ¡Te amo tano mi amor! Mateo you bring me more joy than you will ever know. With every meeting and class, you would always ask if, "We won?" Well we did: ¡lo hicimos-ganamos! You were along for the ride from day one and despite being so little, you supported, encouraged and were patient with me. Mateo you are my motivation and my reason for everything good in my life. I love you more than you will ever imagine. ¡Te amo mucho mucho!

Mom, you held down my tiny little fort so I could dedicate my time and energy to my classes and writing my dissertation. You drove me to class, helped with breakfast, lunch, dinner and snacks galore all while watching Mateo, and not to mention countless breakfast dates with Mateo at IHOP. Without a doubt, I would not be at this point without your help and endless support! I can't say thank you enough! I love you mom!

Tiffany, you dropped everything and came to help with Mateo, so I could focus on writing, not once but twice! I wrote my entire chapter three because you gave me the opportunity to write in silence and free of any adult responsibilities! I love you!

Rey, I met you on my last day of class. Since then you have motivated and pushed me to "ger er done." Well love, I got "er done"! You believe in me. You push me. You support me unconditionally. I am forever grateful for you, all of you. ¡Te adoro y te amo!

Dad, I did it! You were my number one cheerleader here on earth and I felt you cheering me on from the heavens above. You told me you knew I would be your "Dra Ledesma" and I finally did it. Not being able to celebrate with you or feel your strong hug after my defense was so hard, **but** I knew without a doubt you were right there with me in

that room. With every huge milestones I just heard your voice saying, “Yes! That’s my baby!” with your arms and hands pumped upward. I love and miss you so much and this life without you, is just not the same.

Acknowledgments

This dissertation and my doctoral journey is the result of not only the unwavering love and support from my tiny village, but also determination, drive, ambition and the generous contributions from the following individuals and groups.

Dr. Christine W. Nganga, you pushed me with a tenacious force. You are a pillar of strength and I am confident that without you as my chair, I would never be as proud of this work. Your passion is infectious and drove me to want to continue to push forward. You were always thoughtful and patient with your feedback and without a doubt, you shaped who I am today and who I will be in the future!

I am also thankful to Dr. Jennifer K. Clayton, committee member, professor, and my dissertation methodologist for her dedication, thoughtfulness, and guidance with my work. You were always willing and able to sit and talk with me while I tried to make sense of my methodology!

I am also thankful to Dr. Kelly Sherrill Linkous, committee member, professor and cohort advisor. Our journey began back in my Ed.S. program. You reminded me that I could do more for our families and empowered me with the knowledge to do so!

I am appreciative of my outside readers, Dr. Amanda Schwartz and Dra. Antonette Aragon. Dr. Schwartz, I have had the pleasure of knowing you for over 12-years. You started as my professor and have turned into my mentor. I could not imagine this huge milestone without you. Dra. Aragon, thank you for being a part of my team! Your feedback and input during my dissertation helped to show me that this work really is relevant and educators like you are out there doing the work!

I appreciate and am grateful for my colleagues in AXCohort15, especially Autem, Grand, Naudia and Dara.

Finally, I am eternally grateful for each of the participants who agreed to be part of this study! You all took time out of your days, during the height of a pandemic, to share your experiences. Each and every one of you embody all that is great in education and I am humbled to have had the opportunity to hear your experiences.

Abstract

Educational Leaders Bridging the Home, School, Community Nexus
During Times of Deportability

Given the potential threats and vulnerability surrounding the impact of deportation and deportability, strong home, school, community partnerships play a critical role in ensuring the academic success and well-being of immigrant Latino students. Utilizing tenets of social justice leadership (Theoharis, 2009) and Epstein's (2001) framework, this study examined how K–12 school leaders created systems of support for immigrant Latino students living with the persistent threat of parental deportation and a larger community threat of deportation.

I utilized a basic qualitative design to interview 14 principals and assistant principals across the United States to identify what the home, school, community partnership looks like for immigrant Latino students and families. Data analysis indicated four comparative themes: (a) "*Esto es mi comunidad*"/"This is my community"; (b) access to technology crossed any physical boundaries; (c) deportation is a way of life; and (d) "one student, all students": changes to school culture. This research aimed to reconceptualize the role of families in communities living with the threat of deportation and seek culturally appropriate definitions of how to successfully implement equitable home, school, community partnerships in the school setting. This work has implications for school leaders who wish to apply a social justice advocacy lens to their intentional commitments to immigrant bilingual and multilingual families for the academic success of their students.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

The purpose of this dissertation was to explore how K–12 school leaders created support systems for immigrant Latino[1] students and families[2] living with the persistent threat of parental deportation and the larger community threat of deportation. The qualitative methodology was appropriate for identifying school administrators' practices and perceptions. Limited empirical research has focused on how educators understand immigration practices and how immigration impacts students' lives and learning (Zayas et al., 2015) and educators' teaching (Dabach, 2015). Children experiencing the deportation of a parent may also experience increased emotional and behavioral distress, including sleep problems, depression, anxiety, and lower grades (Baum et al., 2010; Brabeck & Xu, 2010; Dreby, 2012; Yoshikawa & Kalil, 2011; Zayas & Cook, 2016). With continued immigration policies and practices in the U.S., parental engagement is critical for immigrant students' success (Anthony-Newman, 2019; Chavez-Reyes, 2010; Cross, et al., 2019; Lopez et al., 2001; Romero, 2018). The intense fear of family separation can lead to ongoing trauma with negative implications for academic disruptions in a child's education (Lovato, 2018), as such, Latino immigrant students are likely to experience academic success when they feel safe and certain about their futures (Perez et al., 2009). With potential threats and vulnerability regarding deportation and deportability, school leaders influence the success of and what partnerships look like between the home, school, and community.

[1] For the purposes of this study, I use the term "Latino" to describe any person with ancestry in Latin America. I use the terms "Latino" or "Hispanic" depending on literature being cited. When the term "Hispanic" is used, it is either in reference directly from the literature or specific to prior data.

[2] I use the term "family" to refer to a child's primary caregiver, whether it is the parent(s), grandparent(s), older sibling(s), extended family (e.g., aunts/uncles), or friend.

Although Latino immigrant children face multifaceted and multilayered challenges, asset- or strengths-based research has shown their resiliency. Educating Latino immigrants produces future Latino leaders (Hayes-Bautista, 2004), supports a strengths-based positionality for Latinos' education anchored in the shared knowledge between home, school, and community (Yosso, 2005), and also provides greater access and awareness to community and family resources (Gándara, 1995). Despite these assets, challenges persist, such as living in poverty (Ayón, 2015; Pascal & Cohen, 2009), housing insecurity (Crawford, 2017), limited English proficiency (Anderson, et al., 2020; Hardin et al., 2009), acculturation stressors, poor academic performance, and high dropout rates (Alvarez de Davila & Michaels, 2016). Compounding these challenges are potential stressors related to the persistent threat of parental deportation or deportability.

Immigration to the United States

The United States has more immigrants than any other country (Connor & Lopez, 2016). In 2021, the Migration Policy Institute reported approximately 45.3 million people in the United States were born in another country, including Puerto Rico and other U.S. territories, of these approximately 11 million are unauthorized (Ward & Batalova, 2023). Mexicans and Central Americans comprised approximately 67% (7.4 million) of unauthorized immigrants in the United States. In 2019, about half of all unauthorized residents lived in three states: California (25%), Texas (16%), and New York (8%). Eighty-one percent lived in 176 counties with 10,000 or more unauthorized immigrants. The top five counties representing 20% of all unauthorized immigrants are Los Angeles County, California; Harris County, Texas; Dallas County, Texas; Cook County, Illinois; and Orange County, California (Esterline & Batalova, 2019)

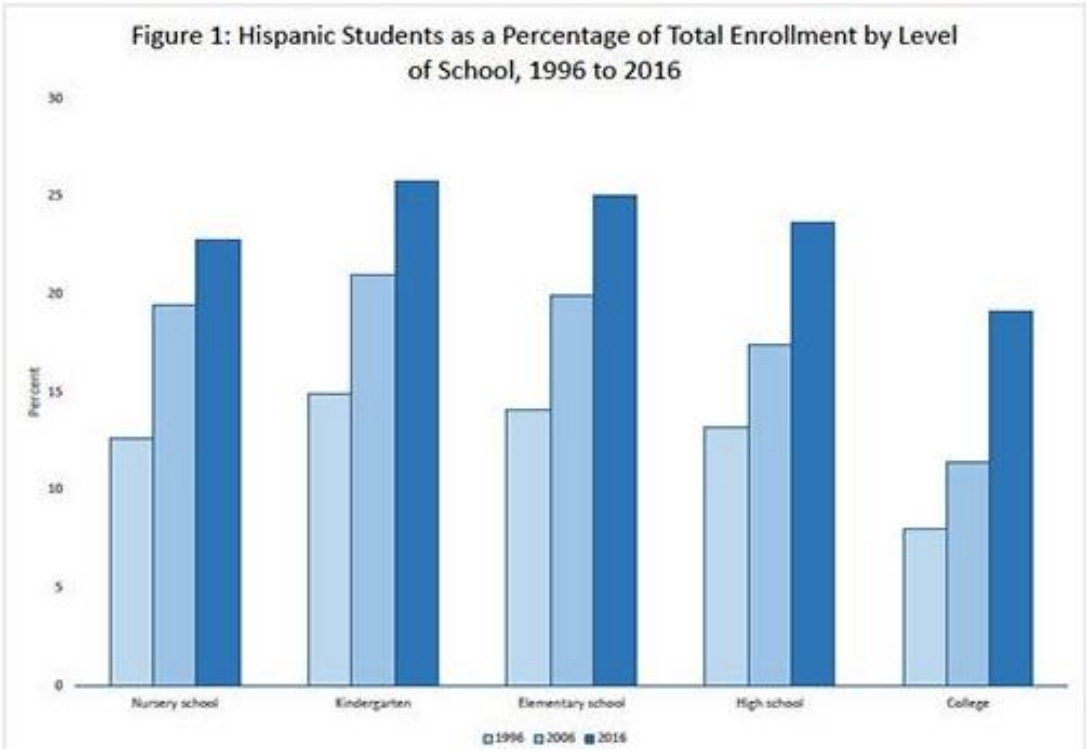
In 2019, approximately 17.8 million children under 18 lived with at least one immigrant parent, accounting for 26% of the 68.9 million children under 18 in the United States, an increase from 13% in 1990 and 19% in 2000 (Esterline & Batalova, 2019). Eighty-eight percent (15.6 million) of all children were second-generation, with the remaining 12% (2.2 million) having been born outside the United States (Zong et al., 2019). In 2019, approximately 4.3 million unauthorized immigrants lived with one or more children under 18. Of this group, 81% (3.5 million) resided with at least one U.S. citizen under 18, and 19% (806,000) lived with children who were not U.S. citizens (Esterline & Batalova, 2019).

Latinos and the U.S. School System

Hispanics are the fastest-growing ethnic group in the United States (Flores, 2017), accounting for more than half the growth in the U.S. population between 2000 and 2010 (Bauman, 2017). By 2019, 60.5 million people self-identified as Hispanic or Latino; 33% (19.8 million) were immigrants, and 67% (40.6 million) were native-born citizens (Esterline & Batalova, 2019). As the largest ethnic or racial minority, the Hispanic population is predicted to increase to 119 million by 2060 (United States Census Bureau, 2017). With this growth in population, the number of Hispanic students in schools has also increased. Between fall 2009 and fall 2020, the percentage of Hispanic public school students increase from 22 to 28 percent, while the number of White students decreased from 54 to 46 percent and Black decreased from 17 to 15 percent ("Racial/Ethnic Enrollment in Public Schools," 2022). Figure 1 shows the increase in Hispanic students across all education levels.

Figure 1

The Increase in Hispanic Enrollment Across All Levels of Education



Note. From U.S. Census Bureau Population Survey, School Enrollment Supplement files, 1996–2006.

In the fall of 2014, the percentage of students enrolled in public elementary and secondary schools who identified as White was less than 50% for the first time since the information was collected. In contrast, the number of Hispanic students increased from 9.3 million (19%) in 2004 to 12.8 million (25%) in 2014. The number of White students enrolled in public schools will continue to decrease, while the number of Hispanics will increase. By the fall of 2026, White students will account for 45% of total enrollment, while the number of Hispanics will increase to 14.9 million by 2026 and account for 29% of the total enrollment (McFarland et al., 2017). The increase in Hispanic students has correlated with an increase of students identified as limited English proficient. In 2019

approximately 46% (20.7 million) of the 44.6 million immigrants aged 5 and older were limited English proficient; of these, more than 75% identified as Hispanic or Latino. The next most commonly spoken languages were Arabic, Chinese, and Vietnamese; however, each accounted for about 2% of English language learners (ELLs; Office of English Language Acquisition, 2017).

Barriers to the Education of Immigrant Students

All countries have had immigration, but none has had as much sustained immigration as the United States (Connor & Lopez, 2016). Each immigrant's adaptation occurs based on society's response to newcomers and the effectiveness of the U.S. educational system in educating immigrant children from diverse economic, social, ethnic, cultural, linguistic, and religious backgrounds (Rong & Preissle, 2009). Supportive relationships with families, peers, teachers and administrators supported immigrants' academic success (Crawford & Witherspoon Arnold, 2018).

Research on the education of young immigrant children is significant due to their right to public education (457 U. S. 210-216) and their increasing numbers in the public school system. Being an immigrant student in the United States presents challenges and barriers. Latino students disproportionately live in poverty (Fix & Passel, 2002; Passel & Cohen, 2009; Suarez-Orozco et al., 2011), with living conditions characterized by larger household sizes, smaller residential units, and crowded housing compared to non-Latino students (Alvarez de Davila & Michaels, 2016). ELL students with parents with little education and low family incomes are less likely to come from literacy-rich environments (Anderson, et al., 2020; Gonzalez & Uhing, 2008; Johnson, et al., 2016; Snow et al., 1998). Subsequently, young Latinos are likelier to start elementary school less prepared,

experience failure and retention, receive suspensions or expulsions, and drop out of school before graduating (Adair, 2015; Behnke et al., 2010; Fuller & Garcia Coll, 2010; Galindo & Fuller, 2010; Hemphill & Vannemann, 2011).

The achievement gap, or the outcome differences between populations, indicates proficiency differences in math, science, and reading scores and graduation rates for children of color, including immigrant students. In 2015, eighth-grade Latino students scored 23 points below their White counterparts in mathematics on the National Assessment of Educational Progress assessment. Also, Latino students had the lowest graduation rate of any ethnic population, at approximately 18 percent not completing a high school diploma or GED (Pew Research Center, 2015).

Scholars have historically used the term *achievement gap* when discussing minorities; however, researchers have begun using *opportunity gap* to address disparities in experiences and education access (Adair, 2015). Addressing disparities from an opportunity gap lens includes several factors that can impact Latino immigrant students. Due to funding disparities between urban and suburban schools, schools in impoverished areas tend to have inexperienced or noncertified teachers and lack resources. Compounding the lack of resources is an increase in Latino immigrant students (Adair, 2015), resulting in Latinos' overrepresentation in the lower end of educational testing and a higher dropout rate (Alvarez de Davila & Michaels, 2016). Additionally, Latinos remain overrepresented in low-income communities, with 35% living below the poverty level (Lopez & Velasco, 2011). Children who grow up in poverty tend to have lower grades and poorer standardized test scores than their counterparts from higher-income families (Ansell, 2011; Balfanz & Legters, 2006; Guskey, 2011; Hopson & Lee, 2011;

Reardon, 2011; Stuart & Hahnel, 2011). Further, low-income communities tend to have few after-school activities (Deschenes et al., 2010; Ferguson et al., 2007). Many Latinos living in poverty struggle academically and have limited support for themselves and their families.

Parental Deportation and the Education of Their Children

Although family separation can occur in any region of the world, it occurs the most among immigrants from Latin America. The U.S. Department of Homeland Security, the PEW Research Center, and the Center for Migration Studies indicated that approximately five to six million undocumented immigrants came from Central America between 2010 and 2015 (Baker, 2017). Of these immigrants, 90% of the 3.7 million immigrants deported between 2003 and 2015 came from Mexico or Central America (Capps, Hooker, et al., 2015). In 2019, The Migration Policy Institute estimated there was a historical high number of immigrants in the U.S. with an approximate 44.9 million immigrants, of whom approximately 11 million were unauthorized and 67% of these individuals coming from Mexico and Central America. The U.S. Customs and Border Protection identified approximately 1.8 million enforcement encounters[3] in 2019 at either the southern or northern borders. In 2021, the majority of enforcement encounters (1.7 million) occurred at the US–Mexico border, a record high compared to 458,000 encounters in 2020 and 978,000 in 2019 (Esterline & Batalova, 2019). U.S. Customs and Border Protection identified 480,000 encounters of children and adults (i.e., family units) in 2021 and approximately 147,000 unaccompanied children along the Southwest border, indicating a six-fold increase from 71,000 family units and 33,000 unaccompanied

[3] U.S. Customs and Border Protection uses the term "encounter" to identify apprehensions and expulsions of individuals.

minors in 2020 (Esterline & Batalova, 2019). Most unaccompanied children arrested at the border in 2021 came from Guatemala and Honduras, with fewer from Mexico and El Salvador. Although numbers along the border have increased, Immigration and Customs Enforcement (ICE) arrests from the U.S. interior have declined. ICE agents made approximately 741,000 arrests in 2021 due to a change in focus during the COVID-19 pandemic (Esterline & Batalova, 2019).

Deportability is the "specific vulnerability to arrest and spatial removal, as well as linked legal penalties, such as the loss of rights to future 'legal' immigration" (Talavera et al., 2010, p. 166). Deportability does not mean only deportation, but also the constant and significant possibility of being apprehended and deported in everyday life (Coutin, 2000; Talavera et al., 2010). The fear and vulnerability caused by deportability can affect how immigrants perceive their places in society and their interactions with educational systems (Jefferies, 2014). This stress of potential parental deportation or deportability can cause heightened fear and anxiety and disrupted sleeping and eating. Families' fear of detention and deportation policies can has a negative impact on financial security, social-emotional well-being, children's behavior and performance in school (Brabeck & Xu, 2010; Lovato, 2018; Romero, 2008).

U.S.-born children of undocumented immigrants face many stressors related to their parents' undocumented status, including short and long-term mental health effects, posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD)-like symptoms, academic decline at schools, and economic hardships (Brabeck et al., 2014; Menjivar & Cervantes, 2016; Yoshikawa & Kalil, 2011). Economic hardship can contribute to housing insecurity and overcrowded living conditions (Ayón et al., 2012), and food insecurity can adversely impact children's

health, growth, and development. In order to best support immigrant students, educators must become familiar with how a "parents' legal status [may] affects their children's academic performance" and the implication that increased hostility towards immigrant families in political discourse can have on a child's emotional well-being and school success (Brabeck & Xu, 2010, p. 356).

Individuals with undocumented status have limited access to and use of health care, making fewer visits to health providers than U.S. citizens (Ortega et al., 2009). Children of undocumented parents often miss important educational experiences critical for their development. For example, they are less likely to be enrolled in public preschool programs and likelier to have less access to positive development-promoting activities than children of citizens or U.S. residents (Crosnoe, 2006; Hernandez et al., 2008; Kalil & Chen, 2008; Kalil & Crosnoe, 2009; Matthews & Ewen, 2006; Ortega et al., 2009; Yoshikawa, 2011). Therefore, fear of deportation limits children's access to critical educational opportunities.

287(g) Agreements and Sanctuary Cities

The ICE 287(g) program includes partnerships between state and local law enforcement agencies for limited immigration law enforcement functions, such as identifying and removing undocumented individuals (U.S. ICE, 2019). This voluntary law provides staff and local resources for cooperation with ICE in immigration enforcement (Partelow & Wolgin, 2018). ICE agents and the requesting law enforcement agency sign a memorandum of agreement that indicates the scope, duration, and limitations of the delegation of authority. As of October 2018, there were 78 law enforcement agencies across 20 states participating in 287(g) programs. Supporters have

suggested that the 287(g) enables state and local law enforcement to identify, arrest, and serve warrants to foreign-born individuals with criminal charges or convictions, subsequently reducing the numbers of gang members, sex offenders, and murderers (U.S. ICE, 2019). Opponents of the law have indicated that 287(g) may cause individuals to avoid reporting crimes to law enforcement, resulting in a harmful economic impact, racial profiling, and other civil rights violations (Partelow & Wolgin, 2018).

The increased fear due to 287(g) has caused some leaders to declare their cities sanctuary cities (America's Voice, 2019). There is no single definition of a sanctuary city. A sanctuary jurisdiction includes cities, counties, and states with laws, ordinances, regulations, resolutions, policies, or other practices to obstruct immigration enforcement and shield individuals who have committed crimes from ICE. In sanctuary jurisdictions, authorities refuse to comply with or prohibit local agencies from complying with ICE detainers, placing unreasonable conditions or detainer acceptance[4]; deny ICE access to interview individuals incarcerated; or impede communication or information exchange between local and federal ICE officers (Griffith & Vaughan, 2021). There are sanctuary cities across California, Colorado, Connecticut, Florida, Georgia, Iowa, Illinois, Kansas, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Maryland, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Nebraska, New Jersey, New Mexico, Nevada, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Virginia, Vermont, Washington, and the District of Columbia (Griffith & Vaughan, 2021).

[4] An immigration detainer is a notice DHS issues to federal, state, and local law enforcement agencies (LEA) to inform the LEA that ICE will assume custody of an individual in the LEA's custody.

Sanctuary Jurisdiction

Some school district leaders have followed the lead of certain counties, cities, and states in establishing precautions to protect immigrant populations. While many schools have their own policies, the purpose of sanctuary school policies is to reinforce and protect the constitutional and statutory rights of all students and support educational missions (National Immigration Law Center, 2018). In an established sanctuary school, employees collaborate to implement sanctuary policies and protections to ensure that federal agencies respect constitutional rights and do not undermine the rights or needs of students and their families in pursuing an education.

The authority for sanctuary school policies comes from many sources, including the U.S. Constitution and U.S. Supreme Court; federal statutes; federal agency guidance; state constitutions, statutes, and agency guidance; and city, county, and other local laws or ordinances (National Immigration Law Center, 2018). Each school's resolution could be based on some common laws or statutes; however, many have additional or unique protections. As set out below, the *Plyler v. Doe* decision, along with the Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA), Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, and the McKinney-Vento Homeless Assistance Act, provide some protections for undocumented students.

Given these laws and statutes, K–12 school leaders across the country have established their institutions as sanctuary jurisdictions. For example, Washington, DC, was redeclared a sanctuary jurisdiction shortly before President Donald Trump took office. Historically, DC has not been a center of immigration to the United States; however, the area has emerged as a new destination for immigrants since the 1980s

(Singer, 2004). The population of immigrants in DC increased from 130,000 in 1970 to 95,117 in 2015. Immigrants accounted for approximately 14.1% of the district's population out of a total population of 634,408. The top countries of origin for immigrants were El Salvador (15.3%), China (4.9%), Ethiopia (4.7%), Mexico (4%), and India (3.9%). Of the immigrants in DC, 25,000 (26%) had undocumented status and accounted for 3.9% of the total population in 2014. Approximately 23,979 people in the district lived with at least one undocumented family member between 2010 and 2014, and 7,572 (7%) children lived with at least one undocumented family member (Mathema, 2017). The growth in immigrants included an increase in languages outside of English. Among all DC immigrants, Spanish (38%) is the most commonly spoken language, followed by English (23%), French (6%), and Chinese (4%; Tatian et al., 2018).

Plyler v. Doe

Many K–12 school sanctuary resolutions include the Supreme Court case *Plyler v. Doe* (1982), a landmark decision (National Immigration Law Center, 2018) whereby "states cannot constitutionally deny students a free public education on account of their immigration status" (457 U. S. 210-216). In a 5–4 vote, the court found that any resources used to include undocumented students from public school outweighed the harms presented to society by denying them an education. The court based its ruling on the 14th Amendment, which indicates, "No State shall…deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws" (457 U. S. 210-216.). Under this provision, the court held that if educators provide free public education to U.S. citizens and lawfully present foreign-born students, they cannot deny education to undocumented children without "showing that it furthers some substantial state interest" (457 U. S. 210-216.).

Furthermore, the court found that withholding education would not provide these students the ability to live within civic institutions and the possibility of becoming contributing participants in society (457 U.S. 202).

Although *Plyler v. Doe* (1982) provided equal access to education, regardless of documentation status, the case has not gone unchallenged. For example, in 2011, Alabama leaders enacted a law requiring school administrators to determine the immigration status of newly enrolled students. The result was a significant increase in absenteeism for Latino students and fear and confusion in the schools. Supporters claimed that educating undocumented students degraded the overall quality of education. However, the court blocked the law (American Immigration Council, 2016). Although *Plyler* did not establish K–12 education as a fundamental right, other courts have applied its principles to strike down policies hindering a student's right to attend public school. *Plyler v. Doe* provided protection for students attending K–12 schools, regardless of immigration status. Therefore, school leaders establishing sanctuary resolutions can and should rely on this ruling (National Immigration Law Center, 2018).

Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act

FERPA, 20 U.S.C. Sec. 1232g (1974, as amended), and its accompanying regulations, 34 CFR part 99 (2012), provides the legal right to protect students' personally-identifiable information maintained in their education records. FERPA mandates that schools shall not release a student's personally-identifiable information without first obtaining the parent's or eligible child's consent, with several expectations (20 U.S.C. section 1232g(b)). Per the Legal Authority for "Sanctuary" School Policies by the National Immigration Law Center (2018), none of the exceptions (§

1232g(b)(1)(C)(ii)) "appear to be particularly vulnerable to use by immigration enforcement agents" (p. 5) at this time. One broad exemption under FERPA may apply to sanctuary schools. The definition of personally identifiable information protected under FERPA does not cover directory information, including the student's name, address, telephone listing, and date and place of birth. Within the context of ICE, place of birth can be sensitive information, as it could show that the person is not a U.S. citizen or national (8 C.F.R. § 1240.8(c)). ICE officials can use other sensitive information (e.g., address and date of birth) to find and detain students and individuals related to the students outside of school.

Directory information could be a risk for students or family members who are potential targets of immigration enforcement. Under FERPA (1974), educators may but are not required to release directory information after "public notice" and a "reasonable time" for the parent or eligible student to inform the school they do not want the information released without prior consent (P.L. 103-382). A strategy at many sanctuary K–12 schools is to provide public notice periodically but avoid asking students for information such as place of birth. School leaders could also refrain from asking students or parents for Social Security numbers when not required (e.g., during enrollment), as this action indicates that students must have Social Security numbers to enroll (P.L. 103-382).

Additional Federal Statutes

Three other statutes provide some protection for all students, including immigrant students, while in school (National Immigration Law Center, 2018). First, Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 indicates that leaders of schools and school districts receiving

federal funds from the U.S. Department of Education may not discriminate based on race, color, or national origin (42 U.S.C. § 2000(d) et seq.). Second, the McKinney-Vento Homeless Assistance Act (2000) requires that school and district leaders immediately enroll students considered homeless, regardless of immigration status (42 U.S.C. § 11434A(2)(b)(iv)). The McKinney-Vento Act, reauthorized in 2015 via Title IX, Part A of the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA; 42 U.S.C. § 11431 et seq), provides educational rights and support for students and young people experiencing homelessness. The McKinney-Vento Act's definition of homeless children and young people is "individuals who lack a fixed, regular, and adequate nighttime residence." The law includes children and young people who share the housing of other persons or have a primary public or private nighttime residence not designed for ordinary use as a regular sleeping accommodation for human beings; live in cars, parks, public spaces, abandoned buildings, substandard housing, bus or train stations, or similar settings; or are migratory children qualifying as homeless (42 U.S.C. § 11434A). The act requires enrolling students experiencing homelessness in school immediately, even if they lack the required documentation (42 U.S.C. § 11432(g)(3)(C)(i)(II)). Immigrant children and young people could need additional services to offset the challenges and barriers of attending and enrolling in school.

The Fourth Amendment protects against unreasonable searches and seizures and indicates there shall be no warrant issued without probable cause (U.S. Const., amend. IV). The Fourth Amendment indicates that law enforcement officials cannot enter a space to apprehend an individual without a judicial warrant (see *Terry v. Ohio*, 392 U.S. 1, 9). In the school setting, the Fourth Amendment applies if ICE agents physically enter the

campus to investigate, speak with, or detain a student; however, few court cases have addressed this activity. The reason for the limited number of cases could be the sensitive locations policy of the U.S. Department of Homeland Security/Legacy Immigration and Naturalization Service. The policy indicates that any K–12 public or private school, college, and adult/alternative school is a "sensitive location" where ICE agents "should not conduct enforcement activity unless certain outlined exigent circumstances exist" (American Immigration Council, 2021). However, the policy has exceptions for ICE involvement when there is a national security threat or terrorism, imminent danger to public safety, imminent risk of destroying evidence, or "prior approval" for entering the sensitive location. For example, if a pursuit leads ICE agents onto a school campus, they can enter the school grounds. The ICE Sensitive Locations Memo does not include activities such as

> Obtaining records, documents, and similar materials from officials or employees, providing notice to officials or employees, serving subpoenas, engaging in Student and Exchange Visitor Program compliance and certification visits, guarding or securing detainees, or participating in official functions of community meetings. (cite)

Thus, legal action during these activities is allowed.

The Educational Leader Supporting the Latino Student and Family

The presence or threat of ICE can affect a child's receptivity to learning, short-term academic performance, and overall access to schooling (Capps et al., 2007; Chaudry et al., 2010; Lopez & Lopez., 2010). Educators should prepare for situations when students' parents are detained or deported (Crawford, 2017; Thronson, 2008). Fear of educators collecting information (e.g., during school enrollment) about legal status or implying the need for this information can adversely impact a student's access to school (Martinez, 2008). Educational leaders who advocate for educating all students, including

those marginalized (e.g., immigrants and undocumented), should raise awareness of the necessity for change and make change happen (Theoharis, 2007).

As the number of immigrant Latino students in the United States has continued to increase (Marshall & Venta, 2021), educational leaders should find new ways to encourage successful home, school, and community partnerships. There is a strong correlation between parental involvement and academic success (Lowenhaupt, 2014). Given that all children, regardless of immigration status, have protected access to an education, educators should be able to cultivate learning environments for students' academic success. Outside the classroom, school leaders must be prepared to respond to Immigration and Customs Enforcement patrols and raids near school campuses and know adult family members or caregivers who can care for a child in this situation (Negrón, et al., 2017). Therefore, principals and assistant principals should provide resources and establish practices to encourage meaningful partnerships, especially for immigrant Latino students and their families.

Home, School, and Community Partnerships

Parent and family engagement are key pieces of the law focused on the low-income parents of "Title I–participating" children. Per the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) of 2015, 20 U.S.C. 6303(b) and 6311, each school district must reserve at least 1% of Title I funding for parent and family engagement. Ninety percent of Title I funds are allocated to high-need schools. Under Title I, schools must include parents and families of students of low-income backgrounds in decisions regarding how funds are spent (20 U.S.C. 6311). The leaders of all local education agencies receiving Title I funds must develop a written Parent and Family Engagement Policy in collaboration with

parents and family members to clearly outline family engagement policies, programs, activities, and procedures.

Epstein's (2001) framework for home, school, community partnerships presents the six types of parental involvement and partnership practices (see Figure 1). Schools, homes, and communities should contribute to collaborations and partnerships across contexts for students and families. Positive home and school relationships are essential to successful school practices (Epstein, 2001; Lowenhaupt, 2014; Schutz, 2006). Forming meaningful bonds at schools are means of fostering cooperation, commitment, and trust (Cohen-Vogel et al., 2010). Home, school, community partnerships also impact teacher expectations of student performance and achievement, especially within at-risk communities. Due to the changing demographics of public schools, several researchers have argued that traditional views of parental engagement and partnerships do not include certain communities (e.g., immigrants) in meaningful and empowering ways, contributing to continued marginalization based on race, ethnicity, class, language, and immigration status (Carreón et al., 2005; Chavez-Reyes, 2010; Lareau, 2003; Lopez et al., 2001; Valdés, 1996; Valenzuela, 1999; Villenas, 2002). Reconceptualizing the role of families in schools could be a way to seek culturally appropriate and equitable home, school, community partnerships.

Statement of the Problem

Educators have moved away from the context of parental involvement to focus on parental engagement. However, scholars and educators alike have continued striving for home, school, community partnerships. In the context of immigration, parent engagement in schools is critical (Carreón et al., 2005; Chavez-Reyes, 2010; Lopez et al., 2001). As

the Latino population continues to increase, educators should identify barriers between families and schools and support full collaborative partnerships (Dotson-Blake, 2010). Chavez-Reyes (2010) stated, "Many children of immigrants come from home situations that necessitate resources and information to bridge the linguistic and cultural gap and to access social and economic capital to navigate U.S. school" (p. 478). Immigrants are a marginalized population in society; therefore, improving engagement practices for immigrants "has the potential to contribute not only to academic achievement but also to an alteration, over time, of schools' core understanding of their role in promoting a more equal and more democratic society" (Schutz, 2006, p. 693). How school leaders and teachers engage marginalized families is critical for students and the community. However, what such partnerships should look like for immigrant Latino students living with the persistent threat of deportation remains unknown.

Purpose of Research and Research Questions

Research has not shown how K–12 educators support and maintain trust with their school communities, including undocumented immigrants, and how these relationships impact decision-making (Crawford, 2017). The purpose of this dissertation was to explore how K–12 school leaders created support systems for immigrant Latino students and families living with the persistent threat of parental deportation and the larger community threat of deportation. This literature review includes the research on Latino students in the school setting; the impact of deportation on families and children; the home, school, community nexus of partnerships; and the role of the educator. Research on deportation and its effects on the family unit, including children, remains limited. Therefore, there is a need for further research on the role of K–12 school leaders in

supporting students through home, school, and community partnerships. This study's literature review and methodology provided the basis for this research and further insight into supporting programming for this population.

Parental engagement is critical for immigrant students (Anderson, et al., 2020; Carreón et al., 2005; Chavez-Reyes, 2010; Lopez et al., 2001), yet home, school, community partnerships for immigrant Latino students living with the persistent threat of parental deportation or deportability remain understudied. The landscape of the public school system has changed. With approximately 5.8 million children living with an undocumented household member and 4.9 million having at least one undocumented parent (Connor, 2019) there is a need for further research on how educators support this student population.

Immigration status and policies that has impacted either the undocumented parent or child affects the child's daily life across contexts and situations, including school (Chaudry et al., 2010; Dabach, 2015; Gallo, 2014; Mangual Figueroa, 2013; Suárez-Orozco et al., 2011; Yoshikawa & Kholoptseva, 2013; Zayas & Cook, 2016). Scholars and educators have addressed how deportation has impacted the child and the family unit and identified the need for home, school, community partnerships. However, what supportive school collaborations look like for students and families fearful of deportation in their community is unknown. Thus, there is a need for research on how principals and assistant principals can support home, school, community partnerships for Latino students facing the omnipresent threat of parental deportation.

