UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

Santa Barbara

Advancing Advocacy Communication Theory: A Theory Grounded in Undocumented College Students' Motivations and Strategies for Challenging Oppression

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction of the

requirements for the degree Doctor of Philosophy

in Communication

by

Monica C. Robledo Cornejo

Committee in charge:

Professor Jennifer A. Kam, Chair

Professor Dana Mastro

Professor Karen Nylund-Gibson

June 2022

The dissertation of Monica C. Robledo Cornejo is approved.

_____
Karen Nylund-Gibson

_____
Dana Mastro

_____
Jennifer A. Kam, Committee Chair

June 2022

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

As activist, scholar, and philosopher, Angela Davis, once said: “We must always attempt to lift as we climb”. This beautiful quote captures what we, as a society and community, must attempt to achieve; helping and empowering each other to challenge the tyrannical systems that oppress minoritized communities. Unfortunately, this is often not the case. Instead, many people become complacent to these oppressive systems and contribute to the systemic oppression of minoritized communities. Yet, although stark, there are wonderful people who go to great lengths to work for their communities. I am fortunate to know some of them. My faculty advisor, superwoman, and all amazing-human-being—Dr. Jennifer Kam—is an exemplary example of lifting as we climb. If it were not for all the support, she has selflessly given me, I would not be earning a Ph.D.

As an undocumented immigrant, one of the greatest hurdles I have faced is believing that I am of value to a country that desperately attempts to shut me, and my fellow undocumented community, down. The fear of deportation weighs heavily on my shoulders—like my fellow undocumented community brothers and sisters, even though I am in an extremely privilege position. Yet, regardless of this fear and the stereotypes attached to my status, Dr. Kam has not only helped me through various personal and academic challenges I have faced, but she also helped me to understand that we can fight back against these tyrannical systems using research, education, and allyship via the use of our own privileges. And by doing so, we can help others understand that knowledge is power, which helps us find our voices to helps others who are silenced by these systems. For this, I am extremely grateful.

I am also grateful for my committee, Drs. Karen Nylund-Gibson and Dana Mastro. Dr. Nylund-Gibson, thank you for being an amazing methodological professor. You are the reason I am a mixed-methods scholar; if it were not for your inspiration and dedication to teaching a difficult subject, I would not have pursued statistics and methods. Dr. Mastro, thank you for all the personal advice you gave me, as well as for the challenging theoretical questions during my qualifying exams and dissertation proposal defenses.

Mamá, muchas gracias por todo el apoyo que me has dado en este proceso. Estoy orgullosa de ser tu hija y que me enseñastes que una mujer puede lograr sus suenos, aun que el mundo nos quiera detener. To my siblings, Sandra, Cesar, Daniel, and Diego, thank you for the endless laughs and, at-times, fights; they helped me improve my argumentation in graduate school. To my father, Julio, thank you for teaching me the importance of hard work. To my beautiful partner and best friend, Katie Grabil, thank you for being part of my life, loving me, and following me across the country to begin a new life. To my amazing mentor, Rafael Vazquez Guzman, thank you for being you; I met you later in my life, but I feel like I have known you for many decades. You a true gansta and I appreciate all the advice, time, patience, and love you have given me. To Dr. Roselia Mendez-Murillo, thank you for hanging out and being in my life when I was still figuring out if graduate school was for me. I admire your dedication and strength to continue moving forward. Thank you to my amazing statistics tutor, Dina Arch, you are a rockstar! Thank you, Mrs. Julie Valentine for all the support you gave me in third grade and beyond. Thank you, Michelle and Tim Lee for making me part of your family and

supporting me through some of my toughest years in graduate school. To my friends, Michelle Hart-Tinsley, Liz Valverde, Satish Kuman, Norma Ramirez, Damaris Garcia-Valerio, Maira Anaya-Lopez, Chris Williams, and Melissa Vargas, thank you for all your support and for bringing joy in my life. I would also like to thank Drs. Karen Dias, Mariana Martinez, Cecilia Ayon, Laura Enriquez, San Juanita Garcia, Andy Merolla, Erin Sullivan, and AC Panella, for all your advice and mentorship through my academic journey.

Last but not least, thank you to my undocumented community for showing the world our empowerment, strength, gratitude, perseverance, and forgiveness. One day, the systems of oppression will break, and we will live free and out of the shadows—more so than we do now.

MONICA C. ROBLEDO CORNEJO

Department of Communication
Mann Library, 450B,
Cornell University, Ithaca, NY 14853
Cornejo@cornell.edu

EDUCATION

Ph.D.	June 2022	**Department of Communication, University of California, Santa Barbara,** 2019- 2022 Committee**:** Drs. Jennifer Kam (Advisor), Dana Mastro, Karen Nylund-Gibson Dissertation Title: *Advancing the Theory of Advocacy Communication: A Theory Grounded in Undocumented College Students' Motivations and Strategies for Challenging Oppression*
M.A.	June 2019	**Department of Communication, University of California, Santa Barbara,** 2017-2019 Committee: Drs. Jennifer Kam (Advisor), Tamara Afifi; Walid Afifi Thesis Title: *Discovering One's Undocumented Immigration Status: The Perspectives of College Students with Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA)*
B.A.	May 2017	**Sonoma State University, California,** 2015-2017 Major: Psychology

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

7/2022 – Present Assistant Professor, Department of Communication, Cornell University

PEER-REVIEWED PUBLICATIONS

Cornejo, M., Ayon, C., & Enriquez, L.E. (in press, 2022). A latent profile analysis of undocumented college students' advocacy communication strategies: The relationship between communication advocacy and mental health. *Journal of Applied Communication Research*.

Kam, J. A**., Cornejo, M**., Mendez Murillo, R., & Afifi, T. (2021). Conceptualizing and communicating allyship from the perspective of college students with Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA). *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*.

Garcia, J., Trummel, T., **Cornejo, M.,** Maldonado, K., Ojeda, M., Flores, H., & Link, B. (2021). Immigrant health inequities: Exposing diversions and white supremacy. *Social Sciences.*

Kam, J. A., **Cornejo, M.,** & Marcoulides, K. (2021). A latent profile analysis of undocumented college students' protection-oriented family communication and strengths-based psychological coping. *Journal of Communication.*

Chavarria, K., **Cornejo, M**., Ayon, C., & Enriquez, L.E (2021). Disrupted education?: A latent profile analysis of immigration-related distractions and academic engagement among undocumented college students. *Journal of Latinos and Education*.

Cornejo, M., Kam, J. A., & Afifi, T. (2021). Discovering one's undocumented immigration status through family disclosures: The perspectives of U.S. college students with Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA). *Journal of Applied Communication Research*.

Kam, J. A., Marcoulides, K., Steuber Fazio, K. R., Mendez Murillo, R., & **Cornejo, M**. (2021). Latina/o/x immigrant youth's motivations for disclosing their family-undocumented experiences to a teacher(s): A latent transition analysis. *Journal of Communication, 71*, 27-55.

Cornejo, M., & Kam, J. A. (2020). Exploring the ascribed and avowed identities of Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA) recipients in early adulthood. *Cultural Diversity & Ethnic Minority Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1037/cdp0000378

Kam, J. A., Mendez Murillo, R., **Cornejo, M.,** & Mendoza, N. (2020). The importance of norms and efficacy in predicting undocumented college students' intentions to talk to an on-campus mental health professional. *Health Communication.* https://doi.org/10.1080/10410236.2020.1834208

Foiles-Sifuentes, A., **Cornejo, M.,** Li Chen, Ni., Castaneda, M., Tijia, J. & Lapane, K. (2020). The role of limited English proficiency and access to health insurance and health care in the affordable care act era. *Healthy Equity.*

BOOK CHAPTERS

Cornejo, M. (2021). Stories of migration and identity from an undocumented citizen in the United States. In S. L. Faulkner (Ed), *Inside Relationships: Critical Case Studies in Interpersonal Communication 2nd ed.* Routledge

Afifi, W. A., **& Cornejo, M**. (2020). #CommunicationsoWEIRD: The question of interpersonal communication research relevance. In M. L. Doerfel & J. L. Gibbs (Eds), *Building Inclusiveness in Organizations, Institutions, and Communities: Communication Theory Perspectives*. Routledge. **Outstanding Edited Book Award for 2020-2021. Organizational Communication Division**

Kam, J. A., Mendez Murillo, R., & **Cornejo, M.** (2019). Immigration and family communication. In J. Soliz & C. Warner Colaner (Eds.), *Communication, identity, and difference in the family.* New York, New York: Peter Lang.

PEER-REVIEWED PUBLICATIONS UNDER REVIEW OR REVISION

King, J., Kam, J., **Cornejo, M.,** & Mendez Murillo, R. (revise and resubmit). A Social Ecological Approach to Understanding Undocumented Mexican College Students' Resilience during the COVID-19 Pandemic. *Journal of Applied Communication Research*.

Kam, J., Hopfer, S., **Cornejo, M.,** Mendez Murillo, R., & Juarez, D. (revise and resubmit). A Communication-Focused Health Belief Model Grounded in Undocumented College Students' Lived Experiences with Mental Health Strain. *Communication Monographs.*

CONFERENCE PRESENTATIONS

Cornejo, M (June, 2022). Testing Advocacy Communication Theory Among Undocumented College Students Using Latent Profile Analysis. Powerpoint presentation at the 2022 Borderless Leadership Conference in Guanajuato, MX.

Garcia, J., Enriquez, L., Delgado Solis, R., Hernandez Morales, M., & Cornejo, M. (March, 2022).

Undocumented Latinx Student Journeys: Building Support. Panel at Foro Poblacion migracion y envejecimiento, Durango Mexico.

Kam, J. A., **Cornejo, M.,** & Marcoulides, K. (May, 2021). A latent profile analysis of undocumented college students' protection-oriented family communication and strengths-based psychological coping. Paper to be presented at the International Communication Association. **Top Paper Panel. Interpersonal Communication Division**.

Kam, J. A., Mendez Murillo, R., **Cornejo, M.,** & Mendoza, N. (November, 2020). *The importance of norms and efficacy in predicting undocumented college students' intentions to talk to an on-campus mental health professional.* Paper presented at the National Communication Association, Indianapolis, IN. **Top Paper Panel. Health Communication Division.**

Afifi, W., & **Cornejo, M**. (November, 2020*). Lack of representation within samples: Problems and Solutions.* Panel presented at the National Communication Association, Indianapolis, IN.

Cornejo, M., & Kam, J. A. (November, 2020). *Exploring the Ascribed and Avowed Identities of Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA) Recipients in Early Adulthood*. Paper presented at the National Communication Association, Indianapolis, IN.

Cornejo, M., & Kam, J. A., & Afifi, T. (November, 2020). *Discovering one's undocumented immigration status through family disclosures: The perspectives of college students with Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA).* Paper presented at the National Communication Association, Indianapolis, IN.

Cornejo, M., Guerrero, A., Guerrero-Gallegos, A. (2019, May). *Experiences of an undocumented scholar in research and the academic environment.* University of California, Santa Barbara Conference

Cornejo, M. (2017, March). *Relationship between communication patterns and immigration status among undocumented students in post-secondary institutions*. Poster Presented at Sonoma State Research Symposium, Rohnert Park, CA.

Cornejo, M. (2017, March). Youth Speaker. Speech presented at Sonoma State Women of Color Conference, Rohnert Park, CA.

Cornejo. M. (2017, March). *Relationship between communication patterns and immigration status among undocumented students in post-secondary institutions*. Poster presented at NACCS Conference, Irvin CA.

Martinez, M., **Cornejo, M**., Nolasco, M., Sustaita, E., & Hernandez, S. (2017, March). *De nino a hombre o de pandillero a criminal: Can institutions of education transform outcomes for Latino males?* Panel presented at NACCS Conference, Irvine CA.

Cornejo. M. (2017). *Verbal and nonverbal communication patterns among post-secondary undocumented students*. Paper presented at NAAAS Conference, Dallas Texas.

Cornejo. M. (2016, July). *How does language compete in the bilingual brain?* Poster presented at Summer Research Opportunity Program (SROP), University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI.

TALKS AND INTERVIEWS

Cornejo, M. (July, 2022). De Indocumentada a Doctora en Comunicacion. Interview at KBBF 89.1, Radio Cultura

GRANTS AND FELLOWSHIPS ($104, 000 AWARDED)

Fall 2022 **Fellow, Cornell Early Career Grant Mentoring Program's Grant Fellows Workshop, Cornell University**

Fall 2021 **Recipient. CITRAL Community of Practice (CoP) for Graduate Students: Course Design for Equity, University of California, Santa Barbara ($500)**
I was competitively selected for this graduate student teaching program, which is designed to strengthen strategies for equitable teaching (topics include: diversity, equity, and inclusion, co-creating knowledge with students, and "different ways of knowing").

Fall 2021 **Recipient. Pre-Professoriate Fellowship, University of California, Santa Barbara ($30,0000)**
I was competitively selected for this fellowship, which provides me with a monthly stipend and a year off from teaching to complete my dissertation.

Fall 2021 **Recipient. Chicano Studies Institute Dissertation Award, University of California, Santa Barbara ($2,500)**
I was competitively selected to receive this award to help pay participants for my dissertation project.

Fall 2020 **Recipient. University of California Promise Fellowship ($7,000)**
I was competitively selected for this fellowship to write a manuscript using secondary data analyses. The manuscript explored undocumented immigrants' advocacy communication and their self-reported health, anxiety, and depression.

Summer 2020 **Cornejo, M. (Co-I) and Dr. Jennifer Kam (PI): ISBER Social Science Research Grants Program ($8,000)**
We were competitively selected to receive this grant that funded a study that explored the perceived effects of Covid-19 on undocumented immigrants and their access to services and resources.

Summer 2020 **Recipient. Multidisciplinary Research on the Coronavirus and its Impacts (MRCI) grant ($2,000)**
I was competitively selected to receive this grant that funded a study that explored the perceived effects of Covid-19 on undocumented immigrants and their access to services and resources.

Spring 2020 **CARE-UC Innovation Fellowship ($9,000)**
I was competitively selected to receive this fellowship that paid for my time as project manager on a study that explored how undocumented immigrants are affected by COVID-19.

Winter 2020 **Ford Foundation Pre-Doctoral Fellowship: Honorable Mention**

Winter 2020 **Dream Scholarship, University of California, Santa Barbara ($1,000)**
I was competitively selected to receive this scholarship that allowed me to pay for a data training program, so I could learn how to use R-studio.

Winter 2020 **Dean of Social Sciences Diversity Fellowship, University of California, Santa Barbara ($8,000)**
I was competitively selected to receive this fellowship that provided me with a stipend and a quarter off from teaching to focus on research.

Winter 2019 **Chicano Studies Institute Graduate Research Fellow, University of California, Santa Barbara ($3,000)**
I was competitively selected to receive this fellowship that paid for my time as graduate fellow for a study exploring health diversions. I worked with Dr. Juanita Garcia (UCSB) and Dr. Bruce Link (UC Riverside)

Winter 2019 **Ford Foundation Pre-Doctoral Fellowship: Honorable Mention**

Fall 2019 **Chicano Studies Institute Research Fellow, University of California, Santa Barbara ($3,000)**
I was competitively selected to receive this fellowship that paid for my analysis to conduct mixture model analysis for the Extended Opportunities Program.

Fall 2018-Spring 2019 **Graduate Opportunity Fellowship, University of California, Santa Barbara ($24,000)**
I was competitively selected to receive a fellowship that provided me with a monthly stipend and a year off from teaching to focus on research.

Fall 2017 **Diversity Scholarship, University of California, Santa Barbara ($6,000)**
I was competitively selected to receive this scholarship that helped me transition to UC Santa Barbara from undergraduate school.

AWARDS

2021 **Top Paper Panel.** Interpersonal Communication Division. International Communication Association.

2020 **Top Paper Panel.** Health Communication Division. National Communication Association.

2019 **Dean's Graduate Mentoring Award, University of California, Santa Barbara ($1,000).** *I was competitively selected to receive this campus-wide award in recognition of my teaching and mentoring of minoritized students.*

RESEARCH EXPERIENCE

University of California, Santa Barbara
Department of Communication; Dr. Amy Gonzales
Summer 2021
Assisted Dr. Amy Gonzales and worked with other research assistants to collect Spanish interview data with Latinx immigrants in Oakland on their experiences with technology and the non-profit organization UpTogether.

University of California, Santa Barbara
UCR-UCSB Team Collaboration for Diversion Project, Dr. San Juanita Garcia
Winter 2020
Assisted with a research project exploring diversions in health inequalities. My duties included coding health articles and co-managing a small group of research assistants. ($3,000)

University of California, Santa Barbara
HSI Working Group, Chicano Studies Institute, and Student Affairs Academic Initiative
Fall 2019

Collaborated with the Extended Opportunities Program (EOP) to analyze student data to explore the relationships between EOP student status and successful graduation rates during a four, five, or six-year period. ($3,000)

University of California, Santa Barbara
Department of Communication; Dr. Tamara Afifi
Fall 2019- Winter 2020
Assisted Dr. Tamara Afifi, and worked with other research assistants to collect self-reported and biomarker (i.e., hair samples to test cortisol levels) measures of married couple's stress.

University of California, Santa Barbara
Department of Communication; Dr. Walid Afifi
Summer 2018-Spring 2019
Assisted with managing seven research assistants and coding interpersonal communication journal articles for a content analysis exploring the diversity (or lack thereof) in samples used in interpersonal communication research.

University of California, Santa Barbara
Department of Communication; Drs. Jennifer Kam, Tammy Afifi, and Walid Afifi
Fall 2017-Fall 2018
Recruited DACA college students to participate in semi-structured interviews or dyadic conversations, attended weekly research team meetings, and managed 15 research assistants. Conducted semi-structured interviews and recorded dyadic conversations with DACAmented college students on their stress, coping, and resiliency.

Sonoma State University
Koret Scholars Award; Chicano and Latino Studies; Dr. Mariana G. Martinez
Fall 2016-Spring 2017
Assisted with a survey examining intrapersonal conflict that Latino men may experience due to expectations of masculinity. Created the Qualtrics surveys and helped with recruitment.

University of Michigan, Ann Arbor
Summer Research Opportunity Program, SROP; Department of Psychology; Dr. Ioulia Kovelman
Summer 2016
Assisted with conducting an experiment that investigated performance and brain activity differences between monolingual and bilingual children (7-9 years), using functional Near-Infrared Spectroscopy (fNIRS). Scheduled data collection sessions, collected data through standardized tests, gave children instructions on the activity used for the fNIRS data collection face. ($4,000)

University of North Carolina, Charlotte
Organizational Science Summer Institute; Department of Psychology and Organizational Science; Dr. Enrica Ruggs
Summer 2016
Assisted with examining a survey on the normative pressures placed on transgender individuals to conform to gender roles and the advantages of FTM (female to male) gender transition in the workplace.

Sonoma State University
McNair Scholars; Department of Anthropology; Dr. Richard J. Senghas
Fall 2015-Spring 2017
Conducted a survey to understand the communication styles of undocumented college students and how their communication styles relate to their access to resources. ($4000)

PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITIES

Member, National Communication Association	2020-present
Ad hoc Reviewer, *Family Relations*	2022
Ad hoc Reviewer, *Ethnicities*	2021
Ad hoc Reviewer, *Health Equity*	2021

ABSTRACT

Advancing Advocacy Communication Theory: A Theory Grounded in Undocumented College Students' Motivations and Strategies for Challenging Oppression

Monica C. Robledo Cornejo

Undocumented college students experience a myriad of stressors (e.g., fear of deportation, limited resources; transitioning to college; Enriquez et al., 2018; Hurst et al., 2013) because of systemic oppression, yet they often engage in various advocacy efforts to challenge those oppressive systems. Although different persuasion (e.g., *Focus Theory of Normative Conduc*t, the *Theory of Planned Behavior*, the *Anger Activism Model*; Ajzen, 1991, 2005; Cialdini et al., 1990; Turner, 2007) and social movements theories (e.g., *Mass Society Theory; The Theory of Relative Deprivation;* Bernstein & Crosby, 1998; Gusfield, 1994) exist that describe why minoritized group members advocate on behalf of their ingroup, these theories primarily focus on traditional forms of advocacy rather than representing advocacy as multidimensional. Consequently, in Chapter 1, this dissertation introduces *Advocacy Communication Theory* (ACT), which argues that advocacy communication is a complex process comprised of advocacy strategies at the individual, interpersonal, community, organizational, and policy levels. ACT also identifies predictors of undocumented students' advocacy communication by drawing from communication and psychological factors, and it discusses the potential health implications associated with engaging in different advocacy communication strategies. In Chapter 2, I test part of ACT using latent profile analysis and two waves of longitudinal survey data from 329 undocumented college students, primarily of Latinx origin. Chapter

3 sheds light on the dynamic nature of advocacy communication, examining the extent to which undocumented students remain in the same type of advocacy group after 30 days or transition to another type of advocacy group. I end this dissertation with Chapter 4, where I discuss the theoretical and practical contributions of ACT and the findings from Chapters 2 and 3.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER ONE

DEVELOPING ADVOCACY COMMUNICATION THEORY

Among the approximately 10.5 million undocumented[1] immigrants who reside in the United States, around 500,000 are enrolled in an institution of higher education (i.e., undocumented college students; Presidents' Alliance, 2020). U.S. college students in general encounter numerous stressors (e.g., transitioning to college; having limited resources, such as time, money, support, sleep; working long hours; managing their course load; Hurst et al., 2013; Misra & Castillo, 2004). Nevertheless, undocumented students often face these same stressors, as well as ones that are unique to their immigration status (Enriquez et al., 2018).

Not only do undocumented students experience fear of deportation for themselves and family, as well as exposure to ongoing anti-immigration rhetoric, undocumented students are ineligible to receive federal assistance (e.g., FAFSA, COVID relief funds), and most scholarships require documentation (e.g., U.S. citizenship or permanent residence; Enriquez, 2017; Golash-Boza & Valdez, 2018; Negrón-Gonzales, 2017; Romo et al., 2019). Furthermore, undocumented students, like undocumented immigrants more broadly, do not have a social security number or a work permit unless they have Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA)[2]. Undocumented students have limited

[1] Undocumented immigrants are persons, of any age and nationality, who are non-U.S citizens or non-U.S. permeant residents and who arrive in the United States without legal authorization or who enter the United States with legal authorization but remain in the United States after their authorization expires (Kam & Merolla, 2018; Kam et al., 2021).

[2] According to the Migration Policy Institute, approximately 1.1 million undocumented youth meet the age and education requirements to obtain DACA (Weingarten et al., 2014).

employment opportunities, which further contributes to their financial strain. The limited opportunities, and the ensuing domino effect that those limited opportunities have on additional stressors, are only a few examples of the barriers that students face because of their undocumented status.

To address the numerous structural barriers and stressors that undocumented students face, change has to occur on many levels (e.g., federal, state, university, and interpersonal levels), and to ignite change, many parties—undocumented students, administrators, educators, government officials, allies, accomplices—must participate (Cadenas et al., 2018; De Graauw, 2021; Gildersleeve & Vigil, 2015; Sanchez & Sanchez-Youngman, 2013; Southern, 2016). Nevertheless, prior work on the advocacy efforts of other minoritized groups such as Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender, and Queer+ (LGBTQ+) communities, feminists, Chicanxs, and Black Americans points to members of minoritized groups as the primary instigators of change (Aldridge Sanford, 2020). Yet, minoritized groups are the ones at greatest risk of being harmed when challenging systemic oppression[3] (Almanzar & Herring, 2004). Although perceived risks are subjective and vary by individual, risks can include, for example, experiencing negative social (e.g., shaming, negative judgement, ostracizing; loss of privacy, income, and property; arrest), mental (e.g., isolation, burnout, depression), and physical outcomes

[3] According to Case and Hunter (2012), "oppression can be defined as systemic and widespread social inequity occurring through the use of power, [and] it involves the existence of a hierarchical social system, which grants one group (e.g., racial, gender, or socioeconomic) greater access to resources (social, economic, political, cultural, and psychological) relative to other groups and creates a marginalized or minority group experience" (p. 258). Further, oppression does not need to be extreme, violent, or involve the legal system; it can occur in everyday life through interpersonal communication such as microaggressions and discrimination (Deutsch, 2006).

(e.g., personal attacks; death) when challenging systemic oppression (Aldridge Sanford, 2020). Thus, three important questions emerge that this dissertation seeks to answer: (1) *what advocacy strategies, some of which might vary in perceived riskiness, do undocumented students utilize to challenge systemic oppression,* (2) *what motivates undocumented students to engage in certain types of advocacy strategies over others,* and (3) *what are the costs and benefits to engaging in certain forms of advocacy?*

Past research on advocacy among minoritized groups has examined similar questions (e.g., Goldberg et al., 2020; Hope et al., 2016; McAdam, 1986; Swank et al., 2013), and extensive theorizing (e.g., *Resource Mobilization Theory; The Theory of Relative Deprivation; Social Identity Theory; The Social Identity Model of Collective Action; Anger Activism Model;* Bernstein & Crosby, 1980; Jenkins, 1983; Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Turner, 2007; Van Zomeren et al., 2012) has been done to explain when minoritized groups engage in advocacy and its potential consequences. Nevertheless, several knowledge gaps remain.

First, although prior research on minoritized group members' advocacy efforts acknowledges that multiple strategies are used to challenge systemic oppression (e.g., Aldridge Sanford, 2020; Cornejo et al., review & resubmit; Nicholls, 2013; Seif, 2016), there is still a lack of multidimensional representations of advocacy, such that the various strategies used to challenge systemic oppression are accounted for at the same time. Prior theorizing (e.g., *Resource Mobilization Theory; Mass Society Theory)* often focuses on traditional actions, such as protests and marches; however, the nuance of different strategies, in addition to traditional advocacy efforts, is less clear (Bernstein & Crosby,

1980; Jenkins, 1983). Thus, I expand on Cornejo et al.'s (in press) definition of *advocacy communication*, which they refer to as a "a multilevel process consisting of different forms of [communication] tactics across various channels (e.g., interpersonal, mediated) [to create positive change on behalf of one's group that is] informed by one's past lived experience" (p. 4). Building off of their definition, I propose that advocacy communication is always communicative and includes conscious or non-conscious, explicit or implicit, verbal and nonverbal communication, taken at any level (i.e., individual, interpersonal, community, institutional) to challenge negative attitudes, actions, practices, and policies against a minoritized group (Cornejo et al., in press; Bronfenbrenner, 1977; Suárez-Orozco et al., 2011). Further, advocacy communication has varying degrees of risk, visibility, costs, benefits, and efforts because it can include protests, marches, political advocacy, social media posts, interpersonal advocacy, and academic advocacy strategies that can be formally organized or informally executed.

In addition to reconceptualizing advocacy as a communication process that can occur at multiple levels, this dissertation extends past theorizing about advocacy in several ways. Although prior theorizing on advocacy proposes different predictors (e.g., identity; anger; Bernstein & Crosby, 1980; Turner, 2007; Saleem et al., 2021) that might explain why minoritized group members engage in advocacy efforts, this theorizing tends to focus on predictors of collective action[4] (e.g., *Mass Society Theory; The Theory of Relative Deprivation;* Bernstein & Crosby, 1998; Gusfield, 1994). This work provides

[4] Although *collective action* is vastly used within and outside the social movements' literature, a specific definition is often excluded. Nonetheless, Oliver (1993) defines collective action as "any action that provides a collective good" (p. 272)

insights into why collective action might occur; however, collective action is not the only type of advocacy strategy that is used by minoritized members. As such, we do not have a clear understanding of why people might engage in certain advocacy communication strategies (e.g., interpersonal forms) over others (e.g., protesting or signing petitions), with some strategies varying in riskiness. As such, I propose an advocacy communication framework that explains why minoritized group members might engage in different advocacy communication strategies and that elucidates how different advocacy strategies might uniquely relate to health and wellbeing for undocumented students.

To further explicate advocacy communication and bridge prior research gaps, this chapter will (a) conceptualize advocacy communication and explicate how it is similar or distinct from other related concepts; (b) provide an overview of different advocacy strategies utilized by minoritized groups; (c) review several theories and frameworks within and outside the social movements' literature that describe and predict advocacy; and (d) propose a new theoretical framework centered on communication. This theoretical framework can help us understand why undocumented students and other minoritized group members engage in different forms of advocacy communication, as well as the implications for their health and wellbeing.

Defining Advocacy Communication and its Distinction from Other Related Concepts

Cornejo et al.'s (in press) conceptualization of *advocacy communication* has various overlaps with *social movements*, *collective action*, *civic engagement*, and *activism* (see Appendix A for list of definition for these terms). Similar to these terms,

advocacy communication suggests that systemic oppression is being challenged on behalf of a group or a cause (Opp, 2009; Oliver,1993; Zoller, 2005). Nevertheless, advocacy communication is distinct from social movements, collective action, civic engagement, and activism in several ways. First, social movements have a group component that advocacy communication does not require. More specifically, *social movements* can be defined as "a type of protest group with several distinguishing characteristics such as size and degree of organization" (Opp, 2009, p. 44), although, according to Jamison (2010), social movement scholars have difficulty agreeing on the definition for social movements. As seen in Appendix A that provides definitions of social movements from numerous sources, the conceptualization of social movements highlights the importance of the group and their collective efforts; however, advocacy communication extends beyond group-level efforts. Indeed, advocacy communication can occur via *interpersonal communication* (e.g., undocumented students confronting someone for using the term "illegal" to refer to undocumented communities); *mediated communication* (e.g., undocumented students using Facebook or newspapers to highlight the need to changing the immigration system; Lal & de la Fuente, 2012; Nicholls, 2013); *organizational advocacy* (e.g., undocumented students forming clubs to demand expansion of resources; Jimenez-Arista & Koro-Ljungberg, 2017); *political advocacy* (e.g., undocumented students emailing their senators asking for changes in immigration policy; Enriquez, 2014; Seif, 2004), among others. Furthermore, some definitions of social movements emphasize "organized efforts" (Jenkins & Form, 2005), but advocacy communication includes individual, informal efforts such as interpersonally responding to a

microaggression (e.g., telling a friend that it is more respectful to use the word "undocumented" instead of "illegal").

Similar to social movements, advocacy communication is distinct from *collective action*, (e.g., "Occurs any time multiple participants publicly profess a grievance or concern" Gause, 2022, p. 2; "action of several individuals regardless of whether there is coordination or not" Opp, 2009, p. 38, "communicative insofar as it entails efforts by people to cross boundaries by expressing or acting on an individual (i.e., private) interest in a way that is observable to others (i.e., public)"; Flanagin et al., 2006, p. 32; see Appendix A for more definitions). First, definitions of collective action emphasize efforts taken by more than one person; however, group-level efforts—where people can work together to challenge systemic oppression—is only one way in which advocacy communication can occur. Advocacy communications' explicit description of multilevel strategies to challenge systemic oppression expands collective action and social movements that often conceptualize these strategies as group-based action. Advocacy communication's multidimensional conceptualization suggests that engaging in advocacy is a nuanced and complex process, which is consistent with the myriad of strategies that minoritized group members (e.g., Black communities, LGBTQ communities; Ahmad, 1978; Ghaziani et al., 2016) have historically used and continue to use to challenge systemic oppression. Thus, advocacy communication can include social movements and collective action, but advocacy communication is not limited to these group-level activities. Finally, another distinction of advocacy communication from social movement and collective action is explicating the distinction between formal, traditional strategies

such as protests, marches, and civil disobedience[5] *and* less formal, traditional strategies such as engaging in interpersonal discussions outside of the group or organizational level and that are not necessarily publicly visible.

Also related to advocacy communication is *civic engagement*. Some immigration scholars (e.g., Perez et al., 2010; Suarez-Orozco et al., 2011) define *civic engagement* "as providing a social service, activism, tutoring, and functionary work" (p. Perez et al., 2010, p. 245). Similarly, Suárez Orozco et al. (2011) argue that "more recently [civic engagement] has been conceptualized more broadly by including commitment to society, activities that help those who are in need, and collective action to fight for social justice" (p. 459). These definitions suggest that *civic engagement* does not only include voting and political participation, but it also can include traditional forms of activism and activities to help a community (e.g., tutoring, interpreting, providing a social service), even if the community is not part of one's minoritized group. Although civic engagement has a holistic definition and includes various strategies at different levels, it does not solely focus on challenging systemic oppression. Instead, civic engagement includes forms of community involvement (e.g., engaging in random acts of kindness) with the purpose of feeling included and contributing to society (Perez et al., 2010). By contrast, advocacy communication focuses on challenging systemic oppression and argues that community involvement is one of many efforts that can be used to challenge systems of power. Correcting someone's microaggression, for example, or anonymously posting a

[5] According to Rawls (1999), civil disobedience is defined as "as a public, nonviolent, conscientious yet political act contrary to law usually done with the aim of bringing about a change in the law or policies of the government" (p. 320).

pro-undocumented-immigration message on social media would not fall under civic engagement because those actions are not meant to contribute to their local community.

Similar to advocacy communication, *activism* also includes both formal and informal strategies to support or defend a minoritized group or cause (Parsons, 2016). Despite advocacy and activism often being used interchangeably, scholars have attempted to distinguish them from each other (Goldberg et al., 2020). For example, Parsons (2016) defined advocacy as formal and informal attempts to speak or write on behalf of a cause of a group. Similarly, Aldridge Sanford (2020) posited that advocacy is "the act of lending support to a cause or action that is often less confrontational than activism" (p. 65). By contrast, some scholars propose that activism refers to actions geared towards making political, social, or institutional changes that can occur through marches, protests, and speeches (Parsons, 2016). Accordingly, Aldridge Sanford (2020) writes that activism "requires direct action (e.g., strike, street march) by a group or individual who wants to see change" (p. 65). Similarly, within health communication, Zoller (2005) proposes specific definitions for activism, advocacy, and social movements. Zoller (2005) argues that advocacy focuses on education whereas activism challenges the status quo. Zoller (2005) also argues that social movements include the collective, whereas activism and advocacy do not necessarily include the collective. By providing a distinction between these three concepts in advocacy scholarship, Zoller (2005) proposes that health activism "implies, at some level, a challenge to the existing order and power relationship that are perceived to influence other aspects of health negatively or to impede health promotion" (p. 344).

Although Zoller (2005) and other scholars might argue that some advocacy communication strategies (e.g., interpersonal advocacy) are not direct actions because they center on education, I argue that all the strategies proposed by advocacy communication are challenging systemic oppression. Indeed, borrowing from Sue et al.'s (2019) response to dealing with microaggressions, advocacy communication can occur at the micro or macro levels. Specifically, micro-based advocacy communication strategies include everyday communication that challenges systemic oppression (e.g., interpersonal communication) such as explaining to friends or classmates that undocumented immigrants do not drain federal resources, but instead, contribute billions of dollars to social security each year without being eligible to receive any social security benefits in the future (Roberts, 2019).

In contrast macro-based advocacy communication strategies include challenges to systemic oppression at the group or class level via, what might be seen as, traditional strategies (e.g., protests). For example, undocumented immigrants can ignite a protest or march in favor of pro-immigrant policies; alternatively, they can erect a public campaign outside a store that educates others about the importance of undocumented immigrants in the United States. Ultimately, micro and macro-based advocacy communication strategies can either occur via (a) making others aware of the inequities experienced by a minoritized group, or (b) directly challenging the existence of inequities experienced by minoritized groups. Indeed, Deutsch (2009) argues that oppression can be overcome via the use of persuasion (where education plays a central role) or power strategies, where the goal in challenging systemic oppression is that power is shared more equitably and

where “oppressive practices are reduced or eliminated” (p. 29). As such, by educating others—via interpersonal, mediated, or public communication, among others— about the challenges and struggles of a minoritized group, one is attempting to create positive social change. Indeed, prior research indicates that minoritized communities often utilize education as a strategy to advocate for social change. For example, LGBTQ communities have utilized research and conference presentations to improve their rights (Ghaziani et al., 2016). Similarly, Chicanx youth have used conferences to educate community members and students to support Chicanx in higher education (Muñoz, 2015). Ultimately, advocacy communication’s differences from other concepts highlight its extensions—advocacy as a multilevel process—to challenge systemic oppression that dictate the distribution of power by social categories, and it can occur publicly or privately.

In conceptualizing advocacy communication as including a wide variety of strategies at different levels, we can obtain a more comprehensive understanding of how minoritized group members create change. Further, by including formal and informal advocacy strategies, as opposed to focusing on more traditional strategies that challenge systemic oppression (e.g., activism), we can (a) acknowledge that minoritized people engage in various efforts to challenge those systems that maintain their minoritized status; (b) recognize the heterogeneity of the different advocacy strategies utilized, which have distinct levels of visibility, riskiness, and costs; (c) examine what predicts minoritized people’s use of different strategies over others; and, (d) explore the consequences for one’s health and wellbeing when using certain strategies over others.

Thus, the following section describes the different advocacy strategies, as well as their riskiness, that are often utilized by minoritized people to fight systemic oppression.

Drawing from Other Minoritized Groups' Experiences Fighting Systemic Oppression

The conceptualization of advocacy communication stems from the efforts that undocumented youth, their families, and their communities have made over the years to challenge their position as second-class citizens and advocate for improvements to their social conditions (Gonzales, 2008; Patler & Appelbaum, 2011; Muñoz, 2015; Terriquez et al., 2018). Nevertheless, the various advocacy strategies that undocumented youth utilize are not unique to their community. The following section discusses distinct advocacy communication strategies by drawing from efforts that other minoritized groups (e.g., LGBTQ+, Black communities; Chicanxs) have historically used to challenge systemic oppression (Aldridge Sanford, 2020). When explicating each type of advocacy communication, this section also explores each strategy in relation to perceived risk, "the anticipated dangers—whether legal, social, physical, financial, and so forth—of engaging in a particular type of activity" (McAdam, 1986, p. 67). Perceived riskiness might affect the extent to which minoritized group members are willing to engage in a particular advocacy communication strategy.

Adornment Advocacy

Among many strategies, minoritized group members might use adornment cues such as cosmetics, body modifications (e.g., tattoos and piercings), clothing (e.g., hats, shirts, and sweatshirts), and accessories (e.g., stickers, buttons) to challenge systemic

oppression (Roach & Eicher, 1979; Trainer, 2017). Adornment cues are a form of nonverbal communication and could have been categorized as interpersonal advocacy that includes both verbal and nonverbal forms of communication. Nevertheless, to emphasize the visual aspect of physical appearance and the use of modifying the body, as opposed to focusing on other nonverbal cues such as vocal tone, facial expressions, oculesics, proximity, and haptics, adornment advocacy has its own distinct label here. As an example, during the civil rights movement some Black youth wore their natural hair to challenge the depictions of Black people in the United States (Ahmad, 1978). Similarly, LGBTQ+ communities have used physical markers that depict them as being out in public (e.g., pride flags) to challenge the systemic oppression that often silences their identity, as well as places them in a stigmatized group (Ghaziani et al., 2016). Undocumented youth have also utilized various forms of adornment cues, including hats or shirts with different messages (e.g., "undocumented, unafraid, and unapologetic").

For undocumented youth, engaging in adornment advocacy might have distinct consequences for their physical, psychological, relational, or social wellbeing. For example, undocumented students who wear a t-shirt that states "undocumented, unafraid, and unapologetic" risk being verbally or physically attacked by opposers (i.e., physical and psychological wellbeing). Undocumented students might also experience strained relationship with their family if the family opposes this strategy.

Interpersonal Advocacy

In addition to adornment advocacy, minoritized groups have used *interpersonal advocacy*, which refers to a process in which minoritized group members' verbal and

nonverbal communication (excluding adornment advocacy) is directed at one or a few individuals with the goal of challenging systemic oppression, including correcting misperceptions of undocumented immigration. Among undocumented youth, their advocacy efforts occur in their everyday lives. For example, although undocumented students are often told not to reveal their undocumented status to others (Cornejo et al., 2021; Kam et al., 2019), they might talk about their undocumented experiences to a nonfamily member (e.g., teacher, counselor) to garner support and resources at their school (Enriquez, 2011; Kam et al., 2019, 2020).

Further, undocumented students might use storytelling narratives to educate others about their experiences, which can result in increased resources within and outside academe (Cabaniss, 2018; Escudero, 2020). For example, Muñoz and Vigil (2018) found that undocumented students use their stories to educate staff, faculty, and other agents of institutional power about their experiences. Some undocumented students also teach others about the institutional limitations they experience due to their immigration status. Undocumented students might also use interpersonal advocacy to challenge microaggressions and speak-up when they hear others make false statements about undocumented immigrants (Muñoz & Vigil, 2018; Suárez-Orozco et al., 2015). In addition, undocumented students might meet with university staff or other gatekeepers to increase their access of college resources and opportunities. Finally, undocumented students might correct (i.e., interpersonal advocacy) university staff who give them inaccurate information of the college/university resources that they can or cannot access (Enriquez et al., 2019; Forenza et al., 2017; Hernandez et al., 2010; Seif, 2016).

Undocumented students can utilize interpersonal advocacy to challenge systemic oppression. Although these strategies can contribute to changing different systems around them, engaging in interpersonal advocacy can also have varying degrees of negative consequences for their physical, psychological, relational, or social wellbeing (Sue et al., 2019). Engaging in interpersonal advocacy might place undocumented students in a position where they are ostracized, discriminated against, or experience increased stressors from having to navigate sensitive conversations (i.e., psychological wellbeing; Munoz & Vigil, 2018). Interpersonal advocacy can also lead to personal violence in which undocumented students are physically attacked for speaking up on behalf of their undocumented ingroup (i.e., physical wellbeing; Brown, 2021). In addition, undocumented students might lose friendships over their engagement in interpersonal advocacy (i.e., relational wellbeing). On the extreme side, if undocumented students' status is revealed during their interpersonal advocacy, they might be arrested, detained or deported if someone reports their status to U.S. Immigration & Customs Enforcement (i.e., psychological, relational, and social wellbeing).

Mediated Advocacy

To promote systemic change, minoritized group members have also largely drawn on *mediated advocacy* that includes the use of traditional media such as newspapers, radio, and television; digital media such as websites and social media; and art such as paintings, murals, poetry, videos. During the suffrage movement, some women used newspapers to highlight the myriad of gender barriers they faced (Baker, 2020; McCammon et al., 2001). In 2010, undocumented youth published a manifesto in the

Dissent magazine, where they declared themselves undocumented and unafraid (Nicholls, 2013). Similarly, #BlackLivesMatter leaders have incorporated the use of social media (e.g., Twitter and posting recordings of police offers abusing their power) to highlight their oppression in the United States (White, 2016). Undocumented youth also use social media to highlight anti-deportation campaigns, coordinate social action, disseminate information, educate others about unjust policies and practices that target immigrant communities in the United States, and connect with other undocumented youth (Seif, 2011; Zimmerman, 2016). Along with social media, undocumented immigrants have also created websites, including Dreamactivst.org, to help with the grassroot immigrant movement (Lal & de la Fuente, 2012). Asian undocumented youth used websites and personal blogs to highlight Asian undocumented immigrants within the larger undocumented community (Escudero, 2020). This advocacy work is important, given that Asian undocumented immigrants are often excluded from conversations that affect U.S. undocumented communities (Enriquez, 2019). Lastly, undocumented youth have also used art to bring awareness to and challenge their experiences (e.g., poetry, images, and videos) (Escudero, 2020; Nicholls, 2013; Reyes, 2017), such as painting murals that depict border crossing with labels such as “no human being is Illegal” to counter the negative labels ascribed to them (Montico, 2020).

Similar to interpersonal advocacy, engaging in mediated advocacy might have several negative consequences for undocumented students. As found among other minoritized groups (Megiddo, 019; Hisam, 201; Kreski et al., 2022), undocumented students who post social media messages that challenge systemic oppression might

experience online bullying from people in their surrounding circles, as well as from people who live in different cities, towns, states, or even countries. Even if undocumented students post anonymously, reading negative reactions to their posts could be distressing. Lastly, undocumented students who identify themselves online or through art might experience violence or discrimination, given their visibility (i.e., physical wellbeing; Herrero-Diz & Ramos-Serrano, 2018; Stewart & Schultze, 2019).

Organizational Advocacy

To challenge systemic oppression, minoritized members also can engage in *organizational advocacy*—involvement in formal or informal group-structures on- or off-campus that work toward improving the lives of a minoritized group. For example, women suffragists formed various associations across the country to expand their movement (e.g., The National American Woman Suffrage Association; McCammon et al., 2001). During the 1960s, Chicanx students were involved in the Chicanx student movement, which focused on diversifying college campuses. As part of their strategies, Chicanx students formed groups (e.g., the Chicano Youth liberation) to highlight the need for campus diversity (Muñoz, 2015). Similarly, LGBTQ+ communities have formed various coalitions (e.g., AIDS coalition to unleash power, ACT UP; Bruce, 2013) to challenge various barriers that impact their communities.

Undocumented students also participate in immigrant and nonimmigrant organizations inside and outside their college campuses (e.g., Dream Team Los Angeles, Orange County Dream Team; Nicholls, 2013) to improve their social conditions and challenge systemic oppression (Enriquez et al., 2021; Perez et al, 2010). In addition to

creating their own organizations, undocumented youth can collaborate with other ethnic and racial immigrant groups. Indeed, some Asian undocumented youth work with Latinx undocumented organizations to address the invisibility of Asian immigrants within the undocumented immigrant narrative (Escudero, 2020).

Engaging in organizational advocacy poses certain risks for undocumented students. Being part of a group centered on undocumented immigrants' rights might reveal undocumented students' identity (Corrunker, 2012). If the student is not ready to deal with their status being public, it can lead to experiencing stressors such as anxiety (i.e., psychological, relational, and social wellbeing). Further, having a visible group, on or off campus, might place its members at a higher risk of being attacked by anti-immigrant groups (i.e., physical wellbeing). Finally, engaging in organizational advocacy might be associated with burnout, depressive symptoms, and much more, given that advocators are interacting with each other and experiences of one member's burnout might be shared with other members (Chen & Gorski, 2015). Still, engaging in organizational advocacy can instill feels of empowerment and safety among undocumented youth (Corrunker, 2012; Gilster, 2012).

Academic Advocacy

Further, minoritized group members often utilize *academic advocacy* that includes conducting research, presenting at conferences, speaking up in class or seminars, and written work that bring awareness to minoritized group members' lived experiences and challenge systemic oppression. For example, LGBTQ+ communities have utilized research and conference presentations to highlight their experiences and as attempts to

improve their rights (Ghaziani et al., 2016). Monico (2020), an undocumented scholar-activist, conducts research to challenge the narratives of a "deserving" undocumented person. Some undocumented youth have also written chapters and books about their experiences to highlight the need for structural changes within the United States (e.g., Cornejo, 2021; Vargas, 2018). Similarly, among Trans college students, Goldberg et al. (2020) found that some Trans students engage in academic advocacy through class projects and joining faculty research projects that center on Trans related topics (Goldberg et al., 2020). Chicanxs have also held conferences on how community members and students can collaborate to increase minoritized students' access to higher education (Muñoz, 2015). The use of academic advocacy might be particularly prevalent among minoritized group members who have obtained access to higher education.

Although academia is often safer for minoritized members than general society, academic advocacy might also have negative consequences for undocumented students. Taken from research conducted with other minoritized communities (Linder et al., 2019), undocumented students who focus on undocumented-centered research might receive messages from other academics that their work is "me-search" and not valid (i.e., psychological wellbeing). This label might distance undocumented students from different research and academic circles, which can have negative consequences for their careers, including undermining the value of their work.

Protest Advocacy

Throughout history, minoritized group members have utilized protests (i.e., traditional forms of advocacy, such as taking part in marches, demonstrations, or rallies)

to challenge systemic oppression and advocate for changes to their social conditions. Because protest participation requires direct and often visible action, it has high levels of risk for minoritized group members' safety. For example, during the civil rights' movement, Black Americans—many of whom were youth and college students—started the Black liberation movement to challenge U.S. racist and oppressive systems that upheld and maintained segregation (Ahmad, 1978). Within this social movement, Black Americans engaged in risky forms of advocacy, such as civil disobedience, boycotts, peaceful marches, and mass prayer vigils. For Black Americans, these advocacy communication strategies were risky because they could lead to physical abuse, as well as adverse legal (e.g., Black Americans could be jailed or sued for their actions), social, (e.g., Black Americans could be further stigmatized for their advocacy), or financial consequences (e.g., Black American might lose their homes for engaging in advocacy) by others who disagreed with Black Americans' movements. More recently, the #BlackLivesMatter movement emerged, and it strives to highlight the violence experienced by Black Americans in the United States, particularly the violence that Black Americans encounter from law enforcement. #BlackLivesMatter leaders have utilized protests and civil disobedience to challenge the state-sanctioned violence against Black bodies (White, 2016).

Similarly, during the suffrage movement some women engaged in civil disobedience to fight for their rights, such as chaining themselves to public buildings and using hunger strikes to fight for their rights (Baker, 2020; Grayzel, 1999). LGBTQ+ communities have also used risky and traditional forms of advocacy (i.e., protests) to

fight for their rights (Armstrong & Crage, 2006; Pedrina, 2009). Indeed, Ghaziani et al.'s (2016) historical review of the advocacy strategies used by LGBTQ+ communities points out that the 1969 Stonewall riots were the start of modern gay rights' movements. During this time, "street queens, queers of color, butch lesbians, and others fought back against routine bar raids that were taking place in urban areas with emerging gay subculture" (p. 167). The use of physical violence as a strategy to fight LGBTQ+ oppression was not the only strategy used by the community. LGBTQ+ members also utilized marches and gay parades (Bruce, 2013).

Undocumented youth—many who were college students at the time—have also utilized protests participation (e.g., hunger strikes, "dream graduations", pilgrimages, civil disobedience; Enriquez & Saguy, 2016; Ramos, 2012; Muñoz, 2015; Negrón-Gonzales, 2015; Wong et al., 2012) to challenge systemic oppression; these strategies are similar to those utilized by LGBTQ+ communities, women suffragists, and Black Americans. For example, in the summer of 2009 over 500 undocumented students organized a march during the Back-to-School Day of Action to obtain support for the federal DREAM Act. Later in July 2009, undocumented youth occupied "congressional offices in Washington, DC, which led to the arrest of twenty-one undocumented students" (Nicholls, 2013; p. 85). In 2010, four undocumented students walked 1,500 miles to bring awareness to the issues experienced by immigrant communities in the United States, which was labeled the "Trail of Dreams" (Nicholls, 2013; Muñoz, 2015).

Because engaging in protest participation is often visible and risky, minoritized group members can experience negative consequences. For example, they might

encounter opposition and experience verbal and physical threats, which can escalate and have negative mental and physical consequences (e.g., violence; Aldridge Sanford, 2020). For undocumented students, engaging in protest participation can place them at risk of being detained or deported.

Political Advocacy

The use of *political advocacy* is another strategy that minoritized group members utilize to challenge power structures. Political advocacy refers to the use of bureaucratically centered petitions, campaigns, or lawsuits that seek to improve the lives of a minoritized group or cause. Political advocacy is different than protest advocacy. Although both types of advocacy can challenge laws and policies that affect undocumented immigrants, the way in which minoritized group members and allies go about challenging those laws and policies are distinct. Specifically, political advocacy includes, for example, using the system's administrative procedures (e.g., filing a lawsuit, creating a petition, writing to legislators) to challenge systemic oppression. By contrast, protest advocacy is centered on taking collective action that is highly visible and public. Although campaigning is visible, it falls under political advocacy because it includes a highly organized series of actions that usually require financial support and a great deal of time to bring about law/policy changes or to elect an immigration-friendly person to office. Protest advocacy, however, involves the public coming together to bring attention to injustices and call for action in less formal ways than political advocacy.

Undocumented youth have engaged in various forms of political advocacy, such as advocating for the passage of inclusive policies at the state and federal levels by

contacting their public officials in all ranks of government (Enriquez, 2014; Seif, 2004). Because of undocumented immigrants' political advocacy efforts, the Supreme Court ruled favorably in 1982 for Plyer v. Doe, which guaranteed a k-12 education for all students, regardless of their undocumented status. Undocumented youth were also involved in political campaigns (e.g., lobbying in Washington, DC; Hing, 2018a) in favor of the federal DREAM Act that would allow many undocumented immigrants to legally remain in the United States with a pathway to citizenship (Mendoza, 2013). Although the Federal law did not pass, their political and protest advocacy efforts, among other efforts that might have not received as much attention, helped place pressure on former president Barack Obama, which culminated him signing the Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA) program in 2012 (Aldridge Sanford, 2020; Nicholls, 2013).

Engaging in political advocacy might have different risks for undocumented students than other advocacy communication strategies. For example, undocumented students who file a lawsuit against the United States might experience increased stressors (e.g., loss time, financial strain, limited time for school) from having to navigate the legal system while working or going to school (Fernandes, 2019). Further, being part of a lawsuit might place undocumented students in a highly publicized situation where their stories are covered by local, state, or national news. Having this publicity might not only create stress among undocumented students, but it might also place them in a situation where they lose their jobs (i.e., social wellbeing) or friends/acquaintances (i.e., relational wellbeing).

Public Speaking Advocacy

The final advocacy communication strategy that minoritized groups can utilize is *public speaking advocacy*, which refers to non-academic presentations that center on challenging systemic oppression by (a) highlighting one's or one's group(s)' lived experiences of being part of a minoritized group; or (b) advocating for equity and/or equality for one's minoritized group. Throughout history minoritized groups have utilized public speaking advocacy to challenge systemic oppression. During the suffrage movement many women, primarily white women, used street speaking and auto tours to talk about the need to give women equal rights (white women were the at the center of this movement because Black women's voices were often silenced; Baker, 2020; McCammon et al., 2001).

Undocumented youth have also utilized public speaking advocacy. From 2010-2012, undocumented youth, many who were college students, participated in coming out campaigns to highlight their struggles and the need to change the immigration systems that keeps them underprivileged (Terriquez et al., 2018). Undocumented students who engage in public speaking advocacy to challenge systemic oppression might experience physical or psychological violence if an audience member yells obscenities or physically attacks them (NBC News, 2014). Participating in various public speaking campaigns can also be time consuming, which might create a strain on undocumented students' relationship with their families, friends, etc. (i.e., relational wellbeing).

Prior historical accounts demonstrate that members of minoritized groups (e.g., undocumented youth, Black Americans, Chicanxs, and LGBTQ+ communities) engage in various strategies to challenge oppressive systems—accompanied with various risks to

their physical, psychological, relational, and social wellbeing—that position them as second-class citizens (Aldridge Sanford, 2020; Seif, 2016). These strategies not only support the conceptualization of *advocacy communication* as a multidimensional concept but highlights how minoritized groups are able to utilize individual talents to expand their challenging of systemic oppression (Nicholls, 2013). To understand the process of engaging in advocacy, explain why people engage in advocacy work, and consider the consequences of such work, a myriad of theories and frameworks have emerged within and outside the social movements' literature (Opp, 2009). Reviewing all these theories and frameworks is outside the scope of this chapter (for a review, see Opp, 2009); however, it is important to provide a general overview of the theories and frameworks most central to advocacy communication, given that they are foundational to the framework presented in this dissertation.

Theories That can Help Explicate Challenging Systemic Oppression

As previously described, minoritized group members engage in various advocacy communication strategies to challenge systemic oppression. To understand this phenomenon, prior theorizing has already been done on activism, collective action, civic engagement, and social movement. This section provides an overview of those theories, which will lead to the development of *Advocacy Communication Theory (ACT*). This model provides a comprehensive framework that helps us answer the following questions: (1) why do people engage in certain forms of advocacy over others, particularly when some advocacy communication strategies might be riskier than others? (2) what are the interpersonal and health costs for engaging in different forms of

advocacy communication? and, (3) what are the benefits for engaging in certain forms of advocacy communication? When considering the last two questions, one must also consider the conditions under which advocacy communication can be productive or harmful.

Social Movement Theories

Numerous social movement theories exist (Gusfield, 1994); nonetheless, there are five social movement theories that are particularly important for this dissertation, given their scope and propositions: *Resource Mobilization Theory* (RMT; Jenkins, 1983); *Mass Society Theory* (MST; Gusfield, 1994); *The Theory of Relative Deprivation* (TRD; Bernstein & Crosby, 1980; Gurney & Tierney, 1982; Webber, 2007); *Social Identity Theory* (SIT: Tajfel & Turner, 1979); and *The Social Identity Model of Collective Action* (SIMCA; Van Zomeren et al., 2008, 2012*).* Although these theories are distinct, they overlap in several ways. Particularly, these theories focus on inequity or power asymmetry as predictors of challenging systemic oppression (Jenkins, 1983). For example, *Mass Society Theory* (Gusfield, 1994) proposes that social movements are formed by individuals who perceive they have been denied a resource (Morris & Herring,1984). In a similar vein, *The Theory of Relative Deprivation* (Bernstein & Crosby, 1980) argues that people make comparisons with others, and this process can make them feel deprived of a desirable resource; this can instill feelings of anger, resentment, injustice that can prompt social action (Bernstein & Crosby, 1980; Walker & Pettigrew, 1984).

In addition to perception of injustice, other theories such as *SIT* (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) focus on having a minoritized ingroup identity as an important predictor of advocacy. According to SIT, members of minoritized groups will engage in social actions if they have a salient low status ingroup identity and perceive the power structure as permeable (Harwood et al., 1995; Hogg et al., 2004; Hornsey, 2008). Similarly, *SIMCA* posits that having a politicized identity is a stronger predictor of action than a non-politicized identity (Van Zomeren et al., 2008). Further, SIMCA proposes that perceived group efficacy and group-based anger are predictors of social action (Van Zomeren et al., 2012; Thomas et al., 2012).

Persuasion Theories

Although social movement theories provide important insights into why minoritized group members might engage in advocacy, they are not without criticism. One limitation is that these theories do not extensively explicate the nuances and predictors of minoritized group members' engagement in advocacy, particularly when advocacy communication is multidimensional, with strategies varying in risk and visibility. As such, I turn to persuasion and communication theories that explain why people engage in or refrain from certain behaviors. Numerous persuasion theories exist, but I focus on ones that are most relevant to advocacy: a *Focus Theory of Normative Conduc*t (Cialdini et al., 1990), the *Theory of Planned Behavior* (Ajzen, 1991, 2005), and the *Anger Activism Model* (Turner, 2007).

A Focus Theory of Normative Conduct

According to a *Focus Theory of Normative Conduct* (FTNC**;** Cialdini et al., 1990), injunctive and descriptive norms are important predictors of human behavior. Injunctive norms refer to the extent to which people believe that a particular behavior will be morally approved or disapproved of by important others. By contrast, descriptive norms refer to the extent to which people believe that others are engaging in that particular behavior. FTNC suggests that the more people believe important others approve of the behavior and the more people perceive others are engaging in the behavior, the more likely people are to participate in the behavior (Cialdini et al.). Descriptive and injunctive norms are socially constructed (Cialdini et al., 1990; Stok & Rider, 2019), and they are more likely to influence behavior when they are made salient or activated (Kallgren et al., 2000).

Applied to undocumented students, FTNC would suggest that they are more likely to engage in a particular type of advocacy communication, the more they perceive important others (e.g., family, peers, professors) approve of such advocacy communication and the more they believe others are engaging in that kind of advocacy communication. Undocumented students might feel pressured, for example, to attend a march the more they perceive their peers, classmates, or friends will be attending (descriptive norms) the march or the more they feel like their friends think they should attend the march (injunctive norm). The influence of social norms on undocumented students' decisions to engage in advocacy has been supported by prior research. Indeed, Muñoz (2015) found that undocumented youth activists reported participating in advocacy efforts because their peers were engaging in advocacy. Similarly, in Kam et

al.'s (revise & resubmit) interview study with 24 undocumented college students, students reported being motivated to talk to a campus mental health professional because their friends thought they should talk to one (i.e., injunctive norms), which Kam and colleagues also found quantitatively in another study with undocumented students (Kam et al., 2020a).

Theory of Planned Behavior

Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB; Ajzen, 1991, 2005) also allows us to understand why undocumented students might engage in advocacy communication. Particularly, TPB posits that individuals are likely to engage in a behavior the more they intend to partake in that behavior. Their intentions are shaped by their *attitudes towards the behavior* (i.e., the extent to which individuals positively or negatively valence the behavior and its anticipated outcomes); *subjective norms* (i.e., the extent to which individuals perceive others think they should engage in the behavior); and *perceived behavioral control* (also referred to as self-efficacy; i.e., the extent to which individuals think it would be easy to engage in the behavior, which is often based on their means, resources, and opportunities; Ajzen, 2020; Simons et al., 2017). Subjective norms are similar to FTNC's injunctive norms. FTNC provides greater norm-specificity than TPB by also considering descriptive norms; however, TPB introduces attitudes and perceived behavioral control, which FTNC does not include. According to TPB, individuals are more likely to engage in a behavior the more positively they evaluate the behavior, the more they believe important others think they should engage in the behavior, and the easier it is to participate in the behavior (Ajzen, 2005).

Among undocumented students, they are likely to engage in a particular type of advocacy communication the more they (a) perceive that kind of advocacy communication positively (i.e., favorable advocacy communication attitudes), (b) believe important others think they should engage in that kind of advocacy communication (i.e., advocacy communication subjective norms), and (c) are confident that they can engage in that type of advocacy communication (i.e., advocacy communication self-efficacy). Among undocumented students, Kam et al. (2020a) provided initial support for two of the TPB psychological factors in predicting undocumented students' behaviors. They found that self-efficacy—the extent to which undocumented students thought they could easily schedule an appointment with a campus mental health professional—was positively associated with students' intentions to talk to a campus mental health professional. Moreover, the perception that family would approve of them talking to a campus mental health professional was indirectly associated with intentions to talk to a campus mental health professional through self-efficacy.

TPB also proposes that one's background influences one's engagement in behavior. These include (a) personal factors, such as one's values and personality traits; (b) social factors, such as one's age, gender, education, and race/ethnicity; and, (c) informational factors, such as one's knowledge, and media exposure (Ajzen, 2005). Although gender, age, race/ethnicity might be salient factors that influence undocumented students' engagement in advocacy, Katsiaficas et al. (2019) found that DACA status is a direct predictor of engaging in civic engagement for Latinx undocumented college students. Katsiaficas et al. (2019) theorize that students with

DACA might be more willing to engage in civic engagement due to protections that DACA offers (e.g., allowing DACA recipients to temporarily work in the United States or pursue a higher education, while deferring deportation).

Expanding TPB and FTNC: Response Efficacy, Anticipated Outcomes, and Identity

Although TPB considers perceived behavioral control (i.e., self-efficacy), past research on the extended parallel process model (Witte, 1992) and the risk perception attitude framework (Rimal & Real, 2006) highlight the importance of including response efficacy. Indeed, revised TPB models indicate support for *response efficacy* (i.e., the extent to which individuals believe that engaging in the behavior will result in what it is meant to achieve; Kam et al., 2020a). Thus, undocumented students might be more likely to engage in advocacy communication the more they believe that engaging in such actions will result in systemic changes that benefit undocumented immigrants, which I call *advocacy communication response efficacy*. By contrast, undocumented students are unlikely to engage in advocacy communication if they think such actions are futile. Consistent with this notion, Kam et al. (2020a) found that as undocumented students believed talking to a campus mental health professional would allow them "deal with the stress from being undocumented" (i.e., response efficacy, p. 6), they were more likely to report intentions to talk to a campus mental health professional. Similarly, Kam et al.'s (under review) qualitative interview study revealed that when undocumented students felt that talking to a campus mental health professional would not solve their problem (they will still be undocumented), they felt less inclined to talk to a campus mental health

professional. These findings highlight the importance of response efficacy for undocumented students and might be applicable to predicting advocacy communication.

Another important predictor of advocacy communication is perceived anticipated negative consequences, which refer to one's perceptions of how engaging in advocacy communication will impact one's personal safety, as well as one's family's safety. Anticipated negative consequences is informed by TPB's *behavioral belief*, which refers to one's beliefs regarding the likely consequences of engaging in a behavior that shape one's positive or negative valence of the behavior (Ajen, 2020). Research on Trans students' activism indicates that concerns for physical, emotional, and employment opportunities (i.e., personal safety) are reasons why Trans students might not engage in activism (Goldberg et al., 2020). Given these findings, engaging in different forms of advocacy communication might place undocumented students at risk for detention or deportation, which can negatively affect their family. If an undocumented student is detained or deported due to their advocacy communication, their families might financially struggle to meet their basic needs because undocumented youth often support their family in many ways (e.g., taking care of younger siblings or contributing financially; Castro-Salazar et al., 2010; Perez et al., 2010). Undocumented students' advocacy communication can also result in their family's detention or deportation. Although these are extreme examples that might not occur, undocumented students' perceived risk to personal or family safety might dissuade or propel them to engage in certain advocacy communication strategies.

In addition to anticipated negative consequences and advocacy communication response efficacy, recent TPB research (Rise et al., 2010) indicates that identity might be an important predictor of behavior. Identity is a complex concept with various definitions, however, identity in this case refers to a feature of self-concept that involves one's sense of attachment to a group or community, including how one feels about their identity as a member of the group (Katsiaficas et al., 2019; Umaña-Taylor et al., 2014). As such, identity in this context centers on the affiliation and pride students have toward their undocumented community. Because identity incorporates a sense of group membership, having a strong sense of affiliation with a group or having pride toward one's minoritized group would likely motivate undocumented students to engage in advocacy communication as a way to stand-up and defend their group.

To examine the role of identity in predicting behavior, Rise et al. (2010) conducted a meta-analysis and found that attitude, subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, and identity all significantly predicted behavioral intentions, and identity explained an additional six percent of the variance in intentions beyond the other components of the TPB. With these findings, Rise et al. (2010) concluded that "self-identity is conceptually and empirically distinct from attitude, subjective norm, PBC, and past behavior" (p. 1100). This expansion of TBP is consistent with social movement theories (e.g., SIT; Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and past research on advocacy communication that suggest identity is an important predictor of advocacy. Indeed, among undocumented college students, Katsiaficas et al. (2019) found that having a strong undocumented

identity affiliation predicted civic engagement. As such, it is likely that undocumented identity is positively associated with advocacy communication.

The Anger Activism Model

Similar to SIMCA, *The Anger Activism Model* (AAM; Turner, 2007) proposes that experiencing strong levels of anger and having strong perceptions of self and response efficacy will result in one's willingness to engage in activism. AAM proposes four different groups to capture the relationship between anger, efficacy, and activism. The *activist group* is characterized by experiencing strong levels of anger and having strong self and response efficacy; they are likely to engage in activism. The *empowered group* has low anger and strong perceptions of efficacy. They are unlikely to engage in activism because the issue is not salient to them, given their low anger. *Angry audiences* are distinguished by strong levels of anger but low perceived efficacy. Angry audiences are unlikely to engage in activism because they have low efficacy. Finally, the *disinterested group* is characterized by experiencing low levels of anger and perceived efficacy; therefore, they are unlikely to engage in activism. The AAM is unique because it (a) proposes that anger and perceived efficacy are predictors of activism, and (b) posits that four different groups of activists exist with distinct patterns of anger and perceived efficacy. Thus, AAM suggests that activists are heterogenous in their experiences of anger and perceived efficacy. Although innovative in its conceptualization, the AAM has mixed findings. Scholarship suggests full (e.g., Cho & Walton, 2011) or partial (e.g., Austin et al., 2020; Saleem et al., 2021) support for AAM.

indicates that anger might not be a core predictor of advocacy; instead, perceived efficacy seems to be a stronger predictor.

Communication as a Predictor of Advocacy: The Role of Undocumented Socialization

FTNC, TPB, and AAM identify psychological factors that explain why undocumented students engage in advocacy communication; however, one question emerges: how do people develop such psychological beliefs about a particular behavior (e.g., advocacy communication)? Kam and colleagues have asked this question extensively with respect to developing beliefs about alcohol and other substances (e.g., Kam, 2011; Kam & Middleton, 2013; Kam & Wang, 2015; Kam & Yang, 2014; Kam et al., 2015; Miller-Day & Kam, 2010) or talking to a mental health professional (e.g., Kam et al., under review). They argue that communication in the form of socialization messages shape individuals' psychological beliefs about a behavior. They have found support for the associations between communication with parents and friends about the targeted behavior and individual beliefs about the behavior, focusing on Latinx adolescent samples and undocumented college students. Thus, applied to advocacy communication, FTNC, TPB, and AAM can be strengthened by considering undocumented socialization messages that students receive from family and nonfamily members (e.g., peers, professors).

Interpersonal Sources of Undocumented Socialization

Undocumented students receive various undocumented socialization messages (i.e., implicit or explicit, conscious or nonconscious, verbal or nonverbal messages that

teach one what it means to be undocumented, how to feel about being undocumented, and how to respond to being undocumented; Cornejo et al., 2021; Kam et al., 2021; Rendón García, 2019). Students encounter different types of undocumented socialization from a variety of sources; however, this chapter focuses on family and nonfamily members' undocumented socialization directed at students. Families are important because undocumented students and their families continue to rely on each other, even after undocumented students leave for college. Indeed, undocumented students reported in Delgado (2020) that they informed their parents about laws and policies that might affect the parent, even after leaving their home. Such exchanges are likely to contribute to their understanding of undocumented immigration. Further, "families are central to activists' work" (Munoz, 2015, p. 63), with some undocumented students having shared that they engaged in advocacy to pay homage to their parents' sacrifices.

In addition to family, nonfamily socialization messages are important because undocumented students spend a large part of their time interacting with friends, classmates, professors, and staff. Undocumented youth and college students often seek the support of nonfamily members to help them navigate having an undocumented status (Andrade, 2019; Borjian, 2018; Kam et al., 2018; Kleyn et al., 2018). At this time, nonfamily members might engage in distinct socialization messages related to undocumented students' immigration status. For example, undocumented students have shared that their professors can make announcements in class in support of undocumented immigration or inform students of resources for undocumented students, thus creating a sense of inclusivity and acceptance (Kam et al., 2021).

For undocumented students, family and nonfamily socialization messages likely become a salient part of their lives after they learn of their undocumented status, which usually occurs during mid-to-later adolescence (Cornejo & Kam, 2020; Gonzales, 2016). Prior research indicates that youth learn about their undocumented status—primarily from family members—when their status begins to pose barriers to their milestones (e.g., applying to college and a driver's license, seeking work opportunities; Cornejo et al., 2021; Gonzales, 2016). When they discover the barriers to being undocumented, Cornejo et al. (2021) found that family members had important conversations with undocumented youth to help them understand what it means to be undocumented.

Different Types of Undocumented Socialization

Based on past research on communication about undocumented immigration (Cornejo et al., 2021; Kam et al., 2018, 2021a, 2021b; Rendón García, 2019), ACT focuses on three types of undocumented socialization messages: *protection-oriented socialization*, *inclusionary socialization,* and *advocacy socialization*. Drawing from Kam and colleagues' work that found support for similar indirect and direct associations with anti-substance-use communication, substance-use beliefs, and substance-use behaviors using FTNC and TPB (Kam, Basinger, & Abendschein, 2015; Kam, Figueroa-Caballero, & Basinger, 2015; Kam & Middleton, 2013; Kam & Wang, 2014), I propose that undocumented socialization is likely to be indirectly related to advocacy communication through the psychological factors. At the same time, undocumented socialization is likely to also exert direct effects on advocacy communication. Undocumented socialization teaches students what it means to be an undocumented immigrant, how they should feel

about being undocumented, and how they should respond to being undocumented (Cornejo et al., 2021; Kam et al., 2018, 2021a, 2021b; Rendón García, 2019). Communication with family and nonfamily members about undocumented immigration is likely to shape beliefs about advocating on behalf of undocumented immigrants, and in turn, affect the extent to which undocumented youth engage in advocacy communication. Below, I explicate the three types of socialization and their associations with advocacy communication.

Protection-Oriented Socialization Messages

Because of their undocumented status, undocumented students likely experience various forms of oppression that can prompt family or nonfamily members to talk about undocumented immigration. At this time, undocumented youth likely receive different protection-oriented socialization messages from family members and nonfamily members about their status. *Protection-oriented socialization* refers to "verbal and nonverbal messages that are intended to keep undocumented children and the entire family safe" by, for example, talking about the potential for being discriminated against, how to manage discrimination, ways they can keep themselves and their family safe from detention or deportation, know-your-rights messages, and limitations or barriers that they might face (Kam et al., 2021). Such messages are meant to shield students from being harmed, physically or mentally, but at the same time, protection-oriented socialization messages often highlight barriers, limitations, stigma, and "othering" due to their undocumented status (Castrellon, 2021; Kam et a., 2021; Lachica Buenavista, 2018; Seif, 2016, Viruell-Fuentes, 2011). Protection-oriented socialization messages serve an important function—

to keep undocumented youth safe from the adverse consequences of being undocumented, which can not only include preventing detention or deportation, but also include preventing disappointment or hurt (e.g., Kam et a., 2021; Lykes, et al., 2013; Rendón García, 2019). They are well-intentioned messages, and at times necessary, but the messages also highlight the family's vulnerability to encountering certain negative undocumented-related experiences.

Protection-oriented socialization messages might directly and indirectly relate to advocacy communication in different ways. On the one hand, these messages emphasize the vulnerability of undocumented immigrants and the need to be cautious in their actions to keep themselves safe; therefore, receiving such messages might encourage undocumented students to hide their undocumented status from others. Indeed, parents often tell their children not to disclose their status to nonfamily members (Kam et al., 2018), which might discourage students from engaging in advocacy communication. On the other hand, being informed about the barriers associated with being undocumented and being instructed to hide an aspect of their identity might lead to anger and feelings of inequity, and in turn, advocacy communication, as taken from AAM (Turner, 2007), Mass Society Theory (Gusfield, 1994), and The Theory of Relative Deprivation (Bernstein & Crosby, 1980).

Inclusionary Socialization Messages

In addition to protection-oriented socialization messages, family and nonfamily members can convey *inclusionary socialization messages*, which refer to verbal and nonverbal messages that emphasize undocumented people's strength and empowerment

due to their immigration status, as well as their belonging in mainstream society (Kam et al., 2018). For example, parents of undocumented youth try to instill notions of belonging to their children by telling them that, regardless of their undocumented stats, they are not criminals, thieves, or murderers (Cross et al., 2021; Lykes et al., 2013). Parents might also tell their children that although they arrived in the United States as undocumented, this does not make them inferior to documented others (Cross et al., 2021). These messages likely not only create a sense of belonging for undocumented youth, but they also counteract many of the negative stereotypes around undocumented immigrants in the United States. Further, parents might focus on talking to their undocumented children about a positive future where undocumented immigrants in the United States are no longer undocumented. Indeed, in their qualitative study Kam et al. (2018) reported that according to undocumented high school students, their parents shared positive and optimistic messages about eventually getting papers. Parents might also tell their children that undocumented immigrants are resourceful, hardworking, fighters, cautious, and they might talk about having "hope…and pride in [their] immigration story (Rendón García, 2019, p. 13).

Undocumented students likely also receive inclusionary socialization messages from nonfamily members (e.g., professors, staff, and peers), which might help them feel validated and have a sense of belonging to their college environment (Enriquez et al., 2019; Golash-Boza & Valdez, 2018; Kam et al., 2022). Andrade (2021) interviewed undocumented students one year after Trump's election to understand their perceptions of the validations they received from university administrators and faculty. University

administrators and faculty shared inclusionary socialization messages with undocumented students by (a) putting up signs outside their offices, which invited undocumented students to apply for scholarships; (b) including curriculum that focused on immigrant social movements in their classes; and, (c) helping undocumented college students understand immigration-related policy. Ultimately, inclusionary socialization messages can build undocumented students' pride and affiliation with their undocumented community, which likely propels them to engage in advocacy communication.

Advocacy Socialization Messages

Another communicative experience that likely leads to advocacy communication is *advocacy socialization messages*, which refers to verbal and nonverbal messages that focus on using individual or collective efforts to make positive contributions—via challenging systems of oppression—for one's minoritized and group. Nonverbal aspects include family and nonfamily members modeling advocacy communication (e.g., protest participation, interpersonal advocacy). Limited research exists on the advocacy socialization messages that undocumented parents instill in their children, but existing research (Garcia, 2019) suggests that undocumented parents might tell their undocumented children that they should speak up on behalf of others who experience similar or more disadvantages as them.

Drawing from the literature on ethnic-racial socialization, which refers to the "transmission from adults to children of information regarding race and ethnicity" (Hughes et al., 2006, p. 748), Hughes et al.'s (2006) review of ethnic-racial socialization literature indicates that there are four distinct themes that comprise ethnic-racial

socialization (i.e., cultural socialization, preparation for bias, promotion of mistrust, and egalitarianism). This chapter draws on ethnic-racial socialization's subtheme of preparation for bias because it centers on "parents' efforts to promote their children's awareness of discrimination and prepare them to cope with it" (Hughes et al., 2006, p. 756). By engaging in preparation for bias messages, parents are highlighting environmental barriers, inequities, and talking about discriminatory behavior towards immigrants, as such it is likely that they are also highlighting advocacy socialization messages via communication and their enactment of advocacy efforts (Cline & Necochea, 2001). It is important to note that protection-oriented messages and advocacy messages have some overlap. However, what distinguishes them is that advocacy messages are centered on challenging discrimination, whereas protection-oriented messages are focused on how one might individually cope with discrimination. As such, advocacy socialization is centered on making changes to the system that causes discrimination and inequities, whereas protection-oriented messages are centered on how to keep oneself safe when discrimination or inequities occur.

Latinx parents' might engage in advocacy socialization messages to offset the negative messages that their children experience, which might help teach their children about the possibility of a brighter future and to advocate for themselves and others (Cline & Necochea, 2001). Ayon's (2016) interview study with Latinx parents suggests that Latinx immigrant parents "model advocacy and advise children to advocate for their themselves and others" (p. 449). Parents told their children that they should speak-up during instances of discrimination, or they should report these instances to their teachers

or other academic officials. Further, some parents socialized their children to advocate on behalf of others who experience discrimination.

In addition to advocacy socialization messages, Latinx immigrant parents might include their children in their own advocacy participation. Philbin and Ayón's (2016) qualitative study with immigrant Latinx parents, who had a child between the ages of 7 to 12, reported that Latinx parents took their child to marches that were centered on fighting for immigrants' rights. Finally, Latinx parents might engage in advocacy socialization by modeling different advocacy communication strategies, critiquing policies that create barriers for them and their children, being part of organizations that helps shed light to the barriers they experience, and encouraging others to support policies and politicians that are in favor of immigrants (Philbin & Ayón, 2016).

For all three types of socialization, communication can be implicit or explicit, intentional and conscious or unintentional and nonconscious. Furthermore, although the word socialization suggests that sources in the environment teach students about undocumented immigration, the three types of socialization are communicative. Thus, socialization can be transactional—simultaneous, two-way communicative exchanges where the involved parties co-construct what it means to be undocumented, how to feel about being undocumented, and how to respond to the realities of being undocumented (Cornejo et al.,2021; Kam et al., 2021).

Potential Costs and Benefits of Advocacy Communication

Thus far, this chapter has introduced a multilevel conceptualization of advocacy communication and has identified communication and psychological factors that likely

predict engaging in advocacy communication. Nevertheless, a question emerges as to what the consequences are for engaging in advocacy communication. Ideally, advocacy communication will have its intended effects; advocacy communication will lead to systemic changes that reduce or eliminate oppression. Advocacy communication can be rewarding in many ways, and therefore, be positively associated with health and wellbeing (Velez & Moradi, 2016). For example, Ramirez-Valles et al. (2005) found that community involvement (e.g., volunteerism and activism) attenuated sexual-orientation stigma's associations with depressive symptoms and loneliness for HIV-positive Latino gay men. In addition, MacDonnell et al. (2017) reported that although immigrant women experienced various challenges related to their mental health and wellbeing, they also engaged in community mobilization, which according to the immigrant women, enhanced their confidence and leadership skills.

Given, however, that engaging in advocacy communication takes effort and poses some risks, advocacy communication can also take a toll on undocumented youth's health and wellbeing (Aldridge Sanford, 2020; Jerusha et al., 2021). In their interview study, Vaccaro and Mena (2011) found that Queer college student activists of color attending predominantly white institutions felt constant pressure to make changes for their LGBTQ communities and know all the answers related to being a queer activist of color. Engaging in different advocacy communication strategies left students feeling exhausted, alone, isolated, and neglected, with some students reporting that the exhaustion and burnout led to attempted suicide.

Among undocumented students, Cornejo et al. (in press) examined the relationship between different groups of undocumented students who engaged in various forms of advocacy communication (e.g., interpersonal advocacy, social media advocacy) and their health. Although undocumented students reported infrequently engaging in advocacy communication overall, students who most frequently engaged in different advocacy communication strategies reported greater anxiety and depression, as well as lower levels of self-rated health compared to students who infrequently engaged in advocacy communication. Thus, frequently engaging in a variety of advocacy communication strategies might be physically and emotionally taxing, although beneficial in other ways.

Nevertheless, it is important to note that the relationship between advocacy communication and health and wellbeing is nuanced, depending on how health and wellbeing are measured and what mediating and moderating factors are considered. With respect to measurement, it is possible that advocacy communication is associated with certain forms of decreased wellbeing (e.g., anxiety, burnout); however, it might be positively associated with wellbeing when students feel good about advocating on behalf of their group. Thus, advocacy communication is likely to come with costs and benefits to health and wellbeing. Furthermore, the extent to which undocumented students feel like their advocacy communication efforts have been effective at accomplishing their goals could mediate the positive association between advocacy communication and health and wellbeing. Other factors (e.g., structural changes, personal responsibilities, number of years in the United States, the perceived effectiveness of their advocacy

communication) also likely to influence different areas of undocumented students' lives (e.g., romantic relationships, overall happiness, academic achievement, national identification).

Advocacy Communication's Dynamic Nature

In addition to its complex nature, ACT poses that advocacy communication is a dynamic process such that it can change within an interaction or across multiple interactions, with the same people or different people. The extent to which undocumented immigrants engage in family undocumented socialization or advocacy communication likely changes over time, and in turn, their psychological factors, mental health, and relational wellbeing are also likely to vary. Change in advocacy communication can occur for many reasons including, for example, exposure to systemic oppression (e.g., inequitable policies at different levels, overt racism and discrimination, microaggressions) that prompt advocacy responses. Undocumented students and other minoritized communities do not engage in advocacy efforts at all times. Rather, they might choose to engage in advocacy communication when prompted by a perceived inequity, such as when a peer makes an offensive comment in class about undocumented immigrants. At that point, the undocumented student might decide to remain quiet, call out, or correct the offensive comment. The frequency in which such offensive comments occur, or any other perceived oppressive act occurs, is likely to affect how often undocumented students engage in advocacy communication.

Undocumented students might also decide to engage in certain advocacy strategies depending on their goals for engaging in advocacy communication. For

example, Obar et al. (2012) found that individuals engage in mediated advocacy because they want to be connected to other groups, receive feedback, increase the speed of their advocacy communication efforts, and reduce the cost of engaging in advocacy. Other reasons for engaging in mediated advocacy includes promoting interactions offline (Seelig et al., 2019), reaching to a broader audience and engaging in advocacy action (Guo & Saxton, 2014), and engaging in having influence or a voice (Gelfgren et al., 2020). Among undocumented students, they might engage in mediated advocacy if they do not feel confident of engaging in another form of advocacy or want to reach to other groups to expand their advocacy skills.

Alternatively, undocumented students might engage in mediated advocacy is they want to increase the speed of their message. For example, if DACA is threatened, undocumented students might opt to engage in mediated advocacy, as opposed to another strategy because it is faster, potentially reaches a broader audience, and is cost effective. Alternatively, individuals might decide to engage in protest advocacy if they want to obtain a reaction from others by using moral emotions, such as fear, outrage, and shame (Rosenberger & Winkler, 2014). Among undocumented students, they might decide to engage in protest advocacy over mediated advocacy if their message is of dire importance, such as advocating for the halt of an undocumented immigrant's deportation, and they want others to have a specific reaction (e.g., join the movement).

In addition, how often undocumented students engage in advocacy communication is also likely driven by their resources and ability to advocate. Advocacy communication is time consuming. As such, undocumented youth who frequently engage

in various advocacy strategies might be unable to engage in certain advocacy strategies if their home or work responsibilities increase. In addition, having access and being aware of different resources (e.g., organizations) that advocate on behalf of undocumented immigrants might influence undocumented youth's engagement in advocacy strategies. For example, among undocumented college students, new incoming students might be unaware of on- and off-campus clubs that advocate for undocumented immigrants; thus, they might not engage in organizational advocacy at the beginning of their college years. Nevertheless, after acclimating to the college environment they might become aware of on-campus clubs that support undocumented youth. This awareness might prompt them to join club, either on- or off-campus, and engage in organizational advocacy.

Time is also an important resource that might hinder undocumented students' engagement in certain advocacy strategies. For example, engaging in protest or political advocacy takes time and organization, which might deter undocumented students from utilizing those strategies. However, they might engage in mediated advocacy because this strategy takes less time and might reach a bigger audience.

As previously explicated, the socialization messages that undocumented youth receive are important predictors of youths' engagement in various advocacy strategies. This process is also complex, and it is possible that the socialization messages that undocumented youth receive changes, which, in turn, will change their engagement in advocacy efforts, For example, Cornejo et al.'s (2021) qualitative study indicates that undocumented students often discovered their undocumented status through parental disclosures when students reached important milestones (e.g., applied for a job or

internship), and their parents had to tell them of their undocumented status to protect them as they navigate the United States with a liminal status. Their findings highlight that students' experiences prompted family socialization conversations. As such, students might prompt parental socialization messages when students are reaching important milestones, experiencing discrimination, or wanting to learn more about their identity.

Advocacy communication's dynamic process might also influence undocumented students' health and wellbeing. Qualitative research (e.g., Vaccaro & Mena, 2011) suggests that prolonged engagement in advocacy efforts might be associated with burnout, as well as other stressors (e.g., depressive symptoms, anxiety). Experiencing prolonged stress might also impact one's physical and relational health. Undocumented youth who spend an extended period of time engaging in advocacy efforts might experience depressive symptoms, anxiety, guilt, physical ailments (e.g., headaches), as well strained relationships with important others. Given that engaging in advocacy efforts takes time, college students' engagement in various advocacy strategies over time might influence their academic performance and grades. Thus, when students infrequently engage in advocacy communication, they might experience less stress at that time, but when their advocacy communication efforts increase, they might also develop heightened stress. As their advocacy communication changes, their mental health and relational wellbeing are also likely to change.

Introducing Advocacy Communication Theory (ACT)

Prior scholarship (e.g., Cornejo et al., in press; Enriquez & Saguy, 2016; Ghaziani et al., 2016; Muñoz, 2015; Nicholls, 2013) on minoritized group members' advocacy

efforts posits that (a) minoritized group members engage in different strategies to challenge systemic oppression; (b) there are different predictors of minoritized group members' engagement in various advocacy communication strategies; and, (c) advocacy communication is related to health and wellbeing. This prior research has been instrumental in understanding and distinguishing different advocacy strategies and predictors of engagement in advocacy behaviors. To build on this research, however, I introduce *Advocacy Communication Theory (ACT),* which proposes the following assumptions of advocacy communication, its predictors, and its consequences.

Defining and Characterizing Advocacy Communication

1. Advocacy communication is a process that occurs at different levels (e.g., individual, interpersonal, mediated, community, organizational, policy; Bronfenbrenner, 1977; Cornejo et al., in press; Suárez-Orozco et al., 2011).
2. Advocacy communication consists of various implicit and explicit, conscious and non-conscious, verbal and nonverbal messages used to challenge structural inequities and systemic oppression on behalf of a minoritized group or cause that is meant to improve minoritized members' lives.
3. Advocacy communication can include traditional (e.g., protests, marches, political advocacy) or nontraditional forms (e.g., social media posts, interpersonal advocacy, academic advocacy), and advocacy communication can be formally organized or informally executed (see Figure 1A in Appendix for model depictions of advocacy communication strategies).