The study had the following research question (RQ) and subquestion (SQ):

RQ. How do principals and assistant principals interpret current practices in place to bridge the home, school, and community partnerships for Latino immigrant families during times of deportability?

SQ. How do principals and assistant principals create systems to support home, school, and community partnerships during times of deportability?

Family is a central component of the Latino community. Although the characteristics of the family dynamic have changed over time (Suro, 2007), for this study, the immigrant Latino family was a single-or two-family household, with the family including a child's primary caregivers, such as parents, grandparents, older siblings, extended family members (e.g., aunts and uncles) or family friend.

Statement of Potential Significance

Supportive relationships with families, peers, teachers, school leaders, and communities are crucial to immigrant Latino students' academic success (Crawford, 2017). This study was significant in showing how principals and assistant principals in diverse, urban school districts supported home, school, community partnerships while students faced deportability. Through a lens of social justice leadership, the study presented the leadership practices that contribute to such partnerships.

Another significance is the study's potential contribution to policy. Immigration, immigration reform, and public education have distinct policies, and this study could be a bridge between each reform. Educational administrators could use the study's findings to identify successful and unsuccessful approaches to forging partnerships. For bridging policies, this study indicates how to identify involvement in public schools with high numbers of immigrants living with the threat of deportability. The study also showed the characteristics and attributes of principals and assistant principals who effectively formed home, school, and community partnerships. Therefore, the findings could illustrate to

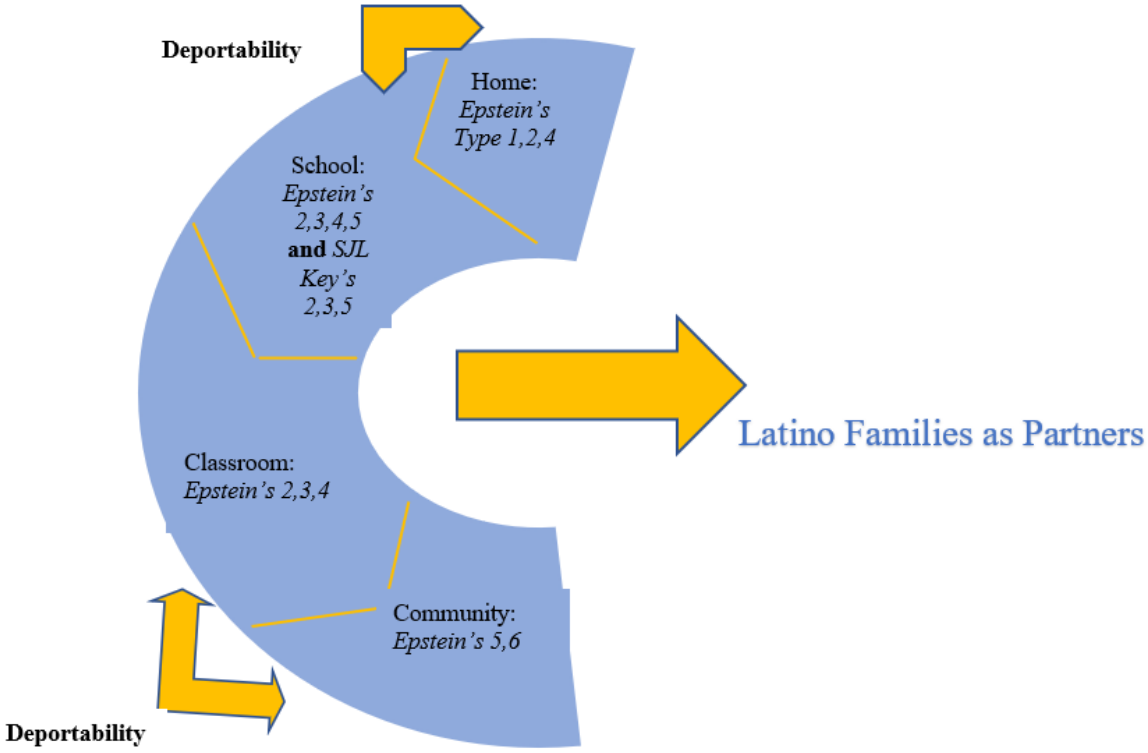
school leaders how to support Latino students, living in a marginalized community. Finally, this study impacted how I, as a Latino educator, worked with my students and approached their needs holistically.

Theoretical and Conceptual Frameworks

The goal of social justice leadership (SJL) is to eliminate cultural and social inequities within the school context (e.g., racism, poverty, and ableism; Theoharis, 2009). SJL is a way to support the advancement of marginalized students to benefit the school in the short term and society in the long term (Klassen & Chiu, 2010; Wilkinson, 2006). Immigrant students are a marginalized group. Home, school, community partnerships in education are another avenue for educational leaders to support Latino immigrant students and families. Educational scholars detailed in the following literature review have identified the need for parental engagement and home, school, community partnerships for Latino students; however, there are also critiques of the partnerships. This study addressed the critiques through the interview questions and the SJL lens. Figure 2 and Chapter 2 present the study's framework.

Figure 2

Home, School, Community Partnerships for Latino Immigrants



Based on the literature, I applied the SJL and Epstein's (2001) framework for developing home, school, community partnerships to critically analyze the role of principals and assistant principals in supporting these partnerships in communities with deportability. After the literature review, the chapter presents SJL and Epstein's framework and their interconnectedness and relationships to the RQs.

Summary of Methodology

This study had a qualitative basic interpretive design, which includes the following features:

- Studying the real-world context of people's lives
- Representing people's views and perspectives
- Purposefully attending to and accounting for the real-world conditions

- Contributing insights from new concepts to explain the behaviors and perceptions
- Acknowledging the possible relevance of multiple sources of evidence (Yin, 2016)

The rationale for selecting the qualitative basic interpretive design was to understand the practices and perceptions of principals and assistant principals in supporting Latino immigrant students living with the persistent threat of parental deportation within their homes or communities. Data collection occurred via semistructured interviews.

The qualitative basic interpretive approach has strengths and limitations. The semistructured interviews occurred in a one-on-one, virtual setting with an interview protocol, and each lasted approximately 60 minutes. The interview protocol included an introduction, open-ended questions, and probes. The data analysis process entailed organizing and preparing the raw data for analysis, reading through the data, coding the data (via a computer program), identifying themes and descriptions, and interpreting the themes and descriptions. The data analysis occurred while validating the accuracy of the information, exploring preestablished validity threats and qualitative reliability measures, and addressing my positionality and subjectivity.

Limitations

A limitation of this study is the absence of the voices of Latino children and parents. An additional limitation is a reliance on educational leaders to provide each family's immigration and documentation status and the perceived threat of deportation in the community. Given the sensitive nature of the information, the documentation status of students and their families remained protected under FERPA (20 U.S.C., Section 1232g; 34 CFR Part 99). Therefore, I relied on the secondhand information provided by the school leaders.

Delimitations

A delimitation of this study was a focus on principals and assistant principals and not the Latino immigrant students. The reason for this delimitation was to address the gap in the literature. The study focused on principals' and assistant principals' perceptions, practices, and mindsets to provide information useful for future policies and practices for immigrant students. An additional delimitation was that the study included only schools with immigrant populations.

Definitions of Key Terms

This section provides definitions of the study's key terms.

*Alien: "*Any person not a citizen or national of the U.S." (Association of State and Territorial Health Officials [ASTHO], 2010, p. 1).

Deportation: "The formal removal of a foreign national from the U.S. for violating an immigration law" (USA.gov, 2018).

Family engagement: Systematic inclusion of families in activities and programs for children's development, learning, and wellness in the planning, development, and evaluation of activities, programs and systems (Office of Early Childhood Development, 2016).

Family involvement: Family members supporting their children's education (e.g., attending school events, helping with homework, and communicating with teachers; Fantuzzo et al., 2000).

Family–school partnership: Families and school staff are equal partners as they engage in shared work and joint planning to promote positive child outcomes through a strength-based approach (Christenson & Sheridan, 2001; Sheridan & Kratochwill, 2007).

Family unit: Individuals, including a child under 18, parent, or legal guardian, apprehended with a family member by the U.S. Border Patrol (U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services, n.d.).

Foreign-born immigrants: People residing in the United States at the time of the population survey who were not U.S. citizens at birth. Foreign-born immigrants include naturalized U.S. citizens; lawful permanent immigrants; refugees and asylees; certain legal nonimmigrants, including those on student, work, or temporary visas); and persons residing without authorization (Child Trends, 2018).

Hispanic: According to the Associate Director of Latino Studies at Indiana University, Hispanic is a term for people who share Spanish as a common language (Garcia-Navarro, 2015).

Home, school, and community partnerships: "Assigns responsibilities to schools, to families, and to communities to share information, ideas, activities, and services with each other about schools and children's education" (Epstein, 2010, p. 82).

Immigrant: "Any alien in the U.S., except one legally admitted under specific nonimmigrant categories. The group includes both individuals that have entered the U.S. legally (legal aliens) and those that have entered the U.S. without inspection" (ASTHO, 2010).

Immigrant children: Children with at least one foreign-born parent. First-generation immigrant children were born outside the United States, while second-generation immigrants are born within the United States or its territories (Child Trends, 2018).

Immigration Customs Enforcement: The mission of ICE is to "protect America from the cross-border crime and illegal immigration that threatens national security and public safety" (Homeland Security, n.d.).

Latino: According to Martinez-Rivera from Indiana University, a Latino is "any person of Latin American descent residing in the United States" (Garcia-Navarro, 2015).

Mixed-status families: According to sociologist Dr. Cassaundra Rodriguez of the University of Nevada, mixed-status families include members with different immigration statuses (Rodriguez, 2018).

Natural-born citizen: "Any person born in the U.S. or born abroad as children of U.S. citizens. Many children with immigrant parents are U.S.-born and, therefore, native citizens. They are eligible for public benefits on the same terms as other citizens" (ASTHO, 2010).

Second-generation immigrant children: Any U.S.-born child with at least one foreign-born parent (Child Trends, 2018).

Unauthorized individual: Sometimes referred to as irregular, undocumented, illegal, or clandestine immigrants, unauthorized immigrants are unlawfully present in a country, whether they entered illegally or overstayed their visas (Bolter, 2019).

Undocumented individual:

> According to a 2004 Government Accountability Office (GAO) report, there is no federal definition of an undocumented immigrant. The GAO defined an "undocumented alien" as a person who enters the United States without legal permission or fails to leave the United States when their permissible time ends. (ASTHO, 2010, p. 1)

U.S.-born: People residing in the United States who are U.S. citizens in one of three categories: (a) born in one of the 50 states or District of Columbia; (b) born in U.S.

insular areas (e.g., Puerto Rico or Guam); or (c) born abroad to at least one U.S. citizen parent (Migration Policy Institute, n.d.)

Conclusion

The public school system is changing as the numbers of Latino immigrant students steadily increase (U.S. Department of Education, 2014; Zong et al., 2019). Despite the current political climate, limited empirical evidence has shown the impact of parental deportation on a child. Some researchers have shown that deportation causes increased emotional and behavioral distress in children, including sleep problems, depression, anxiety, and poorer grades (Baum et al., 2010; Brabeck & Xu, 2010; Dreby, 2012). The literature shows the need for home, school, and community partnerships for increased equity in parental involvement and engagement (Epstein, 2010) and the success of immigrant students (Chavez-Reyes, 2010). Therefore, this empirical study focused on the role of K–12 leaders in supporting home, school, community partnerships for Latino immigrant families living with the persistent threat of deportation and deportability within the community.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

At the national level, the debate on immigration has focused on adults, and less on the impact parental deportation has on children (Chaudry et al., 2010; Suárez-Orozco et al., 2011; Yoshikawa & Kholoptseva, 2013). Approximately five million children live in households with one or more undocumented parents (Capps, Hooker, et al., 2015). Immigration status and immigration policies that impact either the undocumented parent or child affect the child's daily life across contexts and situations, including school (Chaudry et al., 2010; Dabach, 2015; Gallo, 2014; Mangual Figueroa, 2013; Suárez-Orozco et al., 2011; Yoshikawa & Kholoptseva, 2013). In the context of immigration, family engagement in schools is critical to academic success (Anderson, et al., 2020; Carreón et al., 2005; Chavez-Rees, 2010; Lopez et al., 2001). There is widespread knowledge on the importance of family engagement; however, home, school, community partnerships for immigrant Latino families facing deportability remain understudied. Latinos are the largest ethnic and linguistic group, and 5.3 million children live with at least one undocumented parent (Capps, Hooker, et al., 2015). Therefore, educators should prepare to support the needs of all students, including those vulnerable to the effects of deportability and deportation.

Methodology

The literature search for this study included published articles, books, dissertations, and policy papers. This investigation returned relevant conceptual and research literature from 1970 to the present, focusing on work published between 2005 and 2022. The earlier literature included seminal work related to this research. The literature search for peer-reviewed literature occurred with the following databases and

academic libraries: Education Source, ERIC (EBSCO), ProQuest, PsycINFO, PsycArticles, Legal Source, SAGE Journals, and JSTOR. The search included the following keywords and combinations of keywords: *assistant principal(s), children or kids OR youth or child, deportation, deportability, detention, leadership, education, educational leader, educational administrator, family engagement, family involvement, home–school–community, immigration, Latino OR Hispanic, school, students, parents OR caregiver, principals OR administrators, parent engagement, parent involvement, perceptions OR attitudes OR opinions, stressors OR stress factors, and school, family, and community partnerships*.

Description and Critique of Scholarly Literature

The search on scholarly databases found articles related to the following themes:

- The impact of parental deportation
- The impact of deportation on the student
- Educational leadership role with Latino families
- Educational leaders' role in supporting immigrant students
- Parental engagement and involvement
- Home, school, community partnerships
- Educational leaders' role during immigration stressors (e.g., presence of immigration officials)

The inclusion criteria were peer-reviewed articles with schools and participants in the United States focused on K–12 educational systems. Exclusion criteria were articles on educational systems outside the United States and educational leaders in private or parochial schools. The literature review did not include articles that were not scholarly or peer-reviewed.

This chapter presents the research on the multilayered factors impacting Latino immigrant students living with the persistent threat of deportation. The first part of the literature review presents research and data on how detention and deportation impact children. Next, the chapter presents the Latino family and home, school, community collaboration. The literature review concludes with research on educational leaders in urban school districts. Each section presents key empirical research, study limitations, connections to gaps in the literature, and the conceptual or theoretical frameworks. The interconnectedness of the theoretical and conceptual frameworks is detailed as they relate to the RQ. The literature review shows the general impacts of deportation and educational leaders. By presenting the context of the family and the educational leader, the literature review provided the context needed to explore how to support Latino immigrant students living with the persistent threat of parental deportation and deportability.

Impact of Detention and/or Deportation

A parent's detention and deportation can cause family disintegration (Dreby, 2012; Vega, 2015). During times of change, schools can be a pillar of stability. Leaders and educators have legal responsibilities for all K–12 students, including undocumented students and their families. However, limited research has shown how to maintain trust and relationships with school communities where students and families fear deportation and deportability. As schools and communities diversify, educational leaders should conceptualize what inclusivity means for their schools' and communities' cultures (Crawford, 2017).

Parental Deportation and Academics

In 2017, approximately 18.2 million children under 18 lived with at least one immigrant parent (Zong et al., 2019). The U.S. Department of Homeland Security (2009) indicated that between 1998 and 2007, approximately 100,000 individuals deported were parents of U.S.-born citizens. Latino students are the largest ethnic group in public schools, and undocumented and documented immigrants have a right to a free, public K–12 education (Lopez & Lopez, 2010; Olivas, 2012). The law indicates that undocumented children should receive equal treatment under the law; however, equity does not always occur in education (Konigs, 2017). Accessing a quality education can be difficult due to poverty and restricted social services access (Fix & Passel, 2002; Passel & Cohen, 2009). Undocumented students or students impacted by their parents' immigration status and deportation frequently enroll in low-performing schools, have limited capital, and struggle to access information regarding resources and financial aid (Abrego, 2006; Enriquez, 2011; Gonzales, 2008; Orfield & Lee, 2006).

Students separated from their parents due to deportation struggle academically (Anthony-Newman, 2019; Dreby, 2015; Gindling & Poggio, 2012). Students affected by deportation are likely to be behind their same-aged peers, leading to an education gap. Within the education gap, students impacted by deportation repeat a grade due to schooling interruptions and a lack of academic preparation (Gindling & Poggio, 2012). However, students impacted by deportation and the education gap are likely to continue falling behind and may drop out of school at a higher rate than those not impacted by deportation. Students separated from their mothers have lower academic performance than those separated from their fathers (Gindling & Poggio, 2012). In addition, the child's

age during the deportation plays a role: the older the student, the greater the negative effects (Abrego, 2014; Artico, 2003; Patel et al., 2016; Schapiro et al., 2013).

Parent–child interaction around homework completion is an educational activity in which family members acquire and convey information about what it means to be a successful student (Wingard, 2007). Homework completion is democratic participation that links the public sphere (i.e., home and community) to the private space (i.e., school). For students with undocumented status or undocumented families or who speak another language, such interaction may be a challenge. Figueroa (2011) conducted a 23-month ethnographic study in Pennsylvania to examine how citizenship status impacted undocumented parents' and children's engagement in everyday activities. The participants included two families whose parents and eldest siblings identified as undocumented; the younger siblings were U.S.-born citizens. The parents found that citizenship issues (e.g., discussion of home country or immigration status) entered their homes through homework completion routines in two ways. First, when family members found citizenship paperwork in their homes, they felt their personal beliefs on citizenship could be accessible to the school and possibly become public knowledge. Second, when parents evaluated their children's educational progress using school-determined criteria, they questioned the services available to their children in the U.S. mainstream classroom (Figueroa, 2011). These instances showed the families' larger struggle for integration into the United States by ensuring educational success for their children and economic and social mobility for the family.

Figueroa (2011) explored how citizenship (i.e., documentation status of students and families) entered the classroom and the home through homework. At a surface level,

this study showed that teachers needed to support families in homework completion while providing culturally sensitive and appropriate homework for all students. At a deeper level, the study indicated the need for teachers to recognize that a student's home affects their approach to academic tasks in the classroom.

Camacho-Thompson et al. (2016) explored the consequences of life stressors on parental involvement for middle schoolers. Specifically, the study focused on whether stress correlated with lower parental academic involvement and, if so, whether the correlation resulted from family functioning, parental depressive and somatic symptoms, or family relationships. Participants (N = 428) included parents of ninth- and tenth-graders of Mexican origin in Los Angeles, California. The parents completed demographic questionnaires (e.g., parental education and reported income) and participated in interviews on school involvement, home involvement, financial strain, major family life events, depressive symptoms, somatic symptoms, parent–adolescent relationship quality, and parent–adolescent conflict. The results showed that stressful events correlated with lower parental involvement. Financial strain negatively impacted school involvement, and major family life events correlated with lower home academic involvement (Camacho-Thompson et al., 2016).

When Latino families faced acute stressors related to the family (e.g., a move or the death of a family member), they had less ability for academic support and involvement in the home (Camacho-Thompson et al., 2016). Neither parental depressive or somatic symptoms accounted for the negative link between parental stress and academic involvement. Due to the study's cross-sectional design, there is a need to interpret the results with caution, given the lack of evidence on the temporal relationship

between stressors and outcomes. An additional limitation of the study is the lack of adolescents' perspectives, as the researchers focused on parents' voices. Camacho-Thompson et al. (2016) contributed to the research on the quality of the relationships between Latino parents and their adolescent children and the potential academic impact of those relationships.

Gándara and Ee (2018), as part of the Civil Rights Project, found no systematic attempt to study the impact of immigration enforcement on teaching and learning. The project included more than 5,400 teachers, administrators, and other school personnel from more than 730 schools in 24 districts and 12 states across the Northeast, South, Midwest, and Western United States. Approximately 64% of respondents observed the impact of immigration enforcement in their schools. The results showed that ICE had the highest presence and the most negative impact on schools in the South. The higher the percentage of immigrant students in the school, the greater the reported impact. Almost 90% of administrators observed behavioral or emotional problems in immigrant students, which 25% described as a "big problem" in the classroom. Across all regions, 84% of educators noted students expressing concerns about immigration enforcement at schools, with 36.1% indicating ICE presence as occurring "a lot less extensively." Approximately 68% of administrators reported absenteeism to be a problem (Gándara & Ee, 2018).

Across all regions, 70% of administrators and certified staff reported academic decline, with one in six counselors describing this decline as "extensive" (Gándara & Ee, 2018). Two-thirds of the respondents reported that fear and concern for a classmate affected the education of both the students targeted by ICE and those not targeted. Many

reported that parental deportation was well known to the whole class or school community.

Another Civil Rights Project finding was that parental involvement was critical for student success (Gándara & Ee, 2018). However, involvement declined due to parents' fears of leaving home and school cooperation with ICE. The seminal project provided a quantitative look at deportation's impact on students from the perspectives of teaching staff and administrators.

Parental Deportation and Mental Health

The parent–child relationship contributes to the development of social skills (Belskey & Fearson, 2002), emotional regulation (Contreras et al., 2000), and self-concept (Goodvin et al., 2008). Parental separation due to incarceration (Murray et al., 2012) or deployment (Lester et al., 2010) correlates with increased risks of emotional and behavioral problems in children. Fear of deportation of students or their families can cause extreme stress to the family unit. Lopez and Lopez (2010) described a pervasive fear of deportation among families. Immigration and its effects impact every educational level of students and their community. Immigration enforcement near a school setting can negatively affect educators' ability to maintain an environment conducive to learning (Crawford, 2017). ICE presence affect students' learning ability, adversely impacting academic performance and school access (Capps et al., 2007; Lopez & Lopez, 2010; Menjivar & Cervantes, 2016). Furthermore, children separated from their families develop attachment difficulties, depression, and behavioral problems (Abrego, 2014; Artico, 2003; Lovato-Hermann, 2017; Zayas & Cook, 2016), with the greatest problems occurring after maternal separation (Dreby, 2007, 2015; Suárez-Orozco et al., 2011).

To explore the effect of deportation (either the threat thereof or direct experience), Brabeck and Xu (2010) examined the impact of parents' legal vulnerability and threat of detention or deportation experiences on the family environment and children's well-being. Participants (N = 132) with a mean age of 36.7 years completed a survey based on the Post-Deportation Human Rights Project in the Northeastern United States. Approximately 73% of participants had children born in the United States, 38% had undocumented status, and almost half experienced the detention or deportation of a family member (Brabeck & Xu, 2010). A multiple regression model showed that the parents' vulnerability due to documentation status significantly impacted the family environment (27.1%) and children's well-being (30.6%). The greater the vulnerability, the greater the reported impact (Brabeck & Xu, 2010).

Brabeck and Xu's (2010) study had limitations. Although the study had a relatively large sample, participants self-reported their documentation status, resulting in potentially distorted data. The limited number of validated instruments affected the number of potential measurements used in the study. The researchers could not identify trends in the cross-sectional data. The study did not include children. Finally, the study did not have generalizable results due to the convenience sampling used to obtain the participants. Despite the limitations, Brabeck and Xu showed how parental well-being impacts children. Experiences of and vulnerability to detention and deportation (i.e., undocumented status) impacted the parents' financial, psychological and relational well-being, which, in turn, affected the children.

The Urban Institute and National Council of La Raza examined the role of deportation across three time spans: short (2 months), intermediate (6 months), and long-

term (1 year). The study focused on workplace raids in three communities, which involved 500 children either temporarily or permanently losing their parents (Chaudry et al., 2010). The most common short-term effects on children's psychological well-being included loss of appetite and nightmares. Crying and feeling afraid were the next most frequent impacts. Present but less common were anxiety, withdrawal, anger–aggression, and clinginess. These behaviors occurred the most in households where a primary caregiver or parent was removed from the home (Chaudry et al., 2010). Over time, the more frequently reported behaviors (changes in eating and sleeping) decreased, whereas the less common behaviors (withdrawal and angry–aggressive behaviors) persisted at the same or higher levels. The short- and long-term consequences of parental arrest included developmental difficulties (e.g., speech) and academic decline (Chaudry et al., 2010).

The trauma, grief, and disruption caused by the separation, migration, and reunification of families can have negative psychological effects on children and their parents (Schen, 2005; Smith et al., 2004). Although their study was not explicitly related to the impact of deportation, Gindling and Poggio (2012) examined the effects of parental separation and reunification on the educational success of immigrant children. This study occurred in three phases. The first, a qualitative study, included interviews with three psychologists from Johns Hopkins University who treated immigrant families, three counselors in the International Counselor's Office of the Prince George's County public school district in Maryland, and two separate focus groups with Latino parents (n = 8 and n = 6) separated from their children during migration. The second stage, a quantitative study, included a multiple regression analysis of data from the New Immersion Survey, a nationally representative survey of newly documented immigrants from the Office of

Population Research at Princeton University. The third phase was an additional focus group with Latino immigrant parents and an anonymous online survey of teachers in a Maryland school district.

Gindling and Poggio (2012) identified how family separation negatively impacts family members' mental health, specifically with regard to depression and physical illness. The focus group of Latin American parents agreed that separation from their children had negative psychological consequences for both parents and children. The focus group participants also reported more severe effects with separation from their mothers than from their fathers. Furthermore, individuals separated during migration had the highest probability of experiencing an education gap and dropping out of high school. There were no significant differences identified among children who migrated with their parents (Gindling & Poggio, 2012). The teacher surveys provided insight into the education gap, as students were frequently assigned to grades below their age levels when arriving to the United States.

Given the potential impact of traumatic events on children, Allen et al. (2015) used a Spanish version of the Child Behavior Checklist to assess the trauma history of children impacted by parental deportation. The analysis included 95 caregiver reports, 23 from deported parents, 20 from parents pending deportation, and the remainder from control participants (i.e., caregivers neither pending deportation nor currently deported). The Child Behavior Checklist results showed that the children with a deported parent were likelier to exhibit higher levels of internalizing and externalizing behaviors than those without a deported parent. The authors statistically controlled for demographic variables and trauma (Allen et al., 2015).

Allen et al. (2015) identified some limitations, such as a small sample for each group. Despite the small size, the sample had statistical significance. Furthermore, there was a chance of selection bias due to the possibility of a specific qualitative difference between those who chose to participate and those who did not. Cross-sectionality prevents assumptions of causation. Finally, the study did not include child self-reports. Allen et al. contributed to the limited research on the potential emotional and behavioral consequences of parental detention or deportation on children.

Zayas et al. (2015) explored the mental health of children of undocumented parents in Sacramento, California, and Austin, Texas. The authors selected the cities due to their large undocumented immigrant populations and accessibility. Participants (N = 83) included three groups of citizen-children: (a) a group living in Mexico with their deported parents (n = 31), (b) a group in the United States with parents affected by detention or deportation (n = 18), and (c) a comparison group of citizen-children with undocumented parents unaffected by detention or deportation (n = 34). The longitudinal study occurred over 2 years and included children ages 8 to 15 who completed the Child Behavioral Checklist and Youth Self-Report and DSM-Oriented Scales of psychosocial issues. The results showed no significant difference in mental health between the three groups, except for more attention deficits in children with a history of parental detention or deportation. All three subgroups fell within the category of having anxiety disorders. Children of undocumented parents not currently under removal proceedings had more positive self-concepts and self-perceptions than those from the other groups. Children affected directly by deportation reported higher levels of depressive symptoms and

emotional problems and secondary issues of anxiety and lack of happiness (Zayas et al., 2015).

This study by Zayas et al. (2015) also had limitations. First, data were omitted from the survey responses; subsequently, the researchers could not collect all data. The researchers identified that the wide age range and the sample's social and geographic heterogeneity may have contributed to low internal validity and reliability; however, they did not explicitly confirm these claims. Parental documentation status and possible mistrust in larger U.S. institutions could have impacted recruitment and the participants' responses to the psychosocial measures. Despite the limitations, Zayas et al. built upon the research on how current immigration policies and deportation practices affect the mental health of citizen-children and their families.

Rojas-Flores et al. (2017) explored mental health by examining PTSD and psychological distress in 91 U.S.-born Latino children (ages 6 to 12) living with mixed-status families. The UCLA Posttraumatic Stress Disorder Reaction Index was the instrument used to assess PTSD in children, and the parents completed the Behavior Assessment System for Children, 2nd Edition (BASC-2) and Parent Rating Scales-Child. The teachers completed the BASC-2 Teacher Ratings Scale-Child, and the clinicians used the Child and Adolescent Functional Assessment Scale to rate each child's daily functioning. The results showed that children of detained or deported parents experienced significantly more potentially traumatic events (PTEs) than children of legal permanent residents ($p = .02$). Children of unauthorized parents without contact with ICE did not significantly differ from children with detained or deported parents, but the former group had more PTEs than children of legal permanent residents ($p = .06$). Children who

reported symptoms of PTSD met the criteria for a full (19%) or partial (10%) PTSD diagnosis. Children of detained and deported parents showed a higher level of trauma symptoms than children of legal permanent residents (p <.001–.03) or unauthorized parents with no immigration contact (p <.001–.01). Parent immigration status showed no effect on children's reported depression (p = .35).

Rojas-Flores et al. (2017) found that the children of detained and deported parents experienced more psychological distress and trauma than children who had not lived these experiences. The scholars found higher levels of PTSD symptoms in children of detained and deported parents, indicating that forced separation adversely affected the children's mental health. The unpredictability of detention and deportation contributed to symptom severity. Higher internalizing behaviors occurred among children of detained or deported parents. Furthermore, the parents and teachers found higher externalizing behaviors in children with more PTEs. Exposure to PTEs occurred across sample groups, with 35% of children experiencing one PTE and 47% reporting two or more PTEs (Rojas-Flores et al., 2017).

Rojas-Flores et al.'s (2017) study had limitations. The study's cross-sectional data analysis and small sample size are limitations due to the difficulty in inferring causation and establishing generalizability. The study did not address socioeconomic status. Finally, some but not all of the children who experienced PTEs exhibited high levels of mental health symptoms (Rojas-Flores et al., 2017).

Parental deportation impacts the entire family unit, students, and students' contexts (e.g., school and home). Deportation has academic impacts (Anderson et al., 2020; Camacho-Thompson et al., 2016; Dreby, 2015; Gindling & Poggio, 2012) and

contributes to emotional stressors (Brabeck & Xu, 2010; Zayas et al., 2015). K–12 leaders can provide a stable and consistent educational setting for students impacted by deportation. Principals and assistant principals can support students and families by providing a positive and welcoming school environment, including in the classroom.

This section provides a foundation for the remainder of the literature review. The discussion addressed the research on how forced parental deportation negatively impacts children and the need to support students in the context of the school setting. The following section provides information on immigrant Latinos across contexts (e.g., family, school) and how to support students and inform the educational leader.

A Move Toward Home, School, and Community Partnerships

Parental involvement includes home-based (e.g., reading, assisting with homework, discussing school) and school-based (e.g., participating in conferences and events, volunteering, and joining the Parent Teacher Association [PTA]) activities. Regardless of ethnicity, parental involvement contributes to higher academic success, social and emotional functioning, and high school graduation (El Nokali et al., 2010; Jeynes, 2005; LeFevre & Shaw, 2012; McWayne et al., 2004; Mena, 2011; Pomerantz et al., 2007). Parental involvement could also be a mean to counter poverty's negative impact on education (Lee & Bowen, 2006).

Educational scholars have acknowledged the relationship between family engagement and school success (Anderson et al., 2020; Bates, 2005; Carlson & Christenson, 2005; Sheridan & Kratochwill, 2007). Previously, educators sought to foster parental involvement by developing school-level projects, needs, and goals and informing parents how to contribute. However, in this view of involvement, educators placed the

responsibility on parents to connect with teachers and school staff (Epstein, 2010). Therefore, educators and scholars began to use the term parental engagement to describe educators listening to what families think, dream, and worry about (Ferlazzo, 2011).

Engagement is a way to encourage parents to partner with school staff in educating children by combining their shared knowledge of their children with teaching and learning (Pushor & Ruitenberg, 2005). Parental engagement has increased student achievement and well-being (Anthony-Newman, 2019; Bussing et al., 2003; Comer, 1984; Epstein, 2001), strengthened relationships, and enabled resource-sharing among community members (Cohen-Vogel et al., 2010; Delgado Gaitain, 2004; Schutz, 2006; Warren et al., 2009). The degree to which school practices contribute to and enable family participation positively influences the degree of family engagement (Cohen-Vogel et al., 2010; Epstein & Lee, 1995).

Educators have begun to realize the importance of community in bridging the home–school gap. Home, school, community partnerships involve assigning responsibilities to schools, families, and communities to share information, ideas, and services for schools and student education. Parental or family engagement is integral to these partnerships; however, there is also a need for school leaders and community members to take responsibility for organizing programs to help parents and caregivers in supporting their children's education productively (Epstein, 2010). The partnership between the home, school, and community provides all families equal opportunities to become involved in children's education and development regardless of documentation status. This broader, all-encompassing term of the home, school, community partnership

also indicates that students are key members of the partnership because they are influenced by all three contexts of the home, school, and community (Epstein, 2010).

The broader term of home, school, community partnership suggests that schools should foster equity by providing equal opportunities for parents to become involved in their children's education. Equity also occurs in the partnership via equal feelings of being welcomed at the school, equal evidence of respect from the school to parents, and equal respect from parents for teachers' efforts (Epstein, 2010). Due to the increase in immigrant students at public schools, scholars have suggested that educators should conceptualize family engagement and home, school, community partnerships by seeking more culturally appropriate ways to define the scope of family engagement (Carreón et al., 2005; Lopez et al., 2001; Lowenhaupt, 2014; Villenas, 2002).

From Parental Involvement to Partnerships in the Latino Community

For many Latinos, the family supports children's development and socialization. *Familismo*, the cultural, social, economic, and spiritual support network within and outside the family, is the foundation for Latino families (Delgado Gaitan, 2004). The family focuses on obligations, warmth, reciprocity, and strong connections, resulting in high-quality relationships with immediate and extended families (Chase-Lansdale & Brooks-Gunn, 2014). Traditionally, each family member has a unique responsibility, with the father being the head of the family and the mother devoting herself to her husband and children. Given the high value placed on families, children are raised to be highly motivated to support their families and communities. The expectation is for children to be respectful and cooperative with teachers and peers (Delgado Gaitan, 2004). Another expectation is for children to recognize their parents' sacrifices in finding motivation to

become high achievers in education (Stacciarini et al., 2015). Familismo extends outside the immediate family; therefore, the home, school, community partnership is critical for Latino students' success. What was previously viewed as parental involvement and family engagement is today a more encompassing concept that includes the home, school, community partnership. Following is a summary of the literature on the progression from involvement to partnership.