4. Advocacy communication strategies have varying degrees of perceived risk, visibility, costs, rewards, and efforts.

Predicting Advocacy Communication

5. Although advocacy communication is not a monolithic process, there are core predictors that might explain one's engagement in different advocacy communication strategies.
    a. Perceived inequities (Monico, 2020; Munoz, 2015; Nicolls, 2013) will be associated with minoritized group members' engaging in different advocacy communication strategies. This is similar to findings within social movements' literature, which posits that one's perceptions of experiencing an inequity or unequal distribution of power results in social action (Jenkins, 1983; Morris & Herring,1984; Walker & Pettigrew, 1984).
    b. Pro-advocacy communication injunctive and descriptive norms will be positively associated with engaging in different advocacy communication strategies, which is consistent with FTNC's injunctive and descriptive norms, respectively (Cialdini et al., 1990).
    c. Advocacy communication self-efficacy will be positively associated with engaging in advocacy communication, which is consistent with the Theory of Planned Behavior 's perceived behavioral control (Ajzen, 2020).
    d. Ingroup identity (i.e., having a strong affiliation or sense of pride in being a member of a minoritized community) will be positively associated with

engaging in advocacy communication (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Van Zomeren et al., 2008; Thomas et al., 2012; Rise et al., 2010; Katsiaficas et al., 2019). This is consistent with prior social movements literature among minoritized communities and expansions to TPB.

e. Advocacy communication response efficacy will be positively associated with engaging in advocacy communication (Andrews et al., 2010; Kam et al., 2020; Lam, 2006). This is consistent with work by Kam and colleagues that has found response efficacy is positively related to talking to a campus mental health professional for undocumented students (Kam et al., 2021; Kam et al., under review).

f. Anticipated negative consequences will be associated with lower engagement in advocacy communication. This assumption is consistent with TPB's behavioral belief, which describes one's beliefs of the possible consequences of engaging in a behavior. In turn, these beliefs shape one's attitudes towards the behavior. (Ajen, 2020).

g. Protection-oriented socialization from family and nonfamily members will be indirectly negatively associated with advocacy communication through desires to hide one's undocumented status and desire to protect themselves and their family. By contrast, protection-oriented socialization from family and nonfamily members will be indirectly positively association with advocacy communication through perceived inequities and anger.

h. Inclusionary socialization from family and nonfamily members will be positively associated with minoritized group members' advocacy communication. This is consistent with prior research on substance use socialization, which has found that parents' socialization of substance use is associated with youths' future intentions of alcohol use (Kam et al., 2017) and youths' actual use of substance use (Kam et al., 2015).

i. Advocacy socialization from family and nonfamily members will be positively associated with minoritized group members' advocacy communication. This is consistent with Kam et al.'s (2017) study on the relationship between parents' substance use socialization messages and youths' use of substance use (Kam et al., 2015).

j. Because socialization shapes psychological beliefs, the three types of socialization messages are indirectly related to advocacy communication through the proposed psychological factors. This is consistent with Kam and colleagues who found that anti-substance-use socialization was indirectly associated with substance use through substance-use norms and other beliefs (e.g., Kam, 2011; Kam & Middleton, 2013; Kam & Wang, 2015; Kam & Yang, 2014; Kam et al., 2015; Miller-Day & Kam, 2010; Kam et al., under review).

Potential Consequences of Advocacy Communication

6. Advocacy communication will be associated with psychological, physical, relational, and social outcomes for minoritized group members, depending on

what particular outcome is considered and depending on certain mediators and moderators (see Figure 1B in Appendix for model depictions of advocacy communication with predictors and distal outcomes). For example, advocacy communication will be positively associated with anxiety and burnout, which is consistent with qualitative findings among queer activists (Vaccaro & Mena, 2011); however, advocacy communication will be positively associated with self-esteem when students feel their advocacy communication is effective. This is consistent with prior research that suggests advocacy and health and wellbeing have a complex relationship in which the consequences of engaging in advocacy are positive and negative (Jerusha et al., 2021).

7. Finally, engaging in advocacy communication is a dynamic process that can change within an interaction or across multiple interactions with the same or different people. The extent to which undocumented students engage in different types of family undocumented socialization and advocacy communication changes, depending on external agents in their environment that warrant advocacy communicative responses. Such changes also mean undocumented students' advocacy beliefs (psychological factors), health, and wellbeing are likely to change, given that they are associated with family undocumented socialization and advocacy communication.

Testing ACT

ACT posits that psychological factors and socialization messages are important predictors of undocumented students' advocacy communication (Chapter 1). The theory

is comprehensive in its explication of predictors and potential outcomes of advocacy communication. Given the limitations that scholars face in collecting large samples of hard-to-reach, minoritized samples and the statistical limitations to testing such a comprehensive theory, scholars will likely test aspects of ACT rather than the whole theory with all the factors included. Nevertheless, to test the assumptions of ACT, the following section outlines two different approaches, one using structural equation modeling and another using mixture modeling. Both approaches can be utilized to test ACT. However, the decision to choose one method over the other depend on the research question(s) explored

First, ACT can be tested using traditional Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), which includes continuous latent factors and measured indicators (Kam et al., 2015, 2017). A four-step serial mediation model can be examined: socialization messages → psychological factors → advocacy communication → health and well-being implications using a longitudinal survey design. This four-step serial mediation model is consistent with Kam and colleagues' research that has found support for anti-substance-use socialization's indirect associations with subsequent substance use or intervening in a friend's substance use through different types of norms (Kam & Wang, 2014; Kam & Yang, 2014).

Another option is to use a mixture modeling approach, such as Latent Profile Analysis (LPA). LPA is a categorical variable approach that can identify different subgroups or profiles of minoritized group member advocators based on the extent to which they engage in various advocacy communication strategies. With LPA, predictors

of profile membership can be examined such as socialization messages → profiles of undocumented youth advocators (based on their response pattern of different advocacy communication strategies). Various profiles of undocumented student advocators might emerge based on youths' response patterns of engaging in adornment, interpersonal, mediated, and protest advocacy, for example. One possible group are students who frequently engage in adornment, interpersonal, and mediated advocacy strategies but infrequently engage in protest advocacy. Another group might be youth who only engage in protest advocacy strategies and infrequently engage in adornment, interpersonal, and mediated advocacy strategies. Undocumented students' profile membership, however, is predicted by family socialization messages. For example, undocumented students who frequently engage in all types of advocacy strategies might have received various inclusionary socialization messages from their family members, as well as observing their family members engage in different advocacy strategies. Alternatively, other undocumented students might not infrequently receive advocacy socialization messages and might have received protection-oriented messages. This might deter undocumented students from engaging in various and frequent advocacy strategies. However, they might still engage in mediated or other student-perceived low-risk advocacy strategy.

Further, LPA allows for examining mean differences in health and wellbeing across the identified profiles, which has been explored by prior work on undocumented students and their advocacy efforts (e.g., Cornejo et al., in press). Ultimately, when exploring different advocacy communication groups, LPA allows researchers to examine

how different emergent groups differ on specific variables of interest (e.g., depressive symptoms, anxiety, relationship strain, sleep).

SEM is a variable-centered approach, allowing researchers to examine variables' grouping via confirmatory factor analysis. Furthermore, researchers can estimate mediation and moderation in traditional SEM; this is possible because the estimated latent factors are continuous, which makes the interpretation of model estimation with mediating and moderating variables less complex. By contrast, mixture modeling is a person-centered approach and allows researchers to identify subgroups of minoritized group members based on their response patterns to different indicators. As such, in the case of LPA, mixture modeling estimates the patterns of continuous indicators to a categorical latent construct. Given current limitations in mixture modeling literature, specifying a mediating and/or a moderating model is complex and difficult to estimate when the latent variable (e.g., LPA) is an outcome of a mediation or moderation model. Thus, if the research question(s) examined proposes a mediation, as is posited in ACT, SEM can be utilized to test such research question(s); however, a proposed mediation model cannot be easily tested with LPA. Moreover, researchers can utilize LPA and SEM to control for past beliefs of behaviors when using a longitudinal design, which increases one’s confidence in directionality.

Mixture modeling highlights a sample's heterogeneity, while also allowing researchers to examine what predicts minoritized members to be in one latent group over another. Taking a group perspective is important for several reasons. First, LPA enables researchers to examine within class homogeneity and distinguish respondents’

similarities based on their response patterns. Theoretically, this allows researchers to identify specific groups of individuals based on a group of variables; this method approximates real life and the complexity of individuals' experiences. Practically, LPA enables researchers to identify which groups of individuals differ on various outcomes, which might facilitate the creation of resources that cater to specific groups of individuals and experiences. Further, a longitudinal design can be used to test ACT using mixture modeling. Specifically, Latent Transition Analysis (LTA), an extension to LPA, enables researchers to examine the stability of emergent profiles or classes across time. Moreover, one benefit of LTA is that it can identify individual's changes in their group membership from one time point to another time point (Nylund-Gibson et al., in press). In sum, both SEM and LPA/LTA are different approaches to finding evidence or ACT; the use of either methodological approach is possible and beneficial. The description of both approaches in this chapter is in attempt to highlight the different approaches that can be utilized to test ACT. The decision for choosing either method should be driven by the research question(s).

Concluding Remarks

Advocacy Communication Theory (ACT) draws from various frameworks (e.g., *Resource Mobilization Theory; The Theory of Relative Deprivation; Social Identity Theory; The Social Identity Model of Collective Action; Anger Activism Model;* Bernstein & Crosby, 1980; Jenkins, 1983; Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Turner, 2007; Van Zomeren et al., 2012) and is grounded in different minoritized group members' experiences (e.g., undocumented, Black, LGBTQ, Women, Latinx communities; Goldberg et al., 2020;

Hope et al., 2016; McAdam, 1986; Swank et al., 2013). ACT explicates (1) a complex and nuanced conceptualization of advocacy communication that consists of multilevel strategies; (2) different communicative, psychological, and demographic factors that motivate undocumented youth to engage in different types of advocacy communication; and (3) the costs and benefits associated with engaging in certain forms of advocacy communication.

Although ACT has several contributions, it is not without limitations. First, the risk of engaging in certain advocacy communication strategies over others differs based on minoritized group members' perceptions and prior lived experiences. As such, ACT does not rank order the advocacy communication strategies in terms of riskiness, but future research can assess undocumented immigrants' perceived risks associated with each form of advocacy communication. Assessing the unique risks associated with different types of advocacy communication might help explicate why undocumented immigrants choose to engage in a particular form of advocacy over another. Second, it is important to examine the effectiveness of engaging in different types of advocacy communication; however, systemic change takes time and is influenced by various factors (e.g., gatekeepers' support). As such, ACT does not outline what types of advocacy communication are associated with greater or more impactful systemic change. Lastly, although ACT is a comprehensive framework that conceptualizes advocacy communication as a multilevel process and identifies predictors and potential outcomes, the theory is not exhaustive. Other predictors (e.g., experiences of microaggressions and discrimination, perceived ingroup cohesion and closeness, religiosity, experiences with

law and immigration enforcement, perceived ingroup support, national identification) and potential outcomes (e.g., academic and work motivation, relational closeness with important others, substance use) are important to consider and future research should explore these variables, along with others.

Despite its limitations, ACT contributes to prior work that often focuses on traditional actions (e.g., protests, marches). ACT is a communication-centered framework that advances a multidimensional representation of advocacy in which various communication strategies are utilized to challenge systemic oppression. This representation recognizes the heterogeneity between the eight types of advocacy communication strategies outlined (i.e., adornment, interpersonal, mediated, organizational, academic, protest, political, and public speaking advocacy) that might have different levels of perceived riskiness, costs, visibility, and health implications. ACT enables us to develop a comprehensive understanding of how minoritized group members challenge systemic oppression. Further, ACT allows to examine different communicative, psychological, and demographic factors that uniquely predict engagement in certain advocacy communication strategies over others. Additionally, ACT allows researchers to explore the health and wellbeing implications of engaging in certain advocacy communication strategies over others.

CHAPTER TWO

TESTING ADVOCACY COMMUNICATION THEORY AMONG UNDOCUMENTED COLLEGE STUDENTS USING LATENT PROFILE ANALYSIS

Undocumented college students, and undocumented immigrants more broadly, experience a multitude of stressors and limited access to resources that lead to academic, economic, and health inequities (Enriquez, et al., 2020; Gonzales & Burciaga, 2018; Kam & Merolla, 2018; Kam et al., 2020a). To combat such inequities, undocumented students are often at the forefront of advocating for systemic change for themselves, their family, and their broader undocumented community (Buff, 2018; Escudero, 2020; Seif, 2004; Zimmerman, 2016). Specifically, undocumented youth, many of whom are college students, have historically engaged in various advocacy efforts (e.g., protests, marches, campaigns) to challenge systemic oppression and access opportunities available to the rest of the U.S. population (Negrón-Gonzales, 2015; Unzueta Carrasco, & Seif, 2014). Indeed, undocumented youths' engagement in advocacy on behalf of their immigrant group can be traced back to 1932 (Buff, 2018), and it is so prominent that handbooks have been created on how they can safely challenge systemic oppression and avoid detention or deportation (see United We Dream, 2020). This is noteworthy considering that engaging in advocacy efforts is costly, requiring time and money (e.g., transporting oneself to meetings or buying materials to engage in certain advocacy efforts; Gause, 2022) and potentially threatening their health and safety (Aldridge Sanford, 2020; Sue et al., 2019).

Given the costliness of advocacy work, various theoretical frameworks have been utilized to predict advocacy (e.g., Social Identity Theory; The Social Identity Model of Collective Action; Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Van Zomeren et al., 2008, 2012). Nevertheless, Advocacy Communication Theory (ACT; Cornejo et al., in press) is particularly useful in explicating undocumented students' advocacy efforts because (a) it argues that advocacy communication is a complex communication process that can occur at different levels (i.e., individual, interpersonal, mediated) with varying degrees of visibility and risk (Cornejo et al., in press); (b) it outlines distinct predictors (e.g., family and nonfamily socialization; social influence; efficacy) of advocacy communication; and, (c) it explicates how advocacy communication might be related to health and wellbeing (see Chapter 1).

Although advocacy can occur for many reasons, ACT emphasizes the importance that family play as socialization agents who teach undocumented youth what it means to be undocumented, how to feel about being undocumented, and how to respond to systemic oppression (Cornejo et al., 2021; Kam et al., 2021). Undocumented students can receive a myriad of socialization messages from family members and other socialization agents (e.g., nonfamily members and mediated sources), but Chapter 2 focuses on *family advocacy socialization messages*, which are implicit or explicit, conscious or nonconscious, verbal and nonverbal messages that center on creating positive contributions to one's minoritized group, either at the individual or group level, by challenging systemic oppression. Advocacy socialization messages include family members' modeling advocacy communication behavior, such as participating in protests

that can teach undocumented youth the importance of challenging systemic oppression (Philbin & Ayon, 2016). Family advocacy socialization also includes, for example, parents talking to their children about speaking up if someone makes discriminatory remarks towards undocumented immigrants. This type of communication is in line with what ethnic-racial socialization scholarship—research that explores how adults teach children about race and ethnicity—calls preparation for bias (Ayón, 2018; Hughes et al., 2006). Furthermore, ACT argues that different psychological factors (e.g., social norms, response efficacy, anticipated outcomes) play an important role in undocumented students' engagement in different advocacy communication strategies.

Informed by ACT, this study uses latent profile analysis (LPA), a mixture modeling and person-centered approach, to explore different types of advocacy communication subgroups (i.e., profiles of undocumented student advocators), that is based on self-reported patterns of engaging in various types of advocacy communication. As previously documented in vast qualitative research (e.g., Muñoz & Maldonado, 2012) and some quantitative research (e.g., Cornejo et al., in press; Kam et al., 2021), undocumented students are a heterogenous group, and LPA allows us to examine their heterogeneity, while also examining the messages that might motivate undocumented students to engage in certain advocacy communication strategies over others. This study's findings can extend prior scholarship by: (a) providing a multilevel conceptualization of advocacy communication that extends past traditional forms of advocacy (e.g., protest); (b) identifying socialization, psychological, and demographic factors that explain why undocumented students engage in certain advocacy strategies

over others; and, (c) examining how engaging in certain advocacy strategies over others is related to undocumented students' health and wellbeing. This chapter's findings can shed light on which strategies might be promoted and which ones might require additional support to attenuate the associations between advocacy communication and adverse health and wellbeing.

Drawing from Advocacy Communication Theory

Building off of past, primarily, qualitative research on different minoritized groups' advocacy strategies (e.g., women, Black folks, undocumented immigrants), ACT proposes eight holistic and different types of advocacy communication: (1) adornment advocacy, (2) interpersonal advocacy, (3) mediated advocacy, (4) organizational advocacy, (5) academic advocacy, (6) protest advocacy, (7) political advocacy, and (8) public speaking advocacy. Although it is important to examine all the different advocacy communication strategies proposed by ACT, this study examines interpersonal advocacy, adornment advocacy, mediated advocacy, organizational advocacy, academic advocacy, political advocacy, and protest advocacy.

Undocumented Students' Advocacy Communication Strategies

According to ACT, *interpersonal advocacy* refers to "a process in which minoritized group members' verbal and nonverbal communication (excluding adornment advocacy) is directed at one or a few individuals with the goal of challenging systemic oppression, including correcting misperceptions of undocumented immigration" (Chapter 1, p. 23). Past research among undocumented youth, many who are college students, suggests that undocumented students engage in interpersonal advocacy in their everyday

lives. For example, Cornejo et al. (2021) and Kam et al. (2019) found that undocumented students often engage in status disclosure with others, such as professors, peers, and staff to garner support and resources within their colleges or universities. Although family often tells undocumented youth not to disclose their status to others (Cornejo et al., 2021; Muñoz, 2015), youth might engage in this behavior to highlight their limited opportunities and challenge the systems that hinder their access to various resources. Similarly, other research indicates that undocumented students often use their lived experiences and stories to educate institutional gatekeepers with power, inside (e.g., staff, faculty) and outside academia (e.g., employers) about the limitations they experience due to their immigration status (Cabaniss, 2018; Escudero, 2020; Muñoz and Vigil, 2018). A nonverbal example of undocumented students' interpersonal advocacy includes the 2010 undocumented-student-led sit-in at, then, Senator John MacCain's office where undocumented students took space to advocate for a pathway to citizenship for undocumented immigrants in the United States (Dwyer, 2010). A final example of undocumented students' interpersonal advocacy includes speaking-up against inaccurate information, including microaggressions directed toward undocumented immigrants (Enriquez et al., 2019; Forenza et al., 2017; Hernandez et al., 2010; Seif, 2016).

Undocumented students can also use their bodies (e.g., tattoos), clothing (e.g., hats, shirts), accessories (e.g., stickers), and cosmetics to challenge systemic oppression via, what ACT calls, *adornment advocacy.* Undocumented youth have utilized hats or shirts with empowering messages about their undocumented status (e.g., "undocumented, unafraid, and unapologetic"; NYSYLC, 2022). By doing so, undocumented students

challenge the structural systems that limit their rights and opportunities. In addition to accessories, some undocumented students tattoo different messages on their bodies to remind them of their immigrant identity (Bose, 2018).

Further, undocumented students might also utilize *mediated advocacy,* which refers to the use of traditional media (e.g., newspapers, radio) and social media (e.g., Instagram, Facebook) to challenge systemic oppression. Undocumented youth, many of whom are college students, have utilized various forms of mediated advocacy to fight for undocumented immigrants' rights (Nicholls, 2013). Dreamactivst.org was one of the first immigrant movement websites (created in 2007 by seven undocumented students who wanted to help push forward the immigrant grassroots movement and challenge systemic oppression; Lal & de la Fuente, 2012). More recently, undocumented youth have used social media to highlight anti-deportation campaigns, as well as use their personal stories to challenge systemic oppression (Zimmerman, 2016)

Undocumented students might also utilize the group-focused *organizational advocacy*, which refers to undocumented students' involvement in (in)formal groups on or off-campus that work towards improving the lives of undocumented immigrants. Undocumented students have frequently formed groups and organizations, even if they might not be institutionally recognized, within and outside their institutions of higher education to improve the lives of their undocumented ingroup and challenge systemic oppression (Unzueta Carrasco & Seif, 2014). For example, Nicholls (2013) documented how the Dream Team Los Angeles (DTLA) was created in 2009 by undocumented students and graduates to engage in various visible actions (e.g., DTLA organized to

occupy a federal building in Los Angeles) that highlighted the barriers they experienced. Within institutions of higher education, undocumented students have formed college clubs, such as UC Santa Barbara's Improving Dreams, Equality, Access, and Success UCSB IDEAS) club, to advocate for resources within their colleges and universities (Seif et al., 2014).

Undocumented students might also engage in *academic advocacy,* which refers to one speaking up in class or seminars, conducting research, presenting at conferences, or writing work that brings awareness to undocumented immigrants' lived experiences and the systemic oppression they live. Similar to the other strategies, the goal of engaging in academic advocacy I to challenge the systemic oppression undocumented immigrants experience. For example, Jose Antonio Vargas, self-identified undocumented immigrant, wrote a book about his experiences of being undocumented to challenge the notion that undocumented immigrants are not American (Vargas, 2018).

Furthermore, undocumented college students might also engage in *political advocacy*, which refers to one's use of politically focused petitions, campaigns, or lawsuits to challenge systemic oppression. Political advocacy is distinguished by its use of the system's procedures to challenge systemic oppression, such as its laws or rules (see Chapter 1). Although undocumented students do not often have legal recognition and are thought of as functioning outside rules or laws, they use the systems' designated rules, laws, and rights to challenge systemic oppression (Enriquez, 2014; Seif, 2004). For example, the Supreme Court's ruling of Plyer v. Doe (1982), which guarantees a k-12

education for all U.S. students regardless of their immigration status, came to fruition due to the political advocacy of undocumented immigrants.

The final advocacy communication strategy that this study will examine is *protest advocacy*, which refers to the use of traditional forms of advocacy (e.g., marchers, demonstrations, rallies, to challenge systemic oppression. For example, in addition to organizing hunger strikes, and pilgrimages, in 2009, undocumented students engaged in civil disobedience and occupied congresspeople's offices in Washington, DC; as a result, 21 undocumented students were arrested (Muñoz, 2015; Negrón-Gonzales, 2015; Nicholls, 2013).

Exploring Undocumented Students' Advocacy Communication Profiles

With the large array of advocacy communication strategies that undocumented youth can employ, naturally, youth might use some strategies over others, depending on the situation. Furthermore, undocumented students are heterogenous, and the extent to which undocumented students utilize different advocacy communication strategies remains unclear. Latent Profile Analysis (LPA) is a mixture modeling approach that allows researchers to determine if data are sampled from a single population or if there are subsamples within the sampled data. Accordingly, LPA enables researchers to identify subgroups or profiles of undocumented students based on their different types of reported advocacy communication. A latent profile approach acknowledges the heterogeneity of undocumented students and allows us to extend communication theory by identifying predictors of profile membership.

Many different types of profiles might be uncovered. For example, one profile of undocumented students might exist that reports infrequently engaging in all the different types of advocacy communication explored in this study. Another profile might include undocumented students who frequently endorse all the advocacy communication strategies explored. Further, another profile might include undocumented students who frequently engage in some strategies over others (e.g., interpersonal, mediated, and political advocacy but not organizational, adornment, or protest advocacy). Although these different profiles might emerge, other profiles and patters of undocumented students' advocacy communication might also be revealed.

Examining distinct advocacy communication profiles is important for several reasons: (1) a mixture modeling approach allows us to represent undocumented students and their advocacy communication as nuanced and multidimensional, which is a core assumption of ACT; (2) determining distinct advocacy communication profiles can illuminate the extent to which undocumented students engage in different types of advocacy communication strategies over others; (3) exploring different profiles enables us to determine what predictors might significantly motivate undocumented students to use certain advocacy communication strategies over others; and, (4) determining different advocacy communication profiles might allow us to uncover new subgroups of undocumented student advocators.

Although traditional tests (e.g., interactions using regression) are often used to examine models in advocacy efforts scholarship, using these traditional methods in this study would require numerous moderation tests, and it would not allow us to

simultaneously examine the heterogeneity of undocumented student advocators. As advocacy research indicates, advocacy efforts do not occur in isolation (Aldridge Sanford, 2020; Cornejo et al., in press). Instead, minoritized groups, including undocumented students, often use multiple advocacy communication strategies to challenge systemic oppression (Cornejo et al., in press; Seif et al., 2014). Because of this, I propose the following research question:

RQ1: What types of advocacy communication profiles can be identified based on undocumented students' self-reported adornment, interpersonal, organizational, academic, political, and protest advocacy?

Predicting Undocumented Students' Advocacy Communication Profile Membership

Not only does ACT outline the different types of advocacy communication that minoritized group members might utilize, ACT borrows from various theories and prior scholarship to propose predictors that might explain undocumented students' engagement in certain advocacy communication strategies over others (see Chapter 1). Although ACT proposes several predictors (e.g., advocacy socialization messages, descriptive and injunctive norms, perceived behavioral control, response efficacy, anticipated outcomes for self and family), testing all these predictors is outside the scope of Chapter 2. Instead, Chapter 2 focuses on the role of interpersonal communication, specifically *family socialization messages* (i.e., advocacy socialization messages and actions, as well as inclusionary socialization messages, such as communicating messages of empowerment and thriving) that teach undocumented students to engage in certain forms of advocacy communication. Further, this chapter explores how different psychological factors predict

undocumented students' different types of advocacy communication, which the following section explicates.

Family Advocacy Socialization Messages and Actions

Although ACT proposes that other socialization agents (e.g., nonfamily members and mediated sources) are important predictors of advocacy communication, this chapter focuses on family socialization messages and actions for several reasons. First, undocumented students' family members are often also undocumented. As such, undocumented students likely seek support from their parents on how to navigate being undocumented, even after moving to college (e.g., phone calls; Pérez & Rodríguez, 2011). In addition, undocumented students often continue to talk with their family members about laws and policies that might influence the family (Delgado, 2020). During these conversations, family members might also share certain messages about being undocumented with their children, such as messages of belonging and standing-up against undocumented-related discrimination (Balderas et al., 2016; Cornejo et al., 2021; Cross et al., 2021). Second, prior research indicates that family members are core to activist work, and at times, undocumented youth engage in advocacy to pay homage to their parents' struggles and sacrifices (Muñoz, 2015).

Undocumented students can receive a multitude of socialization messages from their family members that might motivate them to challenge systemic oppression. Nevertheless, ACT highlights the important role that advocacy socialization plays in teaching undocumented students about advocacy communication. *Advocacy socialization messages* refer to verbal and nonverbal messages that promote positive contributions to

challenging systemic oppression for one's minoritized group. Borrowing from ethnic-racial socialization scholarship (e.g., Hughes et al., 2006), parents of minoritized ethnic-racial groups have been found to engage in preparation for bias to make children aware that they might experience discrimination because of their minoritized group membership and to discuss ways to cope with this discrimination. When discussing ways to cope with discrimination, Latinx immigrant parents have been found to highlight different advocacy strategies (Cline & Necochea, 2001). This type of communication is an example of advocacy socialization messages. Similarly, undocumented family members might engage in advocacy socialization messages to prepare undocumented youth for discrimination and to counteract the stigmatizing messages that undocumented youth face. Such messages might instill hope in a brighter future, as well as propel them to advocate for themselves and others (Ayon, 2016; Cline & Necochea, 2001).

Advocacy socialization messages also include parents' modeling advocacy behaviors that challenge systemic oppression. Family advocacy socialization strategies can include undocumented students observing their family members attending protests, marches, or joining organizations that support undocumented immigrants. Indeed, Philbin and Ayón (2016) found that Latinx parents who had a child between 7 to 12 years reported taking their children to different marches centered in immigrants' rights. Parents also critiqued unjust immigrant-related policies, participated in immigrant-centered organizations, and encouraged others to support pro-immigrant policies.

Latinx immigrant family members engage in various types of advocacy socialization, which would likely motivate their children to engage in distinct advocacy

strategies. In fact, research on Latinx youths' political socialization finds a link between parents' political socialization messages and youths' political participation (Pinetta et al., 2020). These findings are not only emergent in cross-sectional studies but also in longitudinal research. Indeed, Diemer's (2012) longitudinal study with Latinx and Asian parents' political discussions found that these discussions predicted their children's political participation; however, this finding was stronger for Latinxs.

The various advocacy socialization messages that undocumented students receive from their family members likely predict different profiles of undocumented student advocators. For example, it is possible undocumented students who frequently engage in all types of advocacy communication frequently received family advocacy socialization messages and saw their family members model advocacy. Alternatively, undocumented students who infrequently engage in advocacy communication might have infrequently received family advocacy socialization messages or observed family advocacy. Further, undocumented students who frequently engage in certain forms of advocacy communication over others might have family who modeled those particular forms of advocacy communication or talked about those particular forms.

Family Inclusionary Socialization

In addition to family advocacy socialization messages, ACT proposes that family members might engage in *inclusionary socialization*, which refers to verbal and nonverbal, implicit or explicit, and conscious or nonconscious messages that focus on undocumented students being part of or belonging to mainstream society, as well as highlighting their empowerment and strength as a result of their immigration status and

experiences (Kam et al., 2018). ACT proposes four different types of inclusionary socialization messages. First, *empowerment messages* focus on the strength, confidence, and pride from being undocumented (Kam et al., 2021). Family members might tell undocumented students that they should feel confident with being undocumented and should not be ashamed. Second, *thriving messages* focus on how being undocumented makes immigrants resourceful, resilient, and better prepared for future challenges (Kam et al., 2021). For example, family members might tell undocumented students that being undocumented makes them have a better work ethic.

Families might also share *belonging messages,* which are centered on how being undocumented does not make them different than documented people and they are worthy of living in the United States (Kam et al., 2018). Family members might tell undocumented students that undocumented immigrants should be treated like documented others. Finally, family members might also share messages that center on *coping through role models* (Kam et al., 2018), highlighting undocumented immigrants who are successful in the United States. Family members might discuss with their children other undocumented immigrants who are doing well to inspire, motivate, and instill hope in their children, particularly when considering the barriers that they face as undocumented immigrants. Prior research among undocumented immigrants finds that families engage in these types of inclusionary socialization messages (Cross et al., 2021; Kam et al., 2018; Lykes et al., 2013; Rendón García, 2019).

The different types of family inclusionary socialization messages that undocumented students receive likely predicts their engagement in different types of

advocacy communication strategies. For example, students who frequently engage in all types of advocacy communication strategies likely received frequent family socialization messages of empowerment, thriving, belonging, and coping through role models. By contrast, it is possible that undocumented students who engage in interpersonal and adornment advocacy received empowerment and belonging messages but did not receive messages about coping through role models. These are a few examples of the different ways in which various family socialization messages might predict profile membership. Other possibilities likely exist, as well, and LPA allows us to examine the unique ways in which family socialization messages predict distinct profiles of undocumented student advocators.

Psychological Factors

In addition to family socialization messages, vast theorizing indicates that psychological factors are important predictors of human behavior (e.g., *Focus Theory of Normative Conduct; Theory of Planned Behavior;* Ajzen, 1991, 2005; Cialdini et al., 1990). Borrowing from this prior work, ACT outlines seven different psychological factors (i.e., descriptive and injunctive norms, perceived behavioral control, response efficacy, anticipated outcomes, specifically personal and family safety, and undocumented identification) that might predict undocumented students' engagement in different advocacy communications strategies. More specifically, ACT proposes that *descriptive norms* (i.e., one's perception that advocacy communication efforts are typical, and that other people are engaging in advocacy efforts) and *injunctive norms* (i.e., one's perception that advocacy communication will be approved or disapproved of by

important others) are positively associated with undocumented students' advocacy communication. Among undocumented immigrants, prior research suggests that peers, family, and teachers/professors' approval of advocacy positively influences young undocumented immigrants' advocacy (Rogers et al., 2008). In addition, ACT suggests that having the resources, means, and opportunities to engage in advocacy communication (i.e., *perceived behavioral control*) and believing that advocacy communication will have the desired results (i.e., *response efficacy*) would make undocumented students more likely to engage in advocacy communication.

Along with efficacy and norms, ACT argues that undocumented students' *anticipated outcomes* for their personal safety and their family's safety are crucial to consider, given undocumented student's vulnerable status. Undocumented students might feel that engaging in different forms of advocacy communication might result in their own or their family members' detention or deportation, or have dire consequences for their reputation, interpersonal relationships, or chances of obtaining legal status. Negative anticipated outcomes are likely to discourage students from engaging in advocacy communication, such that concerns for interpersonal relationships are likely to discourage interpersonal advocacy. In addition, concerns about detention, deportation, or chances of obtaining legal status are likely to discourage advocacy communication that is visible to many people, identifying, and impeding institutional functioning (e.g., participating in a march, staging a sit in).

Lastly, ACT proposes that undocumented identity is likely to be positively associated with engaging in advocacy communication. Similar to work on ethnic-racial

identification (e.g., Mastro et al., 2014; Ramos et al., 2021; Rivas-Drake et al., 2014; Umana-Taylor et al., 2014), *undocumented identity* refers to undocumented students' positive affiliation with their undocumented community and having pride in their undocumented identity. The stronger the undocumented identification, the more likely students will be motivated to engage in a variety of advocacy communication strategies. Their undocumented affiliation and pride mean they are likely to be more cognizant of the systemic oppression that undocumented immigrants encounter, and they are less likely to accept the minoritization of their group. Thus, a strong sense of undocumented identification will likely embolden undocumented students to take action.

Demographic Factors

Finally, ACT proposes that different demographic factors (e.g., race/ethnicity, years living in the United States, DACA status) likely predict undocumented students' engagement in certain advocacy communication strategies. Katsiaficas et al. (2019) found that having Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA) was associated with having a strong undocumented identity affiliation, which in turn, was related to undocumented students' civic engagement. DACA students might be more likely to engage in advocacy communication because they are temporarily allowed to defer deportation and work in the United States; they are more protected than undocumented students without DACA. Alternatively, DACA students might be less likely to engage in advocacy communication because they fear losing their DACA status if they engage in such activities. Given the various ways in which family socialization messages, psychological factors, and

demographic factors might predict undocumented students' engagement in various advocacy communications strategies, I propose the following research question:

RQ2: How do family socialization messages (i.e., advocacy socialization messages and, actions, and inclusionary socialization messages), psychological factors (i.e., descriptive and subjective norms, perceived behavioral control, response efficacy, anticipated outcomes for personal and family safety, and undocumented pride), and demographic factors (e.g., DACA status) predict undocumented students' advocacy communication profile membership?

Mean Differences in Health and Wellbeing

Although ACT focuses on the different types of advocacy communication that minoritized people might utilize, one of its assumptions is that engaging in different types of advocacy communication strategies has different consequences for one's health and wellbeing (i.e., physical, psychological, relational, and social). As such, the current study examined whether advocacy communication profiles differ in mental (i.e., depressive symptoms, anxiety, burnout, and perceived hopefulness about undocumented immigrants' futures) and relational (i.e., interpersonal relationship strain with important others, such as professors, peers, and family) wellbeing. For undocumented students, engaging in different types of advocacy communication likely has varying consequences for their mental and relational wellbeing. Indeed, using responses from 1,277 undocumented college students in California, Cornejo et al. (in press) identified four different profiles (i.e., frequent advocators, media advocators, organizational advocators,

and infrequent advocators) of undocumented student advocators who differed in physical and psychological wellbeing. Specifically, frequent advocators reported higher levels of anxiety and depressive symptoms but lower levels of self-rated health compared to infrequent advocators. Similarly, media advocators reported higher levels of depressive symptoms and anxiety than infrequent advocators.

Engaging in different types of advocacy communication likely has different consequences for undocumented students' physical, psychological, and relational wellbeing. For example, it is possible that students who engage in frequent interpersonal, adornment, political, and organizational advocacy report higher levels of depressive symptoms, anxiety, and burnout (Cornejo et al., in press; Muñoz, 2015). Alternatively, undocumented students who frequently engage in organizational advocacy but infrequently engage in interpersonal, adornment, or political advocacy might experience lower levels of depressive symptoms, anxiety, and burnout. This might occur because undocumented students who engage in organizational advocacy might have the support of others within the organization, which might function as a promotive factor. Furthermore, engaging in various and frequent types of advocacy communication might result in undocumented students having increased hope for undocumented immigrants' future. This finding might emerge because engaging in various advocacy communication strategies might allow undocumented students to feel that they are making a positive change for their undocumented community.

In addition to considering advocacy communication's implications for mental health, advocacy communication might affect undocumented students' relationships with

others. On the one hand, students might form new relationships or closer relationships if they bond with people who are also engaging in advocacy communication or who highly value advocacy communication. On the other hand, students might experience interpersonal relational strain when they frequently engage in advocacy communication, particularly in situations where important others disagree with undocumented students' advocacy communication. Family and nonfamily members might feel like the student's advocacy communication can threaten the students' safety and their family's safety; they might disagree with the particular way in which the student is engaging in advocacy communication; or they might feel like the student's advocacy communication takes time away from their relationship.

Advocacy communication can have different implications for mental health and relational wellbeing such that advocacy communication can be beneficial in many ways but also taxing. Given the complex and nuanced relationships that advocacy communication has with mental health and relational wellbeing, I proposed the following research question (see Figure 2A for model examined):

RQ3: In what ways do advocacy communication profiles significantly differ in depressive symptoms, anxiety, burnout, strained relationships with important others, and hopefulness about undocumented immigrants' futures?

Methods

Data Collection

After receiving institutional review board (IRB) approval in Fall 2021, undocumented college students were recruited and surveyed between September 2021 and January 2022. They were asked to complete three online Qualtrics surveys one-month apart. To ensure a wide representation of undocumented students, various recruitment methods were employed. First, an email that described the study's goals was sent to the coordinators of undocumented student centers and DREAM centers in all University of California (UC) and California State University (CSU) systems, as well as community college campuses in California. I also emailed two- and four-year colleges across the United States, primarily focusing on states that have a significant number of undocumented immigrants (i.e.., Arizona, Texas, New Mexico, Michigan, Maryland, and New York; Passel & Cohn, 2018; Pew Research Center, 2019). The study's recruitment email asked directors and coordinators of these centers to tell undocumented students about our study via their internal listservs, newsletters, and organization Facebook or social media pages (see Appendix B for study's recruitment email). Because undocumented students are a hard-to-reach sample, I used social media as a recruitment method, and I sent social media messages to clubs and organizations that centered on supporting undocumented students. Finally, undergraduate and graduate students, as well as scholars who might know undocumented students were asked to share our flyer within their social networks.

To participate in our study, students had to meet the following eligibility criteria that was included in our flyer: undocumented students and DACA recipients who are 18 years or older and who were enrolled in a two- or four-year U.S. college or University at

the time of data collection. Interested students were instructed to email me, the project manager, to participate in the study (see Appendix C for recruitment flyer without QR code). To decrease the likelihood of obtaining fake data (e.g., bots), interested students who emailed me were asked to provide additional information to confirm eligibility. Particularly, students were instructed to answer the following questions: Do you identify as an undocumented immigrant or DACA recipient?; What year in college are you completing?; In which state is your college or university located?; What is your college/university email address? (see Appendix D for response email). Students who responded to these questions were eligible to participate in the study, and they were sent a confirmation email with the link to their first survey. At the end of the week, students who completed their survey were sent their payment for their participation via an Amazon e-gift card or Venmo. For the first wave, students were paid $10. For their second and third waves, students were paid $15 and $20, respectively. In total, students could be paid up to $45 for completing all three surveys.

To connect students' data across the waves, students were asked to create an ID code. The ID code guidelines were as follows: "*last four digits of the students' cell phone and first four letters of their last name."* Students who completed their first survey were added to a master excel sheet that included their ID code, email address, the date in which they completed their first survey, the date in which they were paid for their first survey, as well as an estimated date for their second and third surveys, one month apart, respectively. I sent students their second or third surveys a few days before the one-month mark of their first survey completion. Keeping students' survey information in this

master excel sheet allowed me to email each student their second and third surveys at the appropriate time. Only I and the primary investigator, my faculty advisor, had access to this excel sheet.

After students were emailed the next survey (either second or third), each week, I would check Qualtrics to see if the student had completed it. To do so, I compared the ID code provided in the current survey to see if it matched the ID code provided in the first survey. If the code did not match, the email address students provided within each survey was compared with the first email address provided. If neither the ID code or email address matched, I would email the student and request further information. This process ensured that students' surveys were correctly matched. Finally, to ensure that students who completed the surveys had previously emailed me and they did not obtain the survey from a friend or outside source, I would search for the email address provided in the Qualtrics surveys within the study's inbox (a university gmail was created for the study) to verify that the student had in-fact emailed me. Students who did not obtain the survey from me were not included in data analysis and were not paid for their survey. After verifying that each follow-up survey matched the students' first survey, I paid each participant. The same procedure was followed for the third and final survey.

Data Cleaning

To answer this dissertation's research questions, Qualtrics data were downloaded for the first and second waves of data on January 1, 2022. To ensure that high quality responses were utilized, rigorous data cleaning ensued. First, each entry was checked to ensure that an ID code was provided and followed this study's specified criteria. Data

entries that did not follow this study's guidelines (i.e., data entries that provided 9 numbers instead of following our guidelines) were removed; this procedure was performed because it reduced the likelihood of including non-participant bot responses. Second, the email provided within each data entry was verified in the designated inbox for the study to ensure that the survey was obtained by the eligible student from the project manager. Data entries with email addresses that were not found in the study's inbox were deleted. Third, the amount of time reported for each survey was examined. Because it was estimated the survey would take between 15-25 minutes, all surveys that took less than 10 minutes were removed. Finally, attention checks were evaluated (each survey included four attention checks); data entries were included for participants who passes all four attention checks.

Participants

Among the 336 students who complete survey one, 329 students' data were used for the analysis. Most students did not have DACA-status or were fully undocumented (54%), and 44% had DACA status. With regards to nativity, most students reported being from Mexico (75%), followed by El Salvador (5%), Honduras (4%), Guatemala (3%), South Korea (3%), other (8%), and one student from Argentina and China, respectively. With regards to gender identity, 78% identified as cisgender women, 19% identified as cisgender men, three students identified as gender nonconforming, one student identified as transgender, five students identified as nonbinary, and one student identified as other. Most students identified as heterosexual (48%), and 20% identified as non-heterosexual. The average age was 22.0 years (*SD* = 4.22, *MIN* = 18 years of age, *MAX* = 46 years of

age). Most students were undergraduate students (85%), and 13% were graduate students. We included graduate students because their educational level does not impede them from receiving family socialization messages (i.e., advocacy socialization, actions, and inclusionary messages). Most students attended a four-year university (84%).

Among the participating undocumented students, 22% were in their first year, 27% in their second year, 25% in their third-year, 20% in their fourth-year, 5% in their fifth-year, and three students were in their sixth-year. When looking at where students' college is located, most students reported that their college is located in California (65%), followed by Connecticut (8%), Delaware (6.5%), Texas (4%), New York (2.5%), Maryland, 1.9%), Virginia (1.9%), Illinois (1.2%), North Carolina (1.2%), and less than one percent for other U.S states. Further, because states have different policies that provide different resources for undocumented students (e.g., in-state tuition), a new variable was created to identify the inclusiveness or exclusiveness of the states. This new variable was created using Wallace et al.'s (2019) results that identified states based on their inclusive or exclusive immigrant policies. To do so, Wallace et al. (2019) identified state-level policies across the following domains: health and welfare benefits, higher education, labor and employment, drivers' licenses and IDs, and immigrant enforcement, which have an impact immigrants' health. States were coded as exclusive if the policies identified for the five domains had a restrictive outcome for immigrants' rights based on immigrants' legal status. If states' policies expanded eligibility for immigrants' rights regardless of their immigration status, they were coded as inclusive. Finally, Wallace et al. (2019) coded states as neutral if they did not include policies that explicitly excluded

immigrants based on their immigration status, or if states had intermediate levels of two distinct exclusive or inclusive policies. Only Oregon was coded as neutral by Wallace et al. (2019).

The following states were dummy coded as inclusive (1) states: California, Illinois, Washington, Colorado, Texas, District of Columbia, Minnesota, New Mexico, New York, and Oregon. Although Oregon was coded as neutral by Wallace et al. (2019), I coded it as inclusive because they now allow undocumented immigrants to obtain a driver's license (Oregon. Gov).

By contrast, Connecticut, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Oklahoma, Rhode Island, Arkansas, Hawaii, Utah, Nevada, Florida, Louisiana, Montana, Nebraska, New Jersey, Vermont, Wisconsin, Alaska, Maine, New Hampshire, North Dakota, South Caroline, South Dakota, Tennessee, Delaware, Georgia, Idaho, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Missouri, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, Virginia, Wyoming, Alabama, Arizona, Indiana, Mississippi, West Virginia, and Ohio were recoded as exclusive (0) states. Based on this variable, 74% of students reported living in a state with inclusive immigrant policies, and 25% live in a state with exclusive immigrant policies.

When looking at students' reported employment, 39% were employed (part time or full time), and 60% were unemployed. Most students had been living in the United States for more than 11 years (86%), and 12% of students reported living less than 11 years. Finally, when asked about students' parents' immigration status, most students reported that their primary parent is undocumented (91%), and five percent reported their parent is not undocumented. For their secondary parent, most students reported their

parent is undocumented (68%), and nine percent shared that their secondary parent is not undocumented.

Measures

Because this study is part of a larger longitudinal study, I used students' data from waves 1 and 2. The third wave was not included because a significant number of students had not yet completed their final survey by the time analyses began for this dissertation. Undocumented students completed measures to assess their engagement in different types of advocacy communication. For this dissertation, however, we focused on adornment, interpersonal, organizational, academic, political, and protest advocacy. In addition, we examined undocumented students' perceived family socialization messages, psychological factors, and demographic factors. For family socialization messages, this dissertation focused on family advocacy socialization, action, and inclusionary (i.e., empowerment, thriving, belonging, and coping through role models) messages. For psychological factors, the following were explored: descriptive and injunctive norms, perceived behavioral control, response efficacy, anticipated outcomes for personal and family safety, and undocumented identity. Finally, various demographic variables were included to examine their role in undocumented students' engagement in various advocacy communications strategies (i.e., Latinx vs. non-Latinx, undergraduate vs. graduate, employed vs. non-employed, living 11 years or more in the United States vs. living less than 10 years in the United States, Women vs. non-women, DACA vs. non-DACA, living in an exclusive vs. inclusive state). Nonetheless, although these variables were initially included in the models estimated, DACA status was the only significant

predictor. This is because the other demographic variables were heavily skewed (see Table 1A in Appendix for bivariate correlations).

Profile Indicators

Survey items were created to assess adornment, interpersonal, mediated, organizational, academic, political, and protest advocacy communication strategies. Nevertheless, for this chapter, only, adornment, interpersonal, organizational, academic, and political advocacy communication strategies were utilized (see Table 1B in Appendix for advocacy communication measures). Protest and mediated advocacy were excluded from the analysis because of unidentified matrix issues, which likely emerged due to heavy skewness among these items. Most items were based on Cornejo et al.'s (in press) advocacy communication measures. However, my dissertation advisor and I created new measures and modified others using prior literature on undocumented students' findings (e.g., Kam et al., 2021) to ensure consistency, as well as to bridge some of the gaps in Cornejo et al.'s (in press) study (e.g., creation of measures with more than one item).

The five types of advocacy communication strategies explored in this study were obtained from Wave 2, and undocumented students first read: "Please indicate how often you have engaged in the following actions". A 5-point Likert scale was used (i.e., *1 = never, 2 = once, 3 = a few times, 4 = many times, 5 = all the time*). *Adornment advocacy* was measured using two items (i.e., "Displayed stickers or posters in favor of undocumented immigration?"; "Worn a t-shirt, hat, buttons, etc. messages in favor of undocumented immigration?"; $n = 229$, $M_{scale} = 1.90$, $SD_{scale} = 1.13$, $\alpha = .84$, omega cannot be estimated for a two-item scale; see Table 1B for measures). It is important to

note that reporting alphas and omegas in unnecessary when utilizing mixture models (e.g., LPA). Nevertheless, they were reported because they are commonly utilized.

Interpersonal advocacy was measured using five items (e.g., "Confronted someone because you heard them use the word "illegal" or other derogatory terms for undocumented immigrants?"; "Informed others about the barriers that undocumented immigrants experience due to their status?"; $n = 227$, $M_{scale} = 2.16$, $SD_{scale} = 1.05$, α = .91, omega = .91; see Table 1B for measures).

Organizational advocacy was measured using four items (e.g., "Joined an on-campus organization on behalf of undocumented immigrant rights?"; "Helped put on events hosted by organization in support of undocumented communities?"; $n = 227$, $M_{scale} = 1.71$, $SD_{scale} = .97$, α = .87, omega = .88; see Table 1B for measures).

Academic advocacy was measured using one item (i.e., Expressed a view during a class discussion in favor of undocumented immigration?; $n = 228$, $M = 2.14$, $SD = 1.323$).

Finally, *political advocacy* was measured using three items (e.g., "Participated in a protest, march, or demonstration, or rally in favor of undocumented immigration?"; $n = 228$, $M_{scale} = 1.37$, $SD_{scale} = .721$, α = .84, omega = .83; see Table 1B for measures).

Family Socialization Predictors

To measure family advocacy socialization messages (see Table 1C for measures), undocumented students first read: "The following statements ask about advocating on

behalf of undocumented immigrants. Advocating for undocumented immigrants by, for example: participating in protests, marches, signing petitions; belonging to clubs or organization for undocumented immigrants; educating someone about undocumented immigration; confronting someone for something they said or posted about undocumented immigrants; posting comments on different social media platforms in favor of undocumented immigrants; displaying stickers or posters in support of undocumented immigrants. For each of the items below, please indicate how often you and at least one of your family members *(*e.g., parent, sibling, grandparent, aunt, uncle, cousin) have done the following". A 5-point Likert scale was used (i.e., *1 = never, 2 = once, 3 = a few times, 4 = many times, 5 = all the time*). *Family advocacy socialization messages* was measured using four items (e.g., "Talked about using different advocacy strategies to…" "…fight discrimination against undocumented immigrants"; "…create more services or resources for undocumented immigrants"). These measures were only used for Wave 1; $n = 291$, $M_{scale} = 2.40$, $SD_{scale} = 1.23$, α =. 91, omega = .92; see Table 1C for measures.

To measure *family advocacy actions,* undocumented students first read*: "*For each of the items below, please indicate how often at least one of your family members *(*e.g., parent, sibling, grandparent, aunt, uncle, cousin) have done the following." A 5-point Likert scale was used (i.e., *1 = never, 2 = once, 3 = a few times, 4 = many times, 5 = all the time*). Five items were used to measure family advocacy actions (e.g., "Educated others about undocumented immigrants' experiences?"; "Posted information or news in favor of undocumented immigrants on their social media?"; "Participated in a protest,

march, or demonstration, or rally in favor of undocumented immigration?"). These measures were only used for Wave 1; *n = 324, M_{scale} = 2.18, SD_{scale} = .97, α* = .85, omega = .84.

Four different types of family *inclusionary socialization messages* were examined at Wave 1 (i.e., empowerment, thriving, belonging, and coping through role models). Students first read: "For each of the items below, please indicate how often you and at least one of your family members *(e.g., parent, sibling, grandparent, aunt, uncle, cousin*) have done the following". A 5-point Likert scale was used (i.e., *1 = never, 2 = once, 3 = a few times, 4 = many times, 5 = all the time*). To measure *empowerment messages*, four items were used (e.g., "Talked about… "…not feeling ashamed of being undocumented?"; "…how discrimination against undocumented people should not be tolerated?"; *n = 324, M_{scale} = 3.27, SD_{scale} = 1.17, α* = .88, omega = .895; see Table 1C for measures).

Thriving messages were measured using four items (e.g., "Talked about how being undocumented… "…makes us resourceful?"; "…has helped us develop a better work ethic?; *n = 324, M_{scale} = 3.31, SD_{scale} = 1.20, α* = .90, omega = .90). *Belonging messages* were also measured using four items (e.g., Discussed how… "…undocumented immigrants are worthy of being in the United States?"; "…being undocumented does not make us different from documented people (i.e., U.S. citizens or permanent residents)?"; "…undocumented immigrants should be welcomed in the United States?"; *n = 324, M_{scale} = 3.80, SD_{scale} = 1.16, α* =.921 omega = .920). Finally, *coping through role models messages* were measured using two items (i.e., Talked about other undocumented

people… "…who are successful?" and "…who are doing well in life?"; *n = 324, M_{scale} = 3.07, SD_{scale} = 1.28, r(320) =* .897*, p < .001.*

Psychological Predictors

To examine psychological predictors (see Table 1D in Appendix for psychological measures), descriptive and injunctive norms, perceived behavioral control, response efficacy, anticipated outcomes for personal and family safety, and undocumented identification were measured at Wave 1. Students first read: "How much do you disagree or agree with the following?". A 5-point Likert scale was used (i.e., *1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree).*

Descriptive norms were measured using three items (e.g., "I have family members who advocate for undocumented immigrants"; "I have friends who advocate for undocumented immigrants"; *n = 324, M_{scale} = 3.58, SD_{scale} = .91, α* = .69, omega = .70). Similarly, *injunctive norms* were measured using three items (e.g., "I have family members who would approve of me advocating for undocumented immigrants"; "I have friends who would approve of me advocating for undocumented immigrants."*; n = 324, M_{scale} = 4.05, SD_{scale} = .75, α* = .75, omega = .75). *Perceived behavioral control* was measured using three items (e.g., "I am confident that I can advocate for undocumented immigrants"; "It would be easy for me to advocate for undocumented immigrants."*; n = 324, M_{scale} = 3.62, SD_{scale} = .97, α* =.87, omega = .87). *Response efficacy* was measured using four items (e.g., "Advocating for undocumented immigrants will…"; "…help reduce discrimination towards them"; "…help improve their access to services or resources"*; n = 324, M_{scale} = 4.26, SD_{scale} = .76, α* = .91, omega = .90).

Anticipated outcomes for personal safety was measured using four items (e.g., "I'm worried that advocating for undocumented immigrants might…" "…increase my risk of being detained or deported."; "…hurt my chances of obtaining legal status [e.g., U.S. permanent residency, U.S. Citizenship]."; "…harm some of my relationships with family, friends, or professors."; $n = 324$, $M_{scale} = 3.62$, $SD_{scale} = 1.162$, $\alpha = .72$, omega = .66). *Anticipated outcomes for family safety* was measured using two items (i.e., "I'm worried that advocating for undocumented immigrants might…" "…increase my family's risk of being detained or deported."; "…hurt my family's chances of obtaining legal status [e.g., U.S. permanent residency, U.S. Citizenship]"; $n = 321$, $M_{scale} = 3.58$, $SD_{scale} = 1.24$, $\alpha = .91$, omega cannot be estimated for scales with less than three items). Finally, *undocumented identity* was measured using four items (e.g., "Being undocumented makes me…" "…feel strong"; "…feel resourceful"; "…feel proud."; $n = 324$, $M_{scale} = 3.62$, $SD_{scale} = 1.00$, $\alpha = .861$, omega = .862).

Health and Wellbeing

To examine mean differences in health and wellbeing, depressive symptoms, anxiety, burnout, relationship strains, and hopefulness about undocumented immigrants' futures were measured in Wave 2 (see Table 1E for measures). A 5-point Likert scale was used (i.e., *1 = never, 2 = once, 3 = a few times, 4 = many times, 5 = all the time*) for depressive symptoms, anxiety, and burnout. For strained relationships and hopefulness about undocumented immigrants' future, another type of 5-point Likert scale was used (i.e., *1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree).*

Depressive symptoms were measured using eight items (e.g., "In the past 7 days, how often have you…" "…felt worthless?"; "…felt that you had nothing to look forward to?"; "…felt unhappy?"*; n = 229, M_{scale} = 2.90, SD_{scale} = 1.01, α* = .95, omega = .95). *Anxiety* was measured using seven items (e.g., "In the past 7 days, how often have you…" "…felt fearful?"; "…felt anxious?"; "…felt nervous?"; *n = 229, M_{scale} = 3.17, SD_{scale} = 1.09, α* = .95, omega = .95). For *burnout*, students first read: "When you think about advocating for undocumented immigrants, how often do you feel the following ways?" Burnout was measured using five items [e.g., "Tired"; "Disappointed with people"; "Physically sick"]; *n = 229, M_{scale} = 3.26, SD_{scale} = 1.07, α* = .89, omega = .89). For *relationship strain*, students first read: "Please think about your relationship with your family members when responding to the following questions." Three items were used to measure strained relationships (e.g., "I have experienced strained relationships with family, friends, or professors because of advocating for undocumented immigrants"; "I have experienced tension in my relationships with family, friends, or professors because of advocating for undocumented immigrants."; *n = 229, M_{scale} = 2.31, SD_{scale} = 1.06, α* =.90, omega = .90). Finally, *hopefulness for undocumented immigrants' futures* was measured using three items (e.g., "Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements…" "…you try to imagine a brighter future for undocumented immigrants"; "…you try to maintain hope that things will get better for undocumented immigrants."; *n = 229, M_{scale} = 4.13, SD_{scale} = .75, α* =.86, omega = .86).

Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) were utilized to assess the measures using *Mplus* 8.6 (Muthén and Muthén, 1998–2017). CFAs were performed with the hypothesized profile indicators, predictors, and distal variables. Although CFAs are not required with the items used for LPA, CFAs were estimated to examine support for the factors, not because support for a CFA is necessary prior to estimating latent profiles, but because ACT allows for using an SEM or an LPA framework. Both analyses are distinct and have different assumptions. Among other assumptions, CFAs examine the possible existence of a latent structure via a set of observed methods while assuming that data are normally distributed. By contrast, mixture models, including LPA, examines the possible existence of subgroups within a sample of data; therefore, LPA assumes that data are non-normally distributed.

CFAs were estimated using robust maximum likelihood (MLR). To evaluate how well each model fit, Hu and Bentler's (1999) criteria and McNeish and Wolf's (2020) dynamic fit index (DFI) were utilized. Traditionally, Hu and Bentler's (1999) criteria are used to evaluate model fit, where a well-fitting model should have a: (a) root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) $\leq .06$, but an RMSEA of $< .08$ can be considered acceptable (Browne & Cudeck, 1993); (b) comparative fit index (CFI $\geq .95$; however, a CFI value $\geq .90$ can also be acceptable (Beaudoin & Thorson, 2006; Hu & Bentler, 1999); and, (c) a standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) $< .08$. Although Hu and Bentler's (1999) criteria are vastly used, their criteria might not generalize to factor models that differ from those utilized in their simulation studies. Given this limitation, McNeish and Wolf's (2020) Dynamic Fit Index (DFI) were also utilized. Specifically,

McNeish and Wolf's (2020) DFI provides cutoff values (i.e., dynamic cutoffs), via a simulation, based on the specific estimated model's characteristics (i.e., sample size, factor loadings). Further, DFI cutoff values provide several misspecification levels where higher levels indicate greater misfit.

Although DFI cutoff values provide a better understanding of the level of misfit for each specified model and can provide a more reliable interpretation of model fit (McNeish & Wolf, 2020), this method is novel and has a limited number of factor structures that can be estimated (i.e., one-factor and multi-factor CFAs). As such, further research is needed before DFI can be utilized as a standalone method without the need to use Hu and Bentler's (1999) criteria. Thus, both methods were utilized to evaluate CFAs fit. To calculate DFI cutoff values for each model, the DFI Shiny application was utilized (Wolf & McNeish, 2020).

An omnibus CFA model was examined with all four types of advocacy communication strategies. For Wave 2, the CFA fit the data acceptably: $\chi^2[84] = 217.3$, $p < .001$; *RMSEA = .083, 90% (CI) = .070, 0.097; CFI = .91, SRMR = .06*. The DFI also indicated support for this model: Level 2 at *95%, RMSEA = .088, SRMR = .06, and CFI = .95.*

An omnibus CFA model was examined with advocacy socialization, advocacy action, and all the inclusionary socialization messages (i.e., empowerment, thriving, belonging, and coping through role models). For Wave 1, the CFA fit the data well: $\chi^2[215] = 414.763$, $p < .001$; *RMSEA = .054, 90% (CI)* = 0.046, .061*; CFI = .96, SRMR*

= *.06.* The DFI also indicated support for this model: Level 1 at 95%, *RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .04,* and *CFI = .96.*

Finally, an omnibus CFA model was examined with depressive symptoms, anxiety, burnout, strained relationships, and hopeful outlook for undocumented immigrants' future. For Wave 2, the CFA fit the data acceptably: $\chi^2[265] = 528.495$, $p < .001$; *RMSEA = .07, 90% (CI)* =.058, .074*; CFI = .93, SRMR = .05.* The DFI also indicated support for this model: Level 2 at 95%, *RMSEA = .08, SRMR = .09,* and *CFI = .93.*

Results

To answer the research questions, *Mplus 8.4* was used to conduct LPA with full information maximum likelihood (FIML) and random starts. Following the manual 3-step method (Nulund-Gibson et al., 2019), an unconditional model was first examined with one latent profile. Subsequent models were explored with progressively adding one latent profile (e.g., two-profile model; three-profile model…five-profile model). To evaluate model fit and select the best-fitting model, various fit-indices were used: the Bayesian information criterion (BIC); Adjusted Bayesian information criterion (ABIC); Voung-Lo-Mendell-Rubin (VLMR); and, the bootstrap likelihood ratio test (BLMR). For BIC and ABIC, smaller values indicate a better-fitting model. By contrast, a non-significant value of VLMR and BLMR on a given model indicates that the prior model is the better fitting model (Nylund et al., 2007). An overall fitting model was chosen by the combination of these fit-indices.

To estimate the unconditional model with all six strategies examined in this study, one through three-profile models were estimated. In the three-profile model, a non-identified model error message appeared. The error message was further examined via the exploration of the two-profile model, but this two-profile model did not meet the criteria in the post-hoc analysis. After carefully reviewing the individual profile indicators utilized for the LPA, it was revealed that the indicators for mediated and protest advocacy were heavily skewed. Because LPA uses the distribution of the profile indicators to identify patterns and estimate the profiles, it is likely that this skewness resulted in a non-identified matrix. As such, the unconditional model was estimated without the mediated and protest advocacy items.

One through five-profile models were estimated with interpersonal, adornment, organization, academic, and political advocacy (see Table 2A for fit statistics). The five-profile model did not converge, and the VLMR ceased to be significant in the second-profile model. Although this latter finding might indicate that the one-profile model is the better fitting model, scholarship indicates (Nylund-Gibson & Choi, 2018) that VLMR and BLMR (along with the other fit-indices) should be considered together when deciding the final chosen model.

After inspecting the BIC and BIC, these fit-indices were smaller for a four-profile model compared to a three-profile model. Given these fit-indices, the three-profile and four-profile models were chosen for further evaluation. Classification diagnostics were performed for the three and four-profile models, which allowed me to further evaluate the models and ensure that the best fitting model was chosen. A classification diagnostic

categorizes undocumented students into different profiles while assuming that all students have the same probability of belonging to each of the profiles further evaluated (i.e., three- and four-profile models). To determine the quality of classification for each of the profiles, posterior probabilities were used. In the three-profile model, the posterior probabilities for each profile is as follows: profile one = .978, profile two = .939, and profile three = .998. In the four-profile model, the profile probabilities for each profile is as follows: profile one = .989, profile two = .971, profile three = .978, and profile four = .997. Based on these probabilities, the four-profile model was chosen as the best fitting model and correctly assigns undocumented students to each profile with a 95% confidence interval. The entropy level of .962 also supports good overall class separation for the four-profile model.

RQ1: Latent Profile Descriptions

Figure 2A and Table 2B provide item means for each of the indicators in the identified four-profile model. In LPA, the labeling of profiles is usually based on the evaluation of the observed mean values for the indicators utilized, the overall response patterns of these indicators, and theory. A 5-point scale was used to assess the LPA indicators. The largest profile (n = 134; 59%) was labeled *infrequent advocators* because they seldomly reported engaging in the different types of interpersonal, adornment, political, academic, and organizational advocacy. The second largest profile (n = 46; 20%) was labeled *occasional interpersonal advocators.* Students in this profile reported moderately engaging in interpersonal advocacy (mainly 2.993-3.788 means on a 5-point scale), and moderately engaging in academic advocacy (2.74 mean on a 5-point scale),

but this group's means for adornment, political, and organizational advocacy were infrequent (1.113-2.313 means). The third profile (n = 34; 15%) was labeled *organizational advocators* because they occasionally to moderately occasionally engaged in organizational advocacy (2.445-3.886 means), while infrequently engaging in most other forms of advocacy. Nevertheless, organizational advocators also occasionally informed people about undocumented immigration policies and barriers (INTAD2 and INTAD3) and occasionally shared positive views of undocumented immigration in class (VISDI3). Finally, the smallest profile (n = 15; 7%) was labeled *frequent advocators* because they reported frequently engaging in all the advocacy communication strategies explored.

Overall, it seems that *occasional interpersonal advocators* and *organizational advocators* had similar means in all the different advocacy communication strategies explored. What distinguishes them from one another is that *organizational advocators* engaged in more frequent organizational advocacy strategies. In contrast, *infrequent advocators* reported the lowest means across the different profiles and *frequent advocators* had the highest means, respectively. Finally, it is important to note that overall, students engaged in infrequent to moderately frequent advocacy communication strategies. As such, the names we chose to describe the different profiles are in comparison to each other.

RQ2: Predictors of Latent Profiles

Following the identification of the four-profile model as the best-fitting model, it was examined with the inclusion of auxiliary variables, specifically, predictor and distal

variables. For the predictor variables, socialization messages (i.e., family advocacy socialization and actions, and family inclusionary socialization messages, such as empowerment, thriving, belonging, and coping through role models), psychological factors (i.e., descriptive and injunctive norms, perceived behavioral control, response efficacy, anticipated outcomes for personal and family safety, and undocumented identity were measured), and DACA status were included. DACA status was the only demographic control variable explored because there was a close to equal distribution of students who did (44%) and did not have DACA (54%). Other commonly used demographic variables were initially included in the model (i.e., Nativity, Latinx vs. non-Latinx, undergraduate vs. non-undergraduate, university type, employed at least part time vs. not employed, live with parents, first generation student, living in an exclusionary state vs. living an inclusionary state, woman vs. non-woman, heterosexual vs. non-heterosexual, living in the United States 11 years vs. living in the United States less than 11 years, and having DACA vs. non-DACA), but given the skewness of distribution within these variables the models were unidentified. As such, the binary variable of having or not having DACA was the only demographic variable included.

Given that the predictor and distal variables were included simultaneously, the manual three-step method was used because it is currently considered the best practice for these analysis (see Nylund-Gibson et al., 2019). With the manual three-step method, the latent profile was regressed on the predictor variables. This allows us to see direct associations between each of the predictors and the latent profiles. In addition to estimating what predicts undocumented students' profile membership, I estimated mean

differences in distal variables (e.g., depressive symptoms, anxiety, burnout) across the four profiles, with each distal variable regressed onto the predictors, as well.

When examining predictors of profile membership, the results indicated that as students received family advocacy socialization messages, observed their family engage in advocacy communication, and received thriving messages more often, the more likely they were to be *frequent advocators* as opposed to *infrequent advocators* ($p < .01$; see Table 2C). Furthermore, the more students perceived they had the ability to engage in advocacy communication (i.e., perceived behavioral control) and the more students perceived that advocating might have negative anticipated outcomes to their personal safety, the more likely to be *frequent advocators* than *infrequent advocators (*$p < .01$). Our results also indicated a marginally significant finding when comparing *infrequent* and *frequent advocators*. Specifically, those who have DACA were more likely to be *infrequent advocators* than *frequent advocators* ($p = .06$). Similarly, DACA students were more likely to be *infrequent advocators* than *organizational advocators (*$p < .02$).

When comparing *frequent advocators* and *occasional interpersonal advocators*, our results indicated that as students received family advocacy socialization messages more often ($p < .01$), saw their family members model advocacy communication more often ($p < .05$), received thriving messages more often ($p < .01$), and felt more confident engaging in advocacy communication (i.e., perceived behavioral control; $p < .01$), the more likely they were to be *frequent advocators.*

When comparing *frequent advocators* and *organizational advocators*, our results indicated that as undocumented students saw their family members model advocacy

communication more often ($p < .01$), received thriving messages more often ($p < .01$), felt confident engaging in advocacy communication (i.e., perceived behavioral control; $p < .05$), and perceived that advocating might have negative anticipated outcomes for their personal safety ($p < .01$), the more likely they were to be *frequent advocators.* However, our results also indicated that as students reported more descriptive norms (i.e., having family, friends, and professors advocate for undocumented immigrants), the more likely they were to be *organizational advocators* as opposed to *frequent advocators* ($p < .05$).

Finally, when comparing *occasional interpersonal advocators* and *organizational advocators,* we found that as students received family socialization messages of belonging more often, the more likely they were to be *occasional interpersonal advocators ($p < .05$).*

RQ3: Differences in Mental Health and Relational Wellbeing

To examine if mean differences exist between the different profiles, a series of pairwise tests were conducted. Pairwise tests revealed the profiles that significantly differed in depressive symptoms, anxiety, burnout, strained relationships with important others, and hopeful about undocumented immigrants' future. Prior to examining the pairwise tests, however, significance of the Wald test needed to be performed. If the Wald test was significant, then the pairwise tests could be conducted. Our results indicated that the overall omnibus Wald test was significant for the model χ^2 (15) = 32.314, $p < .01$; as such, the pairwise tests were subsequently examined.

Table 2D in Appendix shows the mean differences across the four profiles, and Figure 2C provides a visual display. *Frequent advocators* reported significantly greater

depressive symptoms compared to *organizational advocators*. *Frequent advocators* also reported significantly greater strained relationships with important others (i.e., family members, friends, and professors) than *infrequent advocators.* With regards to anxiety, *frequent advocators* reported significantly greater anxiety than all the other profiles.

Although there were significant differences across the profiles, there is also a clear pattern when inspecting the means in Table 2D and Figure 2C that go beyond significant differences. *Frequent advocators* reported the worst depressive symptoms, burnout, strained relationships, and anxiety among all the profiles. Nonetheless, *frequent advocators* had the highest means for being hopeful about undocumented immigrants' future.

Discussion

Within and outside the field of communication, extensive research and theorizing has been conducted about minoritized people's advocacy communication (Aldridge Sanford, 2020; Cornejo et al., in press; Muñoz, 2015; Terriquez et al., 2018). This chapter's findings extended prior research by: (1) examining the multifaced and nuanced nature of advocacy communication; (2) exploring how multiple family socialization messages and psychological factors predict different profiles of undocumented student advocators; (3) investigating how various advocacy communication strategies operate together in relation to undocumented students' mental health and relational wellbeing; and, (4) drawing from undocumented students' lived experiences, primarily Latinx origin.

Theoretical Contributions to Advocacy Communication Research

One of this chapter's main contributions is its multilevel and complex representation of advocacy communication that highlights the unique qualities of different forms of advocacy communication. Although past theorizing and research acknowledges multiple strategies for challenging systemic oppression (Muñoz, 2015; Negrón-Gonzales, 2015; Seif, 2011), most studies (e.g., Almanzar & Herring, 2004; Bruce, 2013; Hope et al., 2018; Saleem et al., 2021) often focus on a particular kind of advocacy strategy such as collective action, protesting, or using social media. Such work has been foundational for ACT. Nevertheless, ACT intentionally captures a wide variety of advocacy communication strategies to explicate why minoritized group members engage in certain strategies over others, while also acknowledging the varying degrees of perceived risk, visibility, costs, and benefits associated with different strategies. The benefit to using LPA is it allows us to capture the heterogeneity of undocumented students and their advocacy communication. Chapter 2 provides a more holistic view of minoritized group members' strategies to challenge systemic oppression.

Family Socialization Messages as Predictors

Another significant advancement that Chapter 2 makes is in extending Cornejo et al.'s (in press) work on advocacy communication. Cornejo et al. also used LPA to identify different undocumented student advocators; however, Chapter 2 draws on ACT to explain why undocumented students might engage in certain advocacy communication strategies over others. ACT and Chapter 2 emphasizes the importance of family socialization messages in predicting advocacy communication profile membership (Cornejo & Kam, 2020; Cornejo et al., 2021; Kam et al., 2021; Rendon Garcia, 2019).

Chapter 2's results supported one of the main assumptions of ACT. Family socialization messages predicted being *frequent advocators* as opposed to *infrequent advocators*. Thus, more frequent family advocacy socialization, family advocacy modeling, and messages of thriving meant undocumented students were more likely to be in a profile that engaged in frequent advocacy communication across all types. Notably, this finding sheds light on specific content that might be highlighted in undocumented socialization efforts. Immigrant families can discuss engaging in advocacy efforts to combat discrimination and create greater opportunities, services, and policy changes for undocumented immigrants. They can model advocacy communication by engaging in interpersonal, social media, organizational, and adornment advocacy. Immigrant families can also discuss thriving by emphasizing their resourcefulness, resilience, and strong work ethic. All of these family socialization messages predicted being frequent advocators compared to infrequent advocators.

We also found that family socialization messages of belonging are a distinguishing predictor of *occasional interpersonal advocators* when comparing it to *organizational advocators* ($p < .05$), such that as undocumented students received more belonging messages, they are more likely to be *occasional interpersonal advocators* than *organizational advocators*. This finding highlights that receiving family socialization messages does not only predict *frequent advocators*, but it also demonstrates that receiving certain socialization messages over others might mean that undocumented students are more likely to be in certain profiles over others. In our case, receiving more frequent messages of belonging meant that undocumented advocators students are more

likely to be in *occasional interpersonal advocators* than *organizational advocators.* It is possible that *occasional advocators* were frequently told by their family members that they are worthy of being in the United States, that being undocumented does not make them different than documented others, that undocumented people should be welcomed in the United States, and that undocumented people should be treated as documented others.

Psychological Predictors

With regards to psychological predictors, as students felt confident or perceived that it would be easy for them to engage in advocacy communication (i.e., perceived behavioral control), they were more likely to report being *frequent advocators* than *infrequent advocators*. This finding highlights the importance of creating support systems that teach advocators to feel confident in their strides to advocate for their ingroup, as well teaching them about the different advocacy strategies that they can utilize to make changes, if they want to advocate for their ingroup. Efforts can also be made to provide resources that make advocating easier. Of course, administrators, professors, staff, allies, and co-conspirators should also work toward breaking down systemic oppression, but the findings identify an important individual predictor of advocacy communication. This association falls in line with the Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1991, 2005), the Anger Activism Model (Turner, 2007), and other work that suggests perceived behavioral control or self-efficacy is a stronger predictor of behaviors.

One unexpected finding is that as students anticipated more negative outcomes to their personal safety (e.g., getting detained), the more likely they were to be *frequent*

advocators as opposed to *infrequent advocators*. On the one hand, ACT proposed that anticipated negative outcomes would deter students from engaging in advocacy communication, assuming that they would want to protect themselves. One possible explanation, however, for this chapter's unexpected finding is that students might have felt that it is even more essential to challenge systemic oppression because they anticipated negative consequences to engaging in advocacy. The perception that they can incur threats to their safety if they speak out against systemic oppression might reinforce the perceived importance of advocacy communication.

Another important finding worth noting is that as undocumented students perceived their family, friends, and professors advocated for undocumented immigrants (i.e., descriptive norms), the more likely student were to be *organizational advocators* compared to *frequent advocators.* It is possible that perceiving one's important others as advocators for one's ingroup propels undocumented advocators to participate in a specific type of advocacy strategy, *organizational advocacy*, which supports ACT's assumptions that advocacy communication is a complex process where certain predictors are related with engaging in certain advocacy strategies. Nevertheless, one limitation of this study is that we measured descriptive norms for general advocacy behaviors, but we did not know what specific advocacy behaviors undocumented students' important others engaged in. It is possible that undocumented students' important others engaged in organizational advocacy, which might explain these findings. Future research should explore the specific type of advocacy communication strategies that undocumented students' important others engaged in.

In addition to family socialization messages and psychological predictors, this chapter found that DACA recipients were significantly more likely to be *infrequent advocators* compared to *organizational advocators* and *frequent advocators* (the latter was marginally significant at $p = .06$). DACA recipients might have been less likely to engaging in advocacy communication because they feared losing their DACA status. Losing DACA does not only have dire implications for undocumented students, but it can limit the support that DACA students provide to their families (Benuto et al., 2018). Another possible explanation for this chapter's finding is that DACA students might not have been as motivated to challenge systemic oppression because they might not have perceived as much oppression as DACA-ineligible students. Indeed, DACA recipients in Benuto et al.'s (2018) qualitative study reported feelings of belonginess in larger U.S. society. Ultimately, this finding extends ACT by identifying how minoritized group members' social and contextual factors (e.g., DACA status) are related to their advocacy communication.

Mental Health and Relational Wellbeing

Engaging in various advocacy communication strategies likely has different implications for undocumented students' mental health and relational wellbeing (Cornejo et al., in press). These implications are not strictly negative. Instead, this chapter's findings revealed that advocacy communication has the potential to have negative and positive implications for undocumented students. When looking at patterns in the means, *frequent advocators* reported worse depressive symptoms, anxiety, burnout, and strained relationships with important others (e.g., professors, family) than the other profiles. This

finding is consistent with prior advocacy research (e.g., Cornejo et al., in press; Gal & Hanley, 2019; Hope et al., 2018) that indicates engaging in advocacy can take a toll on advocators. At the same time, *frequent advocators* also reported feeling more hopeful for undocumented immigrants' futures than other profiles. It is possible that frequently engaging in advocacy communication allows undocumented advocators to feel empowered and that their work will have some changes in immigrants' lives. The possibility of being agents of change might enable undocumented students to continue to engage in advocacy strategies, despite its relationship with depressive symptoms, anxiety, burnout, and strained relationships with important others. Alternatively, it is possible that *frequent advocators* reported more hope for undocumented immigrants' futures because their frequent engagement in advocacy communication functioned as a buffer; this is consistent with prior findings (Ramirez-Valles et al., 2005; Velez & Moradi, 2016). Ultimately, this chapter further supports suppositions set forth by ACT that allows for advocacy communication to have both positive and negative implications for health.

In addition, our findings indicate that *occasional interpersonal advocators* reported higher levels of depressive symptoms, anxiety, burnout, strained relationships, and hopefulness for undocumented immigrants' future than *infrequent* and *organizational advocators*, respectively, which is consistent with prior research (Gal & Hanley, 2019; Vaccaro & Mena, 2011). A possible explanation for this finding is that *organizational advocators* received ingroup support from their advocator peers, which may have buffered any adverse relationship between advocacy and undocumented students' health and wellbeing. With interpersonal advocacy, students have to correct or challenge

someone, which can be face threatening, hurt their relationship, or result in a negative response directed at the student. The undocumented student is the target. By contrast, students work together as organizational advocators, which can be less threatening to the one student. All of the students and the organization as an entity stand together to challenge oppression, and they are more powerful as a whole compared to one student engaging in interpersonal advocacy. Future research should examine how the support that advocators receive when involved in on- or -off-campus advocacy groups is related to undocumented students' health and relational wellbeing. Consistent with ACT, engaging in different types of advocacy communication strategies is distinctly related to undocumented students' wellbeing. As such, we propose that some advocacy communication strategies have positive implications to one's wellbeing whereas others have negative implications.

Although prior research has examined advocacy efforts among undocumented students, few studies have developed and assessed survey measures to capture various advocacy communication strategies grounded in undocumented students' lived experiences. Measures grounded in undocumented immigrants' experiences are crucial because of undocumented immigrants' liminal status. Indeed, having an undocumented status propels immigrants to be creative in the strategies they utilize to survive in the United States. As such, undocumented immigrants might not only engage in protest advocacy, but they might utilize their clothes (i.e., adornment advocacy), among other strategies, to advocate for changes to the treatment of their undocumented ingroup. Further, by grounding these measures in undocumented immigrants' experiences we

move past using advocacy measures that focus on traditional advocacy strategies. We are able to examine the complexity of engaging in advocacy efforts, as well as what predicts engaging in certain advocacy strategies over others and its implications to undocumented advocators' health and relational wellbeing. Moreover, by creating measures grounded in undocumented students' lived experiences, we are moving past the use of traditional measures that often exclude the voices of minoritized samples and highlighting the importance of undocumented group members' experiences in research.

Further, the different types of advocacy communications strategies utilized by undocumented students are likely found among other minoritized samples; future research should examine if different patterns of advocacy communication strategies are prevalent among other minoritized communities (e.g., LGBTQ+, Black communities). Indeed, our consideration of advocacy communication as a heterogenous process with different communication, psychological, and demographic predictors might also be applied more broadly to explain why other minoritized groups engage in different types of advocacy communication strategies. Vast research (e.g., Aldridge Sanford, 2020; Goldberg et al., 2019; Saleem et al., 2021) finds that Black, Latinx, LGBTQ+, Muslim, and women communities engage in many advocacy communication strategies that overlap with those utilized by undocumented students. Ultimately, this chapter's theorizing and results can inform future work on advocacy efforts. Future work that builds on ACT might identify advocacy communication strategies that were not explored in this study, as well as identifying other socialization messages, psychological factors,

and demographic variables that might predict engagement in advocacy communication strategies, which are likely associated with different health and wellbeing outcomes.

Limitations and Future Research

One of the main limitations of this study is its inability to claim that undocumented students engaged in all the advocacy communication strategies proposed by ACT. Our study was able to examine five of the eight types of advocacy communication strategies. Although this study explored seven types of advocacy communication strategies proposed by ACT (i.e., adornment, interpersonal, mediated, organizational, academic, political, and protest advocacy) the LPA model was identified with five types of advocacy communication strategies (i.e., adornment, interpersonal, organizational, academic, and political advocacy). It is possible that the undocumented students in this sample infrequently engage in mediated and protest advocacy; however, prior qualitative (e.g., Escudero, 2020; Lal & de la Fuente, 2012; Muñoz, 2015; Nicholls, 2013) research indicates that undocumented youth, many of whom are college students, do engage in these types of strategies. Given this possibility, our study cannot claim that undocumented students do not engage or infrequently engage in mediated and protest advocacy. Future research should examine undocumented students' engagement in different advocacy strategies, including mediated, protest, public speaking, and academic advocacy. Another limitation of this study is that it did not explore students' beliefs of the different advocacy communication strategies explored.

Further, our study is unable to claim causality; thus, we do not know if advocator profiles are related to differences in mental health and wellbeing or vise versa. In

addition, although we used two waves of data to examine the models, we did not control for past behavior. Moreover, our model was unable to test for mediation given that our distal variables were latent profiles, which is a current limitation of LPA. In this vein, although our findings indicated support for some predictors, future research should reexamine these predictors and include new ones using various methodological approaches. This is consistent with ACT, which proposes that LPA is one way to test ACT's propositions.

Another limitation is this study's focus on family socialization messages as core predictors of students' engagement in advocacy communication strategies—other sources (e.g., professors, peers) likely play an important role in socializing undocumented students to engage in different advocacy communication strategies. Indeed, research indicates that undocumented students often turn to professors, mentors, or peers for support relating their undocumented status (Kam et al., 2020). It is possible that during these conversations, professors, peers, or friends shared different types of socialization messages (e.g., advocacy socialization, belonging, thriving) with undocumented students. We explored different types of family socialization messages in this study because prior research indicates that family is core to undocumented college students' lives (Nicholls, 2013), even after they move to college. Nevertheless, exploring other sources of socialization are important because they might also predict undocumented students' engagement in different types of advocacy communication strategies.

In addition to sources, another limitation of this study is that we did not examine the role of protection-oriented socialization messages in students' engagement in

advocacy communication strategies. We did not examine protection-oriented messages for several reasons. First, we do not have enough power to estimate these socialization messages in addition to those examined. As such, future research should increase the sample size to examine different types of socialization messages. Further, these messages focus on ways in which to navigate an undocumented status that is centered on navigating a social system without others detecting one's status. As such, these messages might dissuade students from engaging in advocacy communication strategies to avoid others' detecting them as undocumented immigrants. Nonetheless, it is also possible that the opposite findings emerge; protection-oriented messages are positively associated with engaging in advocacy communication strategies via distinct mediating factors (e.g., anger), as proposed by ACT. As such, future research should examine the role of protection-oriented messages and undocumented students' engagement in advocacy communication.

Further, although family communication frequency is important, the way in which families conveyed their socialization messages likely influences message receptivity and undocumented students' engagement in different strategies (Guntzviller et al., 2017). As such, future work should explore undocumented students' perceptions of the quality of the different types of socialization messages they receive. Further, although our study examined family socialization messages, we did not specify the source of the family. Instead, our survey questions asked undocumented students to reflect on their immediate (i.e., "parent, sibling, grandparent, aunt, uncle, cousin") family members' socialization messages without specifying between family members. For example, the socialization

messages they receive from their parents might be different than those they receive from a sibling. As such, future research should examine family socialization messages based on the source, as well as the quality of the relationship.

Furthermore, undocumented students' engagement in advocacy communication strategies likely differ based on their nationality, race/ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, socioeconomic status, state in which they live, and time they spent in the United States (Enriquez, 2017). Although we considered many of these variables, the distribution did not permit us to examine any differences. This might have influenced students' advocacy profile membership, as well as the ways in which the different profiles differ in their physical, psychological, and relational wellbeing. As such, future research should recruit comparable subsamples of undocumented students, so that these demographic variables can be accounted.

Finally, undocumented students have different social identities that might interact with their undocumented identity and create unique experiences, which, in turn, might relate to engaging in different types of advocacy communication strategies. Given this possibility, future research should consider including undocumented students' who have different social identities and experiences.

Practical Contributions

Although this chapter has several limitations, the results make various meaningful contributions. First, the findings highlight the complexity and nuances of advocacy efforts. It moves past exploring and predicting traditional forms of advocacy efforts (e.g., protest, civil disobedience) and includes a host of advocacy communication strategies

that minoritized group members—including undocumented students—often utilize to challenge systemic oppression. This is a significant contribution because it centers and recognizes minoritized people's experiences in challenging the systems of power, which is one way in which allies can use their privilege to support minoritized group members (Kam et al., 2022). As such, future research should ground their studies in minoritized group members' lived experiences to create spaces where their voices are heard and highlighted.

Second, this study extends former theorizing on the relationship between advocacy communication and various types of wellbeing (i.e., physical, psychological, and relational) by showing the complexity of advocacy communication and its relationship to advocators' wellbeing. Our findings also extend prior work on the relationship between family socialization messages, psychological indicators, and demographic factors as predictors of advocacy communication. Specifically, frequently receiving family socialization messages is associated with engaging in certain and more frequent advocacy communication strategies. This highlights the specific types of socialization messages (e.g., family members telling undocumented students to fight the discrimination against undocumented immigrants, create more resources and services for undocumented immigrants, and change local, state, or federal policy on behalf of undocumented immigrants) that families should be highlighting to their children, so that their children contribute to challenging the systems of power that maintain their ingroup under oppression.