Latino families play an important role in their children's educational success (Behnke et al., 2004; DeGarmo & Martinez, 2006). Immigrant families often have high educational aspirations for their children (Ramirez, 2003). Parental involvement indicates that parents are responsible for connecting with teachers and administrators to become involved in their children's education at home and school (Epstein, 2010). O'Donnell and Kirkner (2014) sought to identify Latino students' educational success by exploring the impact of a YMCA Family Involvement Project on family involvement and children's educational performance. A total of 144 Latinos from low-income homes who predominantly spoke Spanish (93%) and were caregivers of 208 elementary-aged children in California participated in the 2-year study. The project had a multipronged approach to supporting and increasing family involvement. First, the participants received weekly adult and family education in workshops. The workshops focused on in-home education strategies, parenting education, family literacy, and community leadership and advocacy. Second, the study provided yearly school staff training and continuous consultation to administrators and (as requested) teachers on culturally appropriate techniques for involving diverse families. Finally, school-based socials to improve family-school communication and relationships occurred monthly. During the socials,

parents met with teachers and school staff to openly discuss academic expectations, learn about upcoming events, and voice concerns (O'Donnell & Kirkner, 2014).

O'Donnell and Kirkner (2014) conducted a linear regression to determine whether Family Involvement Project participation correlated to better educational performance at the end of Year 1 and Year 2. The results showed that greater degrees of family participation were predictors of significantly better student social skills and work habits after 1 year. At the end of the second year, a greater degree of family participation was a significant predictor of student effort, social skills, work habit grades, and standardized English Language Arts test scores (moving from basic to proficient). Additionally, family participation somewhat predicted achievement grades. O'Donnell and Kirkner found that Latino families participated significantly more in in-home school activities and significantly increased their school-based involvement.

The need to focus on parents' actions and efforts (Epstein, 2010) led school leaders and educators to move toward family engagement (O'Donnell & Kirkner, 2014). The goal of family engagement was for families and staff to develop goal-directed relationships to provide ongoing and culturally responsive support for children and families (Stefanski et al., 2016). The push for increased responsiveness to parents' needs was important for all, including immigrant parents who reported disappointment with schools' receptiveness to parent engagement and a desire and willingness to leverage their own cultural wealth (He et al., 2017).

To view family engagement through a more culturally appropriate lens, Berkule Johnson et al. (2016) sought to understand the perceptions of low-income, primarily Hispanic (92.4%) mothers and their roles in their first-graders' education. In interviews,

the mothers discussed their confidence in teaching their children. The researchers found three themes: mothers helping their children learn, teaching children appropriate behavior/manners, and the English language as a barrier. Most mothers (53.5%) supported their children's learning through homework or reading. Some mothers (33.7%) reported that their role was teaching their children proper manners and rule adherence. Among the monolingual Spanish-speaking parents (88%), some (21.8%) identified limited English proficiency as a barrier to interacting with their children within an academic context, resulting in decreased parental confidence. A limitation of this study was the researchers' subjectivity. In addition, the sample included only mothers and not fathers and their perspectives. Finally, there was the potential for outside influence on the participants' responses. Although Berkule Johnson et al. acknowledged the study's limitations, they provided insight into how Latino immigrant mothers from low-income backgrounds view their roles and responsibilities regarding their children's education.

Research on Latino families has often had a deficit perspective. Quiñones and Marquez Kiyama (2014) attempted to counter the deficit perspective by reconceptualizing parents' role in their children's education. The authors explored fathers' perspectives on their role in promoting school success and their children's education in a low-performing school district in New York. Quiñones and Marquez Kiyama used a conceptual framework of Latino family epistemology and alternative parental role theory to explore the role of Puerto Rican fathers ($N = 8$) in family–school engagement. The study included data from 11 focus groups with parents and guardians (36 women and 8 men). Five focus groups included fathers, with all eight fathers identifying as Puerto Rican.

Quiñones and Marquez Kiyama (2014) focused on the fathers' perspectives and experiences. The findings showed that the fathers cultivated education as a family and community affair to promote school success, critiqued dynamics within the school district and advocated for their children, and acknowledged their vulnerable positioning as fathers resisting racism and invisibility in schools and the larger community. All fathers viewed education as beginning in the home and supported their children's education by "monitoring, advocating, seeking information, and negotiating for access" (p. 262). While the fathers consistently mentioned feeling distrustful and like outsiders, they advocated for their children to promote their educational success. This study's limitations include a small sample. Although the study included fathers invested in their children's academic success, it did not provide information on children who lacked success and dropped out or were expelled from school. Quiñones and Marquez Kiyama identified parents' desire to be part of the school context and the difficult reality of traversing the home, school, and community systems.

Given the importance of family engagement in public schooling, Lowenhaupt (2014) examined how schools impact family engagement within the new Latino diaspora. The author used a descriptive approach to analyze a statewide survey of practice in schools (elementary, middle, and high school) with students from the new Latino diaspora in Wisconsin. The analysis included descriptive statistics and textual analyses of survey comments from school principals and teachers working with immigrant students. School leaders and educators with an increase in Latino students used translations and interpretation services more than those at schools without growing Latino populations. While this analysis was provided to families, parent engagement and participation did not

increase, as the teachers rated the participation of Spanish-speaking families as below average compared to other families (Lowenhaupt, 2014). The use of surveys is a limitation due to the restrictions of the structured instrument. In addition, the researcher used a traditional definition of family engagement and focused the unit of analysis on educators and not the families themselves.

Ensuring that schools are not independent silos requires home, school, community partnerships to position educators to better serve students' academic needs and attend to the health and well-being of children and their families (Epstein, 2010; Krenichyn et al., 2008). Teachers can use funds of knowledge to look outside their classroom to bridge the gap between the school, home, and community. Funds of knowledge are historically accumulated and culturally developed bodies of knowledge and skills critical for household and individual functioning (Moll et al., 1992). Educators can use these funds to design and implement classroom curricula based on students' cultures, communities, and family-based resources. Students' experiences as members of undocumented families fall within the funds of knowledge. Altering a classroom can result in changes to the funds of knowledge. Politicized funds of knowledge are the real-world experiences, knowledge, and skills that individuals develop across contexts perceived as potentially taboo or unsafe to incorporate into classroom learning (Gallo & Link, 2015). Educators should teach students while including the community's evolving practices in their daily curriculum (Moll et al., 1992). For Latino immigrants, funds of knowledge could enable students to willingly and comfortably share personal experiences.

Bridging the home–school gap could include a social or systems–ecological framework that addresses how multiple systems, including the home, school, and

community, influence a child's life (Bronfenbrenner, 1976; Christenson, 2004; Fagan & Sachs Wise, 2007). When implemented correctly, home, school, community partnerships positively correlate to students' achievement and behaviors, attitudes toward school, and school completion (Henderson et al., 2007; Jeynes, 2005; Jeynes, 2017). The home, school, community systems model (Dearing et al., 2015) indicates that seeing the benefits of collaboration requires fully investing in each system.

Family–school partnerships are bidirectional relationships in which educators and families collaborate to support the student. Families learn from school experiences, and educators benefit from the caregivers' perspectives and engagement (Christenson, 2004; Epstein, 2010). Students reap the most benefits when educators build relationships with families and communities (Smith et al., 2014). These partnerships are critical for immigrant families who prioritize relationships and mutual respect. Latino immigrants are more likely to have greater parental involvement with positive relationships between the school and the home (Leidy et al., 2012).

Soutullo et al. (2016) explored how elementary teachers conceptualized immigration-related barriers to family–school partnerships. The participants were 18 elementary teachers (38% Hispanic) in a large, urban school district in the United States who engaged in focus group interviews. Many teachers (94.4%) attributed the barriers to parental collaboration to school policies, and others (83.3%) ascribed them to ineffective communication strategies (e.g., the teacher is not bilingual or discourages parental volunteers). The teachers also identified barriers from the families, including a lack of family attendance at workshops or meetings (88.9%, $n = 16$), unresponsiveness to strategies initiated by teachers (72.2%, $n = 13$), and a lack of presence within the school

(66.7%, *n* = 12). Families lacking necessary resources for school engagement (88.9%, *n* = 16) and hesitation to participate in school screenings (55.6%, *n* = 10) were also barriers. Many obstacles related to systemic barriers, specifically poverty and immigration-related concerns (83.3%, *n* = 15). Barriers for immigrant families fell into three categories: language and culture, family resources, and families' undocumented status (Soutullo et al., 2016).

Soutullo et al. (2016) found that educators frequently sent materials home in English. When materials were translated into Spanish, literacy then became an issue; therefore, the children had to translate across the family–school dyad. In addition, the use of educational jargon, even when translated, was often a struggle for parents to comprehend. The participants believed the school was an unwelcoming environment for immigrants. Furthermore, families with limited access to books and computers reported these resources as critical in the school–family relationship. Assistance with homework was a challenge for families with limited knowledge of English and limited academic knowledge. Families did not speak the language of the school and struggled to read to their children in English. The families lacked access to reading materials, contributing to teachers' concerns about their students' lack of learning at home (Soutullo et al., 2016).

Parents' undocumented status was a barrier for families and their children (Soutullo et al., 2016). The families could not register themselves for school activities requiring background checks (e.g., volunteering). The teachers reported that the parents' fear of deportation impacted the school–family dynamic, as parents did not want to collaborate with the school. Although Soutullo et al. (2016) identified obstacles for immigrant Latinos, the study has limitations. The small sample (*N* = 18) and the large,

urban school district did not produce generalizable results. Furthermore, the findings included teachers' perspectives and did not address parents' and students' experiences.

Soutullo et al. (2016) showed the barriers to the family–school partnership from teachers' perspectives. Among these barriers was a lack of parental involvement, which contributed to a deficit view of the immigrant family. Poza et al. (2014) explored how immigrant parents participated in their children's schooling. Snowball sampling occurred to recruit Latino parents (N = 24) for interviews on their educational experiences with their children. These interviews provided further evidence to counter the deficit thinking associated with school-family collaboration for immigrant families. Poza et al. found that immigrant parents participated in school by attending conferences and meetings, reading at home, and helping with homework. The parents' engagement fell into three categories: asking questions, attending, and altering/augmenting. Asking questions (88%) included approaching teachers or staff to ask about their children's progress and how to support learning and seek support from families, friends, or the community to navigate the school system better. Attending behaviors (100%) included attending events such as parent–teacher conferences, field trips, workshops, and adult education. Finally, altering/augmenting (100%) included parents' efforts to improve their children's schooling via afterschool programs, summer school, and greater community support for special education needs. Migrating to the United States (25%) fell under the altering/augmenting category (Poza et al., 2014).

Latino families play a vital role in their children's social and educational development and schools' mission to educate all children. Parent engagement contributes to academic achievement, social capital, and social control (Hill & Taylor, 2004). Parents

actively involved in their children's schools have greater access to other parents and teachers and more knowledge of school procedures, education, extracurricular activities, and alternatives to difficult situations, resulting in increased parental social capital (Lareau & Shumar, 1996). The exchange of information between parents and teachers enables the establishment of consistent expectations for students, resulting in stronger social control (Hill & Taylor, 2004). Many Latinos have strong community ties (Chase-Lansdale & Brooks-Gunn, 2014) and rely on and benefit from strong family–school–community partnerships (Auerbach, 2007; Durand, 2010; Lee & Bowen, 2006; LeFevre & Shaw, 2012; Mena, 2011). Therefore, it is worth examining what occurs when a parent is abruptly removed from this critical partnership due to deportation or the threat of deportability.

There has been a progression from parent involvement to family engagement to the home, school, community partnership, and research has continued to show the positive impact of family presence on Latino students' academic success. Home, school, community partnerships require collaboration across contexts. Therefore, a sudden loss (e.g., parental deportation) can have an adverse impact due to the removal of engagement and partnership from the student's home life. The following section presents the literature on educational leaders' role in serving Latino immigrant students and supporting the collaboration between the home, school, and community.

The Role of the Educational Leader

Educators in the United States should provide quality education to all students. Multicultural curricula and bilingual instruction are immediate needs for immigrant students (Rong & Preissle, 2009). Teachers and administrators may lack training and

resources to accommodate diverse students' needs. Most immigration occurs in urban areas; therefore, the greatest difficulties occur in already stressed and often under resourced urban school districts. In addition, rural areas with limited resources and less familiarity with immigrants have had an increase in migrant workers. Increases in immigrants and migrant workers has contributed to overcrowded classrooms, social tension, controversies over curricula, and below-standard instruction (Rong & Preissle, 2009). As the landscape of the U.S. public schools has changed, so has leadership.

Educational Leaders and the Immigrant Student

Few studies have addressed how educators and administrators make sense of immigration status in K–12 schools. Jefferies (2014) attempted to explore the role of school personnel (15 teachers and five administrators) in supporting undocumented students. Jefferies investigated how these immigration practices affected students' ability to graduate from high school and higher education. Data collection spanned 5 years in a high school in Boston, Massachusetts. The school personnel sought to obtain immigration status information to serve immigrant students as they transitioned out of high school. Due to *Plyler v. Doe* (1982) and students' fear of deportation, the administrators struggled to obtain this sensitive information. The participants noted that students sometimes did not know of their undocumented status, only discovering their status during their last 2 years of high school when they became interested in work, extracurricular activities, and college. School guidance counselors were the first educational leaders to find out students' documentation status unintentionally, and they supported the vice principal in obtaining self-reports from students and parents regarding immigration status (Jefferies, 2014).

Jefferies (2014) found that although school leaders struggled to obtain immigration status information, they found it helpful in many ways. The school leaders supported students upon learning of their undocumented status. Immigration specialists visited the school monthly to provide free legal counsel and explained what to do if detained and deported and how to obtain citizenship. In addition, knowing the students' documentation status enabled the school leaders to support those transitioning to college. Although the school's leaders could not legally issue a school-wide policy on obtaining immigration status, they provided the students with avenues to disclose this information while ensuring openness, trust, and comfort.

Whereas Jefferies (2014) identified ways for administrators and schools to support undocumented students, Gallo and Link (2015) explored teachers' perceptions of working with Mexican immigrant students experiencing harsh immigration practices. The 5-year ethnographic study occurred in a Title I elementary school in a Pennsylvania town with a drastic increase in Mexican immigrants. Except for two Latina immigrant administrators and ESL teachers who knew immigrant families personally, most teachers and administrators in the school knew little about immigration practices affecting their students. Twelve interviews occurred with seven educators at the school who taught Grades 2 through 4, and the teachers who knew about specific students' experiences took part in follow-up interviews. In the interviews, some teachers referred to the Mexican immigrant students as "Spanish kids" or "ESL kids," while others celebrated the students' bilingual abilities and "Mexicanness." Due to increasing awareness of immigration practices targeted at families and the community, the classroom became a borderland where students had to navigate whether to share their knowledge and

experiences with their teachers and peers. Teachers did not know how to discuss immigration in their classrooms. One teacher avoided the topic altogether, while two pushed beyond their comfort zones to address the topic. Four teachers newer to the profession "acknowledged the borderlands" by cautiously broaching the topic while acknowledging their fears of overstepping boundaries. Gallo and Link showed how teachers responded to immigration practices within the context of their classrooms.

López et al. (2018) examined the role of school administrators and parent liaisons in supporting the education of immigrant Latino families and their children. The ethnographic study occurred over 2 years and included seven parent liaisons and seven principals. Data collection consisted of interviews, on-site observations in the schools and community, and participation in school events. The findings showed that parent liaisons were critical in bridging home and school and fostering students' success. The school administrators' proactive involvement in the education and lives of immigrant Latino families and their children resulted in a positive learning environment. López et al. indicated that the limitations of their study included a lack of school counselors' perspective and the inability to explore how the leaders of neighboring school districts worked with Latino families and children. This study showed the need for school personnel who provide educational services to Latino families and children to collaborate to bridge the home–school gap.

Educational Leaders and Community Partnerships

Home, school, community partnerships involve educators, families, and community members collaborating to share information, guide students, solve problems, and celebrate successes (Epstein, 2010). These partnerships include the shared

responsibilities of the home, school, and community in a student's learning and development. Epstein (2010) identified six major types of involvement to support educators in successfully implementing home, school, community partnerships:

- Parenting (i.e., helping all families establish home environments to support children as students)
- Communicating (i.e., designing effective school-home communication regarding school programs and children's progress)
- Volunteering (i.e., recruiting and organizing help and support for parents)
- Learning at home (i.e., providing information and ideas to families about supporting students at home with homework and curriculum-related activities, decisions, and planning)
- Decision-making (i.e., including parents in school decisions, establishing parent leaders and representatives)
- Collaborating with the community (i.e., identifying and integrating resources and services from the community to strengthen school programs, family practices, and student learning and development)

Each involvement type includes activities or practices parents can use to increase their involvement in their children's education. The involvement types also enable school leaders and educators to implement the home, school, community nexus successfully.

Burford and Bezzina (2014) sought to bridge the gap between school–community collaboration and develop frameworks for how administrators can "lead for learning," (p. 406) highlighting that leaders can impact teacher perceptions, practices, and school culture by grounding school communities with a strong moral purpose. The multiple ethical paradigm framework is one of the best-known models for educational leaders tasked with making complicated ethical decisions, such as deciding how to serve families and students living with the persistent threat of deportation. The framework includes four paradigms on the ethics of justice, care, critique, and profession (Stefkovich, 2014)

Crawford (2017) applied the multiple ethical paradigm to educational leaders in communities impacted by deportation. The longitudinal qualitative study focused on school leaders' perceptions of how ICE activity impacted their school community and whether the schools showed the ethic of community. Data collection occurred for slightly over 4 years and included 14 educators. The principal and other school personnel demonstrated an ethic of community by (a) minimizing uncertainty for students and families, (b) facilitating a community-oriented and community-sensitive school culture, (c) filling in knowledge gaps and magnifying community voice, and (d) using critical consciousness as a catalyst to enhance community moral agency (Crawford, 2017).

Crawford (2017) found that the school staff focused on the students' physical and psychological well-being and parental concerns (e.g., by minimizing uncertainty for students and families). The principal took measures to inform families about ICE activity and their rights. In addition, the principal exhibited a critical consciousness that enabled her to listen and understand the community while using her position of power to lead with a view to community moral agency. The principal listened to the families without judgment and worked to prevent the undocumented families' further marginalization, all while building trust in her leadership (Crawford, 2017). Supporting a climate of belongingness while striving for equity for students and families showed the educational leader's ability to lead successfully with social justice.

SJL is a way for educational leaders and educators to accomplish home, school, community partnerships. In education, SJL is a leadership style where principals advocate and lead while keeping race, class, gender, disability, sexual orientation, and historically and currently marginalized populations at the center of their practice and

vision (Theoharis, 2007). Theoharis (2009) identified four characteristics that educational leaders should address to move toward socially just schools:

- School structures that contribute to marginalization and segregation and impede achievement
- A deprofessionalized teaching staff (i.e., teaching staff lacking skills to reach every child and teachers treated as incompetent)
- A school climate that needs adjusting to be welcoming to marginalized families to address the disconnect between the school and community
- Disparate and low student achievement

Educational leaders could address these characteristics to push their schools toward social justice.

The collaboration between schools, families, and community partnerships is vital when considering education through the lens of social justice. Auerbach (2009) highlighted four school leaders who embodied the SJL style. The study had two purposes: (a) identify possible areas neglected by school leaders serving underachieving schools and (b) inform policy and practice to support democratic leadership preparation. The participants were three Latino/a principals, one Black assistant principal, two middle-aged women, and two middle-aged men with 10–25 years of administrative experience. All participants worked in low-achieving schools, where at least 90% of students identified as Latino, at least 90% were eligible for free/reduced-price lunches, and 60–75% identified as ELLs. Semistructured interviews resulted in four key themes: empowering parents for community uplift, making a "human connection" with parents, nurturing parent–teacher relationships, and supporting parents as advocates. Family was the common thread throughout these themes (Auerbach, 2009).

Auerbach (2009) found that each school leader considered family involvement integral to children's success. Therefore, the school leaders grounded their school-based agendas in a broader community context and not purely in academics. The leaders in this study were proactively and directly involved in initiating, planning, and implementing activities with families. Dissatisfied with traditional parental involvement (e.g., PTA fundraisers), the leaders listened to parents' concerns and incorporated families and parents directly into the home, school, community activities. The educational leaders' motivation stemmed from an ethical commitment to social justice. The school leaders believed that reaching out to parents was essential and that they had a moral commitment to serve the Latino community (Auerbach, 2009).

A key limitation of Auerbach's (2009) study was that although all four schools were in the lower third for state academic targets, only one principal mentioned how ranking impacted leadership. Due to teacher and student learning constraints, the principal could not engage in the much-needed home–school collaboration for the first several years until instruction improved significantly. This principal determined that the school's priority was to improve instruction and could not establish the home–school bridge until this occurred. In addition, the principal was unable to pay teachers to participate in parent activities. Although the principal could not bridge the home–school gap, other principals in the study embraced and welcomed this collaboration, frequently calling parents "allies." Auerbach showed that servant leadership within the school setting was possible. The educational leaders "talked the talk" and "walked the walk" and led by example to foster relationships between the school, home, and community (p.13).

The role of the principal has significantly changed since its inception. The demographic shifts and immigration policies and practices require educational leaders who can lead with equity by supporting all marginalized students, including Latino immigrant students and their families living with the persistent threat of deportation. The research in this section presented the perceptions of principals working with immigrant students and the role of SJL in education. The literature showed on how deportation impacts children, focusing on the Latino family context and home, school, community partnerships. The following section presents SJL and the frameworks used to conduct this study. The discussions include research on deportation, Latino families, home, school, community partnerships, and educational leaders to show the scope of this study, which was to support home, school, community partnerships during times of deportability.

Social Justice Leadership: A Theoretical Framework

This literature review shows how deportation or the threat of deportation impacts Latino immigrant students. Researchers explored the role of K–12 leaders in supporting home, school, community partnerships for Latino families living with the threat of deportation. Collaboration and partnership are integral to SJL. Theoharis (2009) stated that educational leaders should ask:

> What does leadership that transforms schools into more equitable and just places, with an attention to climate and achievement, accomplish? How do leaders achieve the transformation? What knowledge, skills, and dispositions are required? What barriers do leaders encounter? How do leaders sustain themselves and their work in light of the barriers? (p. 8)

A relatively recent concept in education, SJL has varying definitions. Rawls (1971) proposed two tenets of social justice grounded in equality: "All people have rights, so justice requires equality of treatment of all people [and] equal opportunity, so justice requires that each and every person must have a fair or equal chance" (pp. 10–11).

Scholars expanded the definition to include two tenets grounded in difference or diversity: "People are different, so justice requires regarding and treating people as individuals [and] in rectifying inequities, favor or advantage should be given to more vulnerable and marginalized members of society" (pp. 10–11). Although Rawls (1971) did not explicitly focus on education, the researcher began the much-needed debate on equity and equality (Theoharis, 2009). Foster (1986) discussed the parallel between SJL and education, stating, "Leadership must be critically educative; it can not only look at the condition in which we live, but it also must decide how to change them" (p. 185).

With the shift toward examining education through a social justice lens, Freire (1990) proposed that the purpose of education and schooling was to undo oppression while creating schools, systems, and individuals to resist and liberate. Freire viewed justice and equity as inherent to education. Bogotch (2002) applied SJL to educational leaders, stating, "Improving social justice is a challenge that rests in theory and in practice with educational leadership" (p. 139). The researcher continued, "There can be no fixed or predictable meaning of social justice prior to actually engaging in educational leadership practices" (p. 153). Bogotch viewed social justice as an ongoing struggle in leadership, asserting that any educational reform grounded in social justice should be deliberate and continuously reinvented and critiqued. Scheurich and Skrla (2003) discussed the need to create equitable and excellent schools by fostering schools successful in providing services to each student.

Marshall and Ward (2004) and Dantley and Tillman (2006) proposed restructuring schools to rebuild instructional leadership via SJL. Frattura and Capper (2007) suggested the primary leadership skill: "Leaders must believe in their core that

students learn best when they are educated in heterogeneous educational settings, period. If the leader does not have that belief, then nothing else matters" (p. 27). Theoharis (2009) defined SJL as an approach in which principals keep issues of race, class, gender, disability, sexual orientation, and other historically marginalized factors in the United States at the heart of their practice and vision. SJL is a way to develop inclusive schooling practices for migrant students, students with disabilities, ELLs, and other students traditionally segregated in schools. Given Theoharis's definition and research on SJL, the researcher took a specific stance on leadership style. First, the concerns and needs of marginalized students are the center of the educational mission. Second, leaders should address the needs of students, including marginalized students, in inclusive settings by creating and increasing access to core teaching and curricula for each student, improving teaching and curriculum, and creating a climate that provides a sense of belonging for all school community members (Theoharis, 2009).

The heart of SJL is the socially just leader. Socially just leaders develop strategies to advance justice in the presence of barriers. In today's educational climate, a barrier is the persistent threat of deportation and its effects on home, school, community partnerships. Theoharis (2009) identified seven keys to SJL:

- Acquire a broad, reconceptualized consciousness/knowledge/skills base
- Possess core leadership traits
- Advance inclusion, access, and opportunity for all
- Improve the core learning context, both the teaching and the curriculum
- Create a climate of belonging
- Raise student achievement
- Sustain oneself professionally and personally.

Each key enables leaders to close the access, opportunity, and achievement gaps. Although all seven SGL keys could benefit immigrant students and families, this study focused on three: possessing core leadership traits (Key 2); advancing inclusion, access, and opportunity (Key 3); and creating a climate of belonging (Key 5).

Key 2

Core leadership traits provide the consciousness, knowledge, and skills needed to become a socially just leader. Although each educational leader has individual traits, collectively, there are similarities across social justice leaders. Leaders practicing SJL have a mix of humility and confidence bordering on arrogance, lead with intense visionary passion, maintain a tenacious commitment to a vision of social justice, and nurture and empower educational staff (Theoharis, 2009). The passion for supporting all students, especially those who are marginalized, enables sincere and personal connections to the school and community. Principals or assistant principals creating systems to support parents' engagement when facing deportability should transparently communicate to the student, home, school, and community how to support immigrant students and families. Furthermore, educational leaders should establish support systems for marginalized students and families. Leaders should foster successful collaboration and communication between the school and community when leading for change to support immigrant students and families (Christenson, 2004; Epstein, 2010; Henderson et al., 2007; Jeynes, 2005).

Key 3

The principle of advancing inclusion, access, and opportunity for all involves socially just leaders working to eliminate structures that enable student marginalization

and segregation and impede learning (Theoharis, 2009). Theoharis (2009) identified four strategies for eliminating these structural barriers: (a) eliminate pullout and separate programs, (b) increase academic rigor and access to opportunities, (c) increase student learning time, and (d) increase accountability for the achievement of all students. Helping students and families living with the threat of deportability requires principals and assistant principals to remain diligent and mindful in changing school and classroom structures to support these students' needs. Examining academics through an equity lens (Theoharis, 2009) could enable school leaders to ensure appropriate and immediate access to mental health professionals and community resources. SJL traits provide educators a lens to "see a better way" to commit themselves to equitable practices and support school members in moving toward social justice and bridging the home, school, community gap. This study focused on examining these SJL traits via an interview protocol for gathering principals' and assistant principals' definitions of home, school, community partnerships, approaches to implementing this partnership, and perceived assets and challenges to these partnerships for Latino immigrant families.

Key 5

Creating a climate of belonging is key to developing an authentic sense of self while creating socially just classrooms and schools (Kunc, 1992). Key 3 is a holistic approach to developing a school vision focused on social justice and a warm and welcoming school culture. Per this key, school leaders should embrace the home, school, community collaboration while creating a climate of belonging. Theoharis (2009) shared five strategies for fostering a welcoming school climate: build a warm and welcoming climate, foster community-building in each classroom, reach out intentionally to the

community and marginalized families, incorporate social responsibility into the school curriculum, and use a proactive and process approach to discipline. A strong support base between schools and homes provides marginalized families with easier access to community agencies (Theoharis, 2009). A socially just leader strives to form a union with the community in which the community's needs and visions are the school's needs and visions and vice versa. Implementing this key enables socially just leaders to change the injustice of an unwelcoming school climate and enhance the home, school, community collaboration to support family engagement during times of deportability.

Theoharis (2009) indicated that equity is more than a theory; it is a reality and a feasible possibility in U.S. schools. Principals and assistant principals can lead schools and respect and value racial, cultural, and economic diversity by understanding and committing to families. School staff who support home, school, community partnerships during times of deportability show compassion and commitment to students and families, enabling them to feel safe and welcomed. Furthermore, SJL is a means of fostering a climate of safety and trust within the school while embracing the home and community. SJL could positively impact immigrant Latino students' and families' educational experience during the threat of parental deportation.

Emphasizing Partnerships With Latino Families: Building a Conceptual Framework

Given the importance of familismo to the Latino family, teachers and educational leaders should understand that educating Latino children in school is a shared responsibility between schools and families (De La Vega, 2007). Family and community cultural wealth (Yosso, 2005) are social capital for immigrant students contributing to

resiliency and hope (Chang et al., 2017). Families provide students emotional and educational support and persistence (Crawford, 2017). Researchers have continued to emphasize the importance of Latino family engagement in schools while calling for the reconceptualization of family engagement practices to develop more culturally appropriate measures to serve all families better (Lopez et al., 2001; Villenas, 2002). Family engagement falls under federal law in ESSA's Title I. Most notably, educational scholars and leaders alike should strive to bridge the gap between school and home and bring in the greater community context; however, this greater community context includes the threat of deportation and deportability. Deportation and separation from family are long-standing concerns for immigrant students, especially those who are undocumented (Fernandez, 2016; Gonzales & Chavez, 2012). This fear has an emotional and mental impact that adversely affects immigrant students' educational experiences (Chaudry et al., 2010). Therefore, immigrant Latino students need a support system while living with the persistent threat of deportation or deportability. Research has not yet indicated how K–12 educators can maintain trust and relationships with Latino students and families (Crawford, 2017) while forging home, school, community partnerships during times of deportability.

Joyce Epstein's Framework of Home, School, Community Partnership

Immigrant education scholars have presented three main critiques of family engagement. First, a deficit-oriented perspective among educators indicates the failure of parent engagement efforts. Second, prespecified definitions of families and participation have contributed to the gap between home and school for young immigrant people. Finally, many family engagement practices may lack equity because educators determine

acceptable practices for families without giving them a voice in decisions about their children's education (Lowenhaupt, 2014). Socially just leaders have advocated for the education of all students, including marginalized families and communities. Educators have long implemented parental involvement activities; however, these approaches fall short for many minority and immigrant families.

Socially just leaders strive to recognize where school staff are failing to create school structures, teaching staff, climates, and communities that contribute to the achievement and success of every child (Theoharis, 2009). A key SJL construct is reaching out and involving marginalized families and communities. SJL is a means of supporting the education of immigrant Latino students facing the threat of deportability. This study focused on socially just principals and assistant principals to show the profound impact these educators have in supporting immigrant Latino families facing the threat of deportability.

Scholars have critiqued immigrant family engagement (Lowenhaupt, 2014) and indicated the need for socially just principals and assistant principals to forge home, school, community relationships. Epstein's (2010) framework presents practices for fostering parental involvement during times of deportability. Epstein's typology is widely acknowledged in education but has received criticism. For example, Jeynes (2005) pushed for "subtle forms" of parental involvement (e.g., parent–child communication), whereas Auerbach (2009) argued that Epstein downplayed the importance of the sociocultural context. Therefore, I adapted Epstein's framework to explore the *what* and *how* of parental engagement during times of deportability.

In later work, Epstein (2011) adopted a multicultural perspective to parental involvement that included an asset-based approach to immigrant families (Epstein, 2011). Traditional views of parental engagement and partnerships often do not include immigrant communities in meaningful and empowering ways, contributing to continued marginalization based on race, ethnicity, class, language, and immigration status (Chavez-Reyes, 2010). Therefore, school staff who form meaningful home, school, community partnerships foster greater cooperation, commitment, and trust with students and families (Cohen-Vogel et al., 2010). The home, school, community partnership is a shared responsibility across contexts for immigrant students and families. Table 1 shows how I adapted Epstein's (2010) framework to include deportability. The first three columns are Epstein's six types of involvement, while the last column addresses how the threat of deportation and deportability impacts parental involvement.

Table 1

Six Types of Involvement and Practices for Parents

Dimensions	Examples of practices for parents (i.e., home)	Examples of practices for teachers/social justice leaders (i.e., school)	Examples deportability has on involvement (i.e., community)
Parenting: Help all families establish home environments to support children as students	Workshops, videotapes, phone messages on parenting and child-rearing across development Family support programs to assist with health, nutrition,	Making information about a topic available in a variety of forms and languages Understanding families' background, cultures, concerns, goals, needs, and view of their children Respect for families' strengths and efforts Understanding and embracing student diversity	Parental or family absence as a result of detention, deportation and/or deportability Parent or family fear of leaving the home to venture to school for school related communities
Communicating-Design effective forms of school-to-home and home-to-school communications about school programs and children's progress	Language translations, as needed Weekly or monthly folders of student work sent home for review and comments Regular schedule of useful notices, memos, phone calls, and other communication	Increased diversity and use of communications with families Awareness of one's own communication abilities and styles Increased ability to understand family views on children's progress	Fear of in-person communication with school staff Fear of sharing family culture/experiences with school staff
Volunteering: Recruit and organize parent help and support	Parent room or family center for volunteer work, meetings, resources for families	Readiness and willingness to involve families in new ways	Lack of parent and/or family involvement in volunteering
	Parent patrols or other activities to aid safety and operation of school programs Class parent, telephone tree, or other to provide all families with needed information	Awareness of parents and families' individual talents Greater individualized attention	Lack of trust with other families in the school community
Learning at Home: Provide information and ideas to families about how to help students at home with homework and other curriculum-related	Calendars with activities for parents and students at home Summer learning packets or activities Information on how to assist students to improve skills on various class and school assessments	Better design of homework assignments Respect of family time Satisfaction with family involvement and support	Limited opportunities for learning at home with a parent when parent is detained/deported and/or living with persistent threat of deportability

Dimensions	Examples of practices for parents (i.e., home)	Examples of practices for teachers/social justice leaders (i.e., school)	Examples deportability has on involvement (i.e., community)
Decision Making: Include parents in school decisions, developing parent leaders and representatives	Active Parent Teacher Association (PTA)/Parent Teacher Organization (PTO) for parent leadership and participation Information on school or local elections for school representatives Network to link all families with parent representatives	Awareness of parent perspectives as a factor in policy development and decisions View of equal status of family representativeness on communities and in leadership roles	Parents who are detained/deported/living with threat of deportation have limited opportunity and access to PTO sessions Possible language barrier in communicating with school staff and personnel
Collaborating with the Community: Identify and integrate resources and services from the community to strengthen school programs, family practices, and student learning and development	Information for students and families on community health, cultural, recreational, social support, and other programs or services Information on community activities that link to learning skills and talents Service integration through partnerships involving school; civic, counseling, cultural, health, recreation, and other agencies and organizations; and businesses	Awareness of community resources to enrich curriculum and instruction Knowledgeable, helpful referrals of children and families to needed services Openness to and skill in using mentors, business partners, community volunteers, and others to assist students and teaching	Parents who are living with the threat of deportability may benefit from this integral collaboration

Interconnection of Social Justice Leadership and Home, School, Community Partnerships

Trust is the key to successful relationships and effective school communities (Handford & Leithwood, 2013). Educational leaders play key roles in building a trusting school environment. Epstein (2010) interwove trust throughout each involvement type. School leaders should focus on equity and social justice to address issues of race, ethnicity, and class (Dantley & Tillman, 2006; Larson & Ovando, 2001; Singleton, 2014). Principals who engage in courageous conversations and nurture positive

relationships within their school communities counteract the impacts of society's "isms," including racism and classism (Jean-Marie & Mansfield, 2013; Singleton, 2014) and foster a socially just school culture (Brown, 2006; Larson & Ovando, 2001; Shields, 2010).