Lastly, although *frequent advocators* were more hopeful about the future of immigrants compared to other profiles, *frequent advocators* reported overall the worst mental health and relational wellbeing. Thus, efforts should be made to address the mental, physical, and possibly relational toll that engaging in frequent and varying advocacy communication strategies has among undocumented students. As such, family members, college campuses, allies and co-conspirators should support undocumented students who engage in different advocacy communication strategies. For example, college campuses can expand their psychological services to include therapists who are aware of undocumented advocators' experiences; this might buffer the relationship between advocacy communication and depressive symptoms, as well as anxiety experienced by undocumented advocators. Further, practitioners can create tools or interventions for families and allies to understand the arduous work conducted by undocumented student advocators. This increase undocumented student advocators' perception of the support given by important others, which might buffer any relationship strain they experience. This increased support might attenuate any of the negative implications that undocumented students' experience when engaging in different advocacy strategies, and it might increase the positive implications they experience.

CHAPTER THREE

USING ADVOCACY COMMUNICATION THEORY TO UNDERSTAND CHANGES IN UNDOCUMENTED COLLEGE STUDENTS' ADVOCACY COMMUNICATION PROFILE MEMBERSHIP

Although undocumented students, including undocumented immigrants, experience a myriad of stressors and structural barriers that hinder their psychological, physical, relational, social, and economic wellbeing (Enriquez, et al., 2020; Gonzales & Burciaga, 2018; Kam & Merolla, 2018; Kam et al., 2020a), they are often at the center of combating the structural barriers that create their stressors (Seif, 2004). Specifically, undocumented students have and continue to engage in various advocacy efforts (e.g., protests, marches, social media campaigns; Buff, 2018; Escudero, 2020; Zimmerman, 2016; Negrón-Gonzales, 2015; Unzueta Carrasco, & Seif, 2014) to challenge and change systemic structures that keep them, their family, and undocumented communities in a second-class position. Undocumented students' various advocacy efforts are noteworthy because there are various costs and risks associated with engaging in advocacy efforts (e.g., advocacy requires time, money, and it can put undocumented students at risk of detainment of deportation; Gause, 2022; Aldridge Sanford, 2020).

Despite this risk, Chapter 2 of this dissertation and other qualitative and quantitative scholarship (e.g., Cornejo et al., in press; Unzueta Carrasco, & Seif, 2014; Nicholls, 2013) find that undocumented students are heterogenous and that various subgroups of undocumented student advocators exist. These subgroups of undocumented student advocators, however, are not static. As such, this chapter uses Advocacy

Communication Theory (ACT; Chapter 1; Cornejo et al., in press) that proposes undocumented socialization and advocacy communication are dynamic processes that can change over time. For example, it is likely that undocumented students who infrequently engage in all forms of advocacy communication strategies later change their profile membership and frequently engage in different advocacy strategies explored. This might occur because students might be introduced to different advocacy opportunities (e.g., belonging to an organizational that supports undocumented immigrants) through times. Alternatively, it is also possible that undocumented students to who frequently engage in all the advocacy communication strategies explored cease to engage in these strategies from one month to the next. This might occur because one cannot maintain frequently engaging in types of advocacy strategies all the time. Further, one's environment is constantly changing; these changes might prompt or hinder undocumented students' engagement in advocacy communication strategies. Undocumented students might be motivated to engage in academic advocacy if a classmate says something offensive about undocumented immigrants (e.g., says that undocumented immigrants are criminals); however, it is likely that this scenario infrequently occurs, which changes undocumented students' use of certain advocacy strategies over others. In addition to local environments, changes in the federal environment might also influence undocumented students' engagement in advocacy communication strategies. For example, challenges to DACA might propel certain undocumented students to engage in distinct advocacy strategies. These are merely

examples of changes in undocumented students' engagement in advocacy strategies from one month to the next; other changes in students' advocacy patterns likely exist.

To examine undocumented student changes in their advocacy communication patterns, Chapter 3 uses Latent Transition Analysis and two waves of survey data from 329 undocumented college students to examine the extent to which students change from their response patterns of engaging in different types of advocacy communication strategies through time. Further, this study examines how advocator profiles differ in health and wellbeing across two time points. This study's findings are important because they emphasize the non-static quality of advocacy communication, as well as test another aspect of ACT.

Undocumented Students' Advocacy Communication Profiles Informed by ACT

Advocacy Communication Theory (ACT; Cornejo et al., in press; Chapter 1) proposes that minoritized group members can engage in various advocacy communication strategies to challenge systemic oppression. To test ACT, Chapter 2 employed Latent Profile Analysis (LPA) to examine subgroups of undocumented student advocators based on their patterns of adornment, interpersonal, mediated, organizational, academic, protest, and political advocacy. Consistent with ACT and prior research on undocumented students' advocacy (Cornejo et al., press), the largest profile (59%), *infrequent advocators*, infrequently engaged in the different advocacy communication strategies explored (i.e., adornment, interpersonal, organizational, academic, and political). The next largest group, *occasional interpersonal advocators* (20%), reported

moderately using interpersonal and academic advocacy strategies, but infrequently engaged in adornment, organizational, and political advocacy strategies. The third profile, *organizational advocators* (15%), reported moderately engaging in interpersonal and adornment advocacy—similar to *occasional interpersonal advocators*. Nevertheless, unlike *occasional interpersonal advocators*, *organizational advocators* reported moderately engaging in organizational advocacy but infrequently engaged in political advocacy strategies. Finally, *frequent advocators* (7%), reported frequently engaging in all five advocacy communication strategies explored. Thus, Chapter 3 explores undocumented students' profile memberships to determine whether they are consistent across time, and Chapter 3 considers the movement in profile membership over time.

Changes in Undocumented Students' Advocacy Communication Profile Membership

Although Chapter 2 supports ACT and its notion that advocacy communication strategies can include traditional and nontraditional forms of advocacy communication strategies, undocumented students might change profile membership from one month to the next. This might occur for various reasons. Primarily, it is likely that undocumented students' response patterns of engaging in different types of advocacy strategies changes through time. For example, undocumented students might become more confident in their advocacy and might want to engage in advocacy strategies that they had infrequently utilized in the past. Further, undocumented students might experience changes in their environment that can motivate them to engage in certain advocacy communication strategies over others. One instance that this might occur is among undocumented

students who were not part of a club, association, or organization to advocate for undocumented immigrants at the beginning of the academic school year but later decided to later join an organization focused on advocating on behalf of undocumented immigrants. Further, past theorizing indicates that engaging in advocacy communication can be prompted by one's need to release one's emotions (Kim et al., 2018), perceptions of inequities (Morris & Herring,1984), threats to one's identity or ingroup (Nichols & Valdéz, 2020). For example, among undocumented youth, their engagement in advocacy communication might be prompted by changes in policy (e.g., threats to DACA, creation or proposal of anti-immigrant policy) or media coverage about their ingroup (e.g., treatment of undocumented immigrants by governmental agencies). In short, advocacy communication is likely to change over time; however, we know little about how exactly advocacy communication changes and at what rate. Thus, the following research question was proposed to explore potential changes in advocacy communication patterns over time (see Figure 3A in Appendix):

RQ1: How do undocumented college students change profile membership from one month to the next?

Changes in Advocacy Communication: Implications for Mental Health and Relational Wellbeing

As Chapter 2 and prior research (Cornejo et al., in press; Muñoz, 2015) on undocumented students' advocacy communication indicates, engaging in advocacy communication has various implications for their health and wellbeing. Chapter 2's findings indicate that engaging in advocacy communication is complex and has positive

and negative implications for undocumented students' mental health and relational wellbeing. Indeed, *frequent advocators* reported significantly greater anxiety levels than all other profiles. *Frequent advocators* also reported greater depressive symptoms than *organizational advocators*, and *frequent advocators* reported experiencing greater strained relationships with family members, friends, and professors than *infrequent advocators*. Although Chapter 2's findings revealed that *frequent advocators* reported significantly worse mental health and relational wellbeing than other profiles, they reported the highest means for being hopeful about undocumented immigrants' future. This difference was not statistically significant; nevertheless, this pattern is noteworthy because frequent advocacy communication might be related to a hopeful outlook on immigration.

Because advocator profiles differed in mental health and relational wellbeing, it is also possible that students who change advocator profiles experience changes in their mental health and relational wellbeing. In addition, although the profile types might remain the same, the students who comprise those profiles might change over time. Thus, it is important to examine whether the profiles differ in mental health and relational wellbeing at Wave 1 and a month later at Wave 2. Examining profiles' mean differences in mental health and wellbeing at two time points can shed light on the profiles' consistency or inconsistency in health and wellbeing over time. As such, I pose the following research question.

RQ2: How do advocacy communication profiles differ in mental health and relational wellbeing at Wave 1 and at Wave 2?

Methods

Data Collection

After obtaining institutional review board approval (IRB) in Fall 2021, I recruited and surveyed undocumented college students between September 2021 and January 2022. They were asked to complete three online Qualtrics surveys one-month apart. Various recruitment methods were employed to ensure a heterogenous representation of undocumented college students. First, coordinators of undocumented student centers and DREAM centers in all University of California (UC), California State University (CSU), and community college campuses were sent an email that described the study's goals. Further, two-and four-year colleges across the United States who had significant number of undocumented immigrants (i.e.., Arizona, Texas, New Mexico, Michigan, Maryland, and New York; Passel & Cohn, 2018; Pew Research Center, 2019). were sent a recruitment email. This email asked directs and coordinators of these centers to share our flyer with undocumented students via their internal listservs, newsletters, and organization social media pages (e.g., Facebook; (see Appendix B for study's recruitment email). Further, I sent social media messages to clubs and organization that support undocumented students. Finally, scholars, undergraduate students, and graduate students who might know undocumented students were asked to share our flyer within their social networks.

To participate in this study, students had to meet the following eligibility criteria, which was included in the recruitment flyer: (1) self-identify as undocumented students or DACA recipients; (2) be 18 years or older; and (3) be enrolled in a two- or four-year

U.S. college or University at the time of data collection. Interested students were asked to email me, the project manager, to participate in the study (see Appendix C for recruitment flyer without QR code). Confirmed eligible students were sent a confirmation email with the link to their first Qualtrics survey. Students who completed their first survey were sent their payment for their participation at the end of the week; students could choose to receive and Amazon e-gift card or Venmo payment. Students received the following amount for each survey: $10 for the first survey, $15 for the second survey, and $20 for the final survey. In total, students could be paid up to $45 for completing all three surveys.

To link students' data across the waves, students were asked to create an ID code with the following guidelines: "*last four digits of the students' cell phone and first four letters of their last name."* Students were sent their second or third surveys a few days before the one-month mark of their first survey completion. Afterwards, I paid each participant for their second or third surveys once I verified that each survey was matched with the ID code provided in students' first surveys. The same procedure was followed for the final survey.

Data Cleaning

To answer this dissertation's research questions, I downloaded Qualtrics data for the first and second waves on January 1, 2022. Rigorous data cleaning ensued to ensure high quality data was used. Indeed, each entry was checked to ensure that an ID code was provided and followed the study's criteria (i.e., data entries that provided 9 numbers instead of following our guidelines). Any data entry that did not follow the study's

guidelines were removed; this procedure reduced the likelihood of included bot responses. Further, the email provided within each data entry was verified in the study's gmail inbox. This ensured that the survey was obtained by the eligible student from me; data entries with email addresses that were not found within the study's gmail were deleted and not included in data analysis. In addition, the recorded time for each survey was examined. It was estimated that each survey would take from 15 to 25 minutes; as such, all surveys that took less than 10 minutes were removed. Finally, attention checks were evaluated—each survey included four attention checks. Students' data entries were included in data analysis if they passed all four attention checks.

Participants

Of the 336 students who completed the first survey, 329 students' data were used for data analysis. The majority of students (54%) did not have DACA-status and were fully undocumented; however, 44% had DACA status. With regard to students' nativity, most were from Mexico 75%), followed by El Salvador (5%), Honduras (4%), Guatemala (3%), South Korea (3%), other (8%), and one student from Argentina and China, respectively. When looking at students' reported gender identity, 78% identified as cisgender women, 19% identified as cisgender men, three students identified as gender nonconforming, one student identified as transgender, five students identified as nonbinary, and one student identified as other. Further, a large percentage of students identified as heterosexual (48%) but 20% identified as non-heterosexual. Students' average age was 22.0 years (SD = 4.22, MIN = 18 years of age, MAX = 46 years of age). In addition, the majority of students were undergraduates (85%), and 13% were graduate

students. Graduate students were included in the analysis because their educational level does not prevent them from receiving family socialization messages (i.e., advocacy socialization, actions, and inclusionary messages). Further, the majority of students attended a four-year university (84%).

With regards to their educational level (i.e., year in college), 22% of undocumented students were in their first year, 27% in their second year, 25% in their third-year, 20% in their fourth-year, 5% in their fifth-year, and three students were in their sixth-year. With regards to students' college location, students reported the following: most students reported that their college is located in California (65%), followed by Connecticut (8%), Delaware (6.5%), Texas (4%), New York (2.5%), Maryland, 1.9%), Virginia (1.9%), Illinois (1.2%), North Carolina (1.2%), and less than one percent for other U.S states.

When examining students' reported employment, 39% were employed (part time or full time), and 60% were unemployed. Most students had been living in the United States for more than 11 years (86%), and 12% of students reported living less than 11 years. Finally, when examining students reported parental immigration status, most students reported that their primary parent is undocumented (91%), and five percent reported their parent is not undocumented. For their secondary parent, most students reported their parent is undocumented (68%), and nine percent shared that their secondary parent is not undocumented.

Measures

Chapter 3's data are part of a larger longitudinal study, and the chapter's analyses are based on data from students' first and second surveys. The final survey was not included because a significant number of students had not yet completed that survey when the analysis for this study began. Undocumented students completed measures to assess their engagement in different types of advocacy communication at Waves 1 and 2. Specifically, however, this study focused on adornment, interpersonal, mediated, organizational, academic, political, and protest advocacy. In addition, various student Wave 1 demographic variables were included to examine their role in undocumented students' engagement in various advocacy communications strategies (i.e., Latinx vs. non-Latinx, undergraduate vs. graduate, employed vs. non-employed, living 11 years or more in the United States vs. living less than 10 years in the United States, Women vs. non-women, DACA vs. non-DACA, living in an exclusive vs. inclusive state (see Table 1A in Appendix for bivariate correlations). Finally, mental health and relational wellbeing indicators were included to profile differences in depressive symptoms, anxiety, burnout, strained relationships, and hopefulness for undocumented immigrants' future at Waves 1 and 2.

Profile Indicators

Survey items were created to assess adornment, interpersonal, mediated, organizational, academic, political, and protest advocacy communication strategies; the same items were included in students' first and second surveys. For this study, however, only adornment, interpersonal, organizational, academic, and political advocacy communication strategies were utilized (see Table 1B). The majority of these items were

based on Cornejo et al.'s (in press) advocacy communication measures. Nonetheless, the first author and her dissertation advisor created new measures and modified others using prior literature on undocumented students' findings (e.g., Kam et al., 2021). This ensured item consistency, as well as to bridge some of the gaps in Cornejo et al.'s (in press) study (e.g., creation of measures with more than one item).

For the four types of advocacy communication strategies examined in this study, undocumented students first read: "Please indicate how often you have engaged in the following actions". A 5-point Likert scale was used (i.e., *1 = never, 2 = once, 3 = a few times, 4 = many times, 5 = all the time*). *Adornment advocacy* was measured using two items (i.e., "Displayed stickers or posters in favor of undocumented immigration?"; "Worn a t-shirt, hat, buttons, etc. messages in favor of undocumented immigration?"; Wave 1, $n = 324$, $M_{scale} = 3.06$, $SD_{scale} = 1.38$, α = .80, omega = .82, and Wave 2, $n = 229$, $M_{scale} = 1.90$, $SD_{scale} = 1.13$, α = .84, omega = .81). It is important to note that reporting alphas and omegas in unnecessary when utilizing mixture models (e.g., LPA). Nevertheless, they were reported because they are commonly utilized.

Interpersonal advocacy was measured using 5 items (e.g., "Confronted someone because you heard them use the word "illegal" or other derogatory terms for undocumented immigrants?"; "Informed others about the barriers that undocumented immigrants experience due to their status?"; Wave 1, $n = 324$, $M_{scale} = 3.23$, $SD_{scale} = 1.08$, α = .89, omega = .89; Wave 2, $n = 227$, $M_{scale} = 2.16$ $SD_{scale} = 1.05$, α = .91, omega = .91; see Table 1B).

Organizational advocacy was measured using four items (e.g., "Joined an on-campus organization on behalf of undocumented immigrant rights?"; "Helped put on events hosted by organization in support of undocumented communities?"; Wave 1, $n = 324$, $M_{scale} = 2.47$, $SD_{scale} = 1.22$, $\alpha = .89$, omega = .89; Wave 2, $n = 227$, $M_{scale} = 1.71$, $SD_{scale} = .97$, $\alpha = .87$, omega = .88; see Table 1B).

Academic advocacy was measured using one item (i.e., Expressed a view during a class discussion in favor of undocumented immigration?; Wave 1, *n = 324, M = 2.43, SD = 1.28;* Wave 2, *n = 228, M = 2.14, SD = 1.323)*

Finally, political advocacy was measured using three items (e.g., "Participated in a protest, march, or demonstration, or rally in favor of undocumented immigration?"; Wave 1, $n = 324$, $M_{scale} = 1.98$, $SD_{scale} = .90$, $\alpha = .70$, omega = .72; Wave 2, $n = 228$, $M_{scale} = 1.37$, $SD_{scale} = .721$, $\alpha = .84$, omega = .83).

Mental Health and Relational Wellbeing

To examine how changes in undocumented students' advocacy profiles influenced their psychological and relational wellbeing, four distal variables were explored: depressive symptoms, anxiety, burnout, relationship strains, and hopefulness about undocumented immigrants' futures (see Table 1E).

A 5-point Likert scale, never to all the time, was used (i.e., *1 = never, 2 = once, 3 = a few times, 4 = many times, 5 = all the time*) for depressive symptoms, anxiety, and burnout. However, a 5-point, strongly disagree to strongly agree, Likert scale was used (i.e., *1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree)* for

strained relationships and hopefulness about undocumented immigrants' future. All measures are from Wave 2.

Eight items were used to examine *depressive symptoms* (e.g., In the past 7 days, how often have you… "Felt worthless?"; "Felt that you had nothing to look forward to?"; "Felt unhappy?"; $n = 229$, $M_{scale} = 2.90$, $SD_{scale} = 1.01$, α = .95, omega = .95). *Anxiety* was measured using seven items (e.g., In the past 7 days, how often have you… "Felt fearful?"; "Felt anxious?"; "Felt nervous?"; $n = 229$, $M_{scale} = 3.17$, $SD_{scale} = 1.09$, α = .95, omega = .95). Five items were used to measure students' *burnout*, and they first read: When you think about advocating for undocumented immigrants, how often do you feel the following ways?. (e.g., "Tired"; "Disappointed with people"; "Physically sick"; $n = 229$, $M_{scale} = 3.26$, $SD_{scale} = 1.07$, α = .89, omega = .89). For *relationship strain*, students first read: Please think about your relationship with your family members when responding to the following questions. Three items were used to measure relationship strain (e.g., "I have experienced strained relationships with family, friends, or professors because of advocating for undocumented immigrants"; "I have experienced tension in my relationships with family, friends, or professors because of advocating for undocumented immigrants."; $n = 229$, $M_{scale} = 2.31$, $SD_{scale} = 1.06$, α =.90, omega = .90). *Hopefulness for undocumented immigrants' futures* was measured using three items (e.g., *Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements….* "You try to imagine a brighter future for undocumented immigrants"; "You try to maintain hope that things will get better for undocumented immigrants; $n = 229$, $M_{scale} = 4.13$, $SD_{scale} = .75$, α =.86, omega = .86).

Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Using *Mplus* 8.6 (Muthén and Muthén, 1998–2017), Confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) were utilized to assess all measures. CFAs are not required on the items used for LPA and are not necessary prior to estimating latent profiles, but CFAs were used to examine support for the factors. It is important to note that CFA and mixture models are distinct and have different assumptions. For example, CFAs examine the possible existence of a latent structure via a set of observed methods while assuming that data are normally distributed. In contrast, mixture models (e.g., LPA), examine the possible existence of subgroups within a sample of data and, as such, assumes that data is non-normally distributed.

Using robust maximum likelihood (MLR), CFAs were estimated. Evaluation of model fit was established using Hu and Bentler's (1999) criteria and McNeish and Wolf's (2020) dynamic fit index (DFI). Hu and Bentler's (1999) criteria are traditionally used to evaluate model fit, such that a well-fitting model should have: (a) a root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) ≤ .06, but an RMSEA of < .08 might be considered acceptable (Browne & Cudeck, 1993); (b) a comparative fit index (CFI ≥ .95; however, a CFI value ≥ .90 can also be acceptable (Beaudoin & Thorson, 2006; Hu & Bentler, 1999); and, (c) a standardized root mean square residual (SRMR) < .08. Hu and Bentler's (1999) criteria are vastly used, but their criteria might not generalize to factor models that differ from those utilized in their simulation studies. As such, McNeish and Wolf's (2020) DFI were also utilized. McNeish and Wolf's (2020) DFI provides cutoff values (i.e., dynamic cutoffs), via a simulation, based on one's estimated model's characteristics

(i.e., sample size, factor loadings); the DFI cutoff values also provide several misspecification levels where higher levels indicate greater misfit.

Although DFI cutoff values provide a better understanding of the level of misfit for each specified model and can provide a more reliable interpretation of model fit (McNeish & Wolf, 2020), this method is novel and has a limited number of factor structures that can be estimated (i.e., one-factor and multi-factor CFAs). Because of this limitation further research is needed before DFI can be utilized as a standalone method without the need to use Hu and Bentler's (1999) criteria. Given these limitations, both Hu and Bentler's (1999) and McNeish and Wolf's (2020) criteria were utilized to evaluate CFAs fit. DFI cutoff values for each model were calculated using the DFI Shiny application (Wolf & McNeish, 2020).

For all the four types of advocacy communication, an omnibus CFA model was examined. For Wave 1, the CFA did not meet the fit criteria specified by Hu and Bentler (1999)*: $\chi^2[84] = 318.048$, $p < .001$; RMSEA = .093, 90% (CI) = 0.082, .104; CFI = .90, SRMR = .07.* However, the DFI supported the model for Wave 1: Level 1 at 95%, *RMSEA = .104, SRMR = .07, and CFI = .93.* For Wave 2, the CFA fit the data: *$\chi^2[84]$ = 217.3, $p < .001$; RMSEA = .083, 90% (CI) = .070, 0.097; CFI = .91, SRMR = .06*. The DFI also indicated support for this model: Level 2 at *95%, RMSEA = .088, SRMR = .06, and CFI = .95.*

Similarly, an omnibus CFA model was examined with all the distal outcomes examined (i.e., depressive symptoms, anxiety, burnout, strained relationships, and hopeful outlook for undocumented immigrants' future). The CFA fit the data: *$\chi^2[265]$ =*

528.495, p < .001; RMSEA = .07, 90% (CI) =.058, .074*; CFI = .93, SRMR = .05.* The DFI also indicated support for this model: Level 2 at 95%, *RMSEA = .08, SRMR = .09,* and *CFI = .93.*

Results

Data Analysis

Latent profile analysis (LPA) and latent transition analysis (LTA) were employed in Mplus 8.4 (Muthén and Muthén, 1998–2017) using longitudinal data ($N_{\text{Wave 1}}$, = 324; $N_{\text{Wave 2}}$, = 229) with full information maximum likelihood estimation (FIML) and random starts. LPA is used to examine the heterogeneity of the sample and identify homogenous subgroups (i.e., profiles, which include undocumented students who have a similar pattern of responses across the indicators used). LTA is used to examine profile (subgroup) membership changes across two or more time points (Nylund, 2007; Nylund-Gibson et al., 2014).

Data analysis for this study occurred in two steps. First, an LPA for each timepoint was separately estimated for each of the two-time points. To do so, I followed the manual 3-step method (see Nylund-Gibson et al., 2019) and first estimated an unconditional model for Wave 2 and Wave 1 with one latent profile. After estimating this model, subsequent models were examined by progressively adding one latent profile (e.g., two profile model…four profile model…five profile model). Various model fit indices were used to select the best-fitting model, and various fit indices were considered to choose the best fitting model. Specifically, the Bayesian information criterion (BIC); Adjusted Bayesian information criterion (ABIC); Voung-Lo-Mendell-Rubin (VLMR);

and the bootstrap likelihood ratio test (BLMR) were utilized (Nylund et al., 2007). Smaller values for BIC and ABIC indicate a better-filling model. Distinctly, non-significant values for VLMR and BLMR on certain models indicate that the prior model is the better fitting model (Nylund et al., 2007).

LPA for Wave 1

One- through five-profile models were estimated for Wave 1 (see Table 3B). The five-profile model did not converge, and the VLMR revealed non-significance in the third-profile model. Although a non-significant VLMR might indicate that the two-profile model might be the better fitting model, prior research (see Nylund-Gibson & Choi, 2018) indicates that multiple fit indices should be considered together. Further, the BLMR was significant in the three-profile solution, as such, further profiles were estimated. When inspecting the three and four-profile solutions, we see that the BIC and ABIC fit-indices are smaller for the four-profile solution than for the three-profile solution. As such, the three- and four-profile models were further inspected, the classification diagnostics were performed for the three- and four-profile solutions.

For the three-profile model, the posterior probabilities are as follows: profile one = .933, profile two = .928, and profile three = .968. For the four-profile model, the posterior probabilities are: profile one = .951, profile two = .911, profile three = .962, and profile four = .976. By inspecting these posterior probabilities, the four-profile model was chosen as the best fitting model that correctly assigns students to each profile with a 95% confidence level. Finally, an entropy level of .903, compared to a .876 entropy level for the three-profile solution, indicates further support for this chosen model.

LPA for Wave 2

After estimating the unconditional LPA model for Wave 1, one- through five-profile models were estimated to estimate Wave 2's unconditional model. Table 2A shows the fit information for these models. The five-profile model did not converge, and the VLMR stopped being significant in the second-profile model. Although the non-significant VLMR might indicate that the one-profile model might be the better-fitting model, prior research indicates (Nulund-Gibson & Choi, 2018) that multiple fit indices should be considered together when deciding on the final model. In addition, the BLMR did not stop being significant at the second-profile membership, so further profiles were estimated. In spectating the BIC and ABIC fit indices, we see that they are smaller for the four-profile model than for the three-profile model. Because of this, the three and four profile models were further inspected.

To do so, classification diagnostics were performed for the three and four-profile models, respectively. The classification diagnostics (i.e., classification of undocumented students into different profiles while assuming that all students have the same probability of belonging to the respective profile) enables researchers to evaluate the models further and ensure that the best fitting model is chosen. The posterior probabilities were used to determine the classification quality for profile three and profile 4. For the three-profile model, the posterior probabilities were as follows: profile one = .978, profile two = .939, and profile three = .998. In the four-profile model, the profile probabilities for each profile were as follows: profile one = .989, profile two = .971, profile three = .978, and profile four = .997. By looking at these posterior probabilities, the four-profile model was

chosen as the best fitting model, which correctly assigns students to each of the profiles with a 95% confidence interval. An entropy level of .962 indicates overall good class separation for the four-profile model, which further supports choosing this model.

RQ1: Changes in Advocacy Communication Profile Membership Over Time

Chapter 2 describes the response patterns for the four advocator groups, as well as the names that describe these patterns. Our first research question expanded on Chapter 2 and examined how undocumented Latinx college students moved from one profile to another over time. As such, the names of this study's advocator profiles were the same as those in Chapter 2. For this study, however, Latent transition analysis (LTA) was conducted with Wave 1 and Wave 2 profiles using the three-step method. Nevertheless, this procedure discovered a non-identified matrix for the estimated model. An unidentified model can occur for several reasons: the sample size, the number of indicators estimated in the model, and class sizes. To attempt to address the unidentified matrix error, the error messages were inspected. These error messages listed several parameters that might be creating an unidentified matrix. One of the parameters was the first item for interpersonal advocacy. This item was removed to examine if removing this parameter solved the non-identified matrix. The model was re-estimated after removing this item; however, this did not solve the non-identified matrix issue. Nevertheless, removing this item reduced the number of parameters listed with errors. As such, individual indicators were subsequently removed to attempt to resolve the non-identified matrix. Yet, following this procedure did not resolve the non-identified matrix.

Because the non-identified matrix was not solved by removing items using the three-step procedure, the classify-analyze procedure was utilized. Classify-analyze estimates changes in latent profiles by treating the latent profiles as categories. Although this procedure does not account for multivariate invariance nor estimates error within the parameters, this procedure might be adequate when one has high entropy and high-class separation (Nylund-Gibson et al., 2019). Both waves of data had high entropy and class separation (Wave 1 entropy = .903; Wave 2 entropy = .962). For classify-analyze, the class probabilities (CPROS) for each of the profiles in Wave 1 and Wave 2 were estimated and saved using the "SAVEDATA" command in Mplus. Afterward, the CPROBS for Wave 1 and Wave 2 were merged in SPSS, and multinomial regression analyses were estimated. The multinomial regression results indicated a non-identified matrix similar to the LTA analyses. As such, the statistical significance of the model cannot be used. Nevertheless, the descriptive patterns of the profiles for Wave 1 and Wave 2 can be interpreted.

When inspecting the descriptive movement patterns of *infrequent advocators* (see Table 3C in the Appendix), we see that 88.5% of *infrequent advocators* in Wave 1 remained *infrequent advocators* in Wave 2. Nevertheless, 7.14% of *infrequent advocators* in Wave 1 changed to *occasional interpersonal advocators* in Wave 2, and 4.29% *infrequent advocators* in Wave 1 changed to *organizational advocators* in Wave 2. The descriptive analysis also indicates that zero *infrequent advocators* at Wave 1 became *frequent advocators* at Wave 2.

When examining the movement patterns of *occasional interpersonal advocators*, we see that 36.36% of *occasional interpersonal advocators* in Wave 1 remained *occasional interpersonal advocators* in Wave 2. A large percentage (54.55%) of *occasional interpersonal advocators* in Wave 1 changed to *infrequent advocators* in Wave 2. Table 3 also shows that 5.45% of *occasional interpersonal advocators* at Wave 1 changed to *organizational advocators* in Wave 2. Finally, 3.64% of *occasional interpersonal advocators* at Wave 1 changed to *frequent advocators* at Wave 2.

With regards to *organizational advocators*, 27.71% remained *organizational advocators* from Wave 1 to Wave 2. However, 43.37% of *organizational advocators*, in Wave 1, became *infrequent advocators* at Wave 2. In addition, 20.48% of *organizational advocators* in Wave 1 became *occasional interpersonal advocators* at Wave 2. Finally, 8.43% of *organizational advocators* at Wave 1 became *frequent advocators* at Wave 2.

When inspecting *frequent advocators*, we see that 41.67% of *frequent advocators* in Wave 1 remained *frequent advocators* in Wave 2. In addition, 25% of *frequent advocators* in Wave 1 became *infrequent advocators* in Wave 2. Further, 16.67% of *frequent advocators* in Wave 1 became *occasional interpersonal advocators* at Wave 2. Finally, 16.67% of *frequent advocators* at Wave 1 became *organizational advocators* at Wave 2.

RQ2: Changes in Advocacy Communication Profile Membership: Implications for Mental Health and Relational Wellbeing

This study's second research question asked how profiles differ in mental health and relational wellbeing at Waves 1 and 2. Although this study is unable to examine the

transition probabilities due to the unidentified matrix, descriptive findings can be interpreted for the latent profiles' distal variable means for Wave 1 and Wave 2 (see Tables 3D-3E). Stated differently, I could not examine the significant differences in mean distal variables across the different profiles at Wave 1 or Wave 2 because the estimated matrix of the hypothesized model did not converge, or the hypothesized matrix was unable to be estimated with the hypothesized parameters based on the actual data parameters available. As such, the following sections are merely descriptive, and the results should be interpreted cautiously. Table 3C shows the means for all groups of advocators' depressive symptoms, anxiety, burnout, relationship strain, and hopefulness at Wave 1. Table 3D shows the means for all groups of advocators' depressive symptoms, anxiety, burnout, relationship strain, and hopefulness at Wave 2. When looking at Tables 3D and 3E, we see larger means in all advocator groups when comparing Wave 1 to Wave 2.

Means for Depressive Symptoms

When looking at advocators' depressive symptoms we see larger means in Wave 2 compared to Wave 1. For example, *infrequent advocators* in Wave 1 reported a mean of 2.80 for depressive symptoms, but *infrequent advocators* in Wave 2 reported a mean of 3.525. Similarly, *occasional interpersonal advocators* reported a mean of 3.02 for depressive symptoms at Wave 1 and a mean of 3.709 at Wave 2. *Organizational advocators* reported a 3.09 mean for depressive symptoms at Wave 1 and a mean of 3.331 at Wave 2. Finally, *frequent advocators* reported a 3.43 mean at Wave 1 and a mean of 4.059 at Wave 2. Ultimately, for Wave 1, *frequent advocators* reported the

highest depressive symptom means followed by *organizational advocators, occasional interpersonal advocators,* and *infrequent advocators.* This pattern was slightly different for Wave 2; *frequent advocators* reported the highest means for depressive symptoms followed by *occasional interpersonal advocators, infrequent advocators,* and *organizational advocators.*

Means for Anxiety

A similar pattern emerged for advocators' self-reported anxiety means from Wave 1 to Wave 2. *Infrequent advocators* reported a mean of 2.88 for anxiety at Wave 1 and *infrequent advocators* in Wave 2 reported a mean of 3.522. Similarly, *occasional interpersonal advocators* reported a mean of 3.26 at Wave 1 and a mean of 3.416 for Wave 2. This pattern, however, was not present for *organizational advocators.* Instead, we see a smaller mean in anxiety for *organizational advocators'* at Wave 2 compared to Wave 1. Specifically, *organizational advocators* reported an anxiety mean of 3.53 at Wave 1, but those in Wave 2 reported a lower mean of 3.268. Among *frequent advocators,* those in Wave 1 reported a mean of 3.76 but those in Wave 2 reported a mean of 4.158. When looking at all the advocator group's patterns for anxiety for Wave 1, we see that *frequent advocators* reported the highest anxiety means followed by *organizational advocators, occasional interpersonal advocators,* and *infrequent advocators.* For Wave 2, however, we find that *frequent advocators* reported the highest anxiety means followed by *infrequent advocators, occasional interpersonal advocators,* and *organizational advocators.*

Means for Burnout

When looking at burnout, Tables 3D and 3E show that *infrequent advocators* in Wave 1 reported a mean of 3.16, but *infrequent advocators* in Wave 2 reported a mean of 3.806. Similarly, *occasional interpersonal advocators* in Wave 1 reported a burnout mean of 3.23, but those in Wave 2 reported a burnout mean of 4.072. *Organizational advocators* in Wave 1 and Wave 2, however, reported similar means; those in Wave 1 reported a burnout mean of 3.50, whereas those in Wave 2 reported a burnout mean of 3.58. *Frequent advocators* in Wave 1 reported a mean of 3.73 and those in Wave 2 reported a mean of 4.137. When looking at the overall pattern for Wave 1, *frequent advocators* reported the highest burnout means followed by *organizational advocators, interpersonal advocators,* and *infrequent advocators.* For Wave 2, we see the following pattern: *frequent advocators* reported the highest burnout means, followed by *occasional interpersonal advocators, infrequent advocators,* and *organizational advocators.*

Means for Relationship Strain

For relationship strain, *infrequent advocators* reported a mean of 2.00 in Wave 1 and those in Wave 2 reported a mean of 2.37. *Occasional interpersonal advocators* in Wave 1 reported a mean of 2.36, and those in Wave 2 reported a mean of 2.617. *Organizational advocators* in Wave 1 reported a mean of 2.64 for relationship strain, and those in Wave 2 reported a mean of 2.706. In contrast, *frequent advocators* in Wave 1 reported a mean of 3.56, but those in Wave 2 reported a mean of 3.23, a lower mean than those in Wave 1. When looking at the overall pattern for Wave 1, *frequent advocators* had the highest relationship strain means followed by *organizational advocators, occasional interpersonal advocators,* and *infrequent advocators.* For Wave 2, we find a

similar pattern: *frequent advocators* reported the highest means followed by *organizational advocators, occasional interpersonal advocators,* and *infrequent advocators.*

Means for Hopefulness about Undocumented Immigrants' Futures

Finally, when exploring advocators reported means for hopefulness about undocumented immigrants' futures (referred to as hopefulness from now on) in Wave 1 and Wave 2, we see that *infrequent advocators* in Wave 1 reported a mean of 4.16, and those in Wave 2 reported a mean of 4.509. *Occasional interpersonal advocators* in Wave 1 reported a mean of 4.41, and those in Wave 2 reported a mean of 4.546. Among *organizational advocators* in Wave 1, they reported a mean of 4.28; those in Wave 2 reported a mean of 4.318. Finally, *frequent advocators* in Wave 1 reported a mean of 4.36, and those in Wave 2 reported a mean of 4.638 for hopefulness. In exploring the overall patterns in Wave 1, *occasional interpersonal advocators* reported the highest hopefulness means followed by *frequent advocators, organizational advocators,* and *infrequent advocators.* In contrast, when looking at Wave 2, *frequent advocators* reported the highest hopefulness means followed by *occasional interpersonal advocators, infrequent advocators,* and *organizational advocators.* Nevertheless, it is important to note that all four profiles reported high mean levels of hopefulness about immigrants' future, and the descriptive differences between the means across groups were small.

Discussion

Undocumented students, like their undocumented immigrant counterparts, experience a myriad of stressors due to their immigration status, which has various

implications to their health, social, and economic wellbeing (e.g., Enriquez, et al., 2020; Kam & Merolla, 2018; Kam et al., 2020a). Nevertheless, as Chapter 2 and prior research indicates (e.g., Buff, 2018; Escudero, 2020; Zimmerman, 2016; Negrón-Gonzales, 2015; Unzueta Carrasco, & Seif, 2014) undocumented youth, many of whom are college students, are at the center of advocacy efforts to reduce and eliminate the systematic oppression they experience. This chapter extended prior research by: (1) using a longitudinal approach to examine changes in undocumented students' advocacy communication profile membership; and (2) exploring profile means for depressive symptoms, anxiety, burnout, perceived strained relationship with their family, professors, and friends, and hopefulness about the future of undocumented immigrants in the United States at Waves 1 and 2.

Theoretical Contributions to Advocacy Communication Research

This chapter contributes to theory building by testing Advocacy Communication Theory (ACT, see Chapter 1) and revealing how students might change in and out of advocacy communication profile membership from one month to another. These findings extend qualitative and quantitative research (e.g., Ahmad, 1978; Chapter 2; Cornejo et al., in press; Ghaziani et al., 2016) and suggests that advocacy efforts should, if possible, encompass a longitudinal component. Indeed, most *infrequent advocators* in Wave 1 remained *infrequent advocators* in Wave 2. Students might have been more inclined to remain as *infrequent advocators* for several reasons. First, advocacy communication can be costly, and students might not want to increase their responsibilities by engaging in advocacy efforts. Second, data was collected during the COVID-19 pandemic, which

might have changed advocators' need to engage in advocacy. It is also possible that the COVID-19 pandemic changed the opportunities available for frequently advocating. Indeed, stay-at-home COVID-19 mandates might have made it difficult for advocators to engage in different types of advocacy strategies, even if they wanted to participate in advocacy.

With respect to other profiles, however, there were noticeable changes in advocators' profile membership from Wave 1 to Wave 2. Specifically, large percentages of *occasional interpersonal, organizational,* and *frequent advocators* in Wave 1 became *infrequent advocators* at Wave 2. This finding is noteworthy because it highlights the dynamic nature of engaging in advocacy socialization, whereas prolonged engagement in advocacy communication is difficult to maintain. Indeed, undocumented students are not only advocators. They have other responsibilities (e.g., work, school, relationships) that likely make it difficult for them to engage in advocacy strategies for long periods.

Another significant contribution is that all advocator groups in Wave 1 reported depressive symptom means in Wave 2. This finding might indicate that prolonged engagement in any pattern of advocacy communication strategies, even if the engagement in advocacy reported is low as is the case of *infrequent advocators,* might be associated with long-term depressive symptoms, which might increase through time. As such, future research should examine interventions that might help reduce advocators reported depressive means. Alternatively, it is also possible that the patterns observed are reflective of the pandemic where there the advocator groups reported depressive

symptoms at Wave 2 because students were burnt out by COVID-19's effects (e.g., masking, remote learning, people getting sick).

A similar pattern was observed for anxiety among *infrequent, occasional interpersonal,* and *frequent advocators,* such that their reported means were larger in Wave 2 compared to Wave 1. However, this was not observed among *organizational advocators*. Unlike the other advocator profiles that reported larger anxiety means between Wave 1 to Wave 2, *organizational advocators* in Wave 2 reported lower anxiety means than *organizational advocators* in Wave 1. This finding is noteworthy because it supports ACT's proposition that engagement in advocacy communication will be distinctly associated with wellbeing. Various explanations might shed light on this noteworthy finding. First, it is possible that frequently participating in on- or off-campus organizations buffers any adverse relationship associated with engaging in prolonged advocacy communications strategies. This buffering might be due to extra support advocators receive from undocumented students or peers within the organization. Alternatively, it is possible that merely participating in a group that intends to support undocumented immigrants' functions as an attenuating factor between the association of engaging in advocacy and wellbeing. Finally, the observed trends might have emerged because new people might have joined and left the advocator groups, which might have influenced the reported means in Wave 2. Future research should be conducted with an identified LTA model to examine if this was the case.

Another interesting finding emerges when looking at advocator profiles' descriptive differences in relationship strain means. *Frequent advocators* reported smaller

relationship strain means in Wave 2 than in Wave 1. This finding stands out because all other advocator groups reported larger relationship strain means from Wave 1 to Wave 2. One explanation for this finding is that prolonged engagement in various advocacy strategies changed the perception of *frequent advocators'* relationships with important others. For example, engaging in various advocacy strategies more often might have created relationship strain between *frequent advocators* and important others because engaging in advocacy strategies is time consuming and takes effort. By frequently engaging in these strategies in Wave 1, *frequent advocators* might not have known how to handle the added responsibilities and tolls that accompany engagement in advocacy strategies while maintaining their relationships with others. However, as time goes on, *frequent advocators* might have become accustomed to engaging in frequent advocacy strategies and learned skills to manage their relationships with important others. These skills might have reduced *frequent advocators'* perceived relationship strain with important others. Another explanation is that as *frequent advocators* engaged in advocacy strategies, important others increased their support. This might have buffered the relationship between frequently engaging in in advocacy strategies and advocators' relationship strain. Future research should examine how advocators' important others change their support towards advocators through time. Finally, it is important to note that some *frequent advocators* in Wave 1 did not continue to be *frequent advocators* in Wave 2, and some students from the other profiles likely joined *frequent advocators* in Wave 2, which might have influenced the patterns observed. As such, future research should examine if these trends emerge using an identified LTA matrix.

A final noteworthy finding is that all advocators reported larger means for hopefulness about undocumented immigrants' futures from Wave 1 to Wave 2. This is important because it indicates that engaging in some type of advocacy strategy is not always associated with negative wellbeing. Instead, engaging in advocacy, even if doing so infrequently, increases advocators' hopefulness means. As previously mentioned, changes in advocators profiles from Wave 1 to Wave 2 might have influenced these patterns. Nevertheless, it is also possible that these findings were observed because of different environmental factors. For example, the current presidential administration has been more supportive of undocumented immigrants than the previous Trump administration. This change in administration, along with more positive nonfamily socialization messages (e.g., social media, governmental staff) might explain why students reported larger means for hopefulness from Wave 1 to Wave 2. As such, future research should examine the role of nonfamily members' socialization messages to examine their relationship with advocators' mental and relational wellbeing. This is consistent with ACT, which proposes that nonfamily socialization messages are important predictors of individual's engagement in advocacy communication, and, in turn, their mental and relational wellbeing.

Given our findings, this chapter reiterates what was described in Chapter 2. Engaging in various types of advocacy communication strategies should not be avoided because is important to fight against injustices and systematic oppression (Aldridge Sanford, 2020). Further, this chapter's findings highlight that the relationship between changing in advocacy efforts through time and students' wellbeing is complex, which has

positive and negative implications. Because our findings indicate that changes to one's advocacy strategies occur, future research should examine if different changes of advocacy communication strategies across time are observed among other minoritized communities (e.g., LGBTQ+, Black communities). In sum, this chapter's theorizing and results can inform the work on advocacy efforts; future work that builds on ACT might find other patterns of changes to one's advocacy efforts that did not emerge in this study given the methodological limitations.

Limitations and Future Research

One of the main limitations of this study is the non-identified matrix for the Latent Transition Analysis, as well as the classify-analyze approach utilized. There are numerous reasons for the unidentified matrix, such as the number of parameters estimated, sample size, etc. Nevertheless, a non-identified matrix hinders our ability to interpret any significant findings in the study—past descriptive findings. As such, future research that examines changes in minoritized group members' advocacy profiles might benefit from increasing their sample size, so that there is enough power to estimate the parameters of interest. Ultimately, because of this study's limitations, interpretation of the data cannot extend past descriptive trends.

Practical Contributions

Although this study is unable to statistically examine group differences, the descriptive findings make several meaningful practical contributions. First, this study's findings highlight the complexity of advocacy efforts, and sheds light on how advocacy efforts are non-static. Further, this study's descriptive findings highlight that changes in

students' advocacy patterns might have implications to their psychological (e.g., depressive symptoms, anxiety), physical (e.g., burnout), and relational (e.g., relationship strain) wellbeing. Given the descriptive tendencies observed in our findings, future research should continue to examine the implications of minoritized group members' changes in the advocacy strategies they utilize to challenge systemic oppression. Such research will not only bridge the limitations of this chapter but will be able to statistically highlight the implication of minoritized group members' changing the advocacy strategies they utilize.

CHAPTER FOUR

CONCLUSION

By focusing on undocumented students' advocacy efforts, this dissertation was able to build on past social movement research to propose Advocacy Communication Theory (ACT; Chapter 1), which offers a nuanced framework for understanding minoritized group members' advocacy. In addition, Chapters 2 and 3 empirically test aspects of ACT and expand our understanding of undocumented college students' advocacy and implications for their mental health and relational wellbeing.

Chapter 1 extends past social movement theories (e.g., *Resource Mobilization Theory; The Theory of Relative Deprivation; Social Identity Theory; The Social Identity Model of Collective Action; Anger Activism Model;* Bernstein & Crosby, 1980; Jenkins, 1983; Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Turner, 2007; Van Zomeren et al., 2012) and key terms (e.g., *social movements*, *collective action*, *civic engagement*, and *activism;* see Appendix A for list of definition for these terms) by conceptualizing advocacy communication as a multilevel process that occurs at the individual, interpersonal, mediated, and group levels (Bronfenbrenner, 1977; Cornejo et al., in press; Suárez-Orozco et al., 2011). Advocacy communication consists of multiple and different implicit/explicit, conscious/non-conscious, and verbal/nonverbal messages that minoritized group members use to challenge the structural and systemic inequities and oppression they experience to enhance their lives, as well as those of their group. ACT also proposes that advocacy communication strategies can include traditional and nontraditional forms of efforts,

which can be formally or informally executed—all of which have distinct degrees of risk, visibility, costs, and rewards.

Another contribution that Chapter 1 makes is in identifying several core predictors of advocacy communication. Specifically, ACT builds on prior social movement (e.g., Social Identity Theory; SIT: Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and persuasion theories (e.g., Theory of Planned Behavior; Ajzen, 1991, 2005; Cialdini et al., 1990), as well as research that focuses on minoritized group members' advocacy efforts to hypothesize about communicative and psychological factors that can motivate advocacy communication. Chapter 1 also discusses potential positive and negative implications for minoritized group members' psychological, physical, relational, and social wellbeing.

Chapter 2 expands on the theoretical contributions of Chapter 1 by empirically testing several assumptions of ACT. At its core, ACT proposes that advocacy communication is a complex and nuanced process, which consist of several advocacy communication strategies. Chapter 2 revealed that undocumented students, in fact, engage in various advocacy communication strategies. Particularly, Chapter 2's findings indicate support for the existence of distinct advocator groups that endorse engaging in different advocacy communication strategies (i.e., *infrequent advocators, occasional interpersonal advocators, organizational advocators,* and *frequent advocators).* The current study bridged important limitations (e.g., cross-sectional approach, use of single items instead of multiple-item measures) highlighted by Cornejo et al. (in press), and it also examined the communication and psychological factors that predict being in certain advocator groups over others.

Another theoretical extension of Chapter 2 is in its examination of engaging in certain advocacy communication strategies over others. Accordingly, *frequent advocators* reported worse psychological and relational wellbeing means than the other advocator groups. Nevertheless, *frequent advocators* also reported having more hope for undocumented immigrants' futures than the other groups. These findings support ACT and its proposition that engaging in advocacy strategies is a complex process, which might have positive and negative implications to one's wellbeing. Chapter 2 also identifies which communication patterns, based on profile membership, are associated with certain mental health and relational wellbeing variables.

Chapter 3 offers several theoretical contributions to our understanding of the long-term process of engaging in advocacy strategies. Specifically, Chapter 3's descriptive findings indicate that students' engagement in advocacy communication strategies is not stagnant. Instead, undocumented students might engage in a certain pattern of advocacy strategies, but this pattern might change over time. Although this current chapter's findings are limited given the unidentified model matrix, they shed light on the complexity of engaging in different advocacy strategies over time. *Infrequent advocators* were the most stable profile, whereas members of the three other profiles were most likely to transition to *infrequent advocators*. This finding is noteworthy because it could indicate that engaging in prolonged advocacy communication is not plausible. Engaging in advocacy is risky, takes time, energy, planning, and effort. As such, students might be unable to engage in different advocacy communication strategies while also taking care of other responsibilities (e.g., schoolwork, relationships, work).

Further, although engaging in advocacy is associated with hopefulness and it might change systemic oppression, it has several costs (e.g., depressive symptoms). These costs might wear down undocumented students over time, which might hinder their ability engage in future advocacy communication strategies.

Chapter 3 also explore means in distal variables in Wave 1 and Wave 2. Although the findings are merely descriptive, all of the advocator profiles in Wave 1 reported larger depressive symptom means in Wave 2. However, when looking at relationship strain means, *frequent advocators* reported smaller relationship strain means in Wave 2 than in Wave 1. This finding stands out because all the other advocator groups reported larger relationship strain means from Wave 1 to Wave 2. These findings might highlight how engaging in advocacy strategies through time changes the relationship of advocators who engage in a specific pattern of advocacy communication strategies (in this case, *frequent advocators*). As such, future research should explore if advocators' reported time of engaging in advocacy communication is associated with their wellbeing. Future research should also explore if changes in the pattern of students' advocacy strategies might change the relationship between engaging in advocacy and various wellbeing variables.

Ultimately, this dissertation offers practical insights for undocumented student advocators, as well as advocators that belong to other minoritized groups. ACT enables us to understand the communicative, psychological, and demographic factors that are uniquely associated with different advocacy communication strategies, which can enable researchers, families, and practitioners to empower undocumented youth to engage in different communicative messages to challenge systemic oppression. Further, although

engaging in different advocacy communication strategies can be risky, effortful, and have different adverse implications to their health and wellbeing, engaging in advocacy strategies can also be rewarding and have positive implications for one's wellbeing. Indeed, *frequent advocators* in both studies reported higher hope for undocumented immigrants' futures.

To decrease the toll of advocacy communication, allies and families can offer communicative support, as well as use their privilege to advocate on behalf of undocumented immigrants in the United States. This is in line what Kam et al. (2021) found among DACA students and their perceptions of allies and allyship. Doing so might not only empower undocumented youth and buffer the adverse implications they experience, but it might further challenge the systemic oppression that minoritized group members experience. Such collective efforts might create changes to the various levels of oppressive systems (e.g., social, political) that maintain undocumented immigrants in a second-class position and takes advantage of their lack of documentation by forcing them into the shadows.

References

Adler, R. P. (2005). What do we mean by “civic engagement”? *Journal of Transformative Education, 3*(3), 236–253. https://doi.org/10.1177/1541344605276792

Adler, R. P., & Goggin, J. (2005). What do we mean by “civic engagement”?. *Journal of transformative education*, *3*(3), 236-253. https://doi.org/10.1177/1541344605276792

Ahmad, M. (1978). On the Black student movement—1960–70. *The Black Scholar*, *9*(8-9), 2-1. https://doi.org/10.1080/00064246.1978.11414012

Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes*, *50*(2), 179-211.https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978(91)90020T

Ajzen, I. (2005). *Attitudes, personality and behaviour*. McGraw-Hill Education (UK).

Ajzen, I. (2020). The theory of planned behavior: Frequently asked questions. *Human Behavior and Emerging Technologies*, *2*(4), 314-324. https://doi.org/10.1002/hbe2.195

Aldridge Sanford, A. (2020). *From thought to action: Developing a social justice orientation.* Texas A&M University-Corpus Cristi

Almanzar, N. A. P., & Herring, C. (2004). Sacrificing for the cause: Another look at high-risk/cost activism. *Race and society*, *7*(2), 113-129. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.racsoc.2005.05.005

Andrews, K. R., Silk, K. S., & Eneli, I. U. (2010). Parents as health promoters: A theory of planned behavior perspective on the prevention of childhood obesity. *Journal*

of health communication, *15*(1), 95 107.https://doi.org/10.1080/10810730903460567

Andrade, L. M. (2019). "The war still continues": The importance of positive validation for undocumented community college students after Trump's presidential victory. *Journal of Hispanic Higher Education*, *18*(3), 273 289.https://doi.org/10.1177/1538192717720265

Andrade, L. M. (2021). "The war still continues," Part II: The importance of positive validation for undocumented students one year after Trump's presidential victory. *Journal of Hispanic Higher Education*, *20*(1), 3-16. https://doi.org/10.1177/1538192718823186

Armstrong, E. A., & Crage, S. M. (2006). Movements and memory: The making of the Stonewall myth. *American sociological review*, *71*(5), 724-751.https://doi-org.proxy.library.ucsb.edu:9443/10.1177/000312240607100502

Arriaga, B. H. (2012). 67 Sueños: Inspiring a movement for undocumented voices to be heard. *Association of Mexican American Educators Journal*, *6*(1). 71-76

Austin, L., Overton, H., McKeever, B. W., & Bortree, D. (2020). Examining the rage donation trend: Applying the anger activism model to explore communication and donation behaviors. *Public Relations Review*, *46*(5), 1-8 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pubrev.2020.101981

Ayón, C. (2016). Talking to Latino children about race, inequality, and discrimination: Raising families in an anti-immigrant political environment. *Journal of the Society for Social Work and Research*, *7*(3), 449-477.

Ayón, C. (2018). Latino immigrant family socialization scale: Development and validation of a multidimensional ethnic–racial socialization measurement. *Social Work*, *63*(3), 222-233. https://doi.org/10.1093/sw/swy016

Ayón, C., Wagaman, M. A., & Philbin, S. P. (2018). No te dejes pisotear por nadien: examining Latino immigrants' efforts to resist discrimination. *Journal of Social Service Research*, *44*(1), 78- 95. https://doi.org/10.1080/01488376.2017.1395381

Baker, J. H. (2020). The long road to suffrage: how women won the right to vote. *Foreign Aff.*, *99*, 154-156

Banh, J., & Radovic-Fanta, J. (2021). University and professor practices to support DACA and undocumented students: DACA student experiences, teacher knowledge, and university actions. *Social Sciences*, *10*(9), 1-15. https://doi.org/10.3390/socsci10090346

Balderas, C. N., Delgado-Romero, E. A., & Singh, A. A. (2016). Sin papeles: Latino parent–child conversations about undocumented legal status. *Journal of Latina/o Psychology*, *4*(3), 158-172. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/lat0000060

Bernstein, M., & Crosby, F. (1980). An empirical examination of relative deprivation theory. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *16*(5), 442-456. https://doi.org/10.1016/0022-1031(80)90050-5

Benuto, L. T., Casas, J. B., Cummings, C., & Newlands, R. (2018). Undocumented, to DACAmented, to DACAlimited: Narratives of Latino students with DACA status. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, *40*(3), 259-278. https://doi.org/10.1177/0739986318776941

Blanz, M., Mummendey, A., Mielke, R., & Klink, A. (1998). Responding to negative social identity: A taxonomy of identity management strategies. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *28*(5), 697-729. https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1099-0992(199809/10)28:5<697::AID-EJSP889>3.0.CO;2-%23

Borjian, A. (2018). Academically successful Latino undocumented students in college: Resilience and civic engagement. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, *40*(1), 22-36. https://doi.org/10.1177/0739986317754299

Bose, D. (2018). Stuck in limbo: Ole Miss 'Dreamer' faces uncertain future. *The Daily Mississippian. https://thedmonline.com/daca/*

Browne, M. W., & Cudeck, R. (1993). Alternative ways of assessing model fit. In K. A. Bollen & J. S. Long (Eds.), Testing structural equation models (pp. 136-62), Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Bruce, K. M. (2013). LGBT pride as a cultural protest tactic in a southern city. *Journal of Contemporary Ethnography*, *42*(5), 608-635.

Budiman, A. (2020). Key findings about U.S. immigrants. Pew Research Center. https://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2020/08/20/key-findings-about-u-s-immigrants/

Buff, I. (2018). *Against the Deportation Terror: Organizing for Immigrant Rights in the 20th Century*. Philadelphia: Temple University Press

Bronfenbrenner, U. (1977). Toward an experimental ecology of human development. *American psychologist*, *32*(7), 513-531. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-

066X.32.7.513

Bruce, K. M. (2013). LGBT pride as a cultural protest tactic in a southern city. *Journal of Contemporary Ethnography*, *42*(5), 608-635. https://doi.org/10.1177/0891241612474933

Cabaniss, E. (2018). Pulling back the curtain: Examining the backstage gendered dynamics of storytelling in the undocumented youth movement. *Journal of Contemporary Ethnography*, *47*(2), 199-225. https://doi.org/10.1177/0891241616643589

Castro-Salazar, R., & Bagley, C. (2010). 'Ni de aquí ni from there'. Navigating between contexts: counter-narratives of undocumented Mexican students in the United States. *Race Ethnicity and Education*, *13*(1), 23-40. https://doi.org/10.1080/13613320903549651

Cialdini, R. B., Reno, R. R., & Kallgren, C. A. (1990). A focus theory of normative conduct: Recycling the concept of norms to reduce littering in public places. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *58*(6), 1015-1026. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022- 3514.58.6.1015

Chen, C. W., & Gorski, P. C. (2015). Burnout in social justice and human rights activists: Symptoms, causes and implications. *Journal of Human Rights Practice*, *7*(3), 366-390. https://doi.org/10.1093/jhuman/huv011

Cho, S., & Walton, L. R. (2011). *Integrating emotion and the theory of planned behavior to explain consumers' activism in the Internet website*. Retrieved from: The

Institute for Public Relations https://instituteforpr.org/emotion-planned-behavior-explain-activism.

Cline, Z., & Necochea, J. (2001). ¡ Basta Ya! Latino parents fighting entrenched racism. *Bilingual Research Journal*, *25*(1-2), 89-114. https://doi.org/10.1080/15235882.2001.10162786

Colbern, A., & Ramakrishnan, S. K. (2020). *Citizenship reimagined: A new framework for state rights in the United States*. Cambridge University Press.

Conner, J. O., Crawford, E., & Galioto, M. (2021). The mental health effects of student activism: Persisting despite psychological costs. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 1-30.https://doi.org/10.1177/07435584211006789

Cornejo, M. (2021). Stories of migration and identity from an undocumented citizen in the United States. In S. L. Faulkner (Ed), *Inside Relationships: Critical Case Studies in Interpersonal Communication 2nd ed.* Routledge

Cornejo, M., Ayon, C., & Enriquez, L.E. (Review and Resubmit). A latent profile analysis of undocumented college students' advocacy communication strategies: The relationship between communication advocacy and mental health. *Journal of Applied Communication Research*.

Cornejo, M., Kam, J. A., & Afifi, T. (2021). Discovering one's undocumented immigration status through family disclosures: The perspectives of college students with Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA). *Journal of Applied Communication Research*, 49, 267-285.https://doi.org/10.1080/00909882.2021.1896022

Craven, K., Montero, D., Ramirez, J., Robles, M., & Robles, R. (2017). " Don't Let Our Dreams Die": Undocumented Students' Fight for Educational Equity in Tennessee. *Critical Questions in Education*, *8*(4), 438-456.

Crawford, E. R., Aguayo, D., & Valle, F. (2019). Counselors as leaders who advocate for undocumented students' education. *Journal of Research on Leadership Education*, *14*(2), 119-150. https://doi.org/10.1177/1942775117739301

Cross, F. L., Martinez, S. B., & Rivas-Drake, D. (2021). Documentation status socialization among Latinx immigrant parents. *New Directions for Child and Adolescent Development*. 31-49. https://doi.org/110.1002/cad.20420

Delgado, V. (2020). "They think I'm a lawyer": Undocumented college students as legal brokers for their undocumented parents. *Law & Policy*, *42*(3), 261-283. https://doi.org/10.1111/lapo.12152

Della Porta, D., & Diani, M. (1999). *Social movements: An introduction*. Malden, MA: Blackwell.

Diemer, M. A. (2012). Fostering marginalized youths' political participation: Longitudinal roles of parental political socialization and youth sociopolitical development. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, *50*(1-2), 246-256. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10464-012-9495-9

Edward, J. (2014). Undocumented immigrants and access to health care: making a case for policy reform. *Policy, Politics, & Nursing Practice*, *15*(1-2), 5-14. https://doi.org/10.1177/1527154414532694

Ellis, B. D., Offidani-Bertrand, C., & Ferrera, M. J. (2022). “No way! Like only Hispanics are illegal”: Examining the racialized psychosocial development of migrant “illegality” across immigrant groups in the United States. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 1-34. https://doi.org/10.1177/07435584211064195

Enriquez, L. (2011). " Because we feel the pressure and we also feel the support": Examining the educational success of undocumented immigrant Latina/o students. *Harvard Educational Review*, *81*(3), 476-500. https://doi.org/10.17763/haer.81.3.w7k703q050143762

Enriquez, L. E. (2014). “Undocumented and citizen students unite”: Building a cross-status coalition through shared ideology. *Social Problems*, *61*(2), 155-174. https://doi.org/10.1525/sp.2014.12032

Enriquez, L. E. (2017). A ‘master status’ or the ‘final straw’? Assessing the role of immigration status in Latino undocumented youths’ pathways out of school. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, *43*, 1526-1543. https://doi.org/10.1080/1369183X.2016.1235483

Enriquez, L. E. (2019). 12. Border-hopping Mexicans, law-abiding Asians, and racialized illegality: Analyzing undocumented college students’ experiences through a relational lens. In *Relational Formations of Race* (pp. 257-277). University of California Press.

Enriquez, L. E., Ayón, C., Ellis, B. D., Chavarria, K., Hagan, M. J., Jefferies, J., ... & Valdez, Z. (2020). *Persisting inequalities and paths forward: A Report on the State of Undocumented Students in California’s Public Universities*. Sacramento

State. https://cpb-use2.wpmucdn.com/sites.uci.edu/dist/4/3807/files/2020/12/State_Of_Undocumented_Students_2020report.pdf

Enriquez, L. E., Hernandez, M. M., Millán, D., & Vera, D. V. (2019). Mediating illegality: Federal, state, and institutional policies in the educational experiences of undocumented college students. *Law & Social Inquiry*, *44*(3), 679-703. https://doi.org/10.1017/lsi.2018.16

Enriquez, L. E., Rosales, W. E., Chavarria, K., Morales Hernandez, M., & Valadez, M. (2021). COVID on campus: Assessing the impact of the pandemic on undocumented college students. *Aera Open*, *7*(1), 1-19. https://doi.org/10.1177/23328584211033576

Enriquez, L. E, Morales Hernandez, M., Millán, D., & Vazquez Vera, D. (2019). Mediating illegality: Federal, state, and institutional policies in the educational experiences of undocumented college students. *Law and Social Inquiry*. Published online first on March 18, 2019. https://doi.org/10.1017/lsi.2018.16

Enriquez, L. E., Pierce, S. V., Murillo Jr, E. G., Ayón, C., & Valdez, Z. (2021). Advancing research on undocumented college students in California through a UC and CSU collaboration. *Journal of Latinos and Education*, *20*(3), 213-214. https://doi.org/10.1080/15348431.2021.1950959

Enriquez, L. E., & Saguy, A. C. (2016). Coming out of the shadows: Harnessing a cultural schema to advance the undocumented immigrant youth movement. *American Journal of Cultural Sociology*, *4*(1), 107-130.

https://doi.org/10.1057/ajcs.2015.6

Enriquez, L. E., Morales Hernandez, M., & Ro, A. (2018). Deconstructing immigrant illegality: A mixed-methods investigation of stress and health among undocumented college students. *Race and Social Problems*, *10*(3), 193-208. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12552-018- 9242-4

Escudero, K. (2020). *Organizing While Undocumented: Immigrant Youth's Political Activism under the Law* (Vol. 4). NYU Press.

Fernandes, D. (2019). Trump ended DACA. This woman is suing to keep the program alive. The World. https://theworld.org/stories/2019-10-23/trump-ended-daca-woman-suing-keep-program-alive

Fielding, K. S., McDonald, R., & Louis, W. R. (2008). Theory of planned behaviour, identity and intentions to engage in environmental activism. *Journal of environmental psychology*, *28*(4), 318-326. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvp.2008.03.003

Forenza, B., Rogers, B., & Lardier, D. T. (2017). What facilitates and supports political activism by, and for, undocumented students?. *The Urban Review*, *49*(4), 648-667. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11256-017-0413-1

Gause, L. (2022). *The Advantage of Disadvantage*. Cambridge University Press.

Gelfgren, S., Ineland, J., & Cocq, C. (2020). Social media and disability advocacy organizations: caught between hopes and realities. *Disability & Society*, 1-22. https://doi.org/10.1080/09687599.2020.1867069

Ghaziani, A., Taylor, V., & Stone, A. (2016). Cycles of sameness and difference in LGBT social movements. *Annual Review of Sociology*, *42*, 165-183. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-soc-073014-112352

Golash-Boza, T., & Valdez, Z. (2018). Nested contexts of reception: Undocumented students at the University of California, Central. *Sociological Perspectives*, *61*(4), 535-552. https://doi.org/10.1177/0731121417743728

Goldberg, A. E., Smith, J. Z., & Beemyn, G. (2019, May 27). Trans activism and advocacy among transgender students in higher education: A mixed methods study. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education*. Advance online publication. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/dhe0000125

Goldberg, A. E., Smith, J. Z., & Beemyn, G. (2020). Trans activism and advocacy among transgender students in higher education: A mixed methods study. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education*, *13*(1), 66-84. https://doi.org/10.1037/dhe0000125

Gonzales, R. G. (2008). Left out but not shut down: Political activism and the undocumented student movement. *Northwestern Journal of Law and Social Policy*, *3*, 219-239.

Gonzales, R. G. (2016). *Lives in limbo*. University of California Press.

Gonzales, R. G., & Burciaga, E. M. (2018). Undocumented youth and local contours of inequality. In Schneider, B. (Ed). *Handbook of the sociology of education in the 21st century* (pp. 153-169). Springer, Cham. https://doi-org.proxy.library.ucsb.edu:9443/10.1007/978-3-319-76694-2

Grayzel, S. R. (1999). Fighting for their rights: A comparative perspective on twentieth-century women's movements in Australia, Great Britian, and the United States. *Journal of Women's History*, *11*(1), 210-218. https://doi.org/10.1353/jowh.2003.0096

Guo, C., & Saxton, G. D. (2014). Tweeting social change: How social media are changing nonprofit advocacy. *Nonprofit and voluntary sector quarterly*, *43*(1), 57-79. https://doi.org/10.1177/0899764012471585

Guntzviller, L. M., MacGeorge, E. L., & Brinker Jr, D. L. (2017). Dyadic perspectives on advice between friends: Relational influence, advice quality, and conversation satisfaction. *Communication Monographs*, *84*(4), 488-509. https://doi.org/10.1080/03637751.2017.1352099

Gurney, J. N., & Tierney, K. J. (1982). Relative deprivation and social movements: A critical look at twenty years of theory and research. *The Sociological Quarterly*, *23*(1), 33-47. https://doi-org.proxy.library.ucsb.edu:9443/10.1111/j.1533-8525.1982.tb02218.x

Gusfield, J. R. (1994). The reflexivity of social movements: Collective behavior and mass society theory revisited. In E. Laraña, H. Johnston, & J. R. Gusfield. *New social movements: From ideology to identity*, pp. 58-78.

Harwood, J., Giles, H., & Ryan, E. B. (1995). Aging, communication, and intergroup theory: Social identity and intergenerational communication. In J. F. Nussbaum & J. Coupland (Eds.), *Handbook of communication and aging research* (pp. 133–159). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Hays, R. D., Reise, S., & Calderón, J. L. (2012). How much is lost in using single items?. *Journal of General Internal Medicine*, *27*(11), 1402-1403. https://dx.doi.org/10.1007%2Fs11606-012-2182-6

Heggart, K., & Flowers, R. (2019). Justice-oriented,"thick" approaches to civics and citizenship education in Australia: examples of practice. In Peternson, A., Stahl, G., Soong, H. (Eds). *The Palgrave Handbook of Citizenship and Education*. pp. 403-418.

Herrero-Diz, P., & Ramos-Serrano, M. (2018). Breaking stereotypes online: Young activists' use of the internet for social well-being. *Catalan Journal of Communication & Cultural Studies*, *10*(1), 99-114. https://doi.org/10.1386/cjcs.10.1.99_1

Hernandez, S., Hernandez Jr, I., Gadson, R., Huftalin, D., Ortiz, A. M., White, M. C., & Yocum-Gaffney, D. (2010). Sharing their secrets: Undocumented students' personal stories of fear, drive, and survival. *New Directions for Student Services*, 131, 67-84. https://doi.org/10.1002/ss.368

Higher ED immigration Portal, (2022). https://www.higheredimmigrationportal.org/national/national-data/

Hing, B. O. (2018a). Beyond DACA-Defying Employer Sanctions Through Civil Disobedience. *UC Davis L. Rev.*, *52*, 299-339.

Hing, J. (2018b). A win and a loss for Dreamers' fight for in-state tuition. *The Nation.* *https://www.thenation.com/article/archive/a-win-and-a-loss-in-dreamers-fight-for-in-* *state-tuition/*

Hisam, A., Safoor, I., Khurshid, N., Aslam, A., Zaid, F., & Muzaffar, A. (2017). Is political activism on social media an initiator of psychological stress?. *Pakistan Journal of Medical Sciences*, *33*(6), 1463-1467. https://doi.org/10.12669/pjms.336.12863

Hornsey, M. J. (2008). Social identity theory and self-categorization theory: A historical review. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, *2*(1), 204-222. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1751-9004.2007.00066.x

Hogg, M. A., Abrams, D., Otten, S., & Hinkle, S. (2004). The social identity perspective: Intergroup relations, self-conception, and small groups. *Small group research*, *35*(3), 246-276. https://doi-org.proxy.library.ucsb.edu:9443/10.1177/1046496404263424

Hope, E. C., Keels, M., & Durkee, M. I. (2016). Participation in black lives matter and deferred action for childhood arrivals: Modern activism among Black and Latino college students. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education, 9*, 203–215. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/dhe0000032

Hope, E. C., Velez, G., Offidani-Bertrand, C., Keels, M., & Durkee, M. I. (2018). Political activism and mental health among Black and Latinx college students. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*, *24*(1), 26-39. https://doi.org/10.1037/cdp0000144

Hughes, D., Rodriguez, J., Smith, E. P., Johnson, D. J., Stevenson, H. C., & Spicer, P. (2006). Parents' ethnic-racial socialization practices: a review of research and

directions for future study. *Developmental psychology*, *42*(5), 747-770. https://doi.org/10.1037/0012- 1649.42.5.747

Hu, L. T., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural equation modeling: a multidisciplinary journal*, *6*(1), 1-55. https://doi.org/10.1080/10705519909540118

Hurst, C. S., Baranik, L. E., & Daniel, F. (2013). College student stressors: A review of the qualitative research. *Stress and Health*, *29*(4), 275-285. https://doi.org/10.1002/smi.2465

Jamison, A. (2010). Climate change knowledge and social movement theory. *Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews: Climate Change*, *1*(6), 811-823. https://doi.org/10.1002/wcc.88

Jimenez-Arista, L. E., & Koro-Ljungberg, M. (2017). Spiral struggles and dialectical tensions in the life of a successful undocumented student. *Journal of Ethnographic & Qualitative Research*, *12*(1), 1-17.

Jenkins, J. C. (1983). Resource mobilization theory and the study of social movements. *Annual review of sociology*, *9*(1), 527-553.

Jenkins, J. C., & Form, W. (2005). Social movements and social change. *The handbook of political sociology*, 331-349.

Jetten, J., Haslam, S. A., Cruwys, T., Greenaway, K. H., Haslam, C., & Steffens, N. K. (2017). Advancing the social identity approach to health and well-being:

Progressing the social cure research agenda. *European journal of social psychology*, *47*(7), 789-802. https://doi.org/10.1002/ejsp.2333

Kallgren, C. A., Reno, R. R., & Cialdini, R. B. (2000). A focus theory of normative conduct: When norms do and do not affect behavior. *Personality and social psychology bulletin*, *26*(8), 1002-1012. https://doi.org/10.1177/01461672002610009

Kam, J. A., Basinger, E. D., & Abendschein, B. (2017). Do adolescent perceptions of parents' alcohol consumption undermine or enhance what parents say about alcohol? The interaction between verbal and nonverbal messages. *Communication Research*, *44*(3), 319-347. https://doi.org/10.1177/0093650214565922

Kam, J. A., Castro, F. G., & *Wang, N. (2015). Parent-child communication's attenuating effects on Mexican-heritage early-stage adolescents' depressive symptoms and substance use. *Human Communication Research*, 41, 204-225. https://doi.org/10.1111/hcre.12043

Kam, J. A., Cornejo, M., & Marcoulides, K. M. (2021). A Latent Profile Analysis of Undocumented College Students' Protection-Oriented Family Communication and Strengths-Based Psychological Coping. *Journal of Communication*, *71*(4), 646-675.https://doi.org/10.1093/joc/jqab018

Kam, J. A., Cornejo, M., Mendez Murillo, R., & Afifi, T. D. (2021). Communicating allyship according to college students with Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, 1-25.https://doi.org/10.1177/02654075211061715

Kam, J. A., Gasiorek, J., Pines, R., & Steuber Fazio, K. (2018). Latina/o adolescents' family undocumented-status disclosures directed at school counselors: A latent transition analysis. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, *65*(3), 267-279. https://doi.org/10.1037/cou0000259

Kam, J., Hopfer, S., Cornejo, M., Mendez Murillo, R., & Juarez, D. (Revise and Resubmit). A Communication-Focused Health Belief Model Grounded in Undocumented College Students' Lived Experiences with Mental Health Strain. *Communication Monographs.*

Kam, J. A., Mendez Murillo, R., Cornejo, M., & Mendoza, N. (2020a). The importance of norms and efficacy in predicting undocumented college students' intentions to talk to an on- campus mental health professional. *Health Communication*, 1-12. https://doi.org/10.1080/10410236.2020.1834208

Kam, J. A., & Merolla, A. J. (2018). Hope communication as a predictor of documented and undocumented Latina/o high school students' college intentions across an academic year. *Communication Monographs*, *85*(3), 399-422. https://doi.org/10.1080/03637751.2018.1463101

Kam, J. A., Merolla, A. J., & High, A. C. (2020). Latinx immigrant youth's indirect and direct disclosures about their family-undocumented experiences, received emotional support, and depressive symptoms. *Communication Research*, *47*(4), 599-622. https://doi.org/10.1177/0093650219851424

Kam, J. A., Pérez Torres, D., & Steuber Fazio, K. (2018). Identifying individual-and family-level coping strategies as sources of resilience and thriving for

undocumented youth of Mexican origin. *Journal of Applied Communication Research*, *46*(5), 641-664. https://doi.org/10.1080/00909882.2018.1528373

Kam, J. A., Steuber Fazio, K., & Mendez Murillo, R. (2019). Privacy rules for revealing one's undocumented status to nonfamily members: Exploring the perspectives of undocumented youth of Mexican origin. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, *36*(10), 3178-3198. https://doi.org/10.1177/0265407518815980

Katsiaficas, D., Hernandez, E., Alcantar, C. M., Samayoa, E., Gutierrez, M. N., & Williams, Z. (2018). "We'll get through this together": Collective contribution in the lives of Latino undocumented undergraduates. *Teachers College Record*, *120*(12), 1-48. https://doi.org/10.1177/016146811812001201

Katsiaficas, D., Volpe, V., Raza, S. S., & Garcia, Y. (2019). The role of campus support, undocumented identity, and deferred action for childhood arrivals on civic engagement for Latinx undocumented undergraduates. *Child Development*, *90*, 790-807. https://doi.org/10.1111/cdev.12933

Kallgren, C. A., Reno, R. R., & Cialdini, R. B. (2000). A focus theory of normative conduct: When norms do and do not affect behavior. *Personality and social psychology bulletin*, *26*(8), 1002-1012. https://doi-org.proxy.library.ucsb.edu:9443/10.1177/01461672002610009

Kim, J. (2018). Why do people take to the streets? Understanding the multidimensional motivations of protesting publics. *Public Relations Review*, *44*(4), 501-513.

King, J., Kam, J., Cornejo, M., & Mendez Murillo, R. (under review). A social ecological approach to understanding undocumented Mexican college students' resilience during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Journal of Applied Communication Research.*

Kiester, E., & Vasquez-Merino, J. (2021). A virus without papers: Understanding COVID-19 and the impact on immigrant communities. *Journal on Migration and Human Security*, *9*(2), 80-93. https://doi.org/10.1177/23315024211019705

Kleyn, T., Alulema, D., Khalifa, F., & Morales Romero, A. (2018). Learning from undocumented students: Testimonios for strategies to support and resist. *The New Educator, 14*(1), 24-41. https://doi.org/10.1080/1547688X.2017.1404174

Kocher, A., & Stuesse, A. (2021). Undocumented activism and minor politics: Inside the cramped political spaces of deportation defense campaigns. *Antipode*, *53*(2), 331-354.https://doi.org/10.1111/anti.12665

Kristofferson, K., White, K., and Peloza, J. (2014). The nature of Slacktivism: how the social observability of an initial act of token support affects subsequent pro social action. *J. Consum. Res.* 40,1149–1166. https://doi.org/ 10.1086/674137

Kreski, N. T., Chen, Q., Olfson, M., Cerdá, M., Martins, S. S., Mauro, P. M., ... & Keyes, K. M. (2022). Experiences of online bullying and offline violence-related behaviors among a nationally representative sample of us adolescents, 2011 to 2019. *Journal of School Health*, *92(4), 376-386.* https://doi.org/10.1111/josh.13144

Lachica Buenavista, T. (2018). Model (undocumented) minorities and “illegal” immigrants: Centering Asian Americans and US carcerality in undocumented student discourse. *Race Ethnicity and Education*, *21*(1), 78-91. https://doi.org/10.1080/13613324.2016.1248823

Lal, P., & de la Fuente, F. (2012). Undocumented youth chart new spaces for resistance: blogging, tweeting, facebooking, and g-chatting the revolution. In Wong, K., Shadduck-Hernández, J., Inzunza, F., Monroe, J., Narro, V., & Valenzuela, A. (Eds.) *Undocumented and Unafraid: Tam Tran, Cynthia Felix, and the Immigrant Youth Movement* (pp. 88-89). Los Angles: UCLA Center for Labor Research and Education.

Lam, S. P. (2006). Predicting intention to save water: Theory of planned behavior, response efficacy, vulnerability, and perceived efficiency of alternative solutions 1. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *36*(11), 2803-2824. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0021-9029.2006.00129.x

Linder, C., Quaye, S. J., Lange, A. C., Roberts, R. E., Lacy, M. C., & Okello, W. K. (2019). " A student should have the privilege of just being a student": Student activism as labor. *The Review of Higher Education*, *42*(5), 37-62. https://doi.org/10.1353/rhe.2019.0044

Liss, M., Crawford, M., & Popp, D. (2004). Predictors and correlates of collective action. *Sex Roles*, *50*(11), 771-779. https://doi.org/10.1023/B:SERS.0000029096.90835.3f

Lykes, M. B., Brabeck, K. M., & Hunter, C. J. (2013). Exploring parent–child communication in the context of threat: Immigrant families facing detention and deportation in post-9/11 USA. *Community, Work & Family*, *16*(2), 123-146. https://doi.org/10.1080/13668803.2012.752997

Macchia, S. T. L., & Louis, W. R. (2016). Crowd behaviour and collective action. In *Understanding peace and conflict through social identity theory* (pp. 89-104). Springer, Cham.

MacDonnell, J. A., Dastjerdi, M., Khanlou, N., Bokore, N., & Tharao, W. (2017). Activism as a feature of mental health and wellbeing for racialized immigrant women in a Canadian context. *Health Care for Women International*, *38*(2), 187-204. https://doi.org/10.1080/07399332.2016.1254632

Mastro, D., Tukachinsky, R., Behm-Morawitz, E., & Blecha, E. (2014). News coverage of immigration: The influence of exposure to linguistic bias in the news on consumer's racial/ethnic cognitions. *Communication Quarterly*, *62*(2), 135-154. https://doi.org/10.1080/01463373.2014.890115

McAdam, D. (1986). Recruitment to high-risk activism: The case of freedom summer. *American journal of sociology*, *92*(1), 64-90.

McCarthy, J. D., & Zald, M. N. (1977). Resource mobilization and social movements: A partial theory. *American journal of sociology*, *82*(6), 1212-1241.

McCammon, H. J., Campbell, K. E., Granberg, E. M., & Mowery, C. (2001). How movements win: Gendered opportunity structures and US women's suffrage movements, 1866 to 1919. *American sociological review*, 66(1), 49-70.

https://www.jstor.org/stable/2657393

McNeish, D. & Wolf, M. G. (2021). Dynamic fit index cutoffs for confirmatory factor analysis models. *Psychological Methods*. Advance online publication. https://doi.org/10.1037/met0000425

Mendoza, F. (2013). The case for undocumented students in higher education. *Educators for fair consideration,* https://vtechworks.lib.vt.edu/bitstream/handle/10919/83998/CaseUndocumentedStudents California.pdf

Megiddo, T. (2019). Online Activism, Digital Domination, and the Rule of Trolls. *Digital Domination, and the Rule of Trolls (September 26, 2019), 58*. 394-444. http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3459983

Misra, R., & Castillo, L. G. (2004). Academic stress among college students: Comparison of American and international students. *International Journal of stress management*, *11*(2), 132-148. https://doi.org/10.1037/1072-5245.11.2.132

Monico, G. (2020). American't: Redefining citizenship in the U.S. undocumented immigrant youth movements. In Abrego, L. J., & Negrón-Gonzales, G. (Eds.). (2020). *We are not dreamers: Undocumented scholars theorize undocumented life in the United States*. Duke University Press.

Monroe, J., Narro, V., & Valenzuela, A. (Eds.) *Undocumented and Unafraid: Tam Tran, Cynthia Felix, and the Immigrant Youth Movement* (pp. 63-64). Los Angles: UCLA Center for Labor Research and Education

Moore, S. S., Hope, E. C., Eisman, A. B., & Zimmerman, M. A. (2016). Predictors of civic engagement among highly involved young adults: Exploring the relationship between agency and systems worldview. *Journal of Community Psychology*, *44*(7), 888-903. https://doi.org/10.1002/jcop.21815

Morgan, G. S., & Chan, W. Y. (2016). Different paths to protest: Predictors of collective action in the Occupy Movement. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, *46*(10), 565-582. https://doi.org/10.1111/jasp.12386

Morris, A., & Herring, C. (1984). Theory and research in social movements: A critical review.

Muñoz, S. M. (2015). *Identity, social activism, and the pursuit of higher education: The journey stories of undocumented and unafraid community activists*. New York, NY: Peter Lang.

Muñoz, S. M., & Vigil, D. (2018). Interrogating racist nativist microaggressions and campus climate: How undocumented and DACA college students experience institutional legal violence in Colorado. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education*, *11*(4), 1-10 https://doi.org/10.1037/dhe0000078

Muñoz, S. M. (2015). *Identity, social activism, and the pursuit of higher education: The journey stories of undocumented and unafraid community activists*. New York, NY: Peter Lang.

Muñoz, S. M., & Maldonado, M. M. (2012). Counterstories of college persistence by undocumented Mexicana students: Navigating race, class, gender, and legal

status. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, *25*(3), 293-315. https://doi.org/10.1080/09518398.2010.529850

Muñoz, S. M., & Vigil, D. (2018). Interrogating racist nativist microaggressions and campus climate: How undocumented and DACA college students experience institutional legal violence in Colorado. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education*, *11*(4), 451–466. https://doi.org/10.1037/dhe0000078

NBC News (2014). One Year Later, Obama's Immigration Heckler Feels Vindicated. https://www.nbcnews.com/news/asian-america/one-year-later-obamas-immigration- heckler-feels-vindicated-n258951

Negrón-Gonzales, G. (2015). Undocumented youth activism as counter-spectacle: Civil disobedience and testimonio in the battle around immigration reform. *Aztlán: A Journal of Chicano Studies*, *40*(1), 87-112.

Negrón-Gonzales, G. (2017). Constrained inclusion: Access and persistence among undocumented community college students in California's central valley. *Journal of Hispanic Higher Education*, *16*, 105-122. https://doi.org/10.1177/1538192717697753

Nelson, J. A., Liss, M., Erchull, M. J., Hurt, M. M., Ramsey, L. R., Turner, D. L., & Haines, M. E. (2008). Identity in action: Predictors of feminist self-identification and collective action. *Sex Roles*, *58*(9), 721-728. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-007-9384-0

New York State Youth Leadership Council (2022). https://www.nysylc.org/2020report

Nichols, V. C., & Valdéz, R. G. (2020). How to Sound the Alarms: Untangling Racialized Threat in Latinx Mobilization. *PS: Political Science & Politics*, *53*(4), 690-696.

Nicholls, W. J. (2013). *The DREAMers: How the undocumented youth movement transformed the immigrant rights debate*. Stanford University Press.

NYSLYC (2022). How we create change. https://www.nysylc.org/

Nylund, K. L., Asparouhov, T., & Muthe´n, B. O. (2007). Deciding on the number of classes in latent class analysis and growth mixture modeling: A Monte Carlo simulation study. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal, 14,* 535–569. https://doi.org/10.1080/10705510701575396

Nylund, K. L. (2007). *Latent transition analysis: Modeling extensions and an application to peer victimization* (Doctoral dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles).

Nylund-Gibson, K., & Choi, A. Y. (2018). Ten frequently asked questions about latent class analysis. *Translational Issues in Psychological Science*, *4*(4), 440-461. https://doi.org/10.1037/tps0000176

Nylund-Gibson, K., Grimm, R. P., & Masyn, K. E. (2019). Prediction from latent classes: A demonstration of different approaches to include distal outcomes in mixture models. Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal, 26, 967–985. https://doi.org/10.1080/10705511.2019.1590146

Nylund-Gibson, K., Grimm, R., Quirk, M., & Furlong, M. (2014). A latent transition mixture model using the three-step specification. *Structural Equation Modeling:*

A Multidisciplinary Journal, *21*(3), 439-445. https://doi.org/10.1080/10705511.2014.915375

Obar, J. A., Zube, P., & Lampe, C. (2012). Advocacy 2.0: An analysis of how advocacy groups in the United States perceive and use social media as tools for facilitating civic engagement and collective action. *Journal of information policy*, *2*(1), 1-25.