The familismo of Latino families (Lansdale, et al., 2015), the threat of deportation and deportability (Talavera et al., 2010), and the positive correlation between home, school, community partnerships and academic success (Reschly & Christenson, 2009; Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005) indicate the need for socially just educational leaders to support all students and their families, including those who are marginalized. I used the SJL lens to identify the systems principals and assistant principals established to support home, school, community partnerships during times of deportability. Specifically, the RQ addressed current critiques of home, school, community partnerships. I used Epstein's framework to analyze what the school leaders under study did to support home, school, community partnerships at the school level. Figure 3 shows how I examined the home, school, community partnerships through principals' and assistant principals' perspectives and the outcomes of these partnerships for Latino immigrant students and families living with the threat of deportability.

Figure 3

Home, School, Community Partnerships for Latino Immigrants

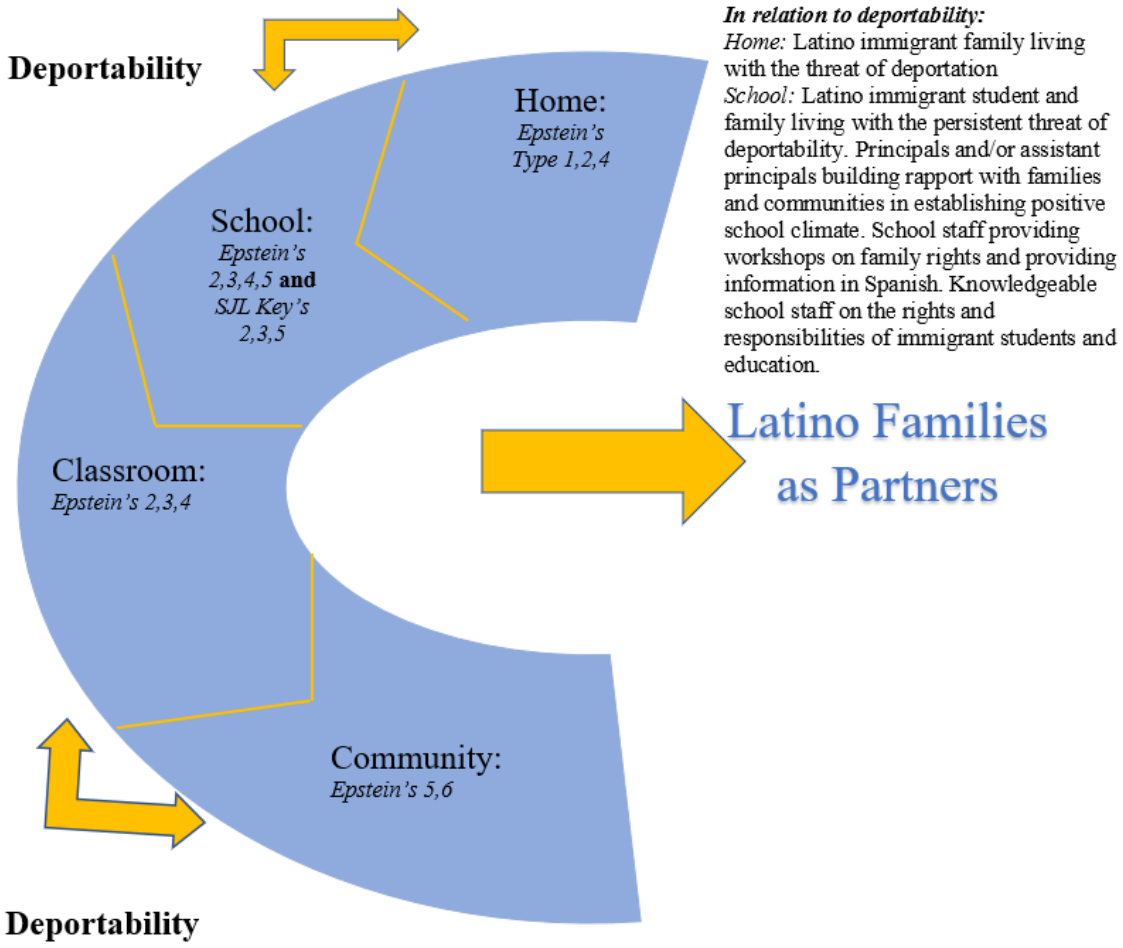


Figure 3 depicts the home, school, community nexus as it relates to the Latino immigrant student and family living with the threat of deportability. With this model, the Latino immigrant student is at the center with each component directly impacting both the student and subsequently the families as partners in their child's education. Specifically, Epstein's six types of involvement (1: parenting, 2: communicating, 3: volunteering, 4: learning from home, 5: decision-making, and 6: collaborating with community) are interwoven within three keys of social justice leadership (Key 2: The principle of possessing core leadership traits leads to the consciousness, knowledge, and

skills needed to be a socially just leader; Key 3: The principle of advancing inclusion, access, and opportunity for all focusses on eliminating structures that marginalize or segregate students and impede their learning; and Key 5: The principle of creating a climate of belonging results in developing an authentic sense of self). Deportability has the potential to impact all facets of the home, school, classroom, and community. In the home, deportability might impact students when their family is detained/deported or in living with the persistent stress of deportability that subsequently minimizes their mobility within the community and school setting.

In terms of SJL, the principal or assistant principal who has an understanding of immigrant policy or reform and creates a climate of belonging may be most successful in forging home, school, community partnerships. In the school, deportability may impact a parent or family's willingness and access to participate within the school culture. In terms of SJL, the principal and/or assistant principal who advocates for the accountability of achievements for all their students, including Latino immigrant students while providing ongoing staff development to enhance equity across the school community could be the most successful in forging home, school, community partnerships. In the classroom, deportability might impact the student's academic performance, given the role of stress on the mental health and academic success of students. Specific to SJL, the principal or assistant principal who empowers staff to be culturally sensitive and creative in supporting students and families while creating a warm classroom climate of belongingness could be most successful in forging home, school, community partnerships. Finally, in the community, deportability could impact the ability of community members to freely access services (mental health/immigration). In terms of

SJL, the principal or assistant principal who reaches out to marginalized families and community services may be most successful in forging home, school, community partnerships. The home, school, community partnerships along with the social justice leader incorporate immigrant Latino families as partners in their children's education while living during times of deportability. At this point, the principals and assistant principals take the interconnectedness and establish needed structures to encourage and support the home, school, community partnership.

Aligning the Frameworks From the Literature to the Research Question

Successful SJL in education includes the leader's ability to enlist committed professional activists (i.e., teachers and school staff) to learn from each other and collaborate to remove barriers and injustices for all students (Peshkin, 1995). Immigrant Latino students and families facing deportability could benefit from principals and assistant principals ensuring a compassionate climate of belonging where teachers, leaders, parents, and community members commit to all its students and collaborate. Socially just educational leaders act in and out of their world, which further influences them (Lalor & Share, 2013). Therefore, I addressed this critical interconnection between home, school, and community by using the SJL and Epstein's (2010) framework to develop the research question (RQ) and subresearch question (SQ):

> RQ. How do principals and assistant principals interpret current practices in place to bridge the home, school, and community partnerships in Latino immigrant families during times of deportability?
>
> SQ. How do principals and assistant principals create systems to support home, school, and community partnerships during times of deportability?

This study focused on principals' and school principals' practices for supporting home, school, community partnerships and enhancing support systems for parental

engagement for immigrant Latino students living with the persistent threat of parental deportation or deportability. The study showed the principals' and assistant principals' leadership styles, including SJL traits, educational styles, and perceptions of the impact of the stressor of deportability on home, school, community partnerships. "Education mirrors society," and often, "social change generates educational change" (Anderson, 1990, p. 32). Therefore, socially just leaders look outside their physical school to include the broader community. The changes in immigration in the United States indicate that principals and assistant principals could lead for social justice via SJL to support all students and families, including those living with the threat of deportability.

Importance of this Literature

This literature review presented research on the strong family bonds in Latino families. The family context is central to Latinos (Chase-Lansdale & Brooks-Gunn, 2014). Therefore, drastically changing or removing the family impacts children significantly. The lack of home–school collaboration has negative outcomes for students. Further research should focus on how principals and assistant principals create systems to support home, school, community partnerships for individuals facing deportability.

Collaboration between educators, parents, and students is not mutually exclusive. Such collaboration results from professionals having access to support systems and resources to improve the educational outcomes for students (Penovich Friend & Cook, 2007; Turnbull, 2001). This literature review showed the importance of parents in children's education. In addition, sudden stressors (e.g., forced parental deportation) impact children's development in the short and long term. Therefore, there was a need to

explore how K–12 leaders can support home, school, community partnerships during times of deportability.

Under the spirit of the law, families are partners in their child's education. However, most schools do not effectively address the needs of immigrant students and their families (Baquedano-Lopez et al., 2013; Dearing et al., 2015). Through SJL, principals and assistant principals can enlist committed professional activists, such as teachers and school staff, to support the student, family, and broader community and make a difference for the collective good across different contexts. A socially just leader encourages social justice at the school and community levels, promoting a policy web (Clark, 2006), where activism and alliances overcome barriers to social equity while leading to policy to achieve social justice for all. The goals of the literature review and this study were to support Latino immigrant students and families living with the persistent threat of parental deportation and deportability. Chapter 3 presents this qualitative study's research design, data collection, and analysis.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Overview of Methodology

The purpose of this dissertation was to explore how K–12 school leaders created support systems for immigrant Latino students and families living with the persistent threat of parental deportation and the larger community threat of deportation. The study focused on the practices and perceptions of principals and assistant principals working closely with immigrant Latino students and their families. SJL was the lens used to critically analyze Epstein's (2001) framework of home, school, community partnerships in immigrant education. Thus, SJL and Epstein's framework enabled exploring how principals and assistant principals bridged these partnerships with Latino immigrant families.

The study had a qualitative basic interpretive design, which includes process orientation, seeing the world through the connections of people, situations, events and processes. The approach was appropriate for exploring how the situation and event of potential parental deportation or deportability influenced parental engagement. This study focused on the participants' meanings and beliefs, which showed how the participants made sense of and understood their influence on behavior (Maxwell, 2013).

The basic qualitative design enables individuals to construct reality in interactions with their social worlds (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Principals and assistant principals might base their beliefs on their perceptions of working with Latino immigrant students and families. The objective of this study was to understand how K–12 leaders created systems of support for immigrant Latino students living with the persistent threat of parental deportation or a larger community threat of deportation.

Meaning is "constructed by human beings as they engage with the world they are interpreting" (Crotty, 1998, pp. 42–43). I used the basic qualitative design to find how principals and assistant principals interpreted their experiences working with immigrant Latino students and their families, constructed their worlds, and attributed meaning to their experiences (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Data collection from the study's 14 interviews occurred to understand how events, actions, and meanings were shaped by the unique contexts in which they occurred (Maxwell, 2013). The collected data provided information on the practices of K–12 leaders in supporting home, school, community partnerships for Latino students and families facing deportability. The purpose of this dissertation was to explore how K–12 school leaders created support systems for immigrant Latino students and families living with the persistent threat of parental deportation and the larger community threat of deportation.

Research Question

The RQ and SQ were:

RQ. How do principals and assistant principals interpret current practices in place to bridge the home, school, and community partnerships in Latino immigrant families during times of deportability?

SQ. How do principals and assistant principals create systems to support home, school, and community partnerships during times of deportability?

The interview questions were the means of finding answers to the research question and SQ and conducting the study based on the chosen framework. The RQ showed my creativity, insight, and understanding of the research context and how the interview questions and observational strategies could occur in practice (Maxwell, 2013).

Research Procedures

This section presents the rationale for choosing the methodology and its application to this study. This chapter includes Appendix A, the recruitment flyer; Appendix B, an email introduction; Appendix C, the informed consent; Appendix D, the interview protocol; and Appendix E, the demographic information.

Epistemology

Social constructivism is the most common epistemology associated with interpretive research. Social constructivism suggests that individuals socially construct reality. There is no single, observable reality (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016) but multiple realities or interpretations of a single event. Thus, individuals develop subjective meanings of their experiences. For this study, the interview data provided an understanding of the practices the principals and assistant principals used to bridge the home–school partnership for Latino immigrant families living with the persistent threat of parental deportation and deportability.

Theoretical Perspective

Because the purpose of SJL is to eliminate cultural and social inequities within the school structure, immigrant students are a marginalized population who could benefit from SJL. Educational scholars have critiqued traditional means of fostering parental engagement for immigrant Latino families. Therefore, SJL was the lens used to analyze Epstein's (2001) home, school, community partnership framework and answer the RQs with the interview data.

Selection of Methodology

The basic interpretive qualitative design was most appropriate for exploring the participating K–12 leaders' perspectives of the practices they used to foster home, school, community partnerships for Latino immigrant families. The basic interpretive design provides insight into how people make sense of their lives and interpret their experiences (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). This study's methodology and design provided the opportunity to gain an understanding of the principals' and assistant principals' perceptions via data collection and analysis.

Sampling

Participant selection occurred with purposeful sampling. Purposeful sampling involves deliberately selecting particular settings, persons, or activities to gain information relevant to the interview questions and goals unable to be obtained through other selection processes (Maxwell, 2013). Purposeful selection occurred in this study due to the setting and the feasibility of access and data collection, along with the desire to select those who speak to the issue. This research focused on a specific population; therefore, purposeful selection occurred to find participants who could provide the needed data. Interviewing purposefully selected participants provided confidence that the conclusions adequately represented the target population's average members. According to Maxwell (2013), the five goals of purposeful selection are to:

> (1) Obtain representativeness or typicality of the settings, individuals, or activities; (2) Capture the heterogeneity in the given population; (3) Purposefully select individuals that are critical for testing the desired theories; (4) Establish comparisons to highlight the reasons for differences between settings or individuals; and (5) Select participants to establish productive relationships while answering desired research questions. (pp. 98–99)

The participants in this study were principals or assistant principals who worked in public schools with at least a 25% Latino student body. This number was selected given the average number of Hispanic students in public schools from 2009 to 2020 increased from 22 to 28 percent (Racial/Ethnic Enrollment in Public Schools, 2022). Recruitment flyer (see Appendix A) distribution occurred via email and snowball sampling, which consists of asking the participants to refer others who met the criteria to gain more information-rich cases. In addition, I posted the recruitment flyer on three different Facebook groups: Latinas Completing Doctoral Degrees (N = 9,000), PhD Mamas (N = 15,000), and Doctoral Moms (N = 10,000). Posting the flyer on Facebook provided the opportunity to reach a large number (N = 34,000) of potential participants. Social media platforms, such as Facebook, are information-rich opportunities to access diverse populations otherwise difficult to identify (Franz et al., 2019). Due to increasing numbers of social media users, many researchers include this platform in their research approaches.

As of October 2022, there were 2.96 million active Facebook users in the United States (Datareportal, 2023.). Thus, many scholars and researchers have turned to social media to understand contemporary society (Snelson, 2016). The use of social media in educational research is an emergent practice. However, found the medium appropriate to engage in purposeful sampling.

Eighty-five potential participants initiated contact to indicate their interest in the study. The potential participants received an email invitation (see Appendix B) that presented the study and its expectations. After the prospective participants' first contact, all communication occurred via email. Follow-up email exchanges showed that 16 of the

potential participants fit the inclusion criteria, and two of the 16 withdrew from the study. Therefore, 14 participants voluntarily accepted the invitation to participate in virtual interviews. The study had an adequate sample, as saturation occurred by the 11th participant interview. However, I conducted the rest of the interviews due to each participant's unique experience and location.

Given the topic's sensitivity, the participants could have disclosed aspects of their lives that could have caused discomfort and emotional distress. The participants had the right to protection against any vulnerability during the interview process and data analysis (Hurst, 2008). Sharing and obtaining informed consent was a way of minimizing the risks the participants faced. All participants received the information needed to discern whether they wanted to proceed with the study. The informed consent included seven of the eight major components by Seidman (2013):

> (1) "An invitation to participate in what, to what end, how, how long, and for whom" (p. 64); (2) Risks; (3) Rights; (4) Possible benefits; (5) Confidentiality of data; (6) Information on the process of dissemination; and (7) Contact information and copies of the form. Given the age of the participants, "Special considerations for children" was not required. (p. 65)

The relationship between the interviewer and the participant is a critical component of interviewing. How researchers obtain access to participants can affect the beginning of their relationships with participants and the subsequent interview process (Seidman, 2013). Because this study focused on a sensitive topic, the first part of each interview involved building rapport while obtaining demographic information and inquiring about the participants' perceptions of their school's parental engagement and home, school, community partnerships. Rapport-building occurred to foster mutual trust and respect to obtain authentic insight into the K–12 leaders' perceptions in the interview process. This study's interviews had three purposes. First, by taking the time to meet with

participants, I made the participants feel important, respected, and valued. Second, the interview enabled me to become familiar with the setting where the participants lived or worked. Third, as Seidman (2013) indicated, the interviews were means of initiating the process of informed consent.

Qualitative methodology, and specifically semistructured interviews, provide the opportunity to generate understandable and credible results and theories (Maxwell, 2013). The open-ended questions enabled the participants to discuss their perceptions of and practices to address the impact of the persistent threat of parental deportation. Some researchers have argued that traditional interviews could lead to imposing Anglo-American discourse norms on participants, which could damage the relationship or reduce the amount of useful information obtained (Briggs, 1986; Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995). This study had the potential to include culturally and linguistically diverse participants. Therefore, the semistructured interviews enabled me to shift my approach and discover new culturally appropriate ways to learn about the topic. Semistructured interviews enable researchers to gather a compelling elicitation of the participants' experiences (Seidman, 2013), which occurred in this study. Ultimately, the interviews felt open and honest because the participants shared their raw emotions while conveying their experiences with deportation in their school communities.

This study included two measures to validate the interview protocol. First, I conducted an expert and peer review, having two doctoral colleagues and the dissertation committee review the interview protocol to suggest revisions and edits. Second, I conducted a pilot interview with one assistant principal. The feedback and experience of this interview enabled me to revise the protocol, which informed the data collection.

Measures to Address Validity, Bias, and Reliability

Validity assessments contributed to the study's credibility. Conducting a valid study requires interpreting the data so the conclusions accurately reflect and represent the real world (Yin, 2016). There are several practices for ensuring the "correctness or credibility of a description, conclusion, explanation, interpretation, or other sort of account" (Maxwell, 2013, p. 122). Qualitative reliability is a study's trustworthiness, rigor, and quality. This section presents the measures used in the study for qualitative reliability.

Validity Threats. A qualitative researcher's primary role is gaining an understanding. Qualitative research must occur following measures to ensure a trustworthy and authentic study. Maxwell (2013) suggested assessing validity "in relationship to the purposes and circumstances of the research" (p. 121). Identifying possible threats is a way to eliminate potentially invalid conclusions. By identifying potential threats, I could verify my conclusions and test their validity to avoid threats to those conclusions (see Campbell, 1998).

Trustworthiness. Building trustworthiness is an "attitude" rather than a procedure to build credibility (Yin, 2016, p. 86). Qualitative scholars strive to instill trustworthiness in the data collection methods instead of discussing the "truthfulness" of the data (Gibson & Brown, 2009, p. 59). To ensure trustworthiness, I clearly stated my research topic, study site, participants, method, and data collection via semistructured interviews. After completing the data collection and analysis, I explicitly described the site and participant selection as well as the challenges and how I overcame them. In addition, I demonstrated the authenticity of my work by providing accurate participant descriptions and

representations, confirming that I had conducted all the fieldwork (Eisenhart, 2006) and that the generated themes reflected the participants' voices. I also engaged in multiple discussions and iterations with the dissertation chair.

Triangulation. Using multiple approaches to collect information is a common component of qualitative research (Maxwell, 2013). This study included the triangulation of different methods to check them against one another and identify the strengths and limitations in the findings. In this study, the data sources were the participant interviews and my notes and journaling. Triangulation provided a broad range of data and showed the strength of the findings. The interviews were a direct way to learn about the K–12 leaders' practices in bridging the home, school, community partnerships for Latino immigrant families during times of deportability. Journaling provided me the opportunity to note the participants reactions to questions, specifically if any emotions arose. Given the sensitivity of the topic, journaling helped me take note when participants cried or voiced anger over certain issues. In addition, as a researcher, journaling gave me an opportunity to write down my own thoughts and feelings after an interview. There were a number of instances where feelings were raw, not only for the participant but for myself. Journaling gave me a space to discuss my feelings. I was then able to move on and interpret the data in an unbiased way. Given my closeness to this topic, journaling was a critical component to my research.

Rich, Thick Data. Rich, thick data show transferability (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). This study had in-depth data collection and descriptions. I obtained accurate transcripts from the audio-recorded interviews. The rich, thick data included verbatim quotes and their incorporation in the data analysis and findings.

Data Saturation. The decision to end data collection is the occurrence of saturation. Data saturation occurs when continued data collection produces "no new information or insights into the phenomenon you are studying" (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 199). Although 14 participants voluntarily engaged in virtual interviews, saturation occurred by the 11th participant. However, I conducted the remaining interviews given each participant's unique experience and location.

Peer Review. A peer review is a discussion with colleagues regarding a study's process, findings, raw data, and interpretation (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). A peer review is a natural part of the research process. For this study, the dissertation committee provided knowledge and feedback. In addition, doctoral colleagues reviewed and examined the study by scanning some of the raw data and assessing the plausibility of the findings are plausible (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016).

Qualitative Reliability. The study included documenting qualitative reliability, which is the consistency of the results. The measures identified in the following paragraphs showed the stability of the findings.

Transcript Review. The transcripts underwent review for any errors that occurred during transcription (see Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The transcript review involved listening to the audio-recorded interviews while reading the transcripts. I identified, corrected, and documented all errors.

Definition of Codes. The codes had a consistent meaning across the transcripts in line with Creswell and Creswell (2018). Continuously reviewing the codes involved writing memos about their definitions and cross-referencing their use. In addition, I established an intercoder agreement where a peer cross-referenced the established codes.

The purpose of the intercoder agreement was to show whether the codes had appropriate labels or required revision.

Researcher Bias. Through journaling I accounted for findings that reflected the "selection of data that fit the researcher's existing theory, goals, or preconceptions, and the selection of data that 'stand out' to the researcher" (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 263). I identified my theories, beliefs, and perceptual lens to keep the research and its findings free of personal values and expectations that could have impacted the study. Given my closeness to the topic, journaling was especially important for me to maintain my neutrality. I utilized journaling by noting either emotions overtly displayed by the participants or any emotions or personal thoughts conjured during the interview. Journaling and self-reflection were the tools used to reduce personal bias.

Positionality. Merriam and Tisdell (2016) referred to researchers' positionality as "their race, gender, social class background, and sexual orientation—particularly with response to the study purposes" (pp. 63–64). Positionality could be an asset for researchers in developing trust with participants if they have positionalities similar to those of the participants. Participants in studies of marginalized groups might feel suspicious of members of the dominant culture researching oppressed groups (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Therefore, I identified my positionality due to the study's focus. As a Latina educator working for the last 17 years with vulnerable populations, I hoped the participants understood and felt that I was conducting research *with* them, not *on* them. I shared cultural and lived experiences with some participants, so I used reflexive practices to hold myself accountable regarding the experiences that could have influenced my

encounters, choice of processes, and interpretations. My objective was "empathetic neutrality" by striving to:

> Avoid obvious, conscious or systematic bias and to be as neutral as possible in the collection, interpretation, and presentation of data…[while recognizing that] this aspiration can never be fully attained—all research will be influenced by the researcher and there is no completely 'neutral' or 'objective knowledge'. (Ormstron et al., 2009).

In chapter five I further discuss the role my positionality played during my interviews.

Reflexivity. Reflexivity, or awareness of how the researcher influences the topic studied and how the research process affects the researcher, is a critical component of qualitative research (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Making this research a critical study required reflexivity. A personal bias was my empathy for families living with the persistent threat of deportation in the current political climate. Professionally, I work in communities with many Latino immigrants who live with this threat daily; personally, I have lived through the deportation of a loved one. I accounted for my biases by journaling and memoing after the interviews. Bracketing occurred to identify, track, acknowledge, and mitigate preconceived notions or experiences that could have "taint[ed] the research process" (Tufford & Newman, 2010, p. 1). In line with Bozalek and Zembylas (2017), diffraction enabled me to identify material realities and differences between myself and the participants. The practices discussed were means to inform my positionality.

Subjectivity. The interview–respondent interaction is complex. All participants have biases, predispositions, attitudes, and physical characteristics that could affect interactions and the data (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). As a woman born and raised in Puerto Rico, I have dedicated my time in the United States to working with lower-income Latino communities. As a Latina, I immerse myself in the community, professionally and

personally. I am a bilingual speech-language pathologist living and working in communities with a high Latino presence. As an educator, I have worked with children and families living with the threat of deportation. During my work, I have seen how parental deportation impacts the remaining caregivers and children with and without disabilities. Given these biases, I approached the study with a deep concern for the treatment of immigrant students. Furthermore, as an interviewer, I ensured I had enough distance to ask questions and explore, not share assumptions and perceptions, an approach recommended by Seidman (2013).

Methodological Issues

Several methodological issues could have arisen in this study. Controlling for potential threats was necessary to minimize the volume and significance of these issues. Due to purposeful selection, there was the potential for "key information bias" (Gough et al., 2012) given that there was no guarantee that the informants had typical views. A potential limitation of using social media in a study is the misuse of users' data. I was knowledgeable of Facebook and used organizational measures and procedures during data collection to maintain privacy. In addition, despite my best attempts to control researcher bias, my bias was a reality. As a qualitative researcher, I remained intentional and reflective throughout the research process by considering my positionality and insider/outsider stances while owning and documenting potential effects on the interviews and findings, an approach identified by Merriam and Tisdell (2016). Reflexivity was a critical component of avoiding potential methodological issues in this study. Finally, despite my best efforts, the participants could have had limited firsthand knowledge of the threat of deportation for their students.

Data Management

Data collection included audio-recording the interviews while taking handwritten notes. I uploaded the audio-records into Temi for transcriptions and conducted a manual review of the transcripts upon receipt. After each interview, I wrote a brief reflection statement of my impressions and pertinent information regarding the setting (e.g., a participant crying during a specific part of the interview).

Data Collection

Data collection occurred via participant interviews. Weiss (1994) stated, "Interviewing gives us access to the observations of others. Through interviewing, we can learn about places we have not been and could not go and about settings in which we have not lived" (p. 1). Due to this study's focus, interviewing principals and assistant principals was the only feasible way to gain a description of their practices in home–school partnerships.

Participants

The participants were 14 principals and assistant principals across five regions of the United States who worked in public schools with at least a 25% Latino student body. I selected this percentage based on the 2020 national average of 23.1% of students identifying as Latino (United States Census Bureau, 2021). This percentage is dependent upon geographic location, for example certain Southern border communities, have a larger percentage of Latino students. Of the 14 participants, nine worked in schools with a greater than 50% Latino student body. I obtained and documented the participants' education and demographics. The sample included an equal number of principals and assistant principals. Eight participants worked in elementary schools, two in middle

schools, and four in high schools. Purposeful participant selection occurred based on school demographics and experience working with immigrant Latino families. Chapter 4 presents detailed descriptions of the participants.

Interview Process

All interviews occurred virtually via Zoom due to the participants' different locations and the COVID-19 pandemic. Whether recruited via flyers, snowball sampling, or Facebook groups, all participants received the informed consent and scheduled virtual interviews via email. The semistructured interviews followed a protocol (see Appendix D), with the interview questions focused on the RQ. I used the interview protocol to record and write down information from each interview and conducted the interviews conversationally to build social relationships, as proposed by Yin (2016). Each interview lasted 30 to 60 minutes. The interviews presented the opportunity for two-way interactions, as the participants could also ask me questions. During the interviews, I used intense listening to ensure I systematically heard and understood what the participants told me. Two-way interactions after each interview were not part of data collection.

The semistructured interviews included open-ended questions on particular events and actions. The participants recalled a specific event or action (e.g., the threat of parental deportation) by accessing episodic memory, which is information organized by sequencing time and connection in space (Dere et al., 2008; Tulving, 2002). Episodic interviewing provided greater access to the participants' perceptions. In contrast to structured interviews that follow a script, semistructured interviews provide the opportunity to understand the participants "on their own terms and how they make meaning of their own lives, experiences, and cognitive processes" (Brenner, 2006, p.

357). Open-ended questions enabled the participants to respond in their words while engaging in a discussion.

Ensuring adequate engagement in data collection enabled me to get as close as possible to the participants' understanding of the study, questions, and interview protocols. Data saturation occurred when data collection provided no new information or insight into the RQ or study (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Ensuring that the data collection and saturation included alternative explanations shows researcher integrity and study credibility (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Finally, I asked follow-up questions for clarification or validation during the interview.

After each interview, I transcribed the audio recordings using the Temi app. Some participants spoke Spanish during the interviews, in which cases I manually translated the Spanish transcripts into English. Each participant had a unique voice; therefore, it was important that none of their stories were lost in translation. Translating the Spanish transcripts into English was necessary for coding and analysis. All transcripts underwent review for accuracy. Journaling occurred after each interview to document the themes that resonated with me while briefly comparing that interview to a previous one. In addition, I self-reflected on the experience and how I felt afterward. Finally, I took field notes throughout the interviews for later transcript clarification, primarily regarding the participants' emotional responses to the questions.

Data Analysis

Data analysis involved several critical steps. First, I read and analyzed the transcripts, field memos, and notes. Field memos provide analytic insight into a researcher's goals, methods, theories, and experiences while working with the

participants (Maxwell, 2013). Winnowing the data, or focusing on some data while discarding other parts, is a means to aggregate the data into smaller themes (Creswell, 2013). Data analysis included compiling, disassembling, reassembling and arraying, interpreting, and identifying findings from the data.

Preparing Data

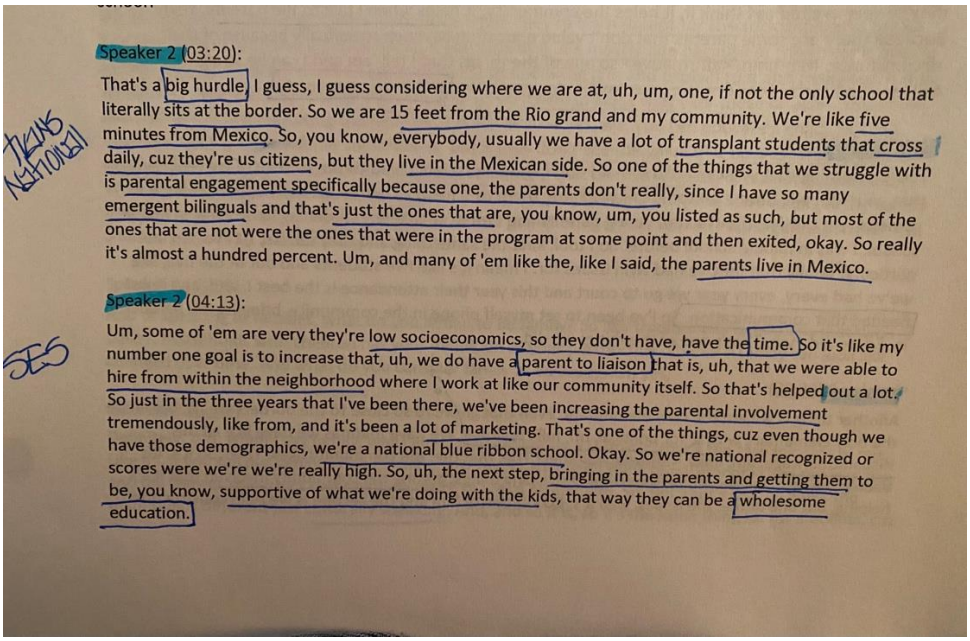
Preparing the data was an important step in familiarizing myself with the interview content. Data preparation commenced by reading each printed transcript and highlighting significant passages. Afterward, I uploaded each transcript into MAXQDA qualitative analysis software (VERBI Software, 2019) and printed a copy of the RQ and subquestion and their alignment to the theoretical framework. In addition, I created and printed a cheat sheet to align each interview question to a framework (see Appendix F). I uploaded and reread each interview transcript, highlighting key terms and phrases that supported my RQ or seemed provocative.

Preliminary Jottings

Coding occurred after collecting and formatting the data. During journaling, I identified common words and phrases heard during the interviews. The field notes also included keywords and emotional responses. After each interview, I printed the Temi transcript, jotted down key words and buzzwords, and highlighted essential terms or phrases. Jotting information and thoroughly reading the data provided a sense of ease when developing categories and codes (see Figure 4).

Figure 4

Initial Jottings on Paper



Codes and Categories

Corbin and Strauss (2014) three types of coding were utilized to determine what to code: (a) open coding for general categories and their properties, (b) axial coding to develop and link categories and subcategories, and (c) selective coding to integrate and refine categories. Coding involved arranging data into categories for comparison between and across thematic concepts. Codifying, the process of dividing, grouping, and reapplying codes to qualitative data, is a means of drawing meaning and conclusions (Grbich, 2013). The coding process included identifying and clustering the data into subcategories, categories, and themes. Rossman and Rallis (2003) explained the difference between categories and themes: "Think of a category as a word or phrase describing some segment of your data that is explicit, whereas a theme is a phrase or sentence describing subtler and tacit processes" (p. 282).

I used MAXQDA and manual coding to conduct the data analysis. After uploading all transcripts, I performed open coding by "lumping and splitting" (Saldaña, 2016, p. 24) the data. Lumping, or "broad stroke representation" (p. 24), occurred to identify initial codes. During the second and third readings, I split the data into smaller codable moments (see Figure 7). Lumping occurred to get to the essence of the category, and splitting followed to scrutinize the data, as suggested by Saldaña (2016). Memoing was another key part of the process. The purpose of memoing was to capture in-the-moment thoughts about the data and their connection to the RQ and framework (see Figure 6) to develop categories and themes. The data analysis also involved identifying and aligning categories to the key tenets of the theoretical framework, RQ, and subquestion. The categories provided the opportunity to look for commonalities across the participants.