Oliver, P. E. (1993). Formal models of collective action. *Annual review of sociology*, *19*(1), 271- 300.

Opp, K. D. (2009). *Theories of political protest and social movements: A multidisciplinary introduction, critique, and synthesis*. Routledge.

Oregon.gov. How to get an Oregon driver's license. https://www.oregon.gov/odot/DMV/driverlicenseforall/Pages/English.aspx

Patler, C., & Appelbaum, L. D. (2011). Reaching the Dream–The Federal DREAM Act, the California Dream Act, and Undocumented Student Activism. *UCLA: Institute for Research on Labor and Employment*, 1-10, https://escholarship.org/uc/item/87q47588

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

Parsons, E. (2016). "Advocacy" and "activism" are not dirty words—How activists can better help conservation scientists. *Frontiers in Marine Science*. Advance online publication. http://dx.doi.org/10.3389/fmars .2016.00229

Pedrina, N. (2009). Intimate equality: The lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender movement's legal framing of sodomy laws in Lawrence v. Texas case. In Barclay, S., Bernstein, M., & Marshall, A. M. (Eds.). *Queer mobilizations: LGBT activists confront the law*. NYU Press.

Perez, W., Espinoza, R., Ramos, K., Coronado, H., & Cortes, R. (2010). Civic engagement patterns of undocumented Mexican students. *Journal of Hispanic Higher Education*, *9*(3), 245-265. https://doi.org/10.1177/1538192710371007

Pérez, P., & Rodríguez, J. (2011). Access and opportunity for Latina/o undocumented college students: Familial and institutional support factors. *Association of Mexican American Educators Journal*, *5*(1). 14 – 21

Pew Research Center, (2019). U.S. unauthorized immigrant population estimates by state, 2016. https://www.pewresearch.org/hispanic/interactives/u-s-unauthorized-immigrants-by-state/

Pinetta, B. J., Blanco Martinez, S., Cross, F. L., & Rivas-Drake, D. (2020). Inherently political? Associations of parent ethnic–racial socialization and sociopolitical discussions with Latinx youths' emergent civic engagement. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, *66*(1-2), 94-105. https://doi.org/10.1002/ajcp.12435

Philbin, S. P., & Ayón, C. (2016). Luchamos por nuestros hijos: Latino immigrant parents strive to protect their children from the deleterious effects of anti-immigration policies. *Children and Youth Services Review*, *63*, 128-135. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2016.02.019

Presidents' Alliance (2020). Undocumented students in higher education: How many students are in U.S. colleges and universities, and who are they?. https://www.presidentsalliance.org/report-undocumented-students-in-higher-education-how-many-students-are-in-u-s-colleges-and-universities-and-who-are-they/

Philbin, S. P., & Ayon, C. (2016). Luchamos por nuestros hijos: Latino immigrant parents strive to protect their children from the deleterious effects of anti-immigration policies. *Children and Youth Services Review*, *63*, 128–135. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.childyouth.2016.02.019

Presidents' Alliance (2020). Undocumented students in higher education: How many students are in U.S. colleges and universities, and who are they?. https://www.presidentsalliance.org/report-undocumented-students-in-higher-education-how-many-students-are-in-u-s-colleges-and-universities-and-who-are-they/

Ramirez-Valles, J., Fergus, S., Reisen, C. A., Poppen, P. J., & Zea, M. C. (2005). Confronting stigma: Community involvement and psychological well-being among HIV-positive Latino gay men. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, *27*(1), 101-119. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0739986304270232

Ramos, M. (2012). The dream graduation. In Wong, K., Shadduck-Hernández, J., Inzunza, F., Monroe, J., Narro, V., & Valenzuela, A. (Eds.). *Undocumented and Unafraid: Tam Tran, Cynthia Felix, and the Immigrant Youth Movement.* Los Angles: UCLA Center for Labor Research and Education

Ramos, D., Camargo, E., Bennett, C., & Alvarez, A. (2021). Uncovering the effects of the sociopolitical context of the Nuevo South on Latinx college students' ethnic identification. *Journal of Diversity in Higher Education*. Advance online publication. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/dhe0000307

Rawls, J., (1999). *A theory of justice: Revised edition.* Harvard University Press, Cambridge Massachusetts.

Rendón García, S. A. (2019). "No vamos a tapar el sol con un dedo": Maternal communication concerning immigration status. *Journal of Latinx Psychology, 7*(4), 284-304. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/lat0000131

Rendón García, S. A. (2019). "No vamos a tapar el sol con un dedo": Maternal communication concerning immigration status. *Journal of Latinx Psychology, 7*(4), 284-304. http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/lat0000131

Reyes, Y. (2017). A poem so that the weight of this country does not crush you. *Mi Jente.* https://mijente.net/2017/02/poem-weight-country-not-crush-yosimar-reyes/?lang=es

Rise, J., Sheeran, P., & Hukkelberg, S. (2010). The role of self-identity in the theory of planned behavior: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 40*(5), 1085-1105.http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.2010.00611.x

Rivas-Drake, D., Syed, M., Umaña-Taylor, A., Markstrom, C., French, S., Schwartz, S. J., ... & Ethnic and Racial Identity in the 21st Century Study Group. (2014). Feeling good, happy, and proud: A meta-analysis of positive ethnic–racial affect and adjustment. *Child development, 85*(1), 77-102. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/cdev.12175

Roach, M. E., & Eicher, J. B. (1979). The language of personal adornment. *The fabrics of culture: The anthropology of clothing and adornment*, 7-21.

Roberts, N. (2019). Undocumented immigrants quietly pay billions into Social Security and receive no benefits. Marketplace. https://www.marketplace.org/2019/01/28/undocumented-immigrants-quietly-pay-billions-social-security-and-receive-no/

Rogers, J., Saunders, M., Terriquez, V., & Velez, V. (2008). Civil lessons: Public schools and the civic development of undocumented students and parents. *Nw. JL & Soc. Pol'y*, *3*, 201.

Romo, E., Ozuna-Allen, T., & Martinez, M. A. (2019). "It was kind of a dream come true": Undocumented college students' testimonios of cultural wealth in the college choice process. *Journal of Hispanic Higher Education, 18,* 389-409. https://doi.org/10.1177/153819271775281

Saleem, M., Hawkins, I., Wojcieszak, M. E., & Roden, J. (2021). When and how negative news coverage empowers collective action in minorities. *Communication Research*, *48*(2), 291- 316. https://doi.org/10.1177/0093650219877094

Saleem, M., & Ramasubramanian, S. (2019). Muslim Americans' responses to social identity threats: Effects of media representations and experiences of discrimination. *Media Psychology*, *22*(3), 373-393. https://doi.org/10.1080/15213269.2017.1302345

Seif, H. (2004). "Wise up!" Undocumented Latino youth, Mexican-American legislators,

and the struggle for higher education access. *Latino studies*, *2*(2), 210-230. https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.lst.8600080

Seif, H. (2011). "Unapologetic and unafraid": Immigrant youth come out from the shadows. *New Directions for Child and Adolescent Development*, 134, 59-75 https://doi.org/10.1002/cd.311

Seif, H. (2016). "We define ourselves": 1.5-Generation undocumented immigrant activist identities and insurgent discourse. *North American Dialogue*, *19*(1), 23-35. https://doi.org/10.1111/nad.12039

Seif, H., Ullman, C., & Núñez-Mchiri, G. G. (2014). Mexican (im) migrant students and education: Constructions of and resistance to "illegality". *Latino Studies*, *12*(2), 172-193. https:doi.org/10.1057/lst.2014.32

Seelig, M. I., Millette, D., Zhou, C., & Huang, J. (2019). A new culture of advocacy: An exploratory analysis of social activism on the web and social media. *Atlantic Journal of Communication*, *27*(1), 15-29. https://doi.org/10.1080/15456870.2019.1540418

Servaes, J., & Malikhao, P. (2010). Advocacy strategies for health communication. *Public Relations Review*, *36*(1), 42-49. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pubrev.2009.08.017

Simons, J. D., Brian, H., & Bahr, M. W. (2017). School counselor advocacy for lesbian, gay, and bisexual students: Intentions and practice. *Professional School Counseling*, *20*(1a), 1096-2409. https://doi.org/10.5330/1096-2409-20.1a.29

Snow, D. A., Soule, S. A., & Kriesi, H. (2004). Mapping the terrain. *The Blackwell companion to social movements*, 3-16. In Snow, D.A., Soule, S.A., & Kriesi, H. (Eds). *The Blackwell compation to social movements.* Blackwell Publishing,

Stewart, M., & Schultze, U. (2019). Producing solidarity in social media activism: The case of My Stealthy Freedom. *Information and organization*, *29*(3), 1-23. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.infoandorg.2019.04.003

Stok F.M., de Ridder D.T.D. (2019) The focus theory of normative conduct. In: Sassenberg K., Vliek M. (Eds) *Social Psychology in Action* (pp. 95-110). Springer, Cham. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-13788-5_7

Suárez-Orozco, C., Yoshikawa, H., Teranishi, R., & Suárez-Orozco, M. (2011). Growing up in the shadows: The developmental implications of unauthorized status. *Harvard Educational Review*, *81*(3), 438-473. https://doi.org/10.17763/haer.81.3.g23x203763783m75

Swerts, T. (2015). Gaining a voice: Storytelling and undocumented youth activism in Chicago. *Mobilization: An International Quarterly*, *20*(3), 345-360. https:/doi.org/10.17813/1086-671X-20-3-345

Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (1979). An intergrative theory of intergroup conflict. In W. G. Austin & S. Worchel (Eds.), *The Social Psychology of Intergroup Relations* (pp. 33–47). Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.

Tarrow, S., 1998 (2nd ed.). *Power in Movement. Social Movements, Collective Action and Politics* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Terriquez, V., Brenes, T., & Lopez, A. (2018). Intersectionality as a multipurpose

collective action frame: The case of the undocumented youth movement. *Ethnicities*, 18(2), 260- 276. https://doi.org/10.1177/1468796817752558

Thaker, J., Dutta, M., Nair, V., & Rao, V. P. (2018). The interplay between stigma, collective efficacy, and advocacy communication among men who have sex with men and transgender females. *Journal of Health Communication*, *23*(7), 614-623. https://doi.org/10.1080/10810730.2018.1499833

Thomas, E. F., Mavor, K. I., & McGarty, C. (2012). Social identities facilitate and encapsulate action-relevant constructs: A test of the social identity model of collective action. *Group Processes & Intergroup Relations*, *15*(1), 75-88. https://doi.org/10.1177/1368430211413619

Thomas, E. F., Zubielevitch, E., Sibley, C. G., & Osborne, D. (2020). Testing the social identity model of collective action longitudinally and across structurally disadvantaged and advantaged groups. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *46*(6), 823-838. https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167219879111

Toch, H., 1965. *The Social Psychology of Social Movements*. Indianapolis, IN: Bobbs-Merrill.

Trainer, S. (2017). Piety, glamour, and protest: Performing social status and affiliation in the United Arab Emirates. *Journal of Contemporary Ethnography*, *46*(3), 361-386.https://doi.org/10.1177/0891241615611728

Turner, M. M. (2007). Using emotion in risk communication: The anger activism model. *Public Relations Review*, *33*(2), 114-119. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pubrev.2006.11.013

Turner-Zwinkels, F. M., & van Zomeren, M. (2021). Identity expression through collective action: How identification with a politicized group and its identity contents differently motivated identity-expressive collective action in the US 2016 Presidential Elections. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *47*(3), 499-513.https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0146167220933406

United We Dream Network (2020). For UndocuLeaders participating in protest. https://unitedwedream.org/resources/for-undoculeaders-participating-in-protest/

Unzueta Carrasco, T. A. U., & Seif, H. (2014). Disrupting the dream: Undocumented youth reframe citizenship and deportability through anti-deportation activism. *Latino Studies*, *12*(2), 279-299. https://doi.org/10.1057/lst.2014.21

Van Zomeren, M., Postmes, T., & Spears, R. (2008). Toward an integrative social identity model of collective action: A quantitative research synthesis of three socio-psychological perspectives. *Psychological bulletin*, *134*(4), 504-535. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033- 2909.134.4.504

Van Zomeren, M., Postmes, T., & Spears, R. (2012). On conviction's collective consequences: Integrating moral conviction with the social identity model of collective action. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, *51*(1), 52-71. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8309.2010.02000.x

van Zomeren, M., Kutlaca, M., & Turner-Zwinkels, F. (2018). Integrating who "we" are with what "we"(will not) stand for: A further extension of the Social Identity Model of Collective Action. *European Review of Social Psychology*, *29*(1), 122-160. https://doi.org/10.1080/10463283.2018.1479347

Vargas, J. A. (2018). *Dear America: Notes of an undocumented citizen*. HarperCollins. Reyes, Y.

Vaccaro, A., & Mena, J. A. (2011). It's not burnout, it's more: Queer college activists of color and mental health. *Journal of Gay and Lesbian Mental Health*, *15*(4), 339-367. https://doi.org/10.1080/19359705.2011.600656

Velez, B. L., & Moradi, B. (2016). A moderated mediation test of minority stress: The role of collective action. *The Counseling Psychologist*, *44*(8), 1132-1157. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0011000016665467

Viruell-Fuentes, E. A. (2011). "It's a lot of work": Racialization processes, ethnic identity formations, and their health implications. *Du Bois Review: Social Science Research on Race*, *8*(1), 37-52. https://doi.org/10.10170S1742058X11000117

Walker, I., & Pettigrew, T. F. (1984). Relative deprivation theory: An overview and conceptual critique. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, *23*(4), 301-310. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8309.1984.tb00645.x

Wallace, S. P., Young, M. E. D. T., Rodríguez, M. A., & Brindis, C. D. (2019). A social determinants framework identifying state-level immigrant policies and their influence on health. *SSM-population health*, *7*, 1-9. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssmph.2018.10.016

Webber, C. (2007). Revaluating relative deprivation theory. *Theoretical Criminology*, *11*(1), 97-120. https://doi-org.proxy.library.ucsb.edu:9443/10.1177/1362480607072737

Weingarten, R., Johnson, L., & Lawrence, F. (2014). Deferred action for childhood arrivals: A guide for educators and school support staff. Retrieved from https://unitedwedream.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/05/DACA-Guide-for-Teachers-2014-FINAL.pdf

White, K. (2016). Black lives on campuses matter: reflecting on the rise of the new Black student movement. *Soundings*, *63*(63), 86-97. https://doi.org/10.3898/136266216819377002

Wilkins, K. G. (2014a). Advocacy communication. *The handbook of development communication and social change*, 57-71.

Wilkins, K. G. (2014b). Advocacy Communication for and about Women. In *Reclaiming the Public Sphere* (pp. 47-63). Palgrave Macmillan, London. https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118505328.ch4

Wolf, M. G. & McNeish, D. (2020). Dynamic Model Fit. R Shiny application version 1.1.0

Wong, K., Shadduck-Hernández, J., Inzunza, F., Monroe, J., Narro, V., & Valenzuela, A. (Eds.). (2012). *Undocumented and Unafraid: Tam Tran, Cynthia Felix, and the Immigrant Youth Movement.* Los Angles: UCLA Center for Labor Research and Education.

Yasuike, A. (2019). Stigma management and resistance among high-achieving undocumented students. *Sociological Inquiry, 89*, 191-213. https://doi.org/10.1111/soin.12264

Zimmerman, A. (2016). Transmedia testimonio: Examining undocumented youth's political activism in the digital age. *International Journal of Communication*, *10*, 21. 1886-1906

Zoller, H. M. (2005). Health activism: Communication theory and action for social change. *Communication Theory*, *15*(4), 341-364. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2885.2005.tb00339.x

Appendix A:

Definitions for key terms used within and outside the social movements' literature

Social movements:

1. "set of opinions and beliefs in a population which represents preferences for changing some elements of the social structure and/or reward distribution of a society" (McCarthy and Zald 1977, p. 1217-1218)

2. "are "effort[s] by a large number of people to solve collectively a problem that they feel they have in common (Toch 1965, p5)"

3. "are traditionally seen as extensions of more elementary forms of collective behavior and as encompassing both movements of personal change (e.g. religious sects, cults, and communes) and those focused on institutional changes (e.g. legal reforms and changes in political power)." (Jenkins, 1983, p. 529)

4. "are voluntary collectivities that people support in order to effect changes in society. Using the broadest and most inclusive definition, a social movement includes all who in any form support the general ideas of the movement. Social movements contain social movement organization, the carrier organizations that consciously

5. "attempt to coordinate and mobilize supporters" (as cited in, McCarthy and Zald 1973, italics not in the original) (Opp, 2009, p. 35).

6. "I reserve for those sequences of contentious politics that are based on underlying social networks and resonant collective action frames and which develop the capacity to maintain sustained challenges against powerful opponents" (Tarrow 1998, p 2)

7. "are better defined as collective challenges, based on common purposes and social solidarities, in sustained interaction with elites, opponents, and authorities (Tarrow 1998, p. 4)"

8. "traditionally been defined as organized efforts to bring about social change" (as cited in, Jenkins and Form 2005)" (Opp, 2009, p. 35)

9. "as a collectivity of actors who want to achieve their goal or goals by influencing the decisions of a target." (Opp, 2009, p. 40)

10. “most empirical research on collective action continues to analyze movements that seek formal institutional change with clearly defined demands.” (Bruce, 2013, p. 609)

11. “campaigns are run through decentralized networks – locally initiated actions, even when one-off, are regarded as potentially powerful” (Heggart & Flowers, 2019., 2020, p. 406)
12. “informal networks, linking individual and organizational actors engaged in conflictual relations to other actors, on the basis of a shared collective identity” (Della Porta & Diani, 1999, p. 30)

13. “implies activism on a large scale and existing over time, activism can be separate from, precede, follow, or include social movement activity.” (Zoller, 2005, p. 345).

14. “an extension of politics by other means, and can be analyzed in terms of conflicts of interest just like other forms of political struggle”….[Further, resource mobilization framework views social movements] “as normal, rational, institutionally rooted, political challenges by aggravated groups” (Buechler, 1993, p. 218)

15. “will be defined here as a collective form of social behavior that is explicitly organized for political action. A social movement is the process by which human and material resources are mobilized in trying to affect political change (an influential recent discussion is Ref, 22). Social movements tend to manifest themselves through publicly recognized forms of protest or direct action, but these acts do not themselves make a social movement. They need to be linked or connected to one another in some way, organized, and coordinated by means of a common platform or program.” (Jamison, 2010, p. 812-813).

16. “one of the principal social forms through which collectivities give voice to their grievances and concerns about the rights, welfare, and well-being of themselves and others by engaging in various types of collective action, such as protesting in the streets, that dramatize those grievances and concerns and demand that something be done about them. Although there are other more institutionalized and publicly less conspicuous venues in which collectivities can express their grievances and concerns, particularly in democratic societies, social movements have long functioned as an important vehicle for articulating and pressing a collectivity’s interests and claims.” (Snow et al., 2004, p. 3)

17. “can be thought of as collectivities acting with some degree of organization and continuity outside of institutional or organizational channels for the purpose of challenging or defending extant authority, whether it is institutionally or culturally based, in the group, organization, society, culture, or world order of which they are a part.” (Snow et al., 2004, p. 11).

Collective action:

1. **“**Occurs any time multiple participants publicly profess a grievance or concern. Collective action can take on various forms, many commonly considered to be protest behaviors. Rallies, boycotts, sit-ins, and hunger strikes are all forms of protest. So too are the nonviolent acts of civil disobedience…”One conventional definition of collective action refers to the provisions of public good by multiple people (Gause, 2022, pgs. 2-3)

2. “any action that provides a collective good” (Oliver, 1993, p. 272)

3. “communicative insofar as it entails efforts by people to cross boundaries by expressing or acting on an individual (i.e., private) interest in a way that is observable to others (i.e., public)” (Flanagin et al., 2006 p. 32)

4. “can include petitions, demonstrations, or protests aimed at improving the group’s image or status as well as the use of non-normative actions such as violence and terrorism for a group-specific goal or motive (Wright, 2009)” (Saleem et al., 2021, p. 294)

5. “understood as action of several individuals regardless of whether there is coordination or not” (Opp, 2009, p. 38)

6. “women's culture has developed across lines of race, class, ethnicity, women involved in a wide array of collective action-food riots in immigrant neighborhoods, to labor strikes, to protests the lynching of African-American men, to suffrage demonstrations- have shaped oppositional cultures that sustained their struggles” (Taylor &Rupp, 1993; p. 35)

7. “They have taken collective action—ranging from breaking windows to marching to speaking out to lobbying legislators—on behalf of all women since women as a group have lacked—in some cases basic, in others full—political rights” (Grayzel, 1999, p. 218)

8. “Examples of collective action strategies can include changing the public perception of the ingroup, political mobilization, and nonnormative aggressive actions.” (Saleem & Ramasubramanian, 2019, p.376)

9. “involves behaviors intended to enhance group status through group participation such as attending a protest, or individual acts to increase group status such as signing a petition (Foster & Matheson, 1995).” (Ayon et al., 2018, p. 81).

10. “Examples of collective action can include petitions, demonstrations, or protests aimed at improving the group’s image or status as well as the use of non-normative actions such as violence and terrorism for a group-specific goal or motive (Wright, 2009)” (Saleem et al., 2021, p. 294)

11. “any action individuals undertake as group members to pursue group goals of social change; Wright et al., 1990” (Turner-Zwinkels & van Zomeren, 2021, p. 499)

12. “participating in a rally or movement for women’s rights, adding a name to an e-mail petition on a women’s issue, contributing to a fund-raiser for a women’s cause, participating in a prochoice rally or march, petitioning for women’s acceptance in an exclusively male club or activity, participating in a rape victims’ vigil (e.g. Take Back the Night), and attending events at a Women’s Center. These behaviors were embedded in a list developed for the current study that included other behaviors that assessed collective action” (Liss et al., 2004, p. 774)

13. “refers to actions that individuals undertake to improve the lives of others and, sometimes, influence the futures of their communities (Adler, 2005).” (Moore et al., 2016; p. 889)

14. “is an umbrella term that refers to any behavior that individuals enact on behalf of their group with the goal of improving their group’s condition or overcoming the group’s disadvantage (Wright, Taylor, & Moghaddam, 1990).” (Morgan & Chan, 2016, p. 565).

15. “was measured using the Collective Action Scale from Liss et al. (2004). Participants were asked how often they engaged in a variety of collective behaviors” (Nelson et al., 2008, p. 725)

16. “such as competing with the high status outgroup on relevant comparison dimensions.” (Blanz et al., 1998, p. 701)

17. “can mean any coordinated behaviour by a group of people, but the term is usually defined in social psychology and related fi elds as action taken on behalf of a group or groups in order to influence their status, conditions, and/or identity (Louis et al., 2016). Such action is usually examined in the form of political behaviour.” (La Macchia & Louis, 2016, p. 94)

18. “the willingness to tackle group-based discrimination Collectively” (Jetten et al., 2017, p. 795)

19. “people co acting to challenge or uphold some state of affairs” (Thomas et al., 2019, p. 1)

20. “Commitment to undertake action to reduce disadvantage” (was measured using collective action intentions, Thomas et al., 2012, 81)

21. “any action that individuals undertake as group members to pursue group goals such as social change” (van Zomeren et al., 2018, p. 122)

22. “a protest demonstration or petition signing) is one of the major pathways to social change” (Van Zomeren et al., 2012, p. 52)

23. “Social movements are only one of numerous forms of collective action. Other types include much crowd behavior, as when sports and rock fans roar and applaud in unison; some riot behavior, as when looting rioters focus on some stores or products rather than others; some interest-group behavior, as when the National Rifle Association mobilizes large numbers of its adherents to write or phone their respective congressional representatives; some ‘‘gang’’ behavior, as when gang members work the streets together; and large-scale revolutions. Since these are only a few examples of the array of behaviors that fall under the collective action umbrella, it is useful to clarify the character of social movements as a type of collective action. At its most elementary level, collective action consists of any goal-directed activity engaged in jointly by two or more individuals. It entails the pursuit of a common objective through joint action – that is, people working together in some fashion for a variety of reasons, often including the belief that doing so enhances the prospect of achieving the objective.” (Snow et al., 2004, p. 6)

24. “This refers to the pursuit of a single goal or multiple goals by more than one individual. Collective action can take many forms, ‘brief or sustained, institutionalized or disruptive, humdrum or dramatic,’ and includes a range of activities, “from voting and interest group affiliation to bingo tournaments and football matches. But these are not the forms of action most characteristic of social movements.” (as cited by Tarrow, 1998 and Obar et al., 2012, p. 3).

Civic Engagement:

1. “Civic engagement was defined as providing a social service, activism, tutoring, and functionary Work” (Perez et al., 2010, p. 245)

2. “Historically, civic engagement has been defined by the gold standard of voting, though more recently it has been conceptualized more broadly by including commitment to society, activities that help those who are in need, and collective action to fight for social justice” (Suarez Orozco et al., 2011, p. 459)

3. “refers to taking an active role in solving social problems and serving one’s community ” (Katsiaficas et al., 2018, p. 792)

4. “We classified active civic participants as those who were involved on a weekly basis in activities intended to help their community or group and/or who actively worked toward change but not in a leadership capacity.” (Suarez et al., 2015, p. 89, cited under active civic engagement).

5. “broad spectrum of activities can include both paid as well as unpaid volunteer roles. Individuals involved in intensive service (e.g., AmeriCorps) typically receive a stipend for their involvement. And, particularly for older adults, civic engagement can take the form of paid work in areas of high social need, such as education or health care” (Adler, 2005, p. 240-241)

6. “can take many forms. Most generally, civic engagement refers to actions that individuals undertake to improve the lives of others and, sometimes, influence the futures of their communities (Adler, 2005). Researchers most often characterize civic engagement behaviors according to the domain of the activity’s intended influence, creating categories such as political involvement and community service .” (Moore et al., 2016, p. 889)

7. “often in the form of giving back to the community through translating for community members and tutoring and mentoring youth in the community” (Katsiaficas et al., 2018, p. 8)

8. “means working to make a difference in the civic life of our communities and developing the combination of knowledge, skills, values and motivation to make that difference. It means promoting the quality of life in a community, through both political and non-political processes.” (as cited in Ehrlich, 2000; Obar, 2012, p. 3)

Activism:

1. “purposeful and effortful engagement in behaviours aimed at preserving or “improving the quality of the environment, and increasing public awareness of environmental issue” (Fielding et al., 2008, p. 319; note, this definition is specific to environmental activism).

2. “’multiple actions to “push against the system’” (women participants’ definition in MacDonnell et al., 2017, p. 194)

3. “tends to refer to intentional actions aimed to bring about social, political, or institutional
change, often via protest and persuasion, such as speeches, pro tests, and marches” (Goldberg et al., 2018, p. 2)

3. "someone who tries to draw public attention and concern to an issue they consider to be important (i.e., a concern not necessarily science-based or valued by society)" (Parsons, 2016, p. 2, defines activist to define activism)

4. "the ways in which groups of people act on and change oppressive societal structures" (Case & Hunter, 2012, p. 260)

5. "a "critical" form of civic engagement that assumes action toward meaningful and systematic change to address social justice issues, and it may be particularly meaningful to Black and Latinx college students" (cited under political activism; Hope et al., 2018, p.27)

6. "In the volunteerism literature, activism is argued to be a form of volunteering… Activists seek to create change at the neighborhood, community, or global level. Activists view the social structure as a target of intervention, not a framework within which to work." (Gilster, 2012, p. 770)

7. Activism was defined with the definition of activist: "An activist may ...be a member of a social movement, popular struggle, trade union, collective, network, NGO, or civic or religious organization, a scholar or student, or an individual unaffiliated with any group (Couch, 2004: 15)" (Chen & Gorski, 2015, p. 372)

8. "involves some level of resistance or challenge to the status quo" (Zoller, 2005, p. 350).

9. "entails both an individual's day-to-day acts of resistance as well as a collective struggle for institutional transformation, and Jane Mansbridge's (2001) conceptualization of oppositional consciousness" [defined term using political activism, Craven et al., 2017, p. 441).

10. "Health activism implies, at some level, a challenge to the existing order and power relationships that are perceived to influence some aspects of health negatively or to impede health promotion. This is the case because activism involves attempts to change the status quo, including targets such as social norms, embedded practices, policies, or the dominance of certain social groups." (defines activism under health activism; Zoller, 2005, p. 344)

11. "activism activities are those focused on a particular social issue or cause such as the environment, a political party, human rights, or other causes that do not entail direct interaction with the needy." (Perez et al., 2010, p. 247)

Advocacy:

1. "focuses on 'listening' and 'cooperation' rather than on 'telling what to do', presumes

2. a dynamic two-way approach towards communication." (Servaes & Malikhao, 2009, p. 43; in this instance, the term advocacy is part of the term "participatory-based advocacy")

3. "engages public communication in support of a particular political cause. This political process may target a variety of communities, public as well as policy makers, toward creating social support on behalf of policy change. The communication processes are strategic, resonating with the broader field of development communication and social change in which interventions are conceptualized and implemented toward a public good" (Wilkins, 2014a; p. 57)

4. "often refers to formal or informal efforts to speak, write, or argue on behalf of a group, person, or cause (Parsons, 2016)" (Goldberg et al., 2018, p. 2).

5. "dictionary definition of an advocate is defined as a person who speaks, writes or argues in support or defense of a person or cause" (defines advocate instead of advocacy; Parsons, 2016)

6. "was manifested in a number of ways; (1) participants speak up for themselves; (2) they may seek out individuals who can advocate for them; and (3) individuals feel empowered to advocate for others." (Ayon et al., 2018, p. 880)

7. ". . signifies standing with others" (Scanlan & Johnson, 2015, p. 164). Furthermore, advocacy in pursuit of social justice requires action (Bogotch, 2002; Theoharis, 2007). This entails reclaiming and restructuring organizational and institutional structures to enhance fairness and equity in education, society, economically, and in personal respects" (Crawford et al., 2019, p. 121)

8. "actions intended to raise awareness of inequities for undocumented youth amid ever-changing sociopolitical contexts and intensifying xenophobia" (defined under adaptive activism; Parkhouse et al., 2020, p. 534)

Advocacy communication:

1. "is defined here as a behavioral intention that involves willingness to participate in health advocacy campaigns; in this case, to reduce the health disparities experienced by MSM and transgender females" (Thaker et al., 2018, p. 615)

2. "engages strategic intervention with clear political positions, having no pretense toward neutrality, and resisting hegemonic dominance in valuing social justice" (Wilkins, 2014ab; p. 58, p. 49)

Appendix B:

Dissertation study's recruitment email

Email Script for Colleges and Universities and Undocumented-Related Organizations

Paid Survey Study for Undocumented College Students; can you please share our flyer?

Hello,

My name is Monica Cornejo, and I am an undocumented PhD student in the Department of Communication at UC Santa Barbara. I am e-mailing to let you know of an opportunity that might be of interest to undocumented college students that your center supports.

I am working on a paid survey study with my advisor, Dr. Jennifer Kam, that explores undocumented college students' resilience and thriving in the United States.

Study's Focus: We are asking *undocumented college students (18-35 years of age; those with Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals, DACA, status can also participate) of any ethnic-racial background to participate in our survey study, which involves completing three online surveys (one month apart). Each survey will take approximately 25-35 minutes. All surveys will be in English.

***Note**: undocumented immigration is defined as coming to the United States without authorization or remaining in the United States after authorization has expired.*

Study's Purpose: The goal of the project is to inform the development of resources and services for undocumented college students, so that we can identify ways in which to support undocumented college students manage their stressors; our goal is promoting their wellbeing.

Payment: Participating undocumented college students will receive a total of $45 for completing all three surveys. Participants will be paid $10 for the first survey, $15 for the second survey (taken one month after the first survey), and $20 for the third survey (taken one month after the second survey). Payment will be distributed directly through Venmo or with an Amazon e-gift card, depending on each participating student's preference. We will not share any personal information with anyone outside the research team.

Privacy: Confidentiality is assured. We will combine all participants' answers, so that no one will know how any one participant personally responded to a question. Further, to demonstrate our commitment to keeping students' information private, we obtained a

Certificate of Confidentiality through the National Institutes of Health. This Certificate protects us from anyone asking for the list of students who are in the study. With this Certificate, no one will be able to make us share the list, even by a court order.

Share this Flyer with Others?: Can you please send the attached English flyer to anyone who might be interested in participating in this study or who knows others who may be eligible? Given the nature of our study, we ask that, at this moment, you do NOT share our flyer in personal social media sites (e.g., Facebook, Instagram, Twitter; sharing on your center's social media accounts is okay). **Can you please email our flyer to students who might be interested?**

Thank you for your time. I greatly appreciate your support.

Respectfully,

Monica Cornejo, M.A
Doctoral Candidate | Department of Communication
University of California, Santa Barbara
CEC@comm.ucsb.edu
https://www.comm.ucsb.edu/people/monica-cornejo
https://cec.comm.ucsb.edu/

Appendix C:

Participants' response email to participate in this dissertation's study

Email with Primary Response

Hello!

Thank you for expressing interest in participating our project to inform the development of resources and services for undocumented college students, so that we can identify ways in which to support undocumented college students manage their stressors; our goal is promoting their wellbeing. **We appreciate you contacting us because your participation will help our undocumented community**. :-)

Prior to confirming your participation in our study, please answer the below questions, which will help us identify your eligibility in our study:

1. Do you identify as an undocumented immigrant or DACA recipient?
2. What year in college are you completing?
3. In which state is your college or university located?
4. What is your college/university email address?

Once you email me the above info, I will email you the link to our first survey. This will confirm your participation in our study.

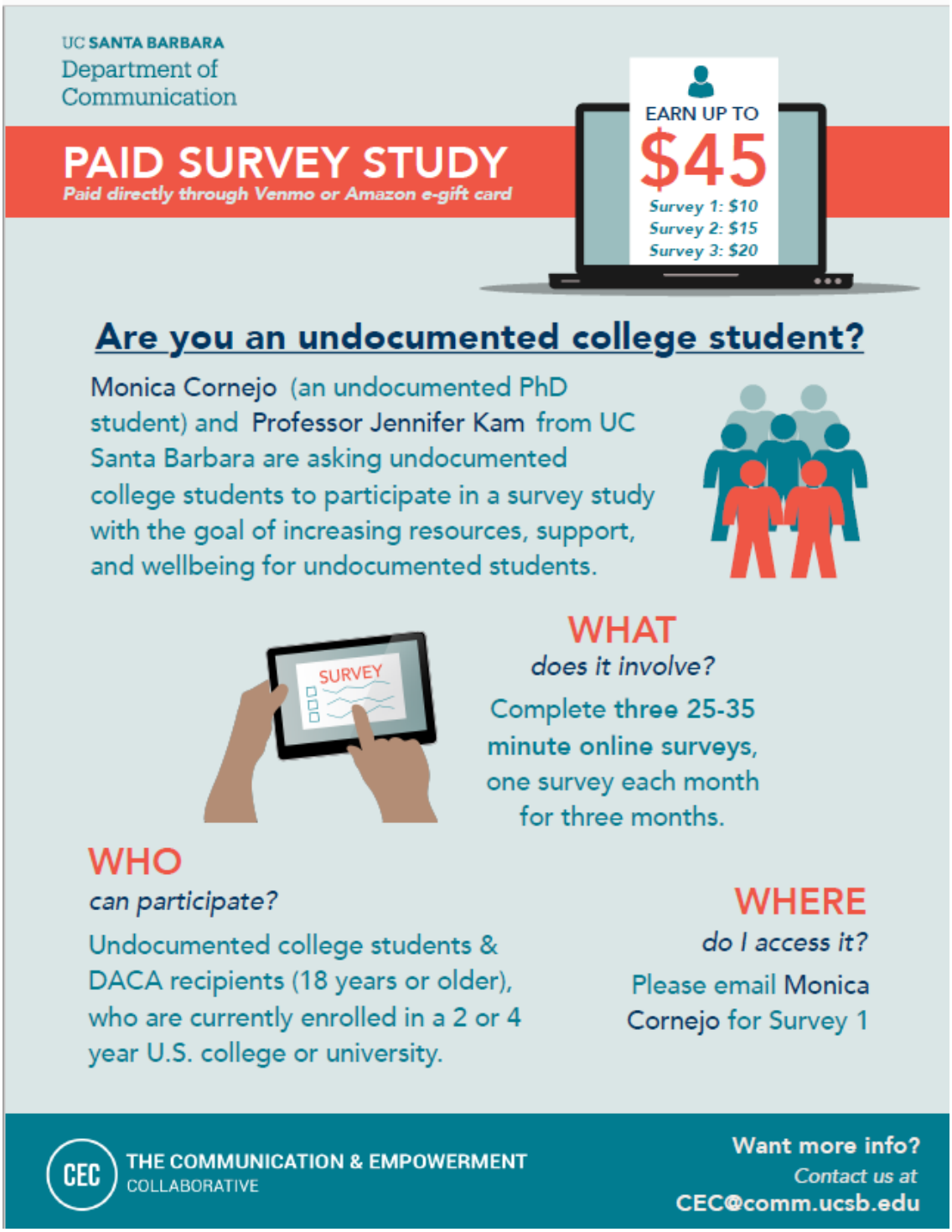
I hope to hear from you soon. If you have questions, please email me.

Monica Cornejo, M.A
Doctoral Candidate | Department of Communication
University of California, Santa Barbara
CEC@comm.ucsb.edu
https://www.comm.ucsb.edu/people/monica-cornejo
https://cec.comm.ucsb.edu/

Confidentiality Assurance: *We will keep all your information in a secure password-protected Box or Dropbox folder and on a password-protected computer that can only be accessed by the research investigators. We will not share your personally identifying information (e.g., name, e-mail address) with anyone outside our research team.*

Appendix D:

Recruitment Flyer



Appendix E: Tables

Table 1A.