Figure 5

Splitting and Lumping of Data

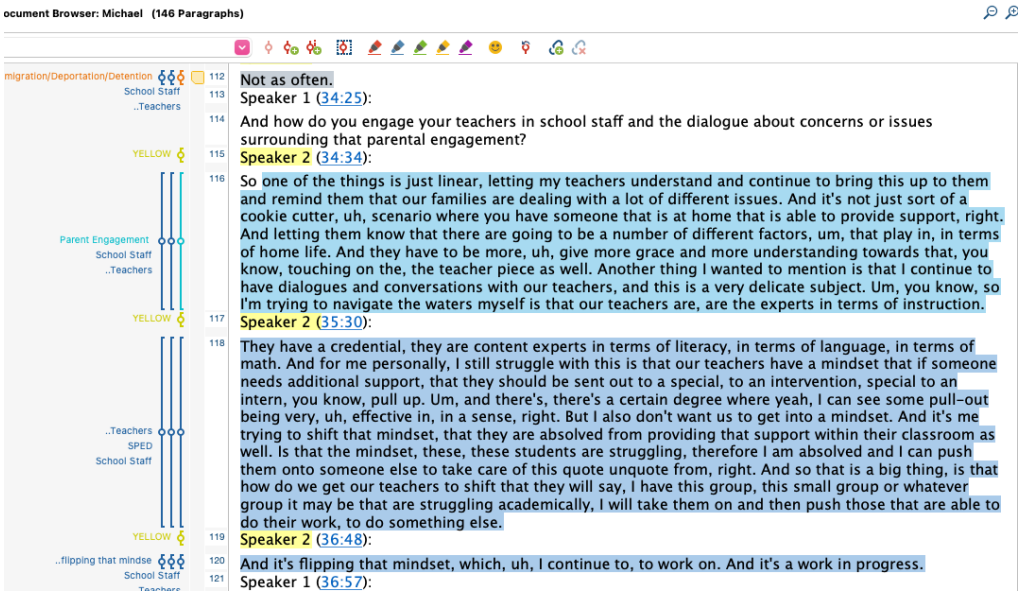
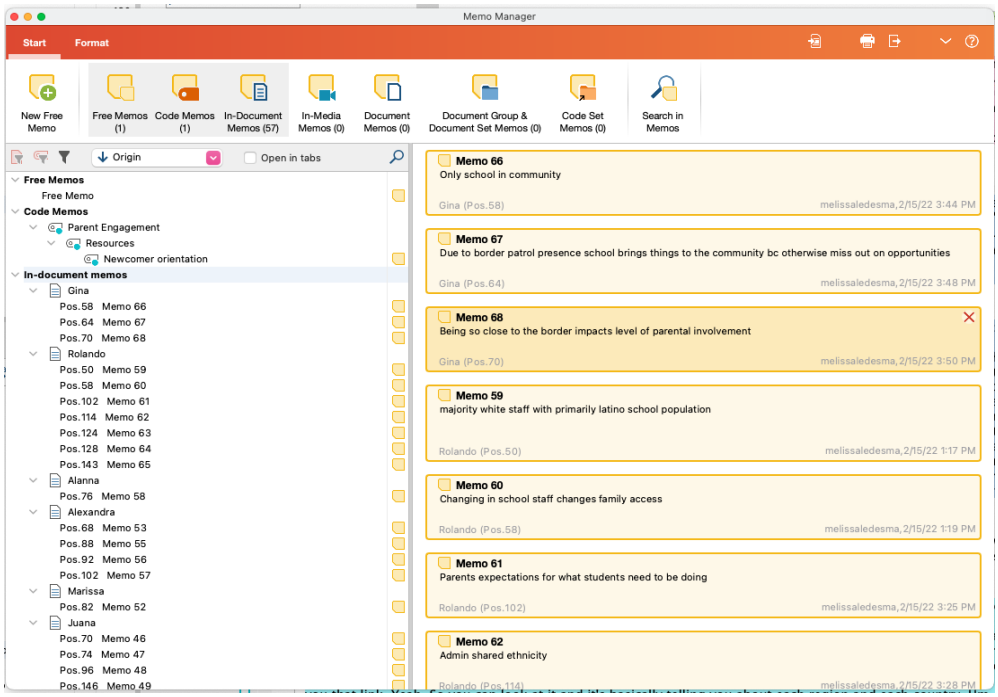


Figure 6

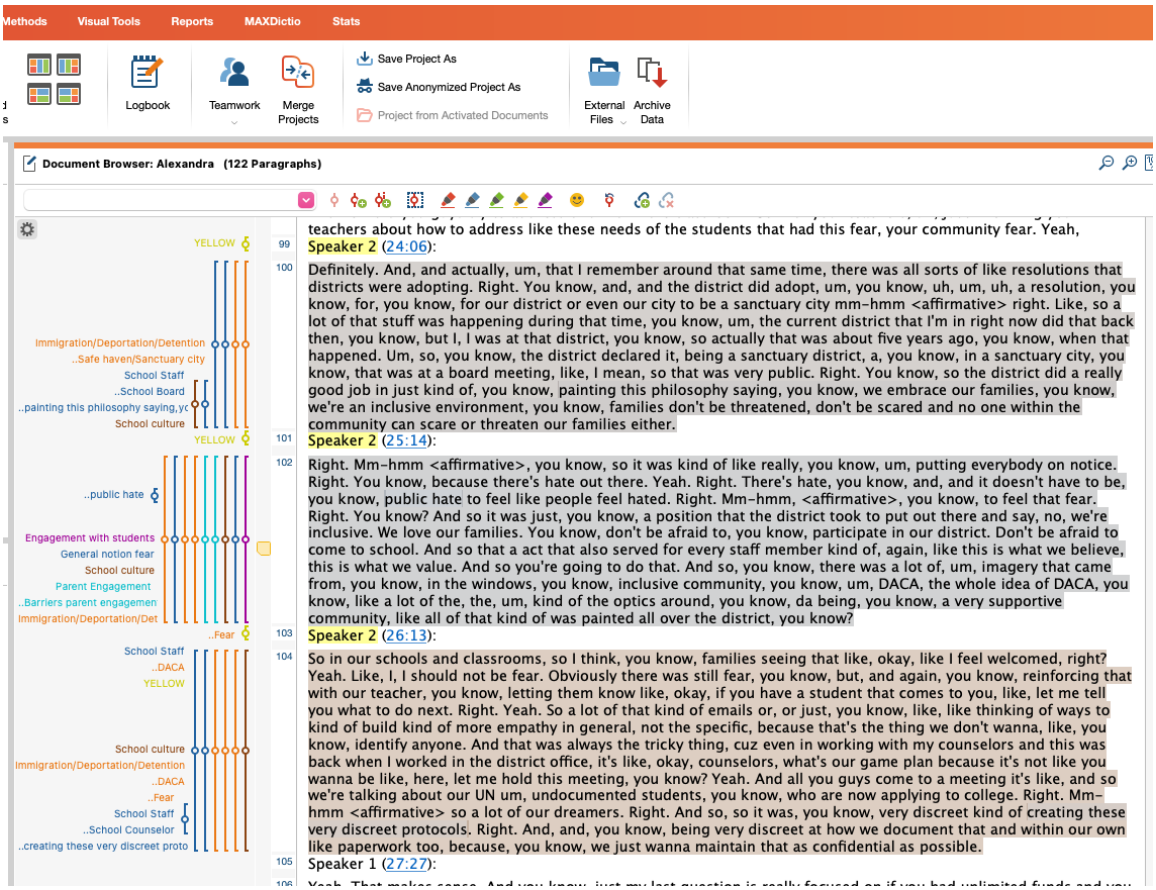
Memoing in MAXQDA



The data analysis included the following codes, as discussed by Saldaña (2016): in vivo (i.e., using the direct language of participants as codes); versus (i.e., phrases that show the actual and conceptual conflicts within, along, and between participants); and descriptive (i.e., coding across multiple types of data). Axial coding occurred to begin grouping the analysis. Coding included assigning codes to more than one category or participant, resulting in overlapping codes. I completed three coding cycles for each of the 14 transcripts. Figure 7 is an example of a coded section of an interview transcript in MAXQDA with a category, codes, and an in vivo code.

Figure 7

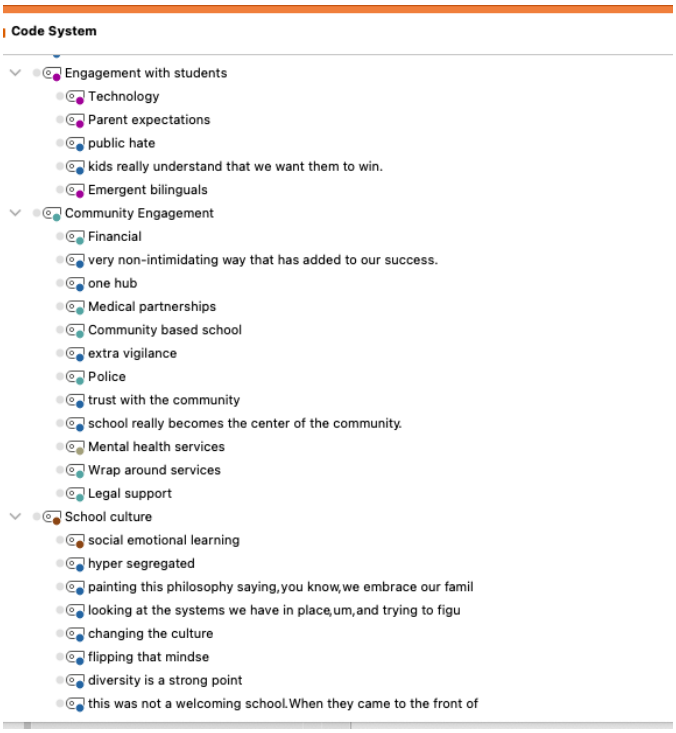
Examples of Categories, Codes, and in Vivo Codes



Next, selective coding occurred to integrate and refine categories across participants. I differentiated the categories into subcategories based on the data to develop the RQs and framework. This fine-tuning of categories, codes, and subcategories provided a better understanding of the participants' responses. Figure 8 shows the categories and subcategories.

Figure 8

Categories and Subcategories Created



Analysis

After analysis, "theming the data" (Saldaña, 2016, p. 15) provided a profile of the process with an extended thematic statement. The data identified during the axial and selective coding were used to identify five themes. Table 3 presents the RQ and subquestion with the themes and subthemes, showing how in vivo coding of participants' statements enabled me to capture and summarize a major idea. During the theming process, I incorporated the initial information I had jotted down throughout the coding cycles to detect processes, emotions, explanations, causes, consequences, and conclusions related to the RQ and subquestion (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). Chapter 4 presents the themes.

Table 2

Alignment of Research Questions to Themes and Subthemes

Research Question and Subquestion	Theme	Subthemes
RQ: How do principals and assistant principals interpret current practices in place to bridge the home, school, and community partnerships for Latino immigrant families during times of deportability SQ: How do principals and assistant principals create systems to support home, school, and community partnerships during times of deportability	1. "Esto es mi comunidad" (in English, "This is my community"): Principals and assistant principals who identify culturally and linguistically with their students and families felt that communal fear of deportation and subsequently worked with the larger community to ensure schools became a "cornucopia" for services.	• Administrators living within the larger school community • Extending education into the home • Empowering families via voting • Benefits of bilingual and bicultural staff
	2. Access to technology crossed any physical boundaries: While traditionally a barrier, access to technology provided parents outlets to participate in their child's education, despite living in a different country or reluctance to physically participate in school-based activities.	• Technology brought into the home • Translations via technology • Technology bridging the transportation barrier • Utilizing social media
	3. Deportation is a way of life: For schools closer to the border there are not explicit policies in place to support students and families living through these processes as it is a way of life. Deportation/detention is integrated within the school culture.	• 2016 election • Mental health and community partnerships • Proximity to Mexico • Proxy homelessness
	4. "One student, all students": Changing the school culture	• The school as a cornucopia • Trauma-informed teaching • Cultural competency

Results

The study presents the findings thematically using the themes as headings and important categories as subheadings. Each section includes an introduction, conclusion, and rich data from the coding and analysis. An in-depth discussion of the findings follows in Chapter 4.

Institutional Review Board and Ethical Considerations

I submitted an application to the George Washington University Institutional Review Board (IRB) before participant recruitment and data collection. Because the

research included human participants, the study required a full IRB review due to potential ethical and safety concerns. My submission included the study packet that included the study's details and participant protection concerns. The IRB application required presenting the steps for obtaining informed consent; the study's harms, risks, and benefits; the selection of equitable groups; and means for ensuring confidentiality.

Conducting a "good" quality qualitative study requires conducting the entire study ethnically (Merriam & Grenier, 2019). Recruitment did not occur until after gaining IRB approval (see Appendix G). Via email, each participant received an informed consent form (see Appendix C) that included the risks, benefits, and their rights. For confidentiality, all participants received pseudonyms, and I stored personally identifiable information in a password-protected document separate from the study files. All electronic files remained in a secured, password-protected location, with all printed documents in a locked filing cabinet. The demographic information (see Appendix E) remained confidential and was redacted from transcripts and deleted after the research.

Conclusion

The basic interpretive design was appropriate to gain insight into the principals' and assistant principals' practices in bridging the home, school, community partnership for Latino immigrant families living with the persistent threat of parental deportation and deportability. Semistructured interviews enabled me to build rapport and trust while obtaining demographic information and the participants' perceptions of the school culture. I examined and coded the participants' practices and identified and aligned themes to the framework. I presented my positionality and subjectivity due to the topic's

sensitivity. In addition, I mitigated possible validity threats. Chapters 4 and 5 address the themes and findings.

Chapter 4: Results

Overview

Changing school demographics have impacted the appearance of home, school, community partnerships for students. Traditional views of parental engagement and partnership have not included immigrants in meaningful ways (Carreón et al., 2005; Chavez-Reyes, 2010; Lareau, 2003; Lopez et al., 2001; Valdés, 1996; Valenzuela, 1999; Villenas, 2002), specifically Latino students and families living with the persistent threat of parental deportation or deportability. School administrators' role in supporting these partnerships remain unknown. This chapter presents the voices of 14 principals and assistant principals in public schools across the United States. The chapter has three sections: an overview, analysis and results, and a summary. The analysis section presents the participants, followed by a detailed analysis and the answers to the RQs. Semistructured interviews with open-ended questions provided a greater understanding of the participants' perspectives and addressed the RQ and SQ.

The basic qualitative interpretive design was the approach used to understand the role of K–12 leaders in supporting home, school, community relationships during times of deportability. I used SJL and Epstein's (2001) framework of home, school, community partnerships to establish the interview protocol and organize the emergent themes. Three cycles of coding occurred to identify codes, subcodes, and themes, as discussed in the following sections.

The RQ was, How do principals and assistant principals interpret current practices in place to bridge the home, school, and community partnerships in Latino immigrant families during times of deportability? Data collection occurred to gather the participants'

interpretations and perceptions. The resultant themes addressed the subquestion, How do principals and assistant principals create systems to support home, school, and community partnerships during times of deportability?

Analysis and Results

This section has four subsections. The first subsection is an introduction to the participants to familiarize the reader with the interviewees and provide context for their remarks. The section also includes researcher reflexivity. The remaining subsections address the codes, themes, and participant responses. The participants had unique voices, and I sought to give value and light to their work. Therefore, each theme and subtheme reflects the participants' experiences. This section concludes with the commonalities or differences between SJL and Epstein's (2001) framework.

Participant Profiles

This subsection presents profiles of the participants, their general school context and location, and perspectives on deportation or deportability. In addition, there is additional context for the codes identified during transcript review (see Figure 7). Table 3 provides a general overview of the participants. Following the table are brief descriptions of the participants.

Table 3

Demographic Information of Research Participants

Pseudonym	Location	Ethnicity	Gender	Position	% Latino student body	Years in current position	Years with culturally linguistically diverse learners
Sara	West	Latina	Female	Principal Elementary School	97	6	24
Michael	West	Asian	Male	Principal Elementary School	43.7	2	20
Courtney	Mid-Atlantic	African American	Female	Assistant Principal Elementary School	28	5	17
Barbara	Mid-Atlantic	African American	Female	Assistant Principal High School	45	5	24
Lola	Mid-Atlantic	White	Female	Assistant Principal Middle School	25	9	22
Matthew	Mid-Atlantic	African American	Male	Assistant Principal High School	50	8	18
Sheila	South	White	Female	Principal Elementary School	30	5	7
Juana	South	Latina	Female	Principal Elementary School	100	3	15
Marissa	West	Latina	Female	Principal Elementary School	99	6	18
Alexandra	West	Latina	Female	Assistant Principal High School	60	8	26
Alanna	North	Latina	Female	Assistant Principal Elementary School	73	2	20
Rolando	Mid-West	Latino	Male	Principal Middle School	97	2	8

Pseudonym	Location	Ethnicity	Gender	Position	% Latino student body	Years in current position	Years with culturally linguistically diverse learners
Gina	West	Latina	Female	Principal Elementary School	99	9	20
Jessica	South	Latina	Female	Assistant Principal High School	98	1	16

Sara. Sara was a Latina principal in an elementary school on the West Coast with 6 years in her current position and 24 years working with culturally and linguistically diverse learners. Her school had a 97% Latino student body, with 100% of students receiving free and reduced-price lunches. Sara described home and community engagement as "authentic and organic" and "empowering" in bridging home, school, community relationships. Sara's school had strong community ties. All the office staff were bilingual Spanish-speakers, and the school had a high proportion of Latino teaching staff, including counselors, parent liaisons, community aids, homeless liaisons, and teachers.

Michael. Michael was an Asian principal in an elementary school on the West Coast with 2 years in his current position and 19 years working with culturally and linguistically diverse learners. Michael described his school body as approximately 43.7% Latino. Due to the closure of a lower-income school nearby, Michael's primarily White and affluent school had an increase in Latino students bussed in from a surrounding neighborhood. During his 2 years as principal, Michael saw a "White flight" of families moving out of the school as the Latino population increased. For example, in 2019, the percentage of Whites in the surrounding area was 69%, with 20% identifying as

Hispanic; however, by 2021, these numbers changed to 46% and 44%, respectively (SchoolDigger, 2022).

When Michael noticed the primarily White teaching staff struggling with cultural competency, he hired bilingual and Spanish-speaking office staff and a community engagement liaison. When discussing the shift in the school demographics, Michael described community and parental engagement as intentional and "successful" in helping families "bridge that opportunity to access." Technology was initially a barrier for many families, but Michael found more families actively participating in school when transportation was no longer a barrier.

Courtney. Courtney was a Black assistant principal in an elementary school in a Mid-Atlantic state with 5 years in her current position and 17 years working with culturally and linguistically diverse learners. Courtney described her school body as approximately 28% Latino, with students speaking over 30 languages. The school had culturally and linguistically diverse teaching staff and three front office staff members supported the Latino school community. Courtney described teachers of ELLs as "keeping those relationships going" between school and parents. Community aid, such as mental health providers and social workers, provided support for the school and families.

Barbara. Barbara was a Black assistant principal at a high school in a Mid-Atlantic state with 5 years in her current position and 24 years working with culturally and linguistically diverse learners. The school body mirrored the neighboring community, consisting of 45% Latinos. While most teaching staff did not speak Spanish, the career tech teacher and ELL teachers played a significant role in supporting parental engagement.

Lola. Lola was a White educator who was previously an assistant principal in a middle school in a Mid-Atlantic state with 9 years of experience in that role and 22 years working with culturally and linguistically diverse learners. Lola described her school body as approximately 25% Latino. She said the school community became more diverse each school year, noting that between January and February, there tended to be an influx of students immigrating from out of the country or moving from within the county. After hiring an attendance secretary who spoke Spanish, Lola noticed a "total shift" in parents feeling more comfortable coming to the office. The teachers changed their instruction and parental engagement efforts due to the significant change in school demographics.

Matthew. Matthew was a Black high school principal in a mid-Atlantic state with 8 years of experience in his current position and 18 years working with culturally and linguistically diverse learners. Matthew described his school body as approximately 50% Latino. His school was a "hub for culturally and linguistically diverse learners" in the region. The shift in student demographics correlated with a shift in teacher demographics, with at least 50% of the teaching staff identifying as Latino. Matthew's school had an open-door policy, even during the pandemic, and focused on "parents as partners." The larger community saw an increase in poverty and store closures, despite the school's attempts to maintain parental engagement.

Sheila. Sheila was a White principal in an elementary school in a Southeastern state with 5 years of experience in her current position and 7 years working with culturally and linguistically diverse learners. Sheila described her school body as approximately 30% Latino. Her school was the largest elementary school in the state and a Title I school. Sheila described receiving additional resources, such as parent

engagement specialists and a resource center. Sheila noted that there was much parental involvement before the COVID-19 pandemic; however, parents could only participate virtually during the pandemic. Most teaching staff spoke English, and the staff received training on how to use the language line for translation services. Sheila described the relationship between the school and the larger community as positive and a "great resource." The community was an extension of the school. Sheila identified this dynamic as "taking that love and care outside of the walls of the school."

Juana. Juana was a Latina principal in an elementary school in a Southern state with 3 years of experience in her current position and 15 years working with culturally and linguistically diverse learners. Juana described the school body as 100% Latino, with 78% emergent bilingual students and 98.6% students identified as economically disadvantaged. Juana's school was 15 feet from Mexico and a Blue Ribbon School. Juana reported that hers was the only school on the U.S.–Mexican border, which led to them providing support for transnational students. The school included staff from the community who mirrored student demographics, with 100% of the staff identifying as Latinos and Spanish speakers. Parental engagement was a critical component of the school's campus improvement plan. Proximity to the border and immigration practices impacted parental and community engagement. Juana's school was a hub and an extension of the larger community. Juana said, "Deportations are part of life, and it's just an everyday piece of life." Thus, deportation did not impact parental engagement due to the school's proximity to Mexico and families frequently crossing back and forth over the border. Sudden and immediate shifts in family dynamics resulted in an increase in children identified as homeless under the McKinney-Vento Homeless Assistance Act.

Marissa. Marissa was a principal in an elementary school on the West Coast with 6 years of experience in her current position and 18 years working with culturally and linguistically diverse learners. Marissa described her school body as 99% Latino, with many students having multigenerational families. The school had 100% bilingual and Spanish-speaking staff, and the council and board members were also Latino. Marissa described technology as no longer a barrier but "really helpful" in bridging home, school, community relationships. She described her school's location as a "hyper-segregated" part of the state with "underserved" families. Despite the lack of resources in the community, Marissa described families as "resources themselves." The school's leaders could reach out to community stakeholders when students or their families had issues related to immigration status.

Alexandra. Alexandra was an assistant principal in a high school on the West Coast with 8 years of experience in her current position and 26 years working with culturally and linguistically diverse learners. The school was located in a sanctuary city. Alexandra described the school body as approximately 60% Latino. The students were primarily first-generation immigrants, and approximately 300 of these students were ELLs. The student population had a recent increase in unaccompanied minors. A "good portion" of Alexandra's teaching and front office staff were bilingual or Spanish-speaking. Community engagement was a recent push and shift in Alexandra's school due to an influx of Latino families in the community and increased Latino representation in local government.

Alanna. Alanna was an assistant principal at an elementary school in a Northern state with 2 years of experience in her current position and 20 years working with

culturally and linguistically diverse learners. Alanna labeled the school body as approximately 73% Latino. The school staff consisted of 90% people of color; however, not all were bilingual or Spanish speakers. Alanna described the school as a restorative justice school and "one hub" for the community. Teachers, families, and the community "worked in conjunction."

Rolando. Rolando was a principal at a middle school in the Midwest with 2 months of experience in his current position and 8 years working with culturally and linguistically diverse learners. Rolando described his school body as approximately 97% Latino, with most students coming from low-income backgrounds. The school was in an area with one of the fastest-growing Latino populations in the United States, and he described the larger community as "hyper-segregated." The school population primarily included Latino families, whereas school staff were predominantly White, English-speaking women. Rolando was working on translating all information from the school and its website into Spanish. He had quickly hired two Spanish-speaking front office staff members to eliminate a "language barrier" and work on "resetting expectations." Rolando's school had a direct connection to a community center. Although did not know whether deportation, detention, or community deportability directly impacted the school community, he mentioned that the community center provided services, including legal services, to families in need. While teaching at a different school, Rolando saw that the deportation of parents and "fear" related to a change in U.S. presidency were issues for Latino students and their families.

Gina. Gina was a principal at an elementary school on the West Coast with 5 years of experience in her current position and 20 years working with culturally and

linguistically diverse learners. Gina described the school body as approximately 99% Latino, with most students bilingual in Spanish and English. One percent of students identified as White, but Gina reported them as ethnically Latino. The school was less than 1 mile from the Mexican border and had an influx of families moving from Northern Arizona or neighboring states to the community due to its proximity to Mexico. Transnational students were also part of the school community. Gina described her school as a "cornucopia of the community." Due to border patrol presence to the north of her school, the school staff worked to bring different experiences to the children and the community with undocumented status. For example, the children received invitations to the zoo or a fair on the school grounds.

Jessica. Jessica was an assistant principal at a high school in a Southern state with 1 year of experience in her current position and 16 years of experience working with culturally and linguistically diverse learners. Jessica described the school body as approximately 98% Latino, with a "high mobility" of students coming and going across the border. However, many students with high mobility were not transnational, as they may have had legal guardians in the United States while also having homes and parents across the border in Mexico. The school was a Title I school located in the southernmost tip of the state, 15 minutes from the Mexican border. School staff were 100% Latino and Spanish-speaking. Despite providing virtual opportunities for parental engagement, Jessica's school continued to have challenges. Jessica reported a shift where parents "really depend[ed] on us a whole lot." She described the school as the center for all the parents' needs (e.g., medical, mental health, and financial). The school had an influx of students identified as homeless under the McKinney-Vento Homeless Assistance Act.

Thematic Findings

I used the RQ and subquestion to develop the four emergent themes. Table 4 provides an overview of the RQ, themes, and subthemes, followed by the findings and analysis.

Table 4

Alignment of Research Question and Subquestionss to Themes and Subthemes

Research question (RQ) Subquestion (SQ)	Theme	Subthemes
RQ: How do principals and assistant principals interpret current practices in place to bridge the home, school, and community partnerships for Latino immigrant families during times of deportability?	1. "Esto es mi comunidad" ("This is my community"). Principals and assistant principals who identify culturally and linguistically with their students and families felt that communal fear of deportation and subsequently worked with the larger community to ensure schools became a "cornucopia" for services.	• Administrators living within the larger school community • Benefits of bilingual and bicultural staff • Extending education into the home
SQ: How do principals and assistant principals create systems to support home, school, and community partnerships during times of deportability?	2. Access to technology crossed any physical boundaries. While traditionally a barrier, access to technology provided parents outlets to participate in their child's education, despite living in a different country or reluctance to physically participate in school-based activities.	• Technology brought into the home • Translations via technology • Technology bridging the transportation barrier • Utilizing social media
	3. Deportation is a way of life. For schools closer to the border there are not explicit policies in place to support students and families living through these processes as it is a	• 2016 elections • Mental health and community partnerships • Proximity to Mexico • Proxy homelessness

Research question (RQ) Subquestion (SQ)	Theme	Subthemes
	way of life. Deportation/ detention is integrated within the school culture. 4. "One student, all students": Changing the school culture	• The school as a cornucopia • Trauma-informed teaching • Cultural competency

Theme 1: ¡Esto Es Mi Comunidad!

Supportive relationships between the home, school, and community are critical to immigrant Latino students' academic success (Crawford, 2017). When asked about home, school, community relationships within their schools, the participants described three main ideas: a shared *comunidad*, the benefits of bilingual and bicultural staff, and the extension of education into the home. The administrators felt that a strength of their schools was how staff handled immigration issues for students and families. The sense of comunidad, or community, motivated the administrators to provide professional development for staff and push for shifts in the school culture.

A Shared Sense of Comunidad. The participants identified the value of living within the larger school community. Some participants described how sharing a cultural and linguistic identity with students and families contributed to their ability to maintain a strong school culture. Several participants, including Juana, Gina and Jessica, expressed their shared sense of comunidad. In various ways, the participants strongly committed to supporting students and families living with the threat of deportation or community deportability. For Juana, comunidad began in the classroom.

When asked what home, school, community relationships looked like at her school, Juana shared that engagement was a "big hurdle" due to the school's proximity to

Mexico. The school community included many transnational students whose parents lived in Mexico. Given the community's low socioeconomic status, Juana sought to bring the community into the school building by hiring staff from the community. Juana noted that despite the school's location and the community's low socioeconomic status, "We're a national Blue Ribbon School, and the next step is bringing in the parents and getting them to be supportive of what we're doing with the kids. That way, they can have a holistic education." The exclusively Latino, and specifically Mexican, students and staff at the school developed the comunidad. Juana said,

> Since we're 100% Hispanic, and [by] that, [I mean] Mexican, I feel like that helps out a lot linking the culture because I tell the kids, "The way that [you] see yourselves, that's the way I looked at your age." Exactly the same. I was a transnational student, so I would cross the bridge with them. There's nothing that these families [could] tell me that I haven't lived. I'm also the only one with a doctorate at this level, at least in my community [and] in my school district.
>
> If you go into my office, I have my high school diploma from the high school that [my students are] gonna attend? And then I have [the degrees displayed] all the way to my doctorate that I got. The [students] are very excited [because] I think it helps the community. It helps when I talk to the parents. There are some parents who don't value education as much because of their circumstances. One of the things I straight out tell 'em is, "You can see my degree. I went with you. This is my community. There's nothing that you can tell me that I don't know or haven't lived through. If I'm telling you that your kids will have a better life if you bring them to school, it's because it will happen. I am the community."

Juana's experience as a transnational student motivated her to ensure all parents had access to the school community, regardless of where they lived. Juana used technology with the students' stateside families to ensure a home-school connection. She wanted her students' families to trust her school because she considered access to education a personal topic. She saw her experiences reflected in her students and felt she had walked in her students' shoes and succeeded. Juana described a bidirectional sense of trust and community.

Juana also wanted teachers to understand their role in students' lives. Students sometimes went home to extended family members, not their parents, and Juana wanted her teachers to know "families trust us to do what is right." Juana described the community's needs as "so dynamic," "so different," and "so vast." Therefore, teachers unintentionally but naturally become an extension of their students' families. Juana understood what it meant to live across two countries and wanted her students to access a sense of community. She hired staff from the larger community to show her students and families how the community could include living in both worlds and was accepted and endorsed within school walls.

Gina had a similar sense of comunidad. Gina was a former student in the elementary school for which she became the principal and grew up in the surrounding community. Gina had remained rooted in the community and prioritized advocacy for better relationships with families and the community. For instance, she and her staff knew how to contact emergency family members, even if that required walking throughout the community to find them. Gina stated, "*Esto es mi comunidad*" ("This is my community").

Gina also understood the value of community involvement in school. She said, "The strong connection to the community leads to extending [community]." Gina sought to provide families with opportunities they typically would not have in the United States. The school was located between the Mexican border and the first border patrol checkpoint; therefore, many undocumented family members could not travel north. Strong bonds between the families, school, and community enabled students and families

to experience the zoo, fairs, and farmers' markets on school grounds without the threat or fear of deportation.

Gina talked about how a goal in the school was to "expose [students/families] to things that maybe they're not going to be able to experience until later. But we are very lucky it does not matter what they [students/families] need, the [community] is very positive in supporting our school." Gina described the school as "the cornucopia of the community" due to close ties between the home, school, and community. Gina noted that many parents wanted to be involved and active with the school; however, school staff and community members needed to be "very delicate in what we offer and the outreach we offer because we don't wanna intimidate the parents." Given the large number of undocumented individuals in her community, Gina found that parents were "intimidated to seek out assistance" when they did not know how to access certain services. She sought to provide the needed connections by bringing mental health professionals, career experts, social support, and farmers' markets from the community to the school. Gina bridged the boundaries of home, school, and the larger community to develop and maintain these relationships. Gina discussed families, the school, and the community as an integrated entity.

Similarly, Jessica said, "There are a lot of people in my community just like me." In Jessica's community, Mexicans were the "majority and everyone else [was] the minority." The shared sense of comunidad enabled Jessica and her school staff to foster community and parental engagement intentionally. The recent pandemic required school staff to "wear so many hats." The school provided mental health services and was a clinic and food pantry during the pandemic. Therefore, the parents depended on and trusted the

school community. The sense of comunidad enabled the participants, school staff, and community to identify needs due to their shared cultural and linguistic identities. Jessica, Gina, and Juana identified with their community, their comunidad, in ways that allowed for building strong home, school, community partnerships during times of deportability.

Benefits of Bilingual and Bicultural Staff and Principals. Gina, Rolando, and Michael expressed similar perspectives on the value of having bilingual and bicultural staff at their schools. The primarily Latino staff at Gina's school built bonds with students' families. Ongoing immigration practices had resulted in an increase in single-family homes, with fathers being the sole caregivers. Gina said, "We are in a very female profession, and education is very woman-dominant, especially at the elementary level." As a result, she reached out to her male Latino staff to build critical relationships with the students' fathers. Gina said, "The music teachers, custodians, security guards, we use them to try and help make connections with dads, and I think using male figures on campus has been a very positive influence on those families."

Rolando described working in a "hyper-segregated" (primarily Latino) community. However, his school had a predominantly White, English-speaking staff. As the first Latino administrator in the school and new to his role, Rolando translated the school's website and ensured teachers and staff translated all materials sent to Latino families. He also held three rounds of monthly parent meetings in Spanish and English. As a bilingual administrator, Rolando positively impacted students and their families. Rolando described what he had accomplished within 2 months on the job:

> The principal before me was White. She was not bilingual. I think the dynamics have shifted [because] parents are feeling a lot more comfortable knowing there's someone who speaks Spanish who is in charge of this school. [Both] secretaries are bilingual [and] say that parents are calling more than in the past. The language

> barrier is not there anymore. Kids are also realizing, "Oh, crap, he's a Spanish speaker, so he's not gonna have any issues translating [or] communicating with my family about anything."

Rolando discussed "resetting expectations," saying,

> We're resetting expectations right now. It has helped in that norming of the expectations because now there's more two-way communication instead of three-way communication with the parent. If I have to have a conversation with a parent about social media [use for the student], I can do that very easily with the family. For the student, I think it's more of an understanding of like, "Okay, there's someone here who understands and will be able to speak to my parents, whether it's good or not. Whatever has been happening, [Rolando is] gonna be able to provide that information that my mom [or] my dad needs."

Rolando was the impetus for change, effecting change in the school by building a staff community to mirror the school demographics.

Michael also pushed for change by hiring specific candidates. With a sudden and dramatic increase in Latino students and a lack of Spanish-speaking staff, the staff at Michael's school relied on the school custodian for translation. After identifying the need for a translator, Michael filled a floating office manager position with a Spanish speaker, which he identified as his first step in "obtaining cultural competency." He later hired a bilingual community engagement liaison and intervention specialists, seeking to remain "intentional" in ensuring new hires spoke Spanish and had cultural competence. Michael said,

> [There was a need to] culturally relate to our students. Our Latino population is definitely increasing. Our White population is decreasing. If I take a look at trends over the last few years, I see continuing upward trends in Latino student populations. [Therefore], it was important for me to hire an intervention specialist who could relate, understand, and interact with families and parents. I really beefed up our number of individuals on site who could provide that type of support.

The shift in school demographics led Michael to prioritize hiring Spanish-speaking staff. Initially, Michael noticed a difference in the treatment of English-speaking families compared to Latino families. He reported the staff appeared "cold." He said,

> [I needed to] find individuals who spoke the language. That helps with making things a little bit better in terms of making [the school] a more welcoming environment. The other piece is finding familiar faces, other Latino faces in particular, [so] individuals can feel a little bit more comfortable seeing a familiar face. Even though [they] don't know the person, there's a "Hey, you look like me" level of comfort.

Michael also had "courageous conversations" with his front office staff to encourage a welcoming and open environment for all families. Thus, his desire to have bilingual and bicultural school staff extended to the front office staff.

Bilingual Front Office Staff. Some participants described the benefits of bilingual staff in the front office. Sara's school had a 100% Latino front office staff and a predominantly Latino teaching staff. Sara "built" her front office staff to be Spanish-speaking, resulting in more trusting relationships between homes and the front office. She referenced how community members and families felt comfortable visiting the school to share their fears regarding attending school-sanctioned events and immigration practices. Sara's words and actions indicated that she saw the value of hiring staff who mirrored the school demographics.

Many undocumented families feared leaving their homes, resulting in decreased parental participation in meetings and events. Once families established trust with the front office, they began sharing their reasons for not attending; in turn, Sara sought ways to make education more accessible. Sara strived to empower a home-school collaboration by forming "authentic" and "organic" connections. She credited the bilingual front office staff with forming the foundation for such connections. Deportation impacted Sara's

community, so she used community stakeholders to provide English or citizenship classes or legal resources for families. Sara also encouraged an open school by inviting families to attend cultural events. She explained,

> The little moments [are a way] to honor families and let them know we get [that the] school and the American school system can be scary to maneuver through, but we are here for [families] and value what they bring.

Despite her efforts, Sara felt she was not doing enough and continued to face hurdles in parent engagement. Sara noted a disconnect between the "effort we put in" and the results. However, she did not know if the disconnect resulted from a lack of trust or visibility or a working-class community. Trust in the front office did not always correlate with trust in the entire school. Sara sought to overcome these perceived hurdles by remaining intentional with families and staff. She engaged in "frank" conversations about the fear of deportation and encouraged staff to remain open while ensuring that "everyone feels accepted no matter what." Sara sought to ensure the students felt connected to the teaching staff so families could trust, engage with, and confide in the school and receive community partnerships when appropriate.

Marissa and her entire front office staff identified as Spanish-speaking Latinos who could bridge the home, school, and community by "immediately communicat[ing] with families." The front office staff had a visible presence outside school every day, greeting students and families and spending time outside during recess. Marissa found that the bilingual staff's visible presence positively impacted conflict, and she said, "Something that could become a conflict doesn't because the principal or secretary or one of us are out there." Marissa described school staff interacting with families with "empathy and humanely." In contrast to Sara's experience, Marissa identified strong trust between the home and school.

Courtney also placed a high value on the front office staff, whom she reported had many roles, including translators and "liaisons." Courtney credited the staff for building relationships with families; in turn, families sought the front office staff instead of administrators or teachers. Courtney noted that the front office staff focused on "building that trust and letting families know no matter where they come from that we're [the school] is a safe place and that we're here for your family and your student."

While the members at Courtney's school relied on the front office staff for Spanish translation, at Alexandra's school, a "good portion" of the school staff "at all levels" spoke Spanish. Alexandra described her school as having a "wealth of staff" to communicate with families in their native language. Alexandra reported a large population of Spanish-speaking students and families at the school; therefore, the Spanish-speaking staff enabled families living with the fear of deportation to feel welcomed and that they "should not feel that fear."

A fully bilingual front office staff is a rarity, but for some participants, it was a reality at their schools. The participants noticed that their staff did not mirror local demographics and sought to change this narrative. The participants considered front office staff who could communicate and identify with Latino students a necessity for fostering a welcoming and open school culture. Each participant represented in this theme valued a shared cultural/linguistic identity between the school and home. The participants prioritized having bilingual staff, and those who initially lacked bilingual employees, like Michael and Rolando, pushed for change. Except for Sara, most participants found that partnerships between the home and school produced more positive school cultures.

Extending Education Into the Home. Sara, Juana, and Alexandra considered home involvement critical to their leadership roles. These participants mindfully and diligently extended school into children's homes. Sara sought to foster culturally relevant and appropriate home, school, community partnerships through the Latino Family Literacy Project, a foundation with which the school partnered for increased cultural and bilingual literacy. The project's goal was to bring literacy into the home and make reading a shared, culturally appropriate experience between students and families. Sara wanted her families to know, "We get [that] school and the institution of [the]American school system can be a little scary to maneuver through, but we're here for [parents] and value what they bring."

Juana described how her school's location presented physical, legal, and cultural challenges to parental engagement. Juana said, "It's [school] changing the culture." She said,

> There are no big differences between kids of different races [who have] different cultures; there's really no academic difference when they're born except for the socioeconomic area. Then, once you're in that socioeconomic [area], [the differences are] mostly due [to] the stress [socioeconomic status] puts on the families. We [at the school] bridge that [need] and bring [families] in and explain [the material] to really teach these families. You can have really good academic foundations, but if [students] don't see the value of [education] because their parents don't see the value of it because it's not really something they've witnessed, it's not always going to work. You have to target the family as well. Once you change [the family's] mindset, then that's gonna bring them [to school]. I think it's just gonna provide 'em a better path.

Juana's philosophy of educating not just the whole student but the entire family extended to everyone in the child's home, including brothers, sisters, and aunts. Juana "also want[ed] to educate the people around [students]" because of her students' ethnicity, where they lived, and the impact of immigration practices on their daily lives. As a result,

Juana strove to "empower that family and empower the community as a whole" because the "deportation and protection of their families is part of our lifestyle here."

Juana emphasized the value of education while realizing and addressing Latino immigrant families' other needs and priorities. The students' families lived with the fear of deportation and struggled with financial resources and housing security. The myriad needs often resulted in the perception that academics, while important, required adjustment to fit the family. Juana viewed her role as an educator and administrator as not only teaching students in the classroom but also extending education and support into children's homes. With a desire to "target the family," Juana wanted all students' families to "see" the value of academics. She believed extending education into the home would enable families, including those undocumented, to support students academically.

The notion of "changing the mindset" was one reason Juana prioritized bringing in parents as active participants in students' education. Her philosophy of educating the whole student and the entire family extended to everyone residing in the child's home. The school's location contributed to Juana's educational philosophy "to educate the people around them [students]." Border Patrol agents around the school community created fear of deportation, impacted undocumented families' access to school. Juana noted that many students had endured displacement due to the deportation of family members, and many had also experienced the "disappearance" of loved ones due to legal/illegal immigration practices in the United States or Mexico. She described fear of deportation as a "constant thing in the back of your mind," and she led with this knowledge as an educator. Juana understood the fear experienced by the families and worked to extend education into the home. She led by "empower[ing] the family and

empower[ing] the community as a whole," claiming, "Deportation and protection of their families is part of our lifestyle here."

Alexandra extended the school into children's homes by ensuring their safety to and from school. When fear impacted undocumented students' abilities to commute, Alexandra allied with her community and recent Latino political members, including the school board. The police department and community members established a system of "vigilance" to ensure all students on public transportation could commute to school and return home safely. Alexandra relied on her larger community to assure students and families that despite of fear and "hate," "We're inclusive. We love our families. Don't be afraid to participate in our district. Don't be afraid to come to school." Extending school into the children's homes was an example of the SJL tenet to provide access for all. Sara, Juana, and Alexandra viewed home, school, community partnerships as pivotal to children's learning ability. While bridging that partnerships is at the crux of this research, there is the possibility that this dynamic may lead to additional stressors for the family life. If the home has the burden of deportation or deportability, what does adding the additional stressor of a school cultural event, for example, do to that family or that specific child when their parent or loved one is unable to attend? Parental engagement leads to academic success; however, what does the stress related to that engagement do to the individual student already living during times of deportability? Chapter five will further discuss this notion.

The theme *Esto es mi comunidad* showed some participants' cultural and linguistic similarities with their school communities during times of deportability. These administrators valued and shared a sense of comunidad with the larger community and

sought to serve their communities. A shared identity was part of some participants' leadership styles. However, for others, such as Matthew, who did not culturally or linguistically identify with the Latino culture, he sought to make sure that families and students felt included and had access to programs within the community, such as job training. Although the participants faced challenges and barriers in bridging the community with the school, they never wavered. For example, Sara felt that despite all of her best efforts, parental engagement was not where it should be. Nevertheless, participants made efforts to establish inclusive school communities while incorporating and sometimes relying on community stakeholders. The interviews showed that although each participant experienced the direct impact of deportation practices and their consequences for students, there was significant variation in what the impact was and how it looked like for the school community.

The lived experiences of some of the participants was integral in how they engaged their school and ultimately what contributed to their leadership style. The participants' voices in this theme aligned with SJL and Epstein's (2001) framework. Each participant showed humility and confidence while leading with an intense vision, passion, and tenacity for social justice and empowering their staff, a finding discussed in Theoharis's (2009) study. The desire to lead for their communities motivated the participants to support students and families living with the threat of deportation, either indirectly through bilingual front office staff or directly through courageous conversations with the staff. For Juana, Sara, and Gina, who felt a deep personal connection to their community, deportation was a part of who they were and how they led. When Michael and Rolando saw a sharp change in school demographics, they found

ways to support the increasing numbers of Latino families. Hiring front office staff was integral to Michael's and Courtney's visions for their schools, whereas a shared identity enabled Marissa to foster strong partnerships. Alexandra addressed fear felt by her community by forming a system of vigilance. Each participant in this theme brought SJL to the forefront by leading for a school culture where deportation was part of life for some; therefore, they sought to build trust in the school as a place for all. These leaders possessed the core leadership traits (Key 2) of consciousness, humility, and knowledge.

Theme 2: Access to Technology Crossed Any Physical Boundaries

In discussions of the assets and challenges of bridging the home, school, and community for Latino immigrant families, a common thread emerged in the participants' responses: technology. The participants noted that although they found educating children during the pandemic significantly more challenging, technology, which was initially a barrier, enabled increased parental participation over time. The subthemes were technology brought into the home, translations via technology, technology bridging the transportation barrier, and utilizing social media.

Technology Brought Into the Home. The COVID-19 pandemic unexpectedly impacted all the participants' leadership and school structure of all the participants. However, Michael, Marissa and Gina identified a silver lining in the situation. When Michael's school closed, he realized that technology was a barrier and immediately shifted to supporting all families by quickly hiring and deploying staff. For example, Michael and his staff scheduled "porch visits" to support students with content or technology barriers. Michael said,

> First [was] just getting devices out to our families, getting hotspots out for our families, and having boots on the ground. I paid individuals to actually be in the

> community to find out and help connect families with community sources or provide whatever resources we could. Actually, as far as I know, we were the only school in my district that did porch visits. I hired intervention specialists to go out to homes. The model was this is [the] teacher [who] would interact remotely.

Michael shared that the intervention specialists supported the students and maintained open communication with the school-based community/outreach liaison. Together, Michael and the staff established a network of support. Despite these efforts, Michael felt he and the staff had not accomplished enough. He stated,

> Our school outreach person was phoning the families saying, "Hey, [I] notice that your child is not showing up to class. How can we help out? We'd like to schedule a porch visit." [The school outreach person] was that operator in the middle. Making phone calls, connecting with families, and sending out service technicians.
>
> If you wanna think about [it with the metaphor of] a cable company or something, we were like the service technicians deployed out to the community. "Okay. Your appointment is at two o'clock with Family A, [and] your appointment is at three o'clock for Family d. We get scheduled porch visits where they can connect and show families, "This is how you log into the computer. This is how you can get it onto the Canvas program. This is your child's password." Then, we'd follow up after that. That was the model that we implemented.
>
> We reached out to so many different families, [but] we could have done a lot more work. I always think that we can always do more. In a small sense, I do believe that [the school] was successful in helping families and connecting and bridging opportunity and access.

Michael sought to address technology barriers and used community resources to bring the school into the students' homes. He said the goal was "sitting together side-by-side with the families in our immediate and surrounding neighborhood to stay unified." Michael and his team had the resources to resolve technology barriers. The time and energy spent showing families how to access and get past technology barriers enabled them to participate and be active in the school and larger community. The participant viewed family as a tripod between the student, the family, and the teachers. At the

beginning of the pandemic, the school staff worked hard to gain the trust of their families. Michael said, "They trust us, the educators, to do what's right and what's best for their child."

Like Michael, Marissa viewed technology as integral to successful family engagement:

> I think we have a really strong communication system, including electronically. I think, since the pandemic, [parents are] really quick to jump on a Zoom. They're more in depth than they were before. I think some technology has really helped with family engagement. We have more participation now on Zoom than we did in person.

Marissa felt that the families' trust in her and the school staff made them want to maintain virtual interactions. Marissa's staff also showed grandparents and other caregivers how to access technology, as some students lived with these individuals. She explained that her students had a "wider" definition of family; therefore, she sought to ensure everyone knew how to maintain bidirectional communication between the school and home. Marissa also realized that some students had older siblings providing daily support. "With a lot of empathy and humanity," Marissa and her staff ensured that everyone in the students' households knew how to use technology to their advantage. Fully cognizant of family stressors, Marissa made recordings of all parent meetings and provided them to parents. For Marissa's community, having access to technology enabled students to continue virtually participating when they needed to travel to Mexico for personal or family immigration issues. The parents' trust in Marissa's school community enabled them to remain transparent when students needed to take an "unexpected trip." Thus, access to virtual learning enabled students to continue their education, as "they [couldn't] lose any more school."

The staff at Gina's school taught parents how to use computers and Google Classroom. Gina said, "Our job is to ensure that there's support in the home and that the school is their outlet and their guidance for that support." Gina considered it her and her school's responsibility to ensure that families had what they needed for students to succeed, including technology. She used technology to support students, especially regarding immigration practices. Gina said,

> The nice thing is that students will tell you the truth. They'll say, "They took my dad and my mom in the night." So now, [we school staff ask], "How can we support you [the student] now when there's fear?" [When caregivers do not feel] comfortable bringing [students] to school or coming to school, [we staff ask], "What can I do for you? Do you need a computer? Internet?"
>
> Right now, we have the option of Google Classroom. No, I can't excuse the child for unlimited days, but if you need to go somewhere, at least the child can somehow stay connected to the academic world. If we can have [students] engaged in something academic, even if it's a program or something, they can keep their minds on something other than what they're going through, [like the deportation of a family member]. I think that's really important.

Like the other participants, Gina engaged in SJL to provide families access during times of deportation. The participants knew that despite the unforeseen challenges of the pandemic, they had to reach students and their families. Technology provided these leaders with an unexpected bridge between home and school.

For Courtney, there was a significant learning curve for her community. Her families faced challenges not only with literacy but also with computer literacy. Parents needed assistance with setting up email accounts, then reminders to check email accounts. Student's needed reminders to log into classrooms and turn on cameras. Courtney stated, "We do a lot of educating our parents." Alternatively, Matthew said "transparent communication" about technological needs led to "set home expectations for the student." Families and students alike knew what was expected of them and knew how

to access the information. With an "open door policy," Matthew was confident his families knew when and how to request help with technology and why technology was important. He danced between seeing the potential for a problem with technology and finding ways to mitigate them. Rolando shared the extensive work his school did to support the technology barriers for many families. In spite of frequent virtual meetings and direct support for students and families, Rolando was unsure why his students were not making steady academic gains and frequently missed completing assignments. Rolando shared, "I don't think our parents don't want to help. I think it's just that they don't understand really how much is being taught nowadays." Rolando voiced the challenge with virtual learning while in the same instance stating that he wanted to take this challenge and "build structures with the families."

Translations via Technology. With the unexpected and sudden use of technology in their students' homes, Courtney, Barbara, Matthew, Sheila, Michael, Alexandra, and Rolando found an unexpected benefit: translation services. Teaching parents about technology provided the staff at Courtney's school with some flexibility in communication. Courtney felt that a positive community partnership helped to "bridge the gap" of financial, linguistic, and technological barriers. During the pandemic, Courtney and her staff spent "a lot of time having to teach parents" how to access technology. With technology, teachers could communicate with families directly by immediately translating information into different languages. The technology enabled teachers to read parents' emails in real-time without going through a translator. The diversity of Courtney's school in terms of staff and students often resulted in asking staff or siblings to translate information. Technological advances and access enabled the

school staff to rely less on others. For example, Courtney's staff was able to use real time translations via Google, to communicate with families without the need to go through an outside translation service.

Whereas Courtney saw computers as a way to bridge the gap, Barbara still considered them a hindrance. Although technology enabled easier communication with immediate translation, Barbara felt that "parents wanted to be more involved." Barbara worked at a high school and felt the pandemic limited the daily interactions and communications between home and school that were critical to student success. She said, "We're behind the eight ball as far as the classic communication and getting to know our students better."

Matthew also used technology to facilitate engagement with parents. The pandemic brought new technology with a learning curve. However, the technology enabled immediate translation into several languages for staff and families. The staff and parents appreciated technological resources because "[parents were] receiving these calls and these letters in their native languages, and they [were] able to understand what [was] needed." Sheila felt that bridging the home with the school and addressing barriers to technology was a way to "change that dynamic of fear and intimidation that can be associated [with in-school parental engagement]." Although the staff at Sheila's school saw the value of technology, they, not the families, struggled the most with technology. The staff hesitated to use new programs or translators and needed targeted training. Sheila said, "The [staff's] hearts [were] in the right place, but they needed physical training."

After establishing trust and resolving technological barriers, Michael used technology to address other barriers:

> I continue to solicit and encourage families to provide additional support at home, and [we] provide resources. We do parent workshops, and we've been offering [them] through Zoom. [The workshops are] a little bit more engaging [because] we're able to get more families to participate because transportation was definitely a barrier to coming to some of these meetings.

Similarly, Alexandra described technology as "a bright spot."

Alexandra shared the benefits of automatic translation programs. Although some school stakeholders considered technology "more complicated" than in-person meetings, Alexandra found that technology provided access for everyone. She described parental engagement as "hard" due to "competing priorities"; however, the opportunity to engage virtually was a success in her community. The active parental engagement resulted in a different sense of "buy-in, a different level of capital" for students. The staff at Alexandra's school did not "just give [families] information"; rather, "[the staff are] teaching them the skills they need to use at home to support their children." Alexandra believed that parental engagement was a way to make students feel like a "priority" because they feel "[their] parents care about [their] education, [which] translates into higher motivation and higher results."

Although new to his position, Rolando fostered access to technology by sending parent surveys to ask what they wanted from him. Most parents wanted to learn how to navigate virtual systems. Rolando said that virtual learning allowed him to hold multiple meetings with different parents at times convenient to them. Virtual platforms and systems also enabled the staff to translate information, a vital tool due to the school's majority Latino and Spanish-speaking student population and the majority White English-speaking staff. Access to immediate translation enabled Rolando's staff to

engage directly with students' families. Another benefit of increased technology use was the ease of translation. For monolingual English-speaking administrators and staff, the translation applications enabled them to bridge the home and school for students and families. Additionally, technology provided a safe way to engage families who feared commuting to school or attending school-sanctioned events.

Technology Bridging the Transportation Barrier. Another benefit of technology for the families at Lola's and Alexandra's schools was the absence of a transportation barrier. Lola wondered why educators had not used technology before the pandemic. She said, "Google Meet has kind of opened the world in many ways to help us communicate." Technology enabled the parents to participate in ways not typically seen in Lola's community. Teachers and parents could hold conferences easier than before due to technology, and transportation was no longer an issue. Technology bridged the home and school, so "communication [was] a little bit better."

Fear regarding deportation impacted parental engagement and student attendance. Alexandra provided children and families the opportunity to engage virtually, which took a "little bit of fear away" from the educational experience and led to a significant increase in parental involvement, with "hundreds" of families logging in to school meetings via Zoom. Parents and caregivers no longer feared taking public transportation or the "white van down the street" from a parent meeting. Instead, parents could log on from home and experience less stress. When discussing the value of technology, Alexandra said,

> We're talking about pre-pandemic, the thought of doing a Zoom parent meeting didn't exist before the pandemic. Which is brilliant! Oh my God, we should have started this a long time ago. I remember during those [prepandemic] times, parents not wanting to come to our meetings because they didn't wanna be out in public. They didn't wanna be in their cars driving somewhere if they didn't have to, and they didn't want to have to take public transportation. There was just this

> fear, “I need to stay in my house, and I don’t wanna leave my house.” That did have an impact.

Fear of deportation can impact mobility within the community, including to and from school. Providing families with access to technology was a way to increase families’ access to and participation in school events and in general.

Utilizing Social Media. The staff at Juana’s school used technology in the form of social media to access students’ families. “Marketing of the school” was a goal for Juana, and she considered social media a way to bridge the home, school, and community. The staff’s success with social media marketing resulted in district recognition for the school’s partnerships. Juana shared, “Once you start marketing your school, then you start kind of touching all places of the bigger community, and they actually want to come.” The staff used technology to bring the community to the school. Juana said,

> We’ll have businesses in the area, politicians, or some other leaders saying, “Hey, you guys are doing really good things.” Of course, they wanna get exposure as well. So, they’re welcome to tour [the school], and they give us donations.

The relationship with the community was a means of “empowering the family and empowering the community as a whole.”

Juana described the school as “prepared” when the pandemic occurred. The staff had already begun using Google Classrooms, and parents had access to Wi-Fi hotspots. As a result, Juana felt like the students, staff, and parents had an easier time transitioning to virtual learning than those in neighboring schools. Furthermore, the virtual classroom enabled the parents to remain informed and engaged via telephone, regardless of location. Similarly, Jessica relied on social media to access students’ families. The staff at

Jessica's school used social media platforms like Facebook to share information on anything from parent meetings to graduation plans.

The theme of access to technology showed how the participants crossed physical boundaries with technology. The unexpected COVID-19 pandemic impacted how the participants supported their families. From going to students' homes to show caregivers how to access technology to using automatic translations, the participants showed how technology was a barrier they overcame and used to support home–school partnerships. The participants represented in this theme considered technology critical to building home, school, community partnerships.

Technology was an unexpected benefit of the pandemic; however, one participant voiced a potential downside. As Marissa shared, over-crowding in a home, made finding a quiet space for virtual learning close to impossible. Knowing the community she served, Marissa focused on ensuring parents understood why a quiet space was important. She shared the focus on rest, food, and homework would ultimately lead to a student's success while encouraging teaching staff to have monthly check-in's with parents. These administrators fully accepted the initial challenges of technology; however, technology at its core is intrusive. Technology opens a home to a whole new world. For individuals living with the fear of deportation or community deportability, does this technology potentially lead to feelings of intrusiveness towards the school? These school leaders saw technology as an easy bridge between home and school, but what was unclear was if families embraced this rhetoric as well. Chapter five will further explore the impact of technology.

Other participants found further strategies to support home, school, community partnerships. Alanna used restorative practices and in-person community building to build partnerships. Alanna and Jessica viewed events in and out of the community as integral to home, school, community partnerships. These two participants embodied SJL by advancing inclusion, access, and opportunity (Key 3). Other participants used the initial hurdle of the pandemic to bring the school into children's homes. The participants utilized technology to bring the classroom into the home, ease the fear associated with mobility within the community, and translate or disseminate information. Thus, technology allowed the participants to break down barriers for families when deportation or fear impacted their ability to come to school physically. The educators used their positions to alleviate hardships, committing themselves to "seeing a better way" by focusing on equitable practices and supporting home, school, community partnerships. More specifically, the participants used technology to improve parental engagement, parenting, communication, learning at home, and decision-making, which are dimensions of Epstein's (2001) framework.

Theme 3: Countering the Politics of Deportation: "Deportation Is a Way of Life"

The threat of deportation or community deportability impacted how the participants envisioned support systems. The responses varied on how deportation or deportability impacted home, school, community partnerships based on school demographics and location. The subthemes were the 2016 election, mental health and community partnerships, and proximity to Mexico.

2016 Election. The antiimmigrant political climate that followed the 2016 U.S. presidential election impacted home, school, community partnerships in Sara's,

Marissa's, and Sheila's communities. Sara's school community found that changes in the political administration from to the 2016 election led to a spike in attendance issues, increased fear of parental deportation, the separation of families via forced or voluntary deportation, and more students "coming up and asking for a hug." There was heightened fear in the community. Subsequently, through community partnerships, the school leaders sought to provide students and families with bilingual community aid, immediate needs, clothing, food, and transportation during these times of heightened fear. The administration change resulted in more families needing these services. Sara described conversations between students and staff about deportation or community deportability as "frank" and "regularly had," not something they "refrained from." She explained, "School becomes the center of a community" for immigrant Latino students; therefore, deportation and discussions regarding deportation were addressed within her school.

Similarly, Marissa felt the community had an increased fear of deportation after the 2016 election. Marissa described walking into a classroom and seeing fifth-graders crying for fear of deportation or family deportation. She said,

> I didn't know how many students truly were scared. That really opened my eyes, like, wow, there is a more significant undocumented community than even I knew because it hadn't come up really before then in any sort of real way.

Marissa strove to "empower her families so they [could] empower others" by ensuring their legal rights as immigrants.

Marissa discussed how the Trump Administration's 2017 repeal of Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA) created a real fear in her community. Marissa and the school staff used their community platform to ensure parents received important information. The school staff also hosted community organizations to disseminate immigration and DACA information. In addition, Marissa made available school

counselors and mental health professionals at the school level to support students' "anxiety and trauma."

Sheila found that her school community had an increase in absenteeism and fear. Many undocumented families resisted completing enrollment and application forms. Sheila shared that families were "hesitant" and "scared to death" to fill out standard forms, such as the Free and Reduced Price School Meals application. As the participants saw how the political administration impacted students and their families, they sought to support families. Some participants relied on community stakeholders to provide families with information and ensure their safety in school.

Mental Health and Community Partners. Changes in the political administration caused Lola, Sara, Rolando, Sheila, Alexandra, and Alanna to focus on mental health for students and families, specifically immigrant families fearing deportation. Lola described the trauma students experienced when witnessing parental detention or deportation or due to their lived experiences when immigrating to the United States. Therefore, Lola and the school staff provided mental health support and looked "at the resources we have as a school system." Sara used terms such as "frank

" and "open" to describe conversations with school staff about deportation. In contrast, Lola considered deportation a more "sensitive" topic. Lola understood the importance of sharing information but made it clear to her staff that "[deportation is a] very confidential information because I think you have to be really careful about sharing [immigration status]."

Like Lola, Sheila described offering mental health support to those in need at her school. As an example, Sheila mentioned a child who cried every day when dropped off

at school. The student disclosed to the school counselor that "when he got back [from school], [he feared] his mother would be gone, too." The child had witnessed his father's detention. In addition to individualized support, Sheila said she partnered families experiencing detention or deportation with a local attorney who specialized "in the Latino community." Recalling a specific family, Sheila related,

> We were able to connect [a student's mother] and family with one of the local food banks to help with groceries and canned goods. It happened to be during winter months, [and] we were [also] able to get them coats [and] just kind of take the burden off her. [The mother] seemed so relieved that her secret, [the deportation of her husband], was out because there seemed to be some cloak of shame [with] it. We [at the school] were able to say, "We're here, and we are not against your family in any capacity. You're safe with us." It was just a really good thing. So many situations like that have happened.

Sheila described how the members of the school community rallied to support this family's needs. Her school also offered whole-school community workshops on immigration practices and family rights. The school had such a strong relationship with the community that it provided "wraparound services" for families experiencing sudden changes due to immigration policies. In addition, Sheila leveraged community relationships to fully support her students and families. For example, "literacy and laundry" was an initiative to set up book stations in laundry mats throughout the community. "Books with barbers" was another, yet similar, initiative to support literacy within the community. As it relates to immigration, Sheila's school partnered with a local attorney to provide families with "know your rights" events and also direct support for those who needed legal counsel.

Alanna also described receiving community support. Alanna approached deportation's impact on her school community by "coming into it with grace." When undocumented families had needs, the school community "looked at ways to collaborate

and compassionately work with [families]." Alanna, the school staff, and the community "rallied together" to provide families with financial support, furniture, clothing, and legal services. Although she embraced "honest" conversations with children in the classroom, Alanna said, "We could have done a much better job. We could have had more workshops. We could have definitely had more people come in and talk and inform our educators and ourselves."

Rolando described how the fear of deportation also impacted his community. Rolando was new to his position but reported that his school community and the larger community "came together" after the 2016 election. To address the resultant fear, the White families in the school community came together and brought post office services to the school building. The objective was to get passports for all students born in the United States in case their parents were deported. Rolando said, "[This was a] quick way to transport their children because they need a passport. It was impressive. The White privilege they had, they used it to provide something for the community." Rolando shared how the school community came together to support the minority school population.

Similarly, Alexandra aligned with the community to ensure students and families had "accurate and factual information" about immigration and deportation practices. The school staff hosted whole-school information nights to provide families with immigration resources from nonprofit organizations. Due to the fear in the community, Alexandra wanted to "demystify" immigration and deportation practices and empower her students and families with accurate information. With the increase in unaccompanied minors, Alexandra shifted her terminology for the word *family*. Hyper-aware that her students might not live with family members, Alexandra began asking students, "Who do you live

with?" instead of assuming they lived with parents or family members. She used a "sensitive approach" to ensure that children were not "retraumatized." Alexandra said, "[Unaccompanied minors] already had a traumatic experience coming to this country in the first place or [in] the conditions in their mother country that led him here. It's like, how do we not trigger kids?" Alexandra approached her students and families with sensitivity while empowering them with the knowledge to foster strong partnerships.

Marissa felt a disconnect from her community stakeholders. Communication between school and the community was unilateral, with the school frequently not being informed of or aware of community events. Marissa was unsure if the kink in this relationship was due to financial constraints with businesses simply not having the means to take on this additional partnership with the school or a general lack of resources. In spite of this challenge, Marissa stated that her families become the voice and the resource for the school communities. Parents themselves would inform other families of events and resources in the community.

The participants valued support from and collaboration with mental health providers and the larger community. The participants knew they could not address the needs of students and families living with deportation or the threat of deportation alone. Therefore, the participants turned to professionals and the community to ensure families had what they needed during turbulent times.

Proximity to Mexico. Juana, Gina, and Jessica noted that the locations of their schools provided them with unique leadership perspectives during times of deportability. Due to the proximity of Juana's school to the Mexican border, deportation had a "big impact" on the whole community. Juana said, "We're so close to the Mexican side,

deportations are like part of life. At every school you work at [or] serve in our community, [deportation is] just an everyday part of life." When further asked about specific systems as it relates to support for students living through deportation of a loved one, Juana simply stated, "the protection [of the student] it is part of our lifestyles here. It is not something we formally put out there. We just do." Juana further shared a personal experience, noting that she identified with her students and their fear regarding deportation:

> It's difficult. It's a difficult way to live. It's a difficult situation for the family as a whole. I guess I can tell you [my] personal perspective. When we first came to the United States, my dad was able to get a resident card, but the rest of us weren't legally here. So [we] lived with the fear of being deported at all times. It was just that constant thing in the back of [our] mind. It [was] just part of our life. I don't know how else to describe it. It's hard for [students]. I was just [like them as] a student.

Despite the school's proximity to the border, Juana did not feel that deportation impacted parental engagement. The students' families knew that schools were safe havens. Juana reported that her school was located near a very shallow part of the Rio Grande River, enabling families to cross back and forth. The proximity and shallowness of the water made families "not afraid to get deported here. 'Cause it's so close. It's not like having to cross the entirety of California. [Deportation] is not a big deterrent for parental engagement."

Proximity to Mexico impacted enrollment at Gina's school. Due to proximity to Mexico, the school had an increase in students as more families were separated by immigration policies in other parts of the state or neighboring states. Gina said,

> Because [the school is] so close to the border, families want to be closer to one another. Students are seeing that the school is a safe place, not only for them, but also for their parents, and [is] a welcoming environment.

Gina described her students, particularly transnational students, as experiencing trauma from their immigration to the United States or parental separation due to deportation.

Despite the school staff's efforts to maintain and encourage parental engagement, Gina noted that the 2016 presidential election resulted in decreased attendance. Gina described how families hesitated to engage in certain school activities with police presence, for example, a fair. In addition, the fear around immigration continues to impact student drop-offs. Some students' parents were Border Patrol agents. Therefore, many undocumented students and their families voiced concerns and fear about dropping off students, coming into the school, and interacting with any parents who worked for the Border Patrol. Gina said, "This [situation] honestly leads to a little bit of a divide in our school." As a result, Gina and the school staff "needed to be very careful" about activities and parental engagement. While Gina fought for an inclusive school community, inclusivity for her was both families with undocumented status and the Border Patrol agents themselves. She had to navigate between welcoming all families, while ensuring those living with fear would continue to not only come to school but also participate in school events. Fortunately, a mental health professional had recently joined the staff at Gina's school. This school guidance counselor along with targeted professional developments enabled Gina and her staff to "serve, support, and embrace" students in the classroom and families in their homes to ensure all felt safe and welcomed.

Jessica noted that deportation was "something that just happened" due to the school's proximity to the school. However, the commute to visit individuals sent back to Mexico "was only 15 minutes." Jessica shared that deportation and immigration status had a significant role in students' behavioral concerns:

> I will tell you that the fear comes from students who are not well-behaved. I've been dealing with a particular student at school who was at a detention center and had family here in our region. I'm like 4.5 hours, 5 hours from Houston, and she had family here, so she was released to her family here at the campus. She's gotten into fights. She's scared. We do have police on campus [and] an SRO, and she knows and understands that if she gets charges [pressed] or if another family or the other person who's in a fight with her decides to press charges against her, she knows that she's gonna face deportation.

Despite a new first-offender program in her district, this student's immigration status could have been significant if someone pressed charges against her at school. Therefore, Jessica and her school provided all students "the tools on how to start [a] new [life] and avoid violence and cope with stress and anxiety."

Like other participants, Jessica's students encountered challenges with DACA students. Some participants discussed the unique challenges of their schools' proximity to Mexico. The school leaders described deportation as part of their daily lives that impacted enrollment and parental engagement.

Proxy Homelessness. Sara and Jessica noted that sudden and immediate changes to family dynamics due to immigration and deportation practices resulted in an increase in children identified as homeless or fostered youth under the McKinney-Vento Act. A dedicated homeless liaison supported these families in Sara's school. Juana shared that her school had the biggest homeless community in the area. A student is identified as homeless under the McKinney-Vento Act for one of three reasons: parents are deported, and the student temporarily lives with an extended family member where the number of people in a room has "doubled up"; a parent may have disappeared on the Mexican side of the border, not due to immigration status but because of criminal reasons; or the student was an unaccompanied minor. Jessica noted that students often "couch-surfed" for an extended period. She found the instability hard to account for; in the immigrant

community, students with a roof over their heads did not consider themselves homeless. In Rolando's school, the members of the larger community and parent organizations came together to support students experiencing homelessness and their families.

This theme of deportation as a way of life presented the administrators' interactions with their families and their role in bridging the gap between the home, school, and community. The participants identified deportation as so engrained in their daily lives that it was part of their leadership practices. Unique to this theme was the geographic location of some participants' schools. Some participants worked at schools near the Mexican border with a large population of immigrant Latino students; therefore, deportation was part of all aspects of their homes, schools, and communities. Other participants, such as Courtney, did not work in communities where deportation was "a way of life." However, deportation impacted Courtney's leadership practices, as some students and parents feared immigration practices and avoided coming to school. Across all participants, deportation and deportability affected the school leaders' daily practices.

The participants discussed the value of community relationships. Those who led schools with strong community relationships could depend on and lean on their communities to support students and families in need. Sara, Gina, Alexandra, Juana, Marissa, Sheila, Lola, Alanna, and Jessica created a climate of belonging (Key 5) for undocumented families by establishing socially just classrooms. The participants fostered a warm and welcoming climate and community-building in their classrooms while reaching out to the community and undocumented families. The participants included community agencies in their practices. Through their leadership, the participants developed a welcoming school climate, enhancing home, school, community partnerships

during times of deportability. The participants showed that they used Epstein's (2001) dimensions of parenting, communicating, learning at home, volunteering, and collaborating with the community.

Theme 4: One Student, All Students

Shifts in the school culture or a strong school culture were vital to the students and families living through deportation or community deportability. All the participants appeared vulnerable when discussing assets and challenges in their schools' cultures. The interviews resulted in the following subthemes: the school as a cornucopia, trauma-informed teaching, and cultural competency.

The School as a Cornucopia. Gina, Alanna. Jessica, Alexandra, and Rolando identified their schools as hubs for their communities and a resource for immigrant Latino families living with the threat of deportation. The location of Gina's school enabled her to foster a unique and strong school culture where the family was the "target." Gina described how the school staff sought to "establish culture and community to meet the needs of those parents at home." Because the school was in an "English-only state," outreach had occurred to "support and help with [parents' and] students in the home. Whether it be through homework [or] educating parents on what their students are doing when it comes to standardizing benchmark exams or COVID." Gina noted that the school culture focused on parent and community engagement. Her school was a "cornucopia of the community" and "a cool place to be," and Gina sought to support students by making their families feel welcome. Gina noted that home, school, community partnerships were integral to the school's culture. When asked if deportation impacted these partnerships, she stated, "Most definitely." Gina said,

> The nice thing is that students will tell you the truth. Families won't, but students will. They'll say, "*Porque se llevaron a mi mama,"* [or], "They took my mom, or they took my dad." It becomes how can we [the school staff] support you [the student] now when there's fear? I'm not comfortable bringing them to school.

The school was the cornucopia of the community. As part of that community, Gina had a shared sense of belongingness and wanted to make the school welcoming and accessible for all.

Alanna's school had a strong school culture and community partnership. She described her community as a "beautiful community" with a low suspension rate for students and a low turnover of teachers. Alanna identified the home, school, community partnership as continuous:

> I think all of [the home-community-school partnership] stems from having this community piece because it wasn't just the teacher and the classroom living in a silo. It was the family working in conjunction and every child in that building knowing we knew their names. We knew at least one family member. Because of those relationships, we were able to really rely on that collaboration to support students in the school. We were a restorative justice school. We worked with students to build their capacity [and] to manage and handle problems. That also started at home. We offer workshops [to] the families [on] how to do [restorative practices] at home, [and] we would model [those practices] in school. It [is] a continuous partnership.

Alanna felt that a school staff comprised of 90% people of color provided some commonality between the school and the families and challenges. She said,

> We do not hit every language. There would be challenges there or even cultural awareness. We [are] very mindful not to make assumptions, but we're human, so there [may] be errors there. If we had more time or more resources, we could do deeper research into understanding our children holistically.

Alanna and her staff worked to find more "culturally relevant" ways to support parental engagement for the culturally, linguistically, and literacy-diverse school and community. The school's name and mission included the word "community." As such, when families faced challenges surrounding deportation, the school community "came

into it with grace" and rallied for students and families. Sheila described her school's location as a "fairly conservative small town" but noted that her school was "blessed with a school board [that] is really forward thinking." As a result, Sheila could have explicit conversations with her staff and conduct monthly professional developments on cultural competency. She said,

> How do we engage with people who are or are not like us in appearance, in belief, in culture, in heritage, [or] any of those things? [We at the school want] to show that no matter where you're from or what you are, we're all here for you as a school community.

Jessica supported home–school partnerships by embedding engagement into the school's culture and teacher expectations. Jessica said, "We have a procedure where we expect our teachers to be in constant communication with [the] families and parents they work with." Jessica noted how deportation impacted home, school, and community engagement because students typically had an extended network of family in the area or proximity to parents across the Mexican border.

Home, school, community partnerships were also part of Alexandra's school community. Alexandra said, "We paint this philosophy saying we embrace our families [and] we're an inclusive environment. Families, don't be threatened, don't be scared; no one within the community can scare or threaten our families." The fear of community deportability motivated Alexandra and her school staff to do "their best." The community, students, and families comprised the school culture. Alexandra noted that deportation impacted partnerships, so the school felt responsible for the community. For example, she and the school staff sought to empower families with "an accurate picture of what is going on" and knowledge, for example, the "rights written on the little red card."

Rolando shifted to hiring Spanish-speaking staff to reset expectations and lean into research. Rolando based school culture on the idea that "whenever you have success as a priority for your academics, it should match what your priority is with the parents so they're all engaged and involved." Rolando's mindfulness of parents extended to how he approached families and encouraged staff to do the same. Rolando said, "I don't believe it's that our parents don't want to help. I think it's just they don't really understand how." Language and parental literacy and education were barriers to families engaging with students academically. Accordingly, he sought to:

> Bridge those things for them. It's more about building structures with the families than the academic support they provide. There's also a question of time [and] time commitment [when] engaging families in that conversation because we have so many working-class families who sometimes work one [or] two shifts [or] the late-night shift. It's just trying to navigate that conversation and trying not to make them feel bad about it. It's just the fact that I know [parents] want their kids to be successful. And so, I'm trying to engage [parents] in that conversation.

Rolando worked to shift his school's culture and had seen a "growth in [the] staff." He ensured staff had access to relevant professional development. Rolando's Latino identity and similar experiences as students provided a "level of understanding that I think our staff know that I bring. And maybe we haven't gotten there yet, but culturally they understand that I bring that." All 14 participants worked to build inclusive school cultures. Gina described the school as a cornucopia. Although not every participant had the same experience as Gina, each strove to leverage community stakeholders to foster school cultures with home, school, community engagement.

Trauma-Informed Teaching. To embrace and support immigrant Latino students living with the threat of deportation, Gina, Marissa, Courtney, Juana, and Sara supported trauma-informed teaching. Gina responded to her community and the impact of deportation on transnational students and families by hiring a guidance counselor, who

provided additional support so "students [could] go and vent and cry and get professional support." Gina extended this support to families as well. The needs of her community and her students shaped Gina as an educator, and she said,

> I've moved into more of a trauma center, social-emotional learning for our teachers, [to become more] empathetic. We have the academics, but that's not gonna matter if a student is not focused or worried about what's going on at work.

Gina sought to develop professional learning environments where she and her staff could "embrace those kids [dealing with the deportation of a family member] and [understand] what to do for them in our classrooms." The school's focus on mental health enabled Gina to reach out to her community for support; in response, her county provided a "student healthy initiative." The initiative's goal was to support classroom teachers in having honest conversations with students to build coping skills and strategies for children dealing with the detention or deportation of a loved one. Gina encouraged her teachers to "take a few minutes to work on coping mechanisms" with students. Despite mental health being a "taboo" topic in the Latino community, Gina provided support to "start the conversation." She described mental health and the move toward trauma-informed teaching as:

> Our Number 1 priority. We're a team, and we wanna be able to support these students. This also opens the eyes of the teachers. Once we have those meetings and explain how everybody is a piece of the team or of the puzzle, it's only gonna work to support the student.

Like Gina, Marissa expressed pride that all the staff had received training in community circles and restorative practices. In addition, staff and students knew they could make referrals to specialized staff (e.g., mental health professionals) as appropriate. The relationship-building extended to the support Marissa's school provided to students and families facing deportability. Although there was an "initial trepidation based on

fear" regarding parental engagement, Marissa felt that the teachers were capable and trained in dealing with "hard news." Trauma-informed training was also a part of Courtney's school culture. The children at Courtney's school struggled with parental reunification after an extended period and their own journeys to the United States. Courtney said,

> What happened [to] a student who newly immigrated here [and] came here illegally? What [did they] deal with to get here, and [what was] the trauma they had to deal with when getting here? There's the realization that moms put little girls on birth control because they're worried they may get raped while coming here. Just those realities of getting to the United States and the preparation it takes for these students to get to the United States.
>
> And when they get to the United States, [there's] that trauma that they deal with [of] getting here and living with a family [who has] no idea who they are. And then you have the reverse of it, being snatched away [or] your mom and dad being snatched away. There are so many different layers.
>
> How do we support [students]? [We use] trauma-informed teaching, [which is a] response to teaching and helping. [But] how do you get the teachers to understand that aspect?

Courtney and the school staff pushed for mindfulness of the "whole" student.

Juana sought to fully understand students' needs by conducting weekly professional learning circles to provide staff opportunities to discuss students. The learning circles included "conversations, but we do try to keep FERPA." Juana defined her school culture as "close," stating, "One thing I noticed [about] the culture of this school, even before I came here, [is that] the [staff are] very, very, very close. They care so much about the kids."

Sara also used monthly staff meetings to engage in "frank conversation about the threat of deportation for students, fears, or anything." At Sara's school, teachers and staff came together to provide new insight. Sara said, "Colleagues will jump in and say, 'Make sure that you connect with so-and-so.'" In addition, Sara's staff had morning meetings

with students, which she said enabled teachers to "connect with their students and allows them [students] to feel safe in their classroom environment despite whatever's going on at home." The participants used trauma-informed teaching to support students and families living with the threat of deportation or deportability. Additionally, the participants engaged their staff and provided them with training to best serve students and families.

Cultural Competency. Michael, Alexandra, and Barbara sought to provide students with a tolerant and culturally competent culture. Michael considered the school's changing demographics and changed the school's culture for everyone, from students to staff to families. Michael supported the notion of "one student, all students." In addition to White flight, Michael saw pushback from the predominantly White teaching staff, who asked, "Why don't these parents show up to the open house? These parents don't care about their child's education." Michael addressed this mentality by focusing on cultural competency in the school culture:

> How do I, as the principal, work toward cultural competency with my teachers to reframe that narrative? Why are Latino parents more disengaged with the back-to-school nights and assignments? It's having those conversations and having those one-on-one conversations. It's striking that fine balance because if you push too hard, too fast, you get so much resistance and pushback. It's really difficult because you want to push and pull in a certain direction, but you don't want to snap in terms of getting the buy-in from the teachers because if they don't buy into what's going on, they're just not going to believe in it. It's a very delicate balance.

Michael shared how the shift in mindset extended into the classroom and how teachers engaged with parents:

> [Parent engagement] is just not linear. Letting my teachers understand and continue to bring this up to them and remind them that our families are dealing with a lot of different issues. It's not just a cookie-cutter scenario where you have someone [who] is at home [who] is able to provide support. [It's] letting [teachers] know that there are going to be a number of different factors that come

> into play in home life, and they have to give more grace and more understanding toward that.

Michael also worked on changing the school culture for families. He said,

> The [parents] would be very frank with you. Some of them said they [didn't] feel welcomed. [In] my first year, I was intentionally trying to overcome that issue that it [was] not a welcoming school. When [Latino parents] came to the front office, they did not feel invited, [and] they did not feel welcomed' it was cold.

Michael worked diligently to change the school culture, focusing on "establishing relationships and trust with both his families and the larger community in making all families feel welcomed." Michael reported that his staff could now have "difficult conversations and challenging conversations. We've come to more of an understanding that we need to be more fair and open and welcoming to all of our families." For Michael, diversity, which initially was a challenge for staff and families, was now a "selling point." He said, "We actually embrace our diversity. We want to have diversity and inclusion." Although Michael reported that deportation did not directly impact family engagement, he ensured that families knew that "everything [was] confidential." In a short time, Michael had shifted the school's culture for all students and families. Similarly, Alexandra prided herself on having a welcoming school and school culture. Alexandra sought to ensure parents did not "feel fear" at school by working with the staff to "build more empathy."

Barbara's school also focused on equity issues. Beyond providing monthly training on equity and antiracism, Barbara said,

> There's always room for improvement because the parents trust us to do our best with the students [because] they send their students to school to do their best. If [students are] not doing their best or [are] struggling, we need to let [parents] know as soon as possible.

While for these participants, cultural competency embodied their school culture, for Courtney, she continued to utilize more traditional cultural events as part of her practices to bridge home, school, community collaboration. Courtney shared her school was a mix of ethnic and cultural groups, and languages and as a result their yearly event was a heritage night celebration. As she described it, it's her "biggest bang for our buck" and it was also the only school-wide event for the community. Courtney discussed the influx of migrants and asylees to her school; however, in comparison to other participants she did not identify what and how a bidirectional relationship between the school, home and community looked like. While Courtney understood the importance of having staff that was bilingual and empathetic to her migrant community, she also felt that there was a thin line between "enabling and empowering." Courtney shared that at times she felt parent's viewed her as a "personal concierge" who was available for their every need. Given this perspective, Courtney voiced the importance of establishing clear boundaries with students and families. Similarly, Alanna identified this habit of families relying on the school as a "hurdle." As she put it, "Latino families wait for the school to solve the problem, saying, 'How do we work together?'" While Alanna identified this as a "personal trigger," she also noted that this habit is likely due to parent's not fully understanding the public school system in the United States nor its expectations. Alanna was open with identifying that while "we can't necessarily solve everything outside of our building, what can we do in our school building is to get everyone on the same page."

In the theme of one student, all students, the participants sought to build a strong school culture so all students and families felt welcomed. The participants took pride in their schools' cultures. Gina, Jessica, Alexandra, Juana, and Sara embedded home–school

engagement within their schools' cultures, whereas Alanna took a holistic approach to foster home, school, and community engagement. Rolando, Michael, and Barbara shifted their schools toward cultural competency, and Marissa and Courtney used trauma-informed practices to embrace and support their families while encouraging a welcoming community for all. By creating a school culture where one student was all students, the participants ensured transparency with students' families and employed the staff to support immigrant students and families.

Some participants spoke, with ease, about implementing cultural competency into their school. For others, the bridge between the school and home was not a fluid. Subsequently, participants, such as Courtney, felt that heaviness of working with this population ultimately took away from being free to explore new ways to bridge that home, school, community partnership. Similarly, Alanna placed a focused on building a community school but ultimately found it difficult to fully embrace the bidirectional relationships between home, school, community.

During times of deportability, school leaders are critical in ensuring students feel safe while at school. This means ensuring a school culture that is welcoming while also monitoring for the presence of immigration officials at or near school boundaries. Students and families who feel vulnerable do not openly reveal intimate information to schools (Murillo, 2017). Information, such as one's documentation status, is typically shared only with those who are highly trusted (Kam, et al., 2018). Many of these participants developed systems of support, showing their core leadership traits (Key 2) and attempting to "see a better way" by committing to equitable practices and support for all students. The advancement of inclusion, access, and opportunity (Key 3) produced

strong school cultures with home, school, community partnerships and a climate of belonging (Key 5). The participants' SJL traits enabled them to engage immigrant families via Epstein's (2001) typology of parenting, communicating, volunteering, learning at home, and decision-making.

Summary

This chapter presented the voices of principals and assistant principals working with immigrant Latino students and their families. The participants worked in different parts of the United States and had varying ethnicities and school demographics. For some participants, deportation was "a part of our lifestyles here. It's not something that is handled." Other participants reported explicit policies in place to support this marginalized community. The participants described home, school, community partnerships and the impact of deportation on these partnerships.

The analysis resulted in four overarching themes on the participants' practices for building home, school, community partnerships for Latino immigrant families facing deportability. The principals and assistant principals identified esto es mi comunidad. Shared cultural and linguistic identities with students enabled the school leaders' to build positive and strong partnerships. The participants reported overcoming technological barriers and used technology to improve parental engagement and reduce other barriers. The participants shared that deportation was a way of life for some students and their families; deportation was a part of the community and the school culture. Finally, the participants developed school cultures deeply rooted in collaboration and home, school, community partnerships.

Chapter 5: Interpretations, Recommendations, and Conclusions

The school administrator role has undergone many phases since its inception. Current demographic shifts and immigration policies and practices indicate that educational leaders should lead with equity to support all marginalized students, including Latino immigrant students and families living with the persistent threat of deportation. The literature review focused on Latino students in the school setting, the impact of deportation on families and children, the home, school, community nexus or partnership, and the role of the educator. The literature review and methodology were the basis for this research and provided insight into how to support programming for the population of immigrant Latino students.

The purpose of this dissertation was to explore how K–12 school leaders created support systems for immigrant Latino students and families living with the persistent threat of parental deportation and the larger community threat of deportation. Due to the infancy of literature on the topic, this study focused on the practices in place to build home, school, community partnerships for Latino immigrant families facing deportability. The basis of the RQs were SJL and Epstein's (2001) framework for developing home, school, community partnerships in communities facing deportation. Qualitative data collection included 14 virtual semistructured interviews with participants located across five regions of the United States who led schools with at least a 25% Latino student body. Nine participants worked in schools with a student body greater than 50% Latinos. MAXQDA qualitative data analysis software was the means of coding the transcripts. Data analysis involved organizing the raw data, organizing and preparing the data for analysis, reading through the data, coding the data (via the computer program),

identifying themes and descriptions, and interpreting the themes and descriptions. The analysis included validating the accuracy of the findings by exploring preestablished validity threats, qualitative reliability measures, and my positionality and subjectivity.

The RQ and subquestions contributed to the identification of four themes:

1. "Esto es mi comunidad" ("This is my community")
2. Access to technology crossed any physical boundaries
3. Deportation is a way of life
4. "One student, all students"

This final chapter has five sections: a discussion of the findings, the conceptual framework, implications of the findings for practice and policy, a conclusion, and recommendations for future research.

Discussion of the Findings

This section presents the findings based on the data from the 14 interviews. The discussion addresses the themes and data analysis. This section also shows how the findings aligned with the literature and theoretical and conceptual framework.

Theme 1: "Esto Es Mi Communidad"

In this study, Juana, Gina, Jessica, Rolando, Sara, Alexandra, and Marissa shared a cultural and linguistic identity with Latino students and families, resulting in stronger home, school, community partnerships. Michael and Courtney, who did not culturally or linguistically identify with their Latino students, hired staff to support all students' families, including Spanish-speaking Latino immigrants. Professional and personal experiences are important qualities of socially just leaders. Lived experiences and ongoing leadership practices contribute to the development of situational awareness that enables administrators to acknowledge community assets, recognize the political nature

of challenging the status quo, and foresee future challenges to social justice agendas (DeMatthews & Vela, 2020). Understanding and being a part of communities facing deportability enabled the participants to advocate for students, families, and communities.

The participants showed their awareness of deportability. Gina, who became a leader of the school she attended as a student, leveraged community stakeholders to provide students and families with experiences they otherwise would not have had. The sense of comunidad enabled Gina to ensure strong home, school, community partnerships. Alston (2005) cautioned that leaders should use their voices to be "tempered radicals" (p. 677) who consider the possibility of unequal power dynamics and collaborate with others to identify the best actions. The interviews in this study showed that Gina, Jessica, and Juana shared an identity with Latino students, enabling them to foster trust and develop stronger support systems for immigrant Latino students and families.

The participants considered their legal and ethical obligations to their school communities. This finding aligned with the research indicating that administrators should lead by being "responsive to the norms, values, and beliefs that define the standards for living together as a group" (Sergiovanni, 1996, p. 14). In this study, Michael noticed the change in his school's demographics and supported students and families by hiring Spanish-speaking staff. Socially just leadership entails that "everyone watches out for the ones carrying the heaviest burdens" (Starratt, 2004, p. 144). Similarly, Michael supported all his students, especially those who spoke Spanish. Principals and assistant principals should have the technical expertise to support the increasing numbers of immigrant students facing the forced separation of families due to legislated immigration practices.

Knowledge of current laws and policies and a strong network of community allies, and stakeholders could provide support to Latino immigrant students and families living with the threat of deportation. The knowledge and support contribute to stronger home and school partnerships, as staff and families have the necessary knowledge to strengthen home, school, community partnerships by using appropriate resources in innovative ways. Gina, Courtney, and Marissa sought to foster support and engagement by hiring Spanish-speaking staff. Juana empowered families with knowledge of their legal rights. Alexandra leveraged community resources to establish a system of vigilance, and Sara provided English-language classes.

Deportation as a way of life is a disruptive force and is the basis of this study. While the participants focused on supporting the student and family through home, school, community partnerships, what this research is missing is what this additional relationship does to the family unity. Do these partnerships feel intrusive to the family? The voices of the school leaders highlight the benefits to this nexus; however, how does a family who is living with the trauma directly related to the deportation of a love handle the possible stress of school activities or communication. How does the student then feel when their family are unable to attend, in spite of all the school's positive intensions to make the school culture an inclusive and welcoming one. This research focused on the experiences of principals and assistance principals; however, the voices of the family and student unit is sorely missing and likely would have provided information to ultimately lead to an asset-based approach in viewing Latino family participation during times of deportability.

The study's findings aligned with the literature. The participants focused on supporting families in their home language. Given students' and families' experience with and trauma due to the deportation or deportability of a loved one, the administrators focused on the Spanish language and Latino culture and heritage. This reinforced the students' identity development through their networks of community connections, which was in line with Leeman et al. (2011).

Theme 2: Access to Technology Crossed Any Physical Boundaries

The sudden shift to remote teaching during the COVID-19 pandemic was an immediate and unexpected change in the school dynamic for students and families. The participants, as socially just leaders, kept students' education and best interests at the center of each decision by using the potential barrier of technology as a bridge for families. The participants built support networks for families and communities to educate students. Michael viewed the family as part of a tripod between the student, the family, and the school. All the participants discussed their intentionality in bridging technological barriers to ensure all students' success.

Michael, Marissa, Gina, Courtney, Barbara, Matthew, Sheila, Rolanda, Lola, Alexandra, and Juana embodied SJL and used aspects of distributed leadership, also known as collaborative leadership (Rubin, 2002). Distributed leadership is beneficial in schools with emergent bilinguals (Ascenzi-Moreno et al., 2015; Brooks et al., 2007; Dematthews & Izquierdo, 2017; Menken, 2017; Scanlan & Lopez, 2012; Tupa & McFadden, 2009). The participants in this study used distributed leadership by viewing their role as interactive and shared among multiple official and unofficial leaders, such as intervention specialists. Furthermore, parents and community members became part of

the leadership team, while the administrators negotiated and used their influence across the school community to benefit Latino immigrant students' learning and well-being, a finding similar to Fernández and Paredes Scribner (2020). Michael, Marissa, and Gina used their staff to provide families with access to technology and show them how to use it. The staff trained in the needed technology taught students and families. The principals and assistant principals supported their students and families with what Marissa described as "a lot of empathy and humanity." Distributed leadership typically applies exclusively to principals and assistant principals. Thus, the socially just participants in this study also embodied distributed leadership by using technology to improve pedagogy, practices, and programming for Latino immigrant students living with the threat of deportation.

The English-speaking participants identified the benefits of using technology to support English-speaking staff and Spanish-speaking families with translations. Technology provided immediate access between the home and school that school members had not used before the pandemic. Thus, access to technology and translations became much more than "language brokering"; the participants became "information gatekeepers," which aligned with Hairston et al.'s (2019) findings. The participants knew the importance of and earned trust while brokering those identified as acting as social intermediaries for others (e.g., translating and interpreting; see Dorner et al., 2007). The participants and their staff were gatekeepers, where brokering could have occurred but information, especially vulnerable information (e.g., immigration status), was shared confidentially. The participants in this study considered it their ethical duty to choose not to share confidential information and to connect families and the school with community

stakeholders. The trust and information gatekeeping showed that the leaders practiced SJL.

Similar to the first theme, the absence of the voices of the family and student greatly hinder the full perspective of technology in the home. From an educational standpoint, technology is integral to education. The pandemic brought technology into the home. As participants clearly detailed, they had to ensure their students and families had equitable access and knowledge to technology. While some participants voiced the additional stress and burden of taking on this challenge, for many they rose above. The participants who viewed technology as breaking down barriers and strengthen the home, school, community partnership used their own influence and agency to create schools where conflict and cohesion can both occur in a fashion that is productive and positive (Fraise & Brooks, 2015). The two participants who voiced concern over the technology shared the common imagery of wearing too many hats. Educators need to "build bridges and cross borders so that the multiple cultures in the school-community can have empathy and define their own values instead of having this done by someone else" (Fraise & Brooks, 2015, p. 7). As the educational leaders during a pandemic, families turned to them for guidance. Part of being this socially just leader is not only being ethical but also part of the restorative process, whereby schools repair harm that is caused by incidents (e.g., deportation or deportability) through the active involvement of stakeholders. Socially just leaders aim to curb fear and achieve justice by engaging with the community and fulfilling a moral objection to work with those they serve (e.g., guiding parents during the transition to virtual learning).

The interviews for this research study were conducted during the height of a pandemic and a national shut-down. Technology, while not a novelty for the school leaders nor in education was a novelty to the degree it was brought into the families' homes. As such, this researcher is aware of this unique point in time and likely resulted in a more positive perspective on technology given the daily stressors related to COVID-19.

Regardless, some interviews identified mobility within the community could cause fear among undocumented students and families. Technology provided undocumented families access to their children's education, enabling them to feel less fear in one part of their daily lives. Lola and Alexandra served undocumented students and their families by supporting their ability to use technology to break down physical boundaries and provide access to the school through online meetings, translations, or marketing via social media. The partnership between the participants and the undocumented families resulted in positive outcomes (e.g., increased parental engagement) and strong, trusting relationships between school and home. Ultimately, the participants contributed to a feeling of belonging, school safety, and educational attainment, which was a finding identified in Epstein and Shields' (2002) research.

Theme 3: Deportation Is a Way of Life

Some participants described deportation as so engrained into the community and the students' lives that, as Juana noted, "It [was] a way of life." Many students in the participants' communities experienced traumatic events and stressors associated with immigration and deportation. As a result, they often copied their families' survival responses, such as hyper-vigilance or distrust in the school system, which mirrored findings by Cadenas Peña et al. (2020). In this study, Sara, Marissa, and Sheila described

how increased fears regarding the 2016 presidential administration indicated the need to provide mental health support and align with community partnerships for undocumented students and families. Sheila found it easy to provide students with access to mental health providers. However, Gina, who worked at a predominately immigrant school along the Mexican border, could not begin providing mental health professionals until 2021. Gina found that mental health professionals effected positive change for students, families, and staff, who could turn to professionals for advice on how to fully "support and embrace" immigrant students.

Home, school, community partnerships are critical to the success of Latino immigrant students and families living with the persistent threat of deportation. How school leaders build bridges between the home, school, and community can impact the lives of immigrants (Lowenhaupt et al., 2020). There are various "spheres of influence" (Epstein, 2010) in the lives of Latino immigrant students and families; therefore, educators should connect these spheres by building relationships, incorporating families into the school, and reaching out to the community (Galindo & Pucino, 2012). Educators and school leaders should encourage and embrace tridirectional communication between the home, school, and the community so students and families can feel safe to share their experiences and influence what occurs at school (Swap, 1993).

Jessica worked at a school with a high immigration population and found her students had behavioral concerns after the deportations of loved ones. Strong home, school, community partnerships enabled Jessica to provide students and families with the necessary tools and resources during traumatic times. Like Jessica, Juana and Gina worked at schools along the U.S.–Mexico border with large immigrant Latino

populations. The undocumented students at these schools felt a constant, all-encompassing fear of immigration practices and viewed deportation as a way of life. The schools' proximity to Mexico and frequent deportations made these educational leaders less polarized by community deportability. When discussing fear and trauma surrounding deportability, Juana and Gina did not feel like deportation practices alone impacted home, school, community relationships. Rather, strong community ties and a tridirectional partnership enabled the students to continue to attend school safely while living through the deportations of loved ones.

The participants found that the students needed home, school, community partnerships due to their mobility. Increased enrollment and the schools' proximity to the Mexican border caused Gina, Jessica, and Juana to focus on the unmet needs of undocumented students and families by relying on community stakeholders to bridge the home, school, and community. Jessica, Sara and Rolando identified proxy homelessness as an unexpected consequence of parental deportation that caused sudden changes to many students' family dynamics. Housing insecurity often caused students to feel unsafe and insecure. The lack of access to housing, health care, and food can negatively impact student success (Rothstein, 2004). Despite housing challenges, Rolando found that strong community relationships formed within the school and with the community as people came together to support immigrant students and families experiencing homelessness.

The theme of deportation as a way of life included the participants' perspectives on how deportation impacted communities. The participants used SJL by prioritizing communication and engagement with the home and community. The participants' diversity was evident in this theme. The leaders who worked at schools on the border

described deportation as engrained in their communities and schools, with deportation having a significant and constant impact on many Latino families. The other participants also found that deportation impacted their communities and rallied to support undocumented students and families. Thus, deportation was a way of life for some and a direct catalyst for SJL for others.

Theme 4: One Student, All Students

While some participants considered deportation a way of life, Rolando and Michael sought to build a culture to welcome and include Latino immigrants. Crawford (2017) stated, "Effective leaders are to act as public advocates for students and their families as well as the community" (p. 171). Gina, Jessica, Alexandra, Rolando, Marissa, Juana, Sara, Michael, and Barbara embodied effective leadership and advocacy while making home, school, community relationships part of their schools' cultures, while Courtney and Alanna voiced challenges serving the Latino community placed on them as school leaders.

The participants noted that undocumented students and families experienced trauma populations in their communities. Therefore, the participants voiced their drive to build and maintain strong community partnerships to support immigrant Latino students living with the threat of parental deportation. Newton et al. (2014) identified that brains in pain do not learn the same way as pain-free brains. Therefore, leaders practicing SJL should consider how pain affects the brain when considering their schools and school cultures.

The participants in this study used trauma-informed teaching and cultural competency to support students' holistic development and foster home–school

collaboration. The participants focused on building trust with community stakeholders, students, and families. Students need to feel safe to succeed, and they are likelier to underachieve when they feel unsafe, insecure, or uncertain about the future (Suldo et al., 2014), including potential deportation/deportability. The participants in this study considered the fear and lived experiences of their school communities and embedded these factors into their culture. Gina viewed her school as the cornucopia of the community due to a strong school culture and community partnerships. As a leader, Gina provided support and community resources to students and families living with the threat of parental deportation.

School leaders who build cultures with students and families at the forefront of policy development and practices foster a climate of trust and, as Gina stated, "belongingness, where collaborative partnerships excel." Relationships with families and the community are the key to student success (El Yaafouri-Kreuzer, 2017; Henke, 2011; Kronholz, 2016). Some participants in this study established a more culturally sensitive and inclusive school community by hiring bilingual staff or community liaisons, which also contributed to the inclusivity of the entire community (Warren et al., 2009). Alanna considered strong home, school, community partnerships as the reason for low suspension rates and teacher turnover at her school. Alanna built a "beautiful" and "culturally relevant" school community where immigrant Latino students and families felt safe while facing deportability.

Gina, Marissa, Juana, Sara, Michael, Alexandra, and Barbara embedded culturally responsive approaches into their school cultures. The participants worked with the school staff, especially teachers, to ensure they had the cultural competency to promote

immigrant Latino students' education and foster strong relationships for ongoing effort and increased capacity. Additionally, the participants developed the staff's cultural competency through professional learning communities and open dialogue to rethink, innovate, and adapt to students' and families' lived experiences, a finding reported by Lowenhaupt et al. (2020). Marissa and Juana used community circles and restorative practices to support immigrant students. However, Barbara felt that many parents continued to distrust the school despite the push for equity and antiracism.

The theme of one student, all students showed how the participants built schools and school cultures to ensure Latino immigrant students and families living with the threat of deportation felt safe, heard, and secure. Although Barbara felt there was "room for improvement" at her school, the other participants built their school cultures around home, school, community partnerships. Moreover, the participants made conscientious plans to include immigrant Latino students in their school cultures. Michael noticed the changing demographics at his school and sought to shift his staff and parents from deficit- to strengths-based thinking. Michael fostered trust in his overall school community. Two participants, Courtney and Alanna found the demands of the Latino families taxing; however, despite these a silver lining emerged. For Courtney, she discussed needing to reach out to her larger community and ultimately cementing a relationship between her school and a community group of social workers. While Alanna shared how she shifted this deficit thinking into action. Alanna ensured staff were trained to be culturally competent while also maintaining open conversations with families, which she described as being "actively engaged." In spite of sharing these challenges; both participants continued to passionately lead for equality and access for their

immigrant Latino students. This study's participants mirrored what McKenzie et al. (2008) described as SJL, as they developed a critical consciousness, engaged with teaching and learning, provided proactive support systems, and created inclusive structures. Through their school cultures, the participants established home, school, community partnerships by focusing on equity and justice for Latino immigrant students impacted by deportability.

Revisiting the Conceptual Framework

This study showed the role of educational leaders in supporting home, school, community partnerships for Latino immigrant students facing deportability. The participants in this study created systems to support parental engagement during times of deportability, developing strong school cultures and climates where home, school, and community had permeable boundaries. The fear of deportability could limit a family's ability to parent (aligning to Epstein, Involvement 1) and participate in school activities due to difficulties with mobility in the community and school setting. Michael, Marissa, Gina, Courtney, Barbara, Matthew, Sheila, Alexandra, Rolando, Lola, and Sara practiced SJL and sought to mitigate the fear of deportability by providing families with technology to bridge the physical distance between home and school and disseminate information in Spanish. Michael, Alexandra, Barbara, Gina, Marissa, Courtney, Juana, and Sara made cultural competency or trauma-informed teaching the core of their school cultures. The participants who faced challenges with establishing cultural competency and trauma-informed teaching set up their schools to ensure all families had access to a welcoming climate. Whether through professional learning developments (Gina), community circles (Marissa), or monthly equity training (Barbara), the participants led

for their students and built and enforced strong school cultures to eliminate the fear of communication (aligning to Epstein, Involvement 2).

The basis of this study was the strength and involvement of familismo, the cultural, social, economic and spiritual support network within and outside the Latino family (Chase-Lansdale & Brooks-Gunn., 2014). This study showed how familismo can prevail despite the challenges related to the threat of deportation and deportability (see Talavera et al., 2010). The participants faced challenges (e.g., absenteeism, fear, and a lack of translated material) but also embodied organic ways of drawing assets from schools and communities to support families. Deportation as a way of life provided the participants an opportunity for principals to enact SJL practices in unique ways to maintain and build family–community relationships with trust at the core. The leaders enacted bold and passionate leadership for the moral purpose of social justice (Theoharis, 2009). All the participants relied on and valued their connection to the larger community. Socially just leaders, such as Rolando, Jessica, and Gina, relied on volunteering (aligning to Epstein, Involvement 3) to ensure there were community stakeholders in place for families, whether legally or socially. The participants' abilities to reach out to their communities and families provided increased opportunities for learning within the home (aligning to Epstein, Involvement 4). For example, Michael addressed barriers to technology by hiring staff to physically support families. The staff used technology to support education in the home and helping families to be active decision-makers (aligning to Epstein, Involvement 5). The administrators established schools with cultures of inclusion. Initially a barrier, technology enabled parents to participate in meetings virtually and students to access education virtually when they could not physically attend

school. All 14 participants understood and worked toward strong home, school, community partnerships, emphasizing community (aligning to Epstein, Involvement 6) as integral for Latino students and families living with the threat of deportation. The participants understood the needs of students and families. The participants also emphasized the need for bilingual staff.

The participants' bold vision enabled them to focus on working with their staff to pursue equity and social justice for marginalized students and families. The participants' sincere passion led stakeholders to value and respect their leadership. Additionally, the participants ensured families gained access to community resources, sometimes bringing these resources directly to families. These types of engagement showed that the participants used strong SJL skills to build home, school, community partnerships during times of deportability. Their all-encompassing leadership style enabled the participants to support immigrant Latino students' education. This study focused on socially just principals and assistant principals and showed their profound impact on supporting the whole immigrant Latino student. More specifically, the threat of deportability provided the participants with a unique opportunity to act on their tenacious commitment to equity and social justice.

Through the participants' guidance, teachers and staff implemented more socially just policies and practices to develop a school climate of belonging. Lowenhaupt (2014) called for "a focus on practices, which solicit the partnership, advice, and input from immigrant families" (p. 543) so school leaders can benefit from Latino families' insights on how to serve them better. Juana, a participant in this study, indicated the need for bidirectional relationships between school staff and parents. However, there were times

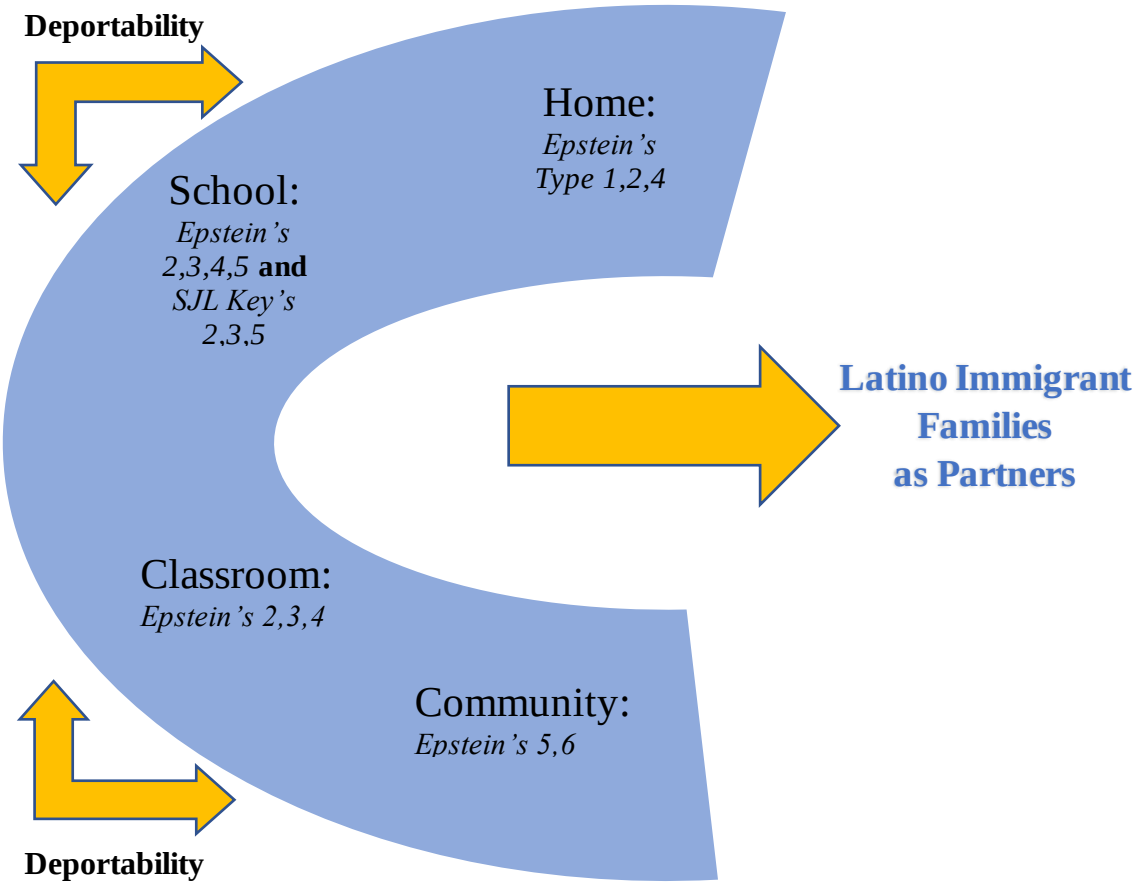
when the principals fell short, such as when Juana discussed challenges as though students and families needed to "change their mindset" instead of staff focusing on building a culture of belonging to foster academic excellence. The findings indicate that school leaders should develop culturally appropriate parental engagement practices to support all marginalized students and families, especially those facing traumatic events such as forced deportation. Many participants in this study viewed deportation as a way of life; however, they remained intentional and politically astute when providing support by adjusting hiring practices and engaging community agencies.

Regardless of their cultural or linguistic identities, the participants felt the need to support Latino immigrant students and families. This need was an authentic and driving force behind each participant's leadership style. The participants exhibited SJL while supporting and building bridges between the home, school, and community. School leaders are also community leaders (Khalifa, 2012) who operate within and across many boundaries; therefore, they should negotiate conflict ethnically with cultural competency (Fernández & Paredes Scribner, 2020). In this study, no participants mentioned state or standardized testing when discussing their responsibilities to their students. Instead, the leaders discussed students and families and their desire to help them become informed, caring, and engaged democratic citizens. For example, when faced with challenges to the status quo, Michael and Rolando engaged in complex thinking and gained a deep understanding of the inequities in their communities to affect change. Therefore, the participants embodied social justice by leveraging community assets and relationships to support immigrant Latino students and families in school and at home, where Latino parents were partners in their children's education. Figure 9 shows the revised

conceptualization of home, school, community partnerships for Latino immigrant students and families impacted by deportation and deportability. In the reconceptualization, all boundaries were removed to show the fluidity of this nexus.

Figure 9

Reconceptualization of Home, School, Community Partnerships for Latino Immigrants



The findings of this study suggest although home, school, and community engagement are typically viewed as separate, socially just leaders working with immigrant communities facing deportability should eliminate perceived boundaries between the three. The participants in this study viewed the home, school, and community as one entity within the school community rather than three distinct components and considered Latino immigrant parents to be partners in their children's

education. The participants engaged in core social justice leadership actions, such as advancing inclusion, access, and opportunity and creating a climate of belonging, and found unconventional ways to bridge the home, school, community gap and develop meaningful partnerships. The participants worked hard and saw a better and more just way, similar to Theoharis's (2009) findings, to support Latino students and families despite the harsh realities these families faced. The participants created culturally richer and more equitable schools through their socially just practices and actions.

The participants who identified culturally and linguistically with and had similar experiences as their Latino students and families gained a situational awareness that enabled them to acknowledge community assets, recognize the political nature of challenging the status quo, and foresee future challenges, a finding that aligned with DeMatthews and Vela (2020). The participants who did not culturally identify with Latino students still felt the ethical and moral obligation to serve their communities. The school leaders turned to their community stakeholders to advocate for Latino immigrant students' needs. The data in this study showed the participants' intentional actions to bridge home, school, community partnerships for Latino immigrant students and families living with the threat of deportation or community deportability.

A unique aspect of this study was the shared cultural identity between the researcher and some participants and similar experiences to the Latino students and families. This perspective of being an insider enabled me to connect with participants authentically. The ability to speak Spanish to participants about Spanish-speaking students and families produced trust and richer data. I engaged with the participants in either English or Spanish; if they began speaking in Spanish, I did not direct them back to

English. Scholars have discussed the concept of an insider versus an outsider (Edmonds-Cady, 2012; Shariff, 2014). Although insider and outsider tend to indicate Western researchers who have traveled to study native people, the terms also include local researchers conducting research with individuals or groups within their own countries or cultural groups (Liamputtong, 2010). Banks (1998) suggested that being a cultural insider was the best approach to fieldwork. Cultural insiders have cultural commonalities with local people, including shared social backgrounds, cultures, and languages (Ergun & Erdemir, 2010; Ramji, 2008; Song & Parker, 1995).

My insider status with some participants could have enabled them to accept and see me as a "legitimate member of the community who can speak with authority about it" (Liamputtong, 2010, p. 110). In contrast, an outsider might engage in more superficial dialogue with participants (Liamputtong, 2010; Banks, 1998). The research topic, while sensitive, could also be viewed as controversial; however, my insider status enabled me to genuinely connect with educators across the United States in a timely way. My insider status provided me with a unique opportunity. However, being too close to a topic or group could cause an insider to become inherently biased and too close to raise provocative questions (Merriam et al., 2001). Insider and outsider statuses have pros and cons. However, my insider status enabled me to get close to the participants to gain rich data.

As the researcher it was my responsibility to analyze all the data with a neutral lens, although my subjectivity still informed my analysis. While the majority of these participants ultimately embodied a variety of SJL practices, they also identified hardships within their given communities and personal flaws. With each hardship and challenge,

the participants identified ways in which they overcame them and ultimately worked towards providing their students living with the threat of deportation access to equitable (and in some cases beyond) education and resources. Yes, the participants are SJL, but this research topic and participant criteria was very specific. Participants were identified via snowball. They willingly and without any knowledge of who I am, chose to take time out of their day to speak about their school community at the height of a global pandemic. These participants were not identified because they worked within a specific school district, these participants reached out to me because they knew their voice needed to be heard. Words like "empathy," "trust," "open," "compassionate", "purposeful" were echoed throughout the diverse interviews. Immigration and immigration practices run deep in this country. For the majority of these school leaders, it is these practices and the inherent need and desire to fully support the Latino immigrant student and family that shapes their leadership style and their perception on school culture.

Future Implications for Policy and Practice

The findings of this study could have implications for future policies and practices and educational leaders working with immigrant Latino students facing deportability. These implications relate to the home, school, community, and district.

Implications at the Home Level

Educators should address Latino immigrant students' needs and ensure their readiness to learn by providing a safe space. Fear of deportation or community deportability has serious implications for academic development (Lovato-Hermann, 2017). In this study, Jessica said,

> Students' needs are not met. They need a safe, secure home, and they need to be physically nourished. If there's food insecurity, or if they're hopping between

> homes, couch surfing, that's a lot of extra worry [and] concern [that] can definitely create a lot of distractions for [students].

Immigrant students living with the threat of deportation should have the ability to feel safe and ready to learn. Trust and open communication between the home and school enable school leaders to serve students and provide for families holistically. This study has implications for how school leaders can support Latino students by ensuring school staff know about students' and families' rights and responsibilities in educating diverse students in a fluid partnership between the home and the school.

Implications at the School Level

This research indicates the need for myriad services for immigrant students at school, such as mental health providers trained in working with the immigrant community. In this study, Lola identified the trauma her students carried after the deportations of loved ones and the benefit of providing immediate mental health resources within the school. Diversity and immigrant communities continue to increase, so school leaders should prepare to embrace all parts of this marginalized community. Youth agencies and mental health providers working in K–12 schools might lack the preparedness to work with undocumented students and families (Cadenas Peña et al., 2021). Therefore, school leaders should hire staff with training and experience working with the Latino immigrant community, while simultaneously monitoring the potential impact of secondary trauma on not only the educational leaders but also on the teachers and staff.

Training programs, colleges, universities, and school districts should focus on training bilingual educators and staff working with immigrant communities. Hiring staff who mirror the school community culturally and linguistically could positively impact

students and home, school, community relationships. In turn, school districts and leaders require training in retaining bilingual staff. School leaders should conduct hiring and supervising through an equity lens by addressing race-related issues. Discussing and addressing race-related issues is critical in diverse schools (Shields et al., 2002). In addition, whole-staff conversations and training could be a way to ensure that all staff value and respect diversity. Success at the home and school levels can occur when educators can rely on community support.

A central tenant of this research is social justice and the socially just leader. While these participants embodied SJL, there is a uniqueness associated with social justice, which some may argue is inherent, and not explicitly taught. According to Theoharis (2009), social justice leaders embody core leadership traits. This research emphasized the need to fully embrace this specific key. If the heart of the SJL is the socially just leader, how are training programs able to "make" these leaders? If unable, how are training programs able to "identify" these socially just leaders during the recruitment process? McKenzie et al. (2008) strongly recommended that when school leaders complete formal preparation programs with a focus on social justice, they must "know how to do all three tasks: to increase student achievement as evidenced, in part, by high test scores; to raise the critical consciousness among their students and staff; and to accomplish these tasks by creating intentional, heterogeneous learning communities for students and staff" (p. 117). Moreover, when students are recruited who at a minimum do not know how to critically question inequities and have deficit views towards marginalized communities, the learning curve is steep and may not be accomplished within the time frame of the graduate work.

Working with marginalized communities, often comes with an inherent high level of stress. This study identified selfless leaders who fully support their students and families, and larger community. While the participants leveraged their community stakeholders and spoke with ease on how they embraced home, school, community partnerships, there are inexplicit risks to this level of commitment. What are the moral and ethical obligations for principals and assistant principals to serve and lead their schools, while protecting their own mental health? Although boundaries, or lack thereof, was not a specific component to this research, discussing (and training) obligations versus burn out as educational leaders in high need communities, is critical to ensure long term support. Social justice leaders need to not only practice and establish boundaries, but they are to do so while continuing to advocate for their students and families. Additionally, addressing burnout among social justice leaders requires individual and organizational strategies in order for leaders to sustain their fervor without risking their well-being (Chen & Gorski, 2015; Gorski, 2015).

Implications at the Community Level

Supporting Latino immigrant students in school and at home requires collaboration. Wraparound services for immigrant Latino students impacted by deportation could provide students and families with services not traditionally found within the school. When asked about a want for her school, Alexandra stated, "A unicorn: someone who understands the law, how to connect people to resources, and the trauma families are dealing with to provide support. We need a team of these unicorns." The immigrant community has vast needs.

The participants in this study emphasized the need to provide and receive support from the larger school community. An implication of this study is the need to disseminate information bidirectionally between the school and the community. Stakeholders should leverage the school as much as school leaders can leverage community resources. Therefore, there is a need to establish a community where allies can support each other before school leaders reach out for support. The school might be the only place where immigrant Latino students' families can fully access resources. Families with limited mobility due to immigration status or a fear of deportation may lack access to resources within the community. Therefore, educational leaders could bring the community to the school to provide families with a safe and welcoming environment.

The participants in this study explained the importance of a parent center to empower families with information, fresh food, classes, and resources, such as legal resources. For example, Sara mentioned what the immigrant Latino student impacted by deportation deserves:

> Everything every other child gets to have access to. [However], in this particular community, not every child has access to [resources]. These are challenges that we're faced with. [When we] bring [students] here [to the community center], we can offer counseling services [and] access to food, training, technical services, reading and math support for parents, and homework help for students.

Leveraging community stakeholders and ensuring access to wraparound services is one way educational leaders can support immigrant Latino students.

Implications at the District Level

At the district level, the curriculum should reflect the students' diversity. Some participants worked in schools comprised exclusively of Latino students. Culturally responsive pedagogy and leadership with an asset-based and transnational curriculum (Mendenhall & Bartlett, 2018) provide safe and effective learning environments for

immigrant Latino students. Although the participants in this study did not explicitly mention the curriculum, their voices and experiences as educators serving immigrant Latino students and families showed the need for change at the top. In this study transnational students, immigrants, trauma-informed teaching, and culturally responsive pedagogy were all key aspects that need to be addressed when thinking about how the curriculum should reflect the students' diversity. The results showed that the participants used SJL to push their schools toward research-based approaches while creating a climate of belonging for all.

Implications for Future Research

This work has implications for school leaders who want to apply the SJL lens to their intentional commitments to immigrant bilingual and multilingual families for students' academic success. This study focused on Latino immigrant students and families and included recommendations for future research on the impact of immigration practices on other immigrant groups. For example, future research could focus on home, school, community partnerships and the most effective leadership styles for recent asylees from war-torn countries. This study did not include the voices of Latino immigrant students and families. Exploring Latino immigrant students' and families' perspectives could provide researchers with additional points of view to create fully encompassing support systems. Researchers could seek to determine the perceived benefits of engaging with the school and whether deportation negatively impacts partnerships. In addition, whereas this study focused on principals and assistant principals, future scholars could expand the sample to include staff, teachers, counselors, or front office staff who work closely with immigrant students and families. Such

research could indicate which staff traits contribute to positive interactions with students and families and the impact of deportation in the classroom. Alternatively, future research could explore how principals and assistant principals, with little knowledge of deportation, lead their schools when there are increasing community deportations and/or lead schools with smaller Latino student bodies.

Future researchers should explore the dynamic between community and schools to identify the key leadership styles of educational leaders and community stakeholders that contribute to mutually beneficial partnerships. This study focused on the tridirectional relationship of home, school, community partnerships. Each interview showed how community stakeholders can benefit from these partnerships. Therefore, future research should include the voices of key partners to determine what makes community stakeholders want to invest in their local system and why a specific community stakeholder value that partnership. Exploring the entirety of the home, school, community partnership from different perspectives could provide a better understanding of how to support immigrant students and families living during times of deportability.

There is a need for further research on immigrants' lived experiences in the United States. Immigration continues to increase, resulting in an influx of immigrant students. This study showed the need for strong home, school, community partnerships for this marginalized group. Future researchers could identify the most-effective leadership styles for supporting Latino immigrants.

Conclusion

This study involved reconceptualizing Epstein's (2001) framework of parental engagement for immigrant Latino students and families living with the threat of

deportation. All students, including undocumented and immigrant students, have a right to public education under the 1982 Supreme Court decision *Plyer v. Doe*. Therefore, educators should support immigrant students by understanding how parental legal status affects academic performance. Educators should learn how increasing hostility toward immigrant families contributes to the community threat of deportability and adversely impacts children's emotional well-being and school success (Brabeck & Xu, 2010). Principals and assistant principals should support staff in cultivating learning environments conducive to academic success.

The study focused on the strengths and involvement of familismo (Chase-Lansdale & Brooks-Gunn, 2014) and the threat of deportation and deportability (Talavera et al., 2010). This study also focused on the positive connection between home, school, community partnerships and academic success (Reschly & Christenson, 2009; Hoover-Dempsey et al., 2005). Socially just educational leaders support all students, including marginalized students and their families. This study's findings indicate the need to develop culturally appropriate parental engagement practices to support all marginalized students and families, especially those facing traumatic events such as forced deportation. The participants in this study viewed schools as a cornucopia of services or an extension of the larger community. Therefore, the participants used SJL to support their communities.

As a researcher, I learned the value of a shared community. I anticipated struggling to find participants but ended up with a diverse group of principals and assistant principals across the United States. The virtual interviews showed the value of building rapport and trust. The participants trusted me and my motive and became more

open and willing to share information regarding immigrant students. Through each interview, I learned the value of the data collection process. As an educator, I live in data; however, I never had the opportunity to gather data from such a geographically diverse pool of participants. As a researcher, I learned that what has driven me professionally and often feels very isolating due to my physical location is something that educators and educational leaders experience daily. I am humbled to have had the opportunity to learn from my participants, and I value their time and commitment to serving culturally and linguistically diverse students, families, and the larger community.

The political realities of anti-immigrant detention and deportation impact students and their families, which, in turn, impacts the school culture. The socially just participants in this study used their positions of power to establish strong home, school, community partnerships where students and families could trust schools and become partners in education. This research was an opportunity to hear the voices and experiences of principals and assistant principals across the country. Open and honest dialogue with the participants provided rich data and access to various leaders who embodied SJL. All 14 participants added value to this study by discussing how they shaped and empowered communities, children, and families. The participants used SJL to support immigrant Latino students and families living with the threat of deportation or community deportability.

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Appendix A: Recruitment Flyer

sAppendix B: Email Introduction

My name is Melissa Ledesma and I am a doctoral student in Educational Leadership and Administration program at The George Washington University. This email serves as an invitation for your participation in a study I am conducting at The George Washington University. I seek your participation in this study given your current position within your school and your experience working with Latino students and families. Your participation is voluntary and there is no renumeration. You may choose to participate, or not, and you may choose to end your participation at any point.

I would like to request approximately a 60- to 90-minute interview to take place during spring semester, with a potential 30-minute follow-up interview if you request one. Given current COVID restrictions, this interview will be done via a virtual platform, such as zoon. I will assign you an unidentifiable pseudonym to maintain confidentiality. All files will be password protected. Interviews will take place outside of your employment hours. The basis of the study and interview questions are not related to a specific school district, as such, I am not seeking to discuss your specific school district or specific students and families with whom you interact.

If you would like to participate in this study, please reply to this email. I will provide you with an informed consent form and we can schedule a time to complete the interview.

Please contact me via email. I will follow up with you within a week.

Thank you for your assistance, and I appreciate your consideration.

I look forward to speaking with you,
Melissa Ledesma

Appendix C: Informed Consent

Title of Study: Educators Leading in a Time of Deportability
IRB #: NCR203087
Principal Investigator Name: Dr. Christine Nganga
Subinvestigator Name: Melissa Ledesma, Ed.S., CCC-SLP

You are invited to participate in a research study under the direction of Dr. Christine Nganga, professor of the Department of Educational Leadership, and Melissa Ledesma, doctoral student at the George Washington University (GWU). Participation in this study is entirely voluntary. Your employment status will not, in any way, be affected should you participate, decline to participate or withdraw from the study at any time. Further information regarding this study may be obtained by contacting Melissa Ledesma, subinvestigator.

The purpose of this dissertation is to explore how K–12 school leaders created support systems for immigrant Latino students and families living with the persistent threat of parental deportation and the larger community threat of deportation. The researcher will use a qualitative methodology to identify the practices and perceptions of these school administrators. Empirical research is limited on how educators understand immigration practices and how immigration shapes their students' lives or impacts their learning and the educators' teaching (Dabach, 2015). Studies that do exist identify increased emotional and behavioral distress in children experiencing the deportation of a parent, including sleep problems, depression, anxiety, and poorer grades (Baum et al., 2010; Brabeck & Xu, 2010; Dreby, 2012). Given this information and immigration trends parent engagement is critical for the immigrant students success (Carreón et al., 2005; Chavez-Reyes, 2010; Lopez et al., 2001). With potential threats and vulnerability surrounding the impact of deportation and/or deportability, what and how school, family, and community partnerships look like depends greatly upon the success of the school leaders. Through semi-structured interviews and observations, we will improve knowledge of this critical work.

What are the reasons you might choose to volunteer for this study?
The results of this study will provide additional knowledge to urban, diverse school districts on how principals and/or assistant principals support home, school, community partnerships during times of deportability. Specific leadership practices, both successful and unsuccessful, can be identified.

What are the reasons you might not choose to volunteer for this study?
You may not work in a school district with a high percent of Latino, immigrant students and families. In addition, you may have concern regarding loss of confidentiality or possible time limitations.

If you choose to participate in this study, you will agree to have our sessions observed, audio recorded, and notes taken on interaction and quotes. You will be identified as a K–12 principal or assistant principal and a pseudonym will be used to protect

confidentiality. The total amount of time will be one 30- to 60-minute interview. You may refuse to answer any of the questions, and you may stop your participation in this study at any time.

Possible risks or discomforts you could experience during this study include loss of confidentiality or physical fatigue. Confidentiality will be protected, and you are welcome to take breaks, as needed.

As a participant, you will not benefit directly from this study. The benefits to science and humankind that might result from this study are related to policy, as there is a potential to form a powerful bridge between school, home and the community. By bridging policies, this study can identify what types of involvement are found in public schools, with high numbers of immigrants living with the threat of deportability, while leading to identify characteristics and attributes of principals and/or assistant principals who effectively form the school, family, community partnerships. These identified characteristics may in turn lead to a better understanding in how to support this marginalized community.

Every effort will be made to keep your information confidential; however, there is no guarantee. If results of this research study are reported in journals or at educational meetings, participants will not be named or identified.

The Office of Human Research of the George Washington University, at 202-994-2715, can provide further information about your rights as a research participant.

To ensure anonymity your signature is not required; unless you prefer to sign this document.

Your willingness to participate in this research study is implied if you proceed.
*Please retain a copy of this document for your records.

Appendix D: Interview Protocol

It is a pleasure meeting with you today. My name is Melissa Ledesma, I am a doctoral student at George Washington University. First off, I would like to thank you for taking the time to actively think about the information I sent you in the pre-interview protocol, that information will help to guide our conversation today. I am conducting research on the role of principals and assistant principals in supporting Home, school, community partnerships with Latino immigrant families living with the persistent threat of parental deportation or community deportability. Our interview will take place over 30-to-60-minute session. We will first focus on gathering some basic demographic information, while also giving you a chance to ask any questions about the process. Then we will delve deeper into your practices and perceptions as educators working with immigrant Latino populations. As we go through the interview, this process is meant to feel more like a conversation. There are no right or wrong answers. Please feel free to ask any clarifying questions along the way and pause me at any point.

I will protect the identity of all my participants by using pseudonyms. All direct quotes used in the final study will be identified using these pseudonyms. All information shared during and following our interviews will not be shared with any other individuals, outside of my dissertation chair and committee members. The interview will be audio-recorded for purposes of transcription. Your recording will not be used in any publications or presentations. Again, all audio-files will include pseudonyms.

Do you have any additional questions before we start?

Demographic Questions

1. What is your role within the school?

2. How long have you been in this position/role?

3. How many years have you been working with culturally/linguistically diverse learners?

4. What racial/ethnic identity do you identify with?

5. Do you speak a second language? If so, which?

6. Tell me a little bit about your school.

Interview Questions

1. Tell me a little bit about the population in your school.

2. Describe how you engage with families. What kind of home/school/community relationships do you feel are fostered in your school?

3. What impact do you think these relationships have on students?

4. As an educator working in a diverse setting, how do you define family? Does your definition of family play a role in how you view home/school/community partnerships within school context?

5. Describe opportunities for parental engagement in your school. Does this look different for the Latino community?

6. How do you engage with the communities your students come from? Is there a difference in engagement when the community has a high percentage of Latino immigrants?

7. How are efforts made to reach out to families?

8. As the principal or assistant principal how do you facilitate home/family practices in your school culture?

9. What are the assets in bridging Home, school, community partnerships with Latino immigrant families?

10. How do you view the challenges in bridging Home, school, community partnerships with Latino immigrant families?

11. What do you view as the role of the parent/caregiver in your students' education?

12. What role does immigration/deportation/ICE play in educating Latino students?

13. Can you explain to me what the threat of parental deportation looks like for your students/in your school?

14. How does deportability (fear of deportation) affect communication between school and home?

15. What are social services or supports for these students?

16. Can you describe any services that you or your school provide to Latino students who have experienced the deportation/detention of a parent?

17. Are there any challenges that you have experienced working with Latino students and their families? Are there any limitations?

18. How does your school integrate the larger Latino immigrant community?

19. How do you and your school address the needs of Latino immigrant students living with the persistent threat of parental deportation?

20. How do you engage teachers and school staff in dialogue about issues of immigration?

21. How do you engage teachers and school staff in dialogue about concerns or issues surrounding parental engagement?

22. Are there any additional services you feel would be beneficial to this population?

Appendix E: Demographic Information Collection Sheet

Please provide the following demographic information. This information will not be connected to your name or school/school district. This form is voluntary; you may choose not to answer any or all of the questions on this form.

Participant Code: (To be completed by subinvestigator) _____

Hispanic/Latino Origin:

No, not Spanish/Hispanic/Latino(a)

Yes, Mexican, Mexican American, Chicano

Yes, Puerto Rican

Yes, Cuban

Yes, another Hispanic, Latino or Spanish origin (e.g., Salvadoran or Dominican):

Please print origin _____

Race (Circle One):

Unspecified

American Indian/Alaska Native

Asian

Black or African American

Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander

White

Age (Circle One)	**Gender**
20-30	Female
31-40	Male
41-50	Unspecified
51-60	
61-70	

Current Position Title: _____

Years of Experience in Current Position: _____

Years of Experience in Education: _____

Highest Degree Attained: _____

Languages Spoken outside of English: _____

Proficiency Level: Basic Knowledge, Conversant, Proficient, Fluent, Native Speaker, Bilingual: _____

Appendix F: Research Question Alignment

Research Question (RQ): How do principals and assistant principals interpret current practices in place to bridge the home, school, and community partnerships in Latino immigrant families during times of deportability?

Subresearch Question (SQ): How do principals and assistant principals create systems to support home, school, and community partnerships during times of deportability?

Theoharis's Framework:
SJL Key 2: Possessing core leadership traits
SJL Key 3: Advancing inclusion, access, and opportunity
SJL Key 5: Creating a climate of belonging

Epstein's Framework:
Involvement Type 1: Parenting
Involvement Type 2: Communication
Involvement Type 3: Volunteer
Involvement Type 4: Learning at Home
Involvement Type 5: Decision Making
Involvement Type 6: Community

Demographic Questions

1. What is your role within the school?
2. How long have you been in this position/role?
3. How many years have you been working with culturally/linguistically diverse learners?
4. What racial/ethnic identity do you identify with?
5. Do you speak a second language? If so, which?
6. Tell me a little bit about your school.

Interview Questions

1. Tell me a little bit about the population in your school.

Interview question	Theory alignment:	Research question and subquestion:
1. Describe how you engage with families. What kind of home/school/community relationships do you feel are fostered in your school?	Epstein's Framework 1-6	RQ
2. As an educator working in a diverse setting, how do you define family? Does your definition of family play a role in how you view home/school/community partnerships within school context?	SJL Key 2 SJL Key 3 SJL Key 5 Epstein Type 1	RQ
3. Describe opportunities for parental engagement in your school. Does this look different for the Latino community?	SJL Key 2 Epstein Type 2 Epstein Type 3	RQ
4. How do you engage with the communities your students come from? Is there a difference in engagement when the community has a high percentage of Latino immigrants?	SJL Key 2 SJL Key 5 Epstein Type 5 Epstein Type 6	RQ
5. How are efforts made to reach out to families?	SJL Key 2 SJL Key 2 SJL Key 5 Epstein Type 2 Epstein Type 4 Epstein Type 5 Epstein Type 6	RQ
6. How do you personally aim to incorporate or include home–family practices into your school culture?	SJL Key 2 SJL Key 3 SJL Key 5 Epstein Type 1 Epstein Type 2 Epstein Type 3 Epstein Type 4 Epstein Type 5	RQ
7. What are the assets in bridging home, school, community partnerships with Latino immigrant families?	SJL Key 2 SJL Key 3 SJL Key 5 Epstein Type 4 Epstein Type 6	SQ
8. How do you view the challenges in bridging home, school, community partnerships with Latino immigrant families?	SJL Key 5 Epstein Type 4 Epstein Type 5 Epstein Type 6	SQ

Interview question	Theory alignment:	Research question and subquestion:
9. What do you view as the role of the parent/caregiver in your students' education?	SJL Key 2 SJL Key 3 Epstein Type 1 Epstein Type 2 Epstein Type 3 Epstein Type 4	SQ
10. What role does immigration/deportation/ICE play in educating Latino students?	SJL Key 3 SJL Key 5 Epstein Type 1 Epstein Type 6	RQ/SQ
11. Can you explain to me what the threat of parental deportation looks like for your students/in your school?	SJL Key 3 SJL Key 5 Epstein Type 1 Epstein Type 6	RQ/SQ
12. How does deportability (fear of deportation) affect communication between school and home?	SJL Key 3 SJL Key 5 Epstein Type 1 Epstein Type 2 Epstein Type 3 Epstein Type 4 Epstein Type 6	RQ
13. What are social services or supports for these students?	SJL Key 2 SJL Key 3 SJL Key 5 Epstein Type 1 Epstein Type 6	RQ
14. Can you describe any services that you or your school provide to Latino students who have experienced the deportation/detention of a parent?	SJL Key 3 SJL Key 5 Epstein Type 1 Epstein Type 6	RQ
15. Are there any challenges that you have experienced working with Latino students and their families? Are there any limitations?	SJL Key 2 SJL Key 3 SJL Key 5 Epstein Type 1 Epstein Type 2 Epstein Type 3 Epstein Type 4 Epstein Type 5 Epstein Type 6	RQ

Interview question	Theory alignment:	Research question and subquestion:
16. How does your school integrate the larger Latino immigrant community?	SJL Key 2 SJL Key 3 SJL Key 5 Epstein Type 1 Epstein Type 6	RQ
17. How do you and your school address the needs of Latino immigrant students living with the persistent threat of parental deportation?	SJL Key 2 SJL Key 3 SJL Key 5 Epstein Type 1 Epstein Type 2 Epstein Type 3 Epstein Type 4 Epstein Type 5 Epstein Type 6	RQ
18. How do you engage teachers and school staff in dialogue about issues of immigration?	SJL Key 2 SJL Key 3 Epstein Type 2 Epstein Type 3 Epstein Type 4 Epstein Type 5	RQ SQ
19. How do you engage teachers and school staff in dialogue about concerns or issues surrounding parental engagement?	SJL Key 2 SJL Key 3 SJL Key 5 Epstein Type 2 Epstein Type 3 Epstein Type 4 Epstein Type 5	RQ SQ
20. Are there any additional services you feel would be beneficial to this population?	SJL Key 2	RQ SQ

Appendix G: Outcome Letter IRB

Date: February 4, 2021
To: Nganga, Christine Wanjiku, EdD
From: The George Washington University Committee on Human Research, Institutional Review Board (IRB), FWA00005945
IRB# NCR203087*, "Educators Leading in a Time of Deportability"*

Subject:
Exempt Determination Date: February 4, 2021

The request for an exemption determination for the above-referenced study has been completed. The study was determined to be research that is exempt from IRB review under DHHS regulatory **category 2**. The project as described in the application may proceed without further oversight by the OHR.

The exemption determination applies only to the project described in your IRB Application.
Any changes that may alter in any way the risks to participants, type of information to be accessed, addition of new populations, or change in PI may not be instituted without submission of a Modification within the iRIS system and further review by the OHR prior to implementation of the changes.

Refer to posted OHR guidance for requirements regarding in-person research interactions during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Questions or concerns regarding the exemption determination made for the study should be directed to the OHR staff at ohrirb@gwu.edu.