Bivariate Correlations for Chapter 2

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42
W1IntAd1	--																																									
W1IntAd2	.515**	--																																									
W1IntAd3	.474**	.709**	--																																							
W1IntAd4	.594**	.642**	.598**	--																																						
W1IntAd5	.678**	.572**	.588**	.773**	--																																					
W1OrgPa1	.339**	.374**	.323**	.341**	.331**	--																																				
W1OrgPa2	.341**	.364**	.237**	.256**	.273**	.582**	--																																			
W1OrgPa3	.308**	.404**	.339**	.291**	.286**	.679**	.584**	--																																		
W1OrgPa4	.335**	.379**	.293**	.299**	.342**	.682**	.671**	.758**	--																																	
W1VisDi1	.376**	.423**	.324**	.352**	.371**	.518**	.516**	.504**	.563**	--																																
W1VisDi2	.382**	.382**	.313**	.316**	.354**	.465**	.488**	.463**	.571**	.734**	--																															
W1VisDi3	.578**	.540**	.481**	.579**	.594**	.409**	.344**	.375**	.374**	.506**	.492**	--																														
W1PolPa1	.328**	.304**	.251**	.288**	.237**	.377**	.420**	.341**	.392**	.440**	.416**	.361**	--																													
W1PolPa2	.388**	.428**	.389**	.329**	.332**	.469**	.391**	.532**	.460**	.550**	.577**	.458**	.533**	--																												
W1PolPa3	.246**	.279**	.181**	.284**	.209**	.305**	.491**	.331**	.386**	.378**	.401**	.310**	.424**	.349**	--																											
W1R_Undergr	-0.108	-.133*	-.136*	-.130*	-.129*	-.172**	-.142*	-0.088	-.161**	-.171**	-.205**	-0.109	-.148**	-.128*	-.113*	--																											
W1R_Year	-0.061	0.097	0.089	0.012	-0.021	0.091	0.039	0.063	0.021	0.062	0.088	-0.043	0.027	0.046	0.051	.170**	--																									
W1R_Univer	0.084	0.051	.119*	.122*	0.065	.116*	0.038	.110*	0.067	0.084	.118*	0.107	0.072	0.105	0.068	-0.107	0.109	--																								
W1R_Emplo	0.011	0.1	0.067	0.079	0.084	0.094	.135*	0.071	0.103	.204**	.198**	0.034	.200**	0.072	.166**	-.279**	.213**	-.123*	--																							
W1R_Wom	0.052	0.082	0.097	.120*	0.089	0.061	0.06	0.062	0.013	0.071	0.035	.120*	0.007	0.028	-0.003	0.016	-0.007	0.087	0.056	--																					
W1R_Hetero	-.119*	-0.087	-0.104	-.138*	-.135*	-.142*	-0.064	-.131*	-0.08	-.164**	-.116*	-.200**	-.117*	-.204**	-0.089	-0.017	-0.038	0.014	0.017	0.014	--																				
W1R_11years	0.026	0.05	0.08	0.006	0.018	0.02	-0.011	-0.01	-.111*	0.045	0.018	0.023	-0.016	0.09	-0.028	-.149**	.152**	0.031	0.08	0.003	-0.1	--																		
W1R_DACA	0.011	0.095	0.049	0.047	0.009	.120*	0.086	0.048	0.046	.168**	.135*	0.042	.153**	0.104	.135*	-.286**	.174**	0.031	.461**	0.053	-0.081	.345**	--																	
W1ExState	0.009	0.083	-0.002	0.06	-0.005	0.069	0.101	.146**	.167**	0.075	0.036	-0.076	0.024	0.103	0.017	.163**	-0.089	.153**	-0.073	-0.009	-0.08	-0.08	0.007	--																
Cw1FAS	.364**	.436**	.398**	.373**	.305**	.382**	.434**	.366**	.370**	.421**	.398**	.373**	.370**	.409**	.306**	-.135*	.165**	.157**	.171**	.138*	-0.111	0.084	.146*	0.021	--																
Cw1FAC	.305**	.354**	.276**	.266**	.279**	.205**	.337**	.241**	.240**	.391**	.372**	.350**	.257**	.396**	.226**	-0.065	.114*	0.011	.134*	.128*	-0.055	0.064	.182**	0.042	.468**	--															
Cw1Emp	.329**	.293**	.319**	.257**	.302**	.120*	.153**	.178**	.151**	.242**	.252**	.346**	0.038	.246**	0.097	0.029	-0.009	-0.009	-0.021	.134*	0.084	0.04	0.03	0.002	.271**	.379**	--														
Cw1Thriv	.268**	.247**	.292**	.313**	.325**	.186**	.153**	.226**	.121*	.176**	.155**	.301**	0.107	.247**	0.108	0.061	-0.001	0.013	0.041	0.07	-0.045	.131*	0.03	-0.008	.244**	.378**	.486**	--													
Cw1Belon	.334**	.344**	.333**	.290**	.302**	.167**	.158**	.158**	0.097	.213**	.204**	.346**	0.078	.262**	.116*	0.025	-0.022	0.057	-0.003	0.089	-0.025	.192**	0.061	0.009	.277**	.383**	.560**	.582**	--												
Cw1Cope	.272**	.258**	.207**	.310**	.288**	.158**	.202**	.139*	.124*	.236**	.182**	.210**	0.105	.199**	.132*	-0.024	0.027	-0.029	.126*	0.027	0.103	0.054	.151**	0.095	.265**	.374**	.452**	.376**	.435**	--											
Cw1PerBeh	.337**	.431**	.378**	.323**	.361**	.215**	.294**	.304**	.326**	.360**	.341**	.400**	.213**	.321**	.200**	-.169**	-0.015	0.038	0.102	0.033	-0.039	0.032	.122*	0.021	.296**	.224**	.350**	.136*	.277**	.298**	--										
Cw1ResEff	.179**	.254**	.253**	.166**	.184**	.134*	.153**	.124*	.143*	.167**	.182**	.202**	.120*	.195**	0.023	-0.05	0.062	-0.028	0.018	0.028	-0.056	-0.015	0.055	-0.061	0.076	.125*	.210**	0.1	.150**	.174**	.388**	--									
Cw1PerSafe	0.049	-0.019	0.047	0.089	0.095	0.069	-0.041	-0.059	-0.031	-0.059	-0.021	0.037	-0.01	-0.033	0.008	0.032	0.067	0.011	-.118*	0.078	-0.049	0.043	-.123*	-.114*	-0.004	0.024	-0.055	0.051	0.046	-0.047	-.272**	-0.055	--							
Cw1FamSafe	0.043	-0.01	0.065	0.084	0.1	0.076	0.036	0.001	-0.002	0.037	0.034	0.068	0.021	0	0.047	0.044	0.098	0.019	-0.068	.132*	-0.027	.134*	0.017	-0.043	0.058	0.018	0.025	0.092	.118*	0.007	-.144**	0.013	.772**	--						
Cw1Injuc	.180**	.308**	.263**	.227**	.230**	.220**	.208**	.293**	.291**	.270**	.219**	.321**	.137*	.232**	.115*	-0.075	0.065	0.031	0.101	-0.01	0.028	0.02	0.064	0.013	.194**	.197**	.227**	.153**	.211**	.155**	.376**	.221**	-.227**	-.184**	--					
Cw1DesNor	.215**	.324**	.265**	.218**	.198**	.285**	.214**	.313**	.273**	.333**	.235**	.352**	.203**	.268**	.123*	-.113*	0.102	-0.007	.137*	-0.038	-0.022	0.021	.145**	0.015	.284**	.379**	.236**	.217**	.272**	.306**	.403**	.286**	-0.065	0.024	.512**	--				
Cw1UndoPri	.312**	.321**	.385**	.269**	.303**	.263**	.217**	.245**	.238**	.314**	.309**	.306**	.191**	.259**	.141*	-0.046	-0.001	0.089	0.105	0.019	-0.049	0.095	.161**	0.027	.251**	.182**	.388**	.307**	.311**	.330**	.388**	.213**	-.125*	-0.067	.322**	.311**	--			
Cw2Depre	0.118	.174**	.184**	.134*	.148*	0.074	0.057	0.118	0.095	.156*	0.097	0.055	0.113	0.117	0.041	0.041	.208**	0.007	0.018	0.038	-0.091	.152*	-0.011	0.011	0.11	.149*	-0.058	0.058	0.043	-0.076	0.014	-0.078	.189**	.152*	-0.006	0.031	-.178**	--			
Cw2Hopeful	0.084	.153*	0.108	0.119	.132*	-0.033	-0.033	.135*	0.003	0.008	0.011	0.109	-0.101	0.097	-0.034	-0.072	-0.092	0.03	-0.106	-0.035	0.09	0.092	-0.09	-0.045	-0.025	-0.071	.297**	.154*	.195**	0.106	.306**	.258**	-0.055	-0.048	.221**	.136*	.138*	-0.096	--		
Cw2Burnout	0.08	.162*	0.119	0.118	0.107	0.096	0.119	0.048	0.055	.161*	0.089	0.106	.175**	0.061	0.049	-0.066	.161*	0.027	0.064	0.099	-.258**	.189**	0.122	.179**	0.137	0.062	-.155*	0.018	0.057	-.145*	-0.113	-0.106	.343**	.403**	-0.033	-0.022	-.179**	.511**	-.146*	--		
Cw2Strained	.325**	.163*	0.127	.186**	.187**	0.065	.194**	0.053	.135*	.161*	.186**	.179**	.174**	0.061	0.127	-0.018	-0.016	0.005	-0.019	-0.006	-0.087	-0.1	-0.113	0.116	.257**	.140*	0.022	.177**	0.13	0.04	-0.017	-0.035	.301**	.275**	-.197**	-0.052	-0.002	.130*	-.142*	.291**	--	
Cw2Anxiety	.216**	.276**	.272**	.184**	.247**	.194**	.137*	.165*	.169*	.274**	.183**	0.122	.163*	.195**	0.024	-0.044	.226**	0.05	0.032	0.116	-0.111	.155*	0.074	0.008	.241**	.158*	0.021	0.023	0.106	0.017	0.114	0.066	.209**	.229**	-0.019	0.073	-0.06	.688**	-0.018	.495**	.253**	--

Note. *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$. Indicators with Cw1 = Composite scores for Wave 1; Indicators with Cw2 = Composite Scores for Wave 2. W2IntAd1 = Confronted someone because you heard them use the word "illegal" or other derogatory terms for undocumented immigrants?; W2IntAd2 = Informed others about what immigration policy means for undocumented immigrants?; W2IntAd3 = Informed others about the barriers that undocumented immigrants experience due to their status?; W2IntAd4 = Presented facts to contest another person's views on undocumented immigrants?**;** W2IntAd5 = Spoken up when you have heard people make false statements about undocumented immigrants?; W2OrgPa1 = Joined an on-campus organization on behalf of undocumented immigrant rights?; W2OrgPa2 = Joined an off-campus organization on behalf of undocumented immigrant rights?; W2OrgPa3 = Attended a regular planning meeting for an organization that supports undocumented issues?; W2OrgPa4 = Helped put on events hosted by organization in support of undocumented communities?; W2VisDi1 = Displayed stickers or posters in favor of undocumented immigration?**;** W2VisDi2 = Worn a t-shirt, hat, buttons, etc. messages in favor of undocumented immigration?**;** W2VisDi3 = Expressed a view during a class discussion in favor of undocumented immigration?; W2PolPa1 = Participated in a protest, march, or demonstration, or rally in favor of undocumented immigration?; W2PolPa2 = Blocked access to a building or public area with your body for a cause in support of undocumented immigration?; W2PolPa3 = Organized a political event (e.g., talk, march) to support undocumented immigration?; W1R_Undergr = dummy coded variable, undergraduate student; W1R_Year = number of years living in the United States; W1R_Univer = Type of university attended; W1R_Emplo = currently employed; W1R_Wom = identifies as cisgender woman; W1R_Hetero = identifies as heterosexual; W1R_11years = 11 years or more living in the United States; W1R_DACA = has DACA status; W1ExState = Lives in state with exclusionary policies; Cw1FAS = composite score for family advocacy socialization messages; Cw1FAC = composite score for family modeling advocacy actions; Cw1Emp = composite score for family empowerment socialization messages; Cw1Thriv = composite score for family thriving socialization messages; Cw1Belon = composite score for family belonging socialization messages; Cw1Cope = composite score for family coping through role models socialization messages; Cw1PerBeh = composite score for perceived behavioral control; Cw1ResEff = composite score for response efficacy; Cw1PerSafe = composite score for perceived safety for self; Cw1FamSafe = composite score for perceived safety for one's family; Cw1Injuc = composite score for injunctive norms; Cw1DesNor = composite score for descriptive norms; Cw1UndoPri = composite score for undocumented identity; Cw2Depre = Depressive symptoms; Cw2Hopeful = Hopefulness for Undocumented Immigrants' Futures; Cw2Burnout = Burnout; Cw2Strained = Strained Relationships; Cw2Anxiety = Anxiety.

Table 1B.

Advocacy Communication Measures

Scale	Measures
	"Please indicate how often you have engaged in the following actions:"
Interpersonal advocacy	1. Confronted someone because you heard them use the word "illegal" or other derogatory terms for undocumented immigrants? 2. Informed others about what immigration policy means for undocumented immigrants? 3. Informed others about the barriers that undocumented immigrants experience due to their status? 4. Presented facts to contest another person's views on undocumented immigrants? 5. Spoken up when you have heard people make false statements about undocumented immigrants?
Adornment advocacy	1. Displayed stickers or posters in favor of undocumented immigration? 2. Worn a t-shirt, hat, buttons, etc. messages in favor of undocumented immigration?
Academic advocacy	1. Expressed a view during a class discussion in favor of undocumented immigration?
Political advocacy	1. Sent a letter or an e-mail in favor of undocumented immigration? 2. Signed a petition in favor of undocumented immigration? 3. Engaged in any political activity for undocumented immigrants where you risked your personal safety?
Organizational advocacy	1. Joined an on-campus organization on behalf of undocumented immigrant rights? 2. Joined an off-campus organization on behalf of undocumented immigrant rights? 3. Attended a regular planning meeting for an organization that supports undocumented issues? 4. Helped put on events hosted by organization in support of undocumented communities?

Note. All measures were based on a 5-point scale (*1 = never, 2 = once, 3 = a few times, 4 = many times, 5 = all the time)*

Table 1C.

Family Advocacy Socialization Measures

Scale	**Measures**
	"For each of the items below, please indicate how often you and at least one of your family members *(*e.g., parent, sibling, grandparent, aunt, uncle, cousin) have done the following…Talked about using different advocacy strategies to:.."
Advocacy socialization	1. fight discrimination against undocumented immigrants. 2. create more services or resources for undocumented immigrants. 3. create opportunities for undocumented immigrants. 4. change local, state, or federal policy on behalf of undocumented immigrants.
	"For each of the items below, please indicate how often at least one of your family members *(*e.g., parent, sibling, grandparent, aunt, uncle, cousin) have done the following…"
Advocacy actions	1. Educated others about undocumented immigrants' experiences? 2. Posted information or news in favor of undocumented immigrants on their social media? 3. Helped put on events hosted by organization in support of undocumented communities? 4. Worn a t-shirt, hat, buttons, etc. messages in favor of undocumented immigration?
	"For each of the items below, please indicate how often <u>you and at least one of your family members</u> *(e.g., parent, sibling, grandparent, aunt, uncle, cousin*) have done the following… talked about…"
Empowerment	1. not feeling ashamed of being undocumented? 2. how discrimination against undocumented people should not be tolerated? 3. being **confident** in who you are as an undocumented immigrant? 4. being **proud** of who you are as an undocumented immigrant?
	"Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements."
Thriving	1. makes us resourceful? 2. has helped us develop a better work ethic? 3. makes us resilient? 4. has prepared us for future challenges?
	"Discussed how:…"

Belonging	1. undocumented immigrants are worthy of being in the United States? 2. being undocumented does not make us different from documented people (i.e., U.S. citizens or permanent residents)? 3. undocumented immigrants should be welcomed in the United States? 4. undocumented immigrants should be treated like documented people (i.e., U.S. citizens or permanent residents)?
	"Talked about other undocumented people:…"
Coping through role models	1. who are successful? 2. who are doing well in life?

Note. All measures were based on a 5-point scale (*1 = never, 2 = once, 3 = a few times, 4 = many times, 5 = all the time)*

Table 1D.

Psychological Measures

Scale	Measures
	"The following statements ask about advocating on behalf of undocumented immigrants. *Advocating for undocumented immigrants by, for example:* • *participating in protests, marches, signing petitions* • *belonging to clubs or organization for undocumented immigrants* • *educating someone about undocumented immigration* • *confronting someone for something they said or posted about undocumented immigrants* • *posting comments on different social media platforms in favor of undocumented immigrants* • *displaying stickers or posters in support of undocumented immigrants.* How much do you disagree or agree with the following?"
Descriptive Norms	1. I have family members who advocate for undocumented immigrants. 2. I have friends who advocate for undocumented immigrants. 3. I have professors who advocate for undocumented immigrants.
Injunctive Norms	1. I have <u>family members</u> who would approve of me advocating for undocumented immigrants. 2. I have <u>friends</u> who would approve of me advocating for undocumented immigrants. 3. I have <u>professors</u> who would approve of me advocating for undocumented immigrants.
Perceived Behavioral Control	1. I am confident that I can advocate for undocumented immigrants. 2. It would be easy for me to advocate for undocumented immigrants. 3. I would have no problem advocating for undocumented immigrants.
	"How much do you disagree or agree with the following? Advocating for undocumented immigrants will"
Response Efficacy	1. help reduce discrimination towards them. 2. help improve their access to services or resources. 3. create more opportunities for them. 4. create local, state, or federal policy on behalf of undocumented immigrants
	The following statements ask about advocating on behalf of undocumented immigrants. *Advocating for undocumented immigrants by, for example:* • *participating in protests, marches, signing petitions* • *belonging to clubs or organization for undocumented immigrants* • *educating someone about undocumented immigration*

	• *confronting someone for something they said or posted about undocumented immigrants* • *posting comments on different social media platforms in favor of undocumented immigrants* • *displaying stickers or posters in support of undocumented immigrants.* How much do you disagree or agree with the following? I'm worried that advocating for undocumented immigrants might:
Anticipated Outcomes for Personal Safety	1. increase my risk of being detained or deported. 2. hurt my chances of obtaining legal status (e.g., U.S. permanent residency, U.S. Citizenship). 3. harm some of my relationships with family, friends, or professors. 4. hurt my reputation.
Anticipated Outcomes for Family Safety	1. increase my family's risk of being detained or deported. 2. hurt my family's chances of obtaining legal status (e.g., U.S. permanent residency, U.S. Citizenship).
	"Please indicate how much you agree or disagree with each of the items below: Being undocumented makes me:"
Undocumented Pride	1. feel strong. 2. feel resourceful. 3. feel resilient. 4. feel proud.

Note. All measures were based on a 5-point scale (*1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree)*

Table 1E.

Distal Outcome Measures

Scale	**Measures**
	"In the past 7 days, how often have you"
Depressive symptoms	1. Felt worthless? 2. Felt that you had nothing to look forward to? 3. Felt helpless? 4. Felt sad? 5. Felt like a failure? 6. Felt depressed? 7. Felt unhappy? 8. Felt hopeless?
Anxiety	1. Felt fearful?. 2. Felt anxious? 3. Felt worried? 4. Found it hard to focus on anything other than your anxiety? 5. Felt nervous? 6. Felt uneasy? 7. Felt tense?
	"Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements."
	"How much do you disagree or agree with the following? Advocating for undocumented immigrants will" *Note*. All measures were based on a 5-point scale (*1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree)*
Hopeful about undocumented immigrants' futures	1. You try to imagine a brighter future for undocumented immigrants. 2. You try to maintain hope that things will get better for undocumented immigrants. 3. You think things will eventually improve for undocumented immigrants.
	"When you think about advocating for undocumented immigrants, how often do you feel the following ways?"
Burnout	4. Tired 5. Disappointed with people 6. Hopeless 7. Physically sick 8. Fed up

	"Please think about your relationship with your family members when responding to the following questions." *Note*. All measures were based on a 5-point scale (*1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree)*
Strained Relationships	1. I have experienced strained relationships with family, friends, or professors because of advocating for undocumented immigrants. 2. I have experienced tension in my relationships with family, friends, or professors because of advocating for undocumented immigrants. 3. I have gotten into conflicts with family, friends, or professors because of advocating for undocumented immigrants.

Note. All measures were based on a 5-point scale (*1 = never, 2 = once, 3 = a few times, 4 = many times, 5 = all the time), unless indicated otherwise.*

Table 2A.

Fit Information for Advocacy Communication Models

Model (K-profile)	Log likelihood	Number of free parameters	BIC	ABIC	VLMR-RT (p-value)	BLRT (p-value)
1-profile	-5209.116	30	10581.244	10486.164	–	–
2-profile	-4663.272	46	9576.495	9430.70	0.0346	0.000
3-profile	-4477.529	62	9291.949	9095.45	0.1135	0.000
4-profile	-4308.915	78	**9041.66**	**8794.45**	0.237	0.000
5-profile	Model did not converge	–	–	–	–	–

Note. BIC = Bayesian information criterion; ABIC = Adjusted Bayesian information criterion; AIC = Akaike information criterion; VLMR = Voung-Lo-Mendell-Rubin; BLMR = bootstrap. VLMR-RT, and BLRT not available for a one-class model.

Table 2B.

Item Means for Each of the Advocacy Indicators in the Four-Profile Model

Variable description	*Infrequent Advocators (59 %)* Means	*Occasional Interpersonal Advocators (20 %)* Means	*Organizational Advocators (13 %)* Means	*Frequent Advocators (7 %) Means*
W2INTAD1	1.102	2.389	1.918	3.468
W2INTAD2	1.706	3.538	2.923	4.069
W2INTAD3	1.963	3.788	3.249	4.27
W2INTAD4	1.353	3.215	2.406	4.135
W2INTAD5	1.334	2.993	2.58	4.069
W2VISDI1	1.448	2.313	2.603	3.936
W2VISDI2	1.387	2.06	2.539	3.803
W2POLPA1	1.104	1.177	1.383	3.53
W2POLPA2	1.249	1.903	1.678	4.065
W2POLPA3	1.052	1.113	1.116	2.802
W2ORGPA1	1.32	1.418	3.532	3.798
W2ORGPA2	1.122	1.169	2.445	3.191
W2ORGPA3	1.418	1.327	3.886	3.797
W2ORGPA4	1.196	1.354	3.17	3.468
W2VISDI3	1.539	2.735	2.865	3.936

Note. Interpersonal Advocacy = W2INTAD1, W2INTAD2, W2INTAD3, W2INTAD4, W2INTAD5*; Adornment Advocacy* = W2VISDI1, W2VISDI2, ; *Political Advocacy* = W2POLPA1, W2POLPA2, W2POLPA3; *Organizational Advocacy* = W2ORGPA1, W2ORGPA2, W2ORGPA3, W2ORGPA4; *Academic Advocacy* = W2VISDI3 (1 = *Never, 2 = Rarely, 3 = Sometimes, 4 = Often, 5 = All the time*

Table 2C.

Regression Estimates for the Predictors of Latent Profiles for Wave 2

Reference Profile = *Frequent Advocators*			
Variable	*Infrequent Advocators*	*Occasional Interpersonal Advocators*	*Organizational Advocators*
W1R_DACA	1.864	0.770	0.649
CW1FAS	-0.905**	-1.094**	-0.418
CW1FAC	-1.964**	-1.246*	-1.869**
CW1EMP	0.896	0.932	0.657
CW1THRIV	-1.486**	-1.569**	-1.429**
CW1BELON	0.165	0.550	-0.374
CW1COPE	0.079	0.221	0.226
CW1PERBE	-1.962**	-1.427	-1.904*
CW1RESEF	-0.276	-0.141	-0.030
CW1PERSA	-1.917**	-2.148**	-2.042**
CW1FAMSA	-0.064	0.735	0.129
CW1INJUC	-1.213	-1.249	-1.083
CW1DESNO	1.399	1.108	1.687*
CW1UNDOP	-1.715	-1.648	-0.904

Note. * = p < .05, ** = p < .001; W1R_DACA = has DACA status; Cw1FAS = composite score for family advocacy socialization messages; Cw1FAC = composite score for family modeling advocacy actions; Cw1Emp = composite score for family empowerment socialization messages; Cw1Thriv = composite score for family thriving socialization messages; Cw1Belon = composite score for family belonging socialization messages; Cw1Cope = composite score for family coping through role models socialization messages; Cw1PerBeh = composite score for perceived behavioral control; Cw1ResEff = composite score for response efficacy; Cw1PerSafe = composite score for perceived safety for self; Cw1FamSafe = composite score for perceived safety for one's family; Cw1Injuc = composite score for injunctive norms; Cw1DesNor = composite score for descriptive norms; Cw1UndoPri = composite score for undocumented identity

Table 2C.

Continued Regression Estimates for the Predictors of Latent Profiles for Wave 2

Reference Profile = Inf*requent Advocators*			
Variable	*Occasional Interpersonal Advocators*	*Organizational Advocators*	*Frequent Advocators*
W1R_DACA	-1.094	-1.215*	-1.864
CW1FAS	-0.190	0.487	0.905**
CW1FAC	0.718	0.094	1.964**
CW1EMP	0.036	-0.240	-0.896
CW1THRIV	-0.083	0.057	1.486**
CW1BELON	0.385	-0.539	-0.165
CW1COPE	0.142	0.147	-0.079
CW1PERBE	0.535	0.058	1.962**
CW1RESEF	0.135	0.246	0.276
CW1PERSA	-0.231	-0.125	1.917**
CW1FAMSA	0.799	0.193	0.064
CW1INJUC	-0.036	0.130	1.213
CW1DESNO	-0.291	0.288	-1.399
CW1UNDOP	0.067	0.810	1.715

Note. * = p < .05, ** = p < .001; W1R_DACA = has DACA status; Cw1FAS = composite score for family advocacy socialization messages; Cw1FAC = composite score for family modeling advocacy actions; Cw1Emp = composite score for family empowerment socialization messages; Cw1Thriv = composite score for family thriving socialization messages; Cw1Belon = composite score for family belonging socialization messages; Cw1Cope = composite score for family coping through role models socialization messages; Cw1PerBeh = composite score for perceived behavioral control; Cw1ResEff = composite score for response efficacy; Cw1PerSafe = composite score for perceived safety for self; Cw1FamSafe = composite score for perceived safety for one's family; Cw1Injuc = composite score for injunctive norms; Cw1DesNor = composite score for descriptive norms; Cw1UndoPri = composite score for undocumented identity

Table 2C.

Continued Regression Estimates for the Predictors of Latent Profiles for Wave 2

Reference Profile = *Occasional Interpersonal Advocators*			
Variable	*Infrequent Advocators*	*Organizational Advocators*	*Frequent Advocators*
W1R_DACA	1.094	-0.121	-0.770
CW1FAS	0.190	0.677	1.094**
CW1FAC	-0.718	-0.623	1.246
CW1EMP	-0.036	-0.276	-0.932
CW1THRIV	0.083	0.140	1.569**
CW1BELON	-0.385	-0.924*	-0.550
CW1COPE	-0.142	0.006	-0.221
CW1PERBE	-0.535	-0.477	1.427
CW1RESEF	-0.135	0.111	0.141
CW1PERSA	0.231	0.105	2.148**
CW1FAMSA	-0.799	-0.606	-0.735
CW1INJUC	0.036	0.166	1.249
CW1DESNO	0.291	0.579	-1.108
CW1UNDOP	-0.067	0.744	1.648

Note. * = p < .05, ** = p < .001; W1R_DACA = has DACA status; Cw1FAS = composite score for family advocacy socialization messages; Cw1FAC = composite score for family modeling advocacy actions; Cw1Emp = composite score for family empowerment socialization messages; Cw1Thriv = composite score for family thriving socialization messages; Cw1Belon = composite score for family belonging socialization messages; Cw1Cope = composite score for family coping through role models socialization messages; Cw1PerBeh = composite score for perceived behavioral control; Cw1ResEff = composite score for response efficacy; Cw1PerSafe = composite score for perceived safety for self; Cw1FamSafe = composite score for perceived safety for one's family; Cw1Injuc = composite score for injunctive norms; Cw1DesNor = composite score for descriptive norms; Cw1UndoPri = composite score for undocumented identity

Table 2C.

Continued Regression Estimates for the Predictors of Latent Profiles for Wave 2

Reference Profile = Organizational *Advocators*			
Variable	*Infrequent Advocators*	*Occasional Interpersonal Advocators*	*Frequent Advocators*
W1R_DACA	1.215*	0.121	-0.649
CW1FAS	-0.487	-0.677	0.418
CW1FAC	-0.094	0.623	1.869**
CW1EMP	0.240	0.276	-0.657
CW1THRIV	-0.057	-0.140	1.429**
CW1BELON	0.539	0.924*	0.374
CW1COPE	-0.147	-0.006	-0.226
CW1PERBE	-0.058	0.477	1.904*
CW1RESEF	-0.246	-0.111	0.030
CW1PERSA	0.125	-0.105	2.042**
CW1FAMSA	-0.193	0.606	-0.129
CW1INJUC	-0.130	-0.166	1.083
CW1DESNO	-0.288	-0.579	-1.687*
CW1UNDOP	-0.810	-0.744	0.904

Note. * = p < .05, ** = p < .001; W1R_DACA = has DACA status; Cw1FAS = composite score for family advocacy socialization messages; Cw1FAC = composite score for family modeling advocacy actions; Cw1Emp = composite score for family empowerment socialization messages; Cw1Thriv = composite score for family thriving socialization messages; Cw1Belon = composite score for family belonging socialization messages; Cw1Cope = composite score for family coping through role models socialization messages; Cw1PerBeh = composite score for perceived behavioral control; Cw1ResEff = composite score for response efficacy; Cw1PerSafe = composite score for perceived safety for self; Cw1FamSafe = composite score for perceived safety for one's family; Cw1Injuc = composite score for injunctive norms; Cw1DesNor = composite score for descriptive norms; Cw1UndoPri = composite score for undocumented identity

Table 2D.

Mean Differences in Distal Outcomes Across the Four Profiles at Wave 2

Profile Indicators	*Infrequent Advocators (59%)* Means	*Occasional Interpersonal Advocators (20%)* Means	*Organizational Advocators (15%)* Means	*Frequent Advocators (7%) Means*
Depression	3.525	3.709	3.331a*	4.059a*
Hopeful about the Future	4.509	4.546	4.318	4.638
Burnout	3.806	4.072	3.575	4.137
Strained Relationships	2.376b**	2.617	2.706	3.232b**
Anxiety	3.522c*	3.416d*	3.268e*	4.158 c*d*e*

Note. Mean values with the same letter are significantly different from each other. * = $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. Demographic variables were taken into account as control variables.

Table 3A.

Bivariate Correlations for Study 2

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35
W1IntAd1	--																																		
W1IntAd2	.515**	--																																	
W1IntAd3	.474**	.709**	--																																
W1IntAd4	.594**	.642**	.598**	--																															
W1IntAd5	.678**	.572**	.588**	.773**	--																														
W1OrgPa1	.339**	.374**	.323**	.341**	.331**	--																													
W1OrgPa2	.341**	.364**	.237**	.256**	.273**	.582**	--																												
W1OrgPa3	.308**	.404**	.339**	.291**	.286**	.679**	.584**	--																											
W1OrgPa4	.335**	.379**	.293**	.299**	.342**	.682**	.671**	.758**	--																										
W1VisDi1	.376**	.423**	.324**	.352**	.371**	.518**	.516**	.504**	.563**	--																									
W1VisDi2	.382**	.382**	.313**	.316**	.354**	.465**	.488**	.463**	.571**	.734**	--																								
W1VisDi3	.578**	.540**	.481**	.579**	.594**	.409**	.344**	.375**	.374**	.506**	.492**	--																							
W1PolPa1	.328**	.304**	.251**	.288**	.237**	.377**	.420**	.341**	.392**	.440**	.416**	.361**	--																						
W1PolPa2	.388**	.428**	.389**	.329**	.332**	.469**	.391**	.532**	.460**	.550**	.577**	.458**	.533**	--																					
W1PolPa3	.246**	.279**	.181**	.284**	.209**	.305**	.491**	.331**	.386**	.378**	.401**	.310**	.424**	.349**	--																				
W2IntAd1	.433**	.293**	0.131	.356**	.399**	0.105	.206**	0.044	0.109	.228**	.236**	.294**	.196**	.158*	.203**	--																			
W2IntAd2	.462**	.472**	.393**	.435**	.495**	.254**	.255**	.290**	.310**	.357**	.356**	.370**	.243**	.331**	.181**	.580**	--																		
W2IntAd3	.384**	.427**	.405**	.401**	.472**	.237**	.244**	.257**	.280**	.329**	.313**	.336**	.207**	.313**	.192**	.542**	.828**	--																	
W2IntAd4	.489**	.398**	.321**	.440**	.493**	.204**	.198**	.183**	.219**	.314**	.323**	.407**	.280**	.293**	.211**	.615**	.746**	.673**	--																
W2IntAd5	.461**	.328**	.253**	.410**	.492**	0.123	.203**	0.099	.174**	.308**	.307**	.424**	.267**	.183**	.237**	.745**	.647**	.613**	.751**	--															
W2OrgPa1	.205**	0.130	.147*	.170*	.185**	.418**	.281**	.304**	.323**	.181**	.198**	.218**	.215**	.231**	.165*	.335**	.362**	.336**	.362**	.355**	--														
W2OrgPa2	.188**	.171*	.166*	.154*	.132*	.332**	.526**	.316**	.370**	.269**	.272**	.209**	.286**	.187**	.310**	.341**	.293**	.310**	.256**	.320**	.531**	--													
W2OrgPa3	.191**	.164*	.198**	.185**	.186**	.412**	.373**	.470**	.437**	.278**	.293**	.241**	.287**	.282**	.163*	.274**	.343**	.342**	.295**	.339**	.723**	.555**	--												
W2OrgPa4	.223**	.245**	.251**	.255**	.219**	.387**	.401**	.453**	.502**	.348**	.359**	.296**	.332**	.296**	.214**	.306**	.406**	.381**	.360**	.367**	.596**	.596**	.786**	--											
W2VisDi1	.315**	.330**	.320**	.329**	.331**	.350**	.365**	.311**	.395**	.605**	.582**	.381**	.442**	.419**	.303**	.388**	.453**	.392**	.493**	.466**	.380**	.348**	.394**	.458**	--										

W2VisDi2	.260**	.371**	.316**	.282**	.256**	.321**	.370**	.344**	.377**	.530**	.671**	.337**	.362**	.445**	.273**	.345**	.410**	.390**	.436**	.423**	.350**	.386**	.448**	.503**	.719**	--									
W2VisDi3	.453**	.384**	.284**	.369**	.406**	.235**	.263**	.179**	.250**	.395**	.448**	.535**	.307**	.283**	.302**	.441**	.503**	.487**	.521**	.587**	.323**	.399**	.345**	.397**	.508**	.539**	--								
W2PolPa1	.204**	.183**	0.126	.185**	.140*	.238**	.322**	.270**	.249**	.280**	.279**	.268**	.476**	.277**	.321**	.351**	.296**	.268**	.346**	.384**	.338**	.482**	.417**	.420**	.388**	.452**	.344**	--							
W2PolPa2	.238**	.261**	.179**	.294**	.230**	0.099	.186**	.141*	.160*	.251**	.260**	.306**	.362**	.348**	.276**	.381**	.423**	.421**	.459**	.467**	.287**	.340**	.312**	.386**	.383**	.439**	.388**	.651**	--						
W2PolPa3	.164*	.169*	0.093	.161*	0.118	0.115	.252**	.153*	.139*	.185**	.213**	.187**	.358**	.220**	.362**	.385**	.256**	.228**	.324**	.336**	.293**	.442**	.291**	.302**	.328**	.402**	.316**	.694**	.544**	--					
Cw2Depre	0.118	.174**	.184**	.134*	.148*	0.074	0.057	0.118	0.095	.156*	0.097	0.055	0.113	0.117	0.041	.146*	.197**	.188**	0.062	0.103	0.038	0.103	0.023	0.058	.200**	.164*	0.016	0.127	.150*	0.110	--				
Cw2Hopeful	0.084	.153*	0.108	0.119	.132*	-0.033	-0.033	.135*	0.003	0.008	0.011	0.109	-0.101	0.097	-0.034	0.031	0.097	0.079	0.116	0.057	-0.024	-0.014	0.012	0.008	0.062	0.095	0.102	0.048	0.071	0.090	-0.096	--			
Cw2Burnout	0.080	.162*	0.119	0.118	0.107	0.096	0.119	0.048	0.055	.161*	0.089	0.106	.175**	0.061	0.049	0.071	0.108	0.108	0.082	0.059	-0.058	0.027	0.013	0.043	.201**	0.129	0.028	0.072	0.089	0.030	.511**	-.146*	--		
Cw2Strained	.325**	.163*	0.127	.186**	.187**	0.065	.194**	0.053	.135*	.161*	.186**	.179**	.174**	0.061	0.127	.351**	.242**	.183**	.282**	.348**	.147*	.200**	.140*	.197**	.285**	.222**	.238**	.238**	.232**	.142*	.130*	-.142*	.291**	--	
Cw2Anxiety	.216**	.276**	.272**	.184**	.247**	.194**	.137*	.165*	.169*	.274**	.183**	0.122	.163*	.195**	0.024	.192**	.242**	.240**	.155*	.152*	0.072	.134*	0.118	.146*	.197**	.177**	0.096	.188**	.149*	.141*	.688**	-0.018	.495**	.253**	--

Note. *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$. Indicators with Cw1 = Composite scores for Wave 1; Indicators with Cw2 = Composite Scores for Wave 2. W1IntAd1, W2IntAd1 = Confronted someone because you heard them use the word “illegal” or other derogatory terms for undocumented immigrants?; W1IntAd2, W2IntAd2 = Informed others about what immigration policy means for undocumented immigrants?; W1IntAd3, W2IntAd3 = Informed others about the barriers that undocumented immigrants experience due to their status?; W1IntAd4, W2IntAd4 = Presented facts to contest another person’s views on undocumented immigrants?**;** W1IntAd5, W2IntAd5 = Spoken up when you have heard people make false statements about undocumented immigrants?; W1OrgPa1, W2OrgPa1 = Joined an on-campus organization on behalf of undocumented immigrant rights?; W1OrgPa2, W2OrgPa2 = Joined an off-campus organization on behalf of undocumented immigrant rights?; W1OrgPa3, W2OrgPa3 = Attended a regular planning meeting for an organization that supports undocumented issues?; W1OrgPa4, W2OrgPa4 = Helped put on events hosted by organization in support of undocumented communities?; W1VisDi1, W2VisDi1 = Displayed stickers or posters in favor of undocumented immigration?**;** W1VisDi2, W2VisDi2 = Worn a t-shirt, hat, buttons, etc. messages in favor of undocumented immigration?**;** W1VisDi3, W2VisDi3 = Expressed a view during a class discussion in favor of undocumented immigration?; W1PolPa1, W2PolPa1 = Participated in a protest, march, or demonstration, or rally in favor of undocumented immigration?; W1PolPa2, W2PolPa2 = Blocked access to a building or public area with your body for a cause in support of undocumented immigration?; W1PolPa3, W2PolPa3 = Organized a political event (e.g., talk, march) to support undocumented immigration?; Cw2Depre = Depressive symptoms; Cw2Hopeful = Hopefulness for Undocumented Immigrants’ Futures; Cw2Burnout = Burnout; Cw2Strained = Strained Relationships; Cw2Anxiety = Anxiety.

Table 3B.

Wave 1 Fit Information for Advocacy Communication Models

Model (K-profile)	Log likelihood	Number of free parameters	BIC	ABIC	VLMR-RT (p-value)	BLRT (p-value)
1-profile	-8199.676	30	16572.774	16477.617	–	–
2-profile	-7445.388	46	15156.689	15010.78	0.000	0.000
3-profile	-7235.938	62	14830.282	14633.62	0.6808	0.000
4-profile	-7088.927	78	**14628.753**	**14381.34**	0.3546	0.000
5-profile	Model did not converge	–	–	–	–	–

Note. BIC = Bayesian information criterion; ABIC = Adjusted Bayesian information criterion; AIC = Akaike information criterion; VLMR = Voung-Lo-Mendell-Rubin; BLMR = bootstrap. VLMR-RT, and BLRT not available for a one-class model.

Table 3C.

Descriptive percentage for movement patterns in Wave 1 and Wave 2

	Wave 2			
Wave 1	Infrequent Advocators	Occasional Interpersonal Advocators	Organizational Advocators	Frequent Advocators
Infrequent Advocators	88.57%	7.14%	4.29%	0.00%
Occasional Interpersonal Advocators	54.55%	36.36%	5.45%	3.64%
Organizational Advocators	43.37%	20.48%	27.71%	8.43%
Frequent Advocators	25.00%	16.67%	16.67%	41.67%

Note. Green highlight = Stability %

Table 3D.

Descriptive means in distal outcomes across the four profiles for Wave 1

Wave 1	*Infrequent Advocators* Means	*Occasional Interpersonal Advocators* Means	*Organizational Advocators* Means	*Frequent Advocators* Means
Depression	2.80	3.02	3.09	3.43
Anxiety	2.86	3.26	3.53	3.76
Burnout	3.16	3.23	3.50	3.73
Relationship Strain	2.00	2.36	2.64	3.56
Hopefulness	4.16	4.41	4.28	4.36

Table 3E.

Descriptive means in distal outcomes across the four profiles for Wave 2

Wave 2	*Infrequent Advocators (59%)* Means	*Occasional Interpersonal Advocators (20%)* Means	*Organizational Advocators (15%)* Means	*Frequent Advocators (7%) Means*
Depression	3.525	3.709	3.331a*	4.059a*
Hopeful about the Future	4.509	4.546	4.318	4.638
Burnout	3.806	4.072	3.575	4.137
Strained Relationships	2.376b**	2.617	2.706	3.232b**
Anxiety	3.522c*	3.416d*	3.268e*	4.158 c*d*e*

Note. Mean values with the same letter are significantly different from each other. * = $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$. Demographic variables were taken into account as control variables.

APPENDIX F: Figures

Figure 1A. Model Depiction of Advocacy Communication Strategies

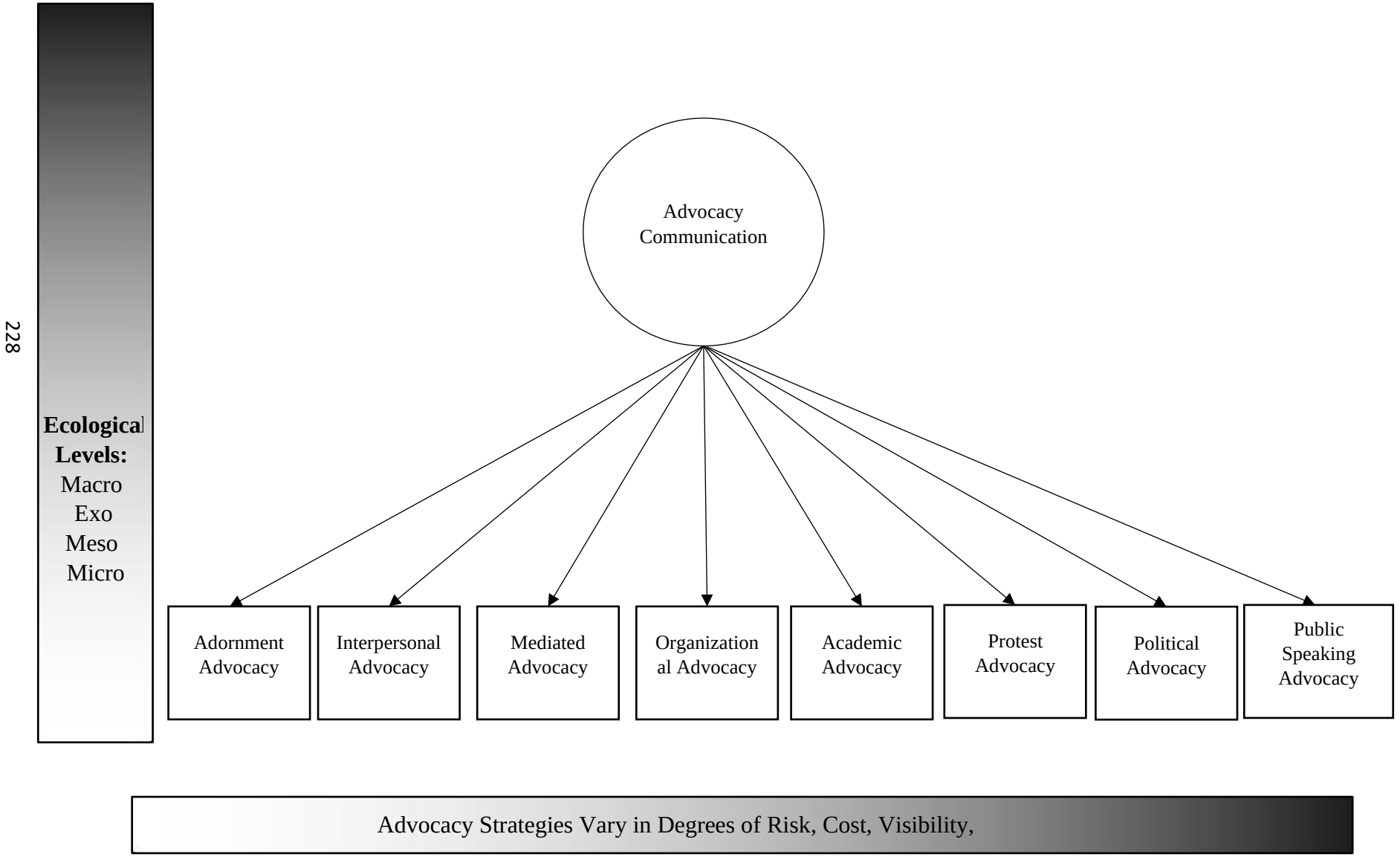


Figure 1B. Model Depiction of Advocacy Communication Strategies with Predictors and Distal Outcomes

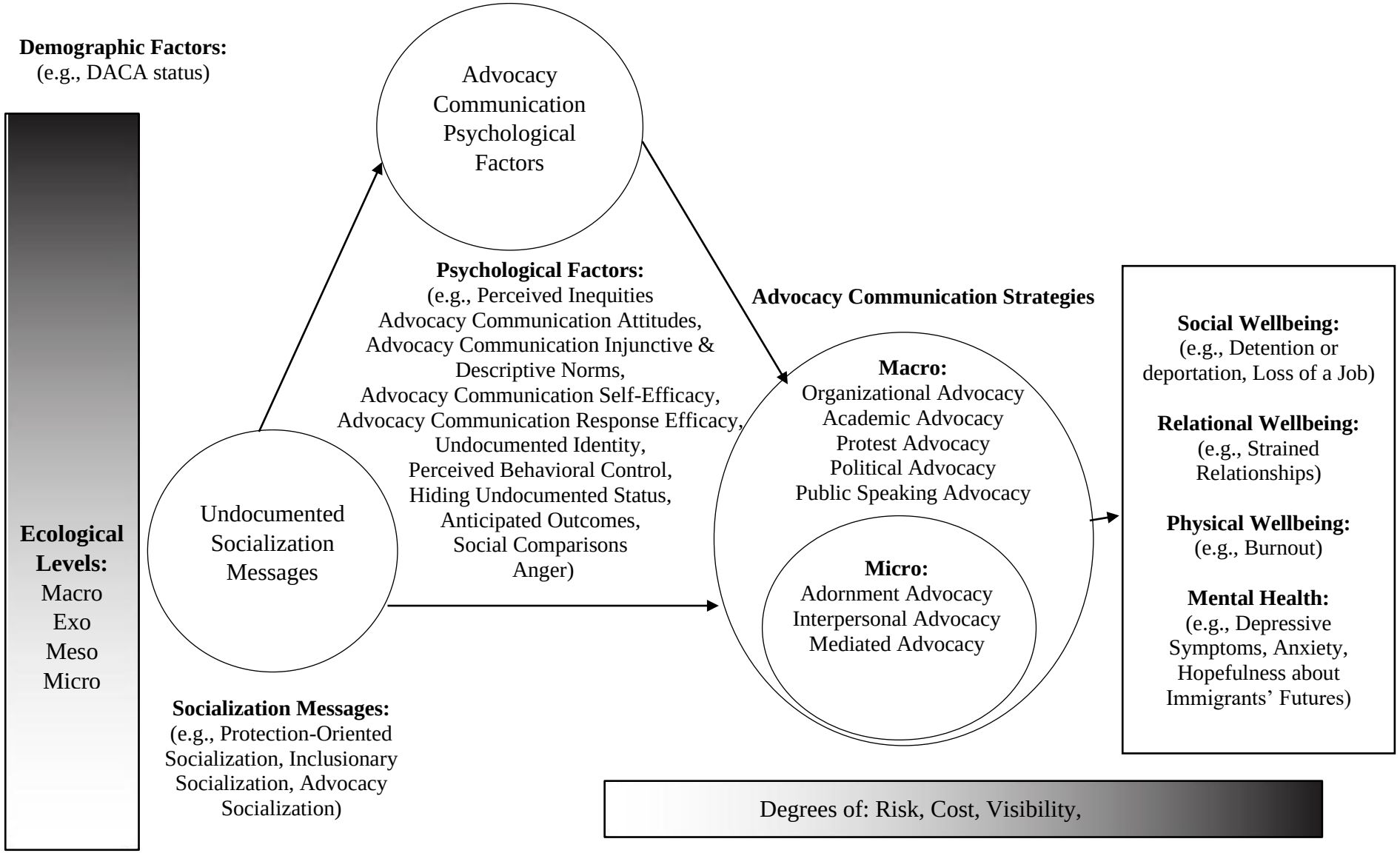


Figure 2a. Model Depiction of Latent Profile Analysis of Undocumented Students' Advocacy Communication with Predictors and Distal Outcomes.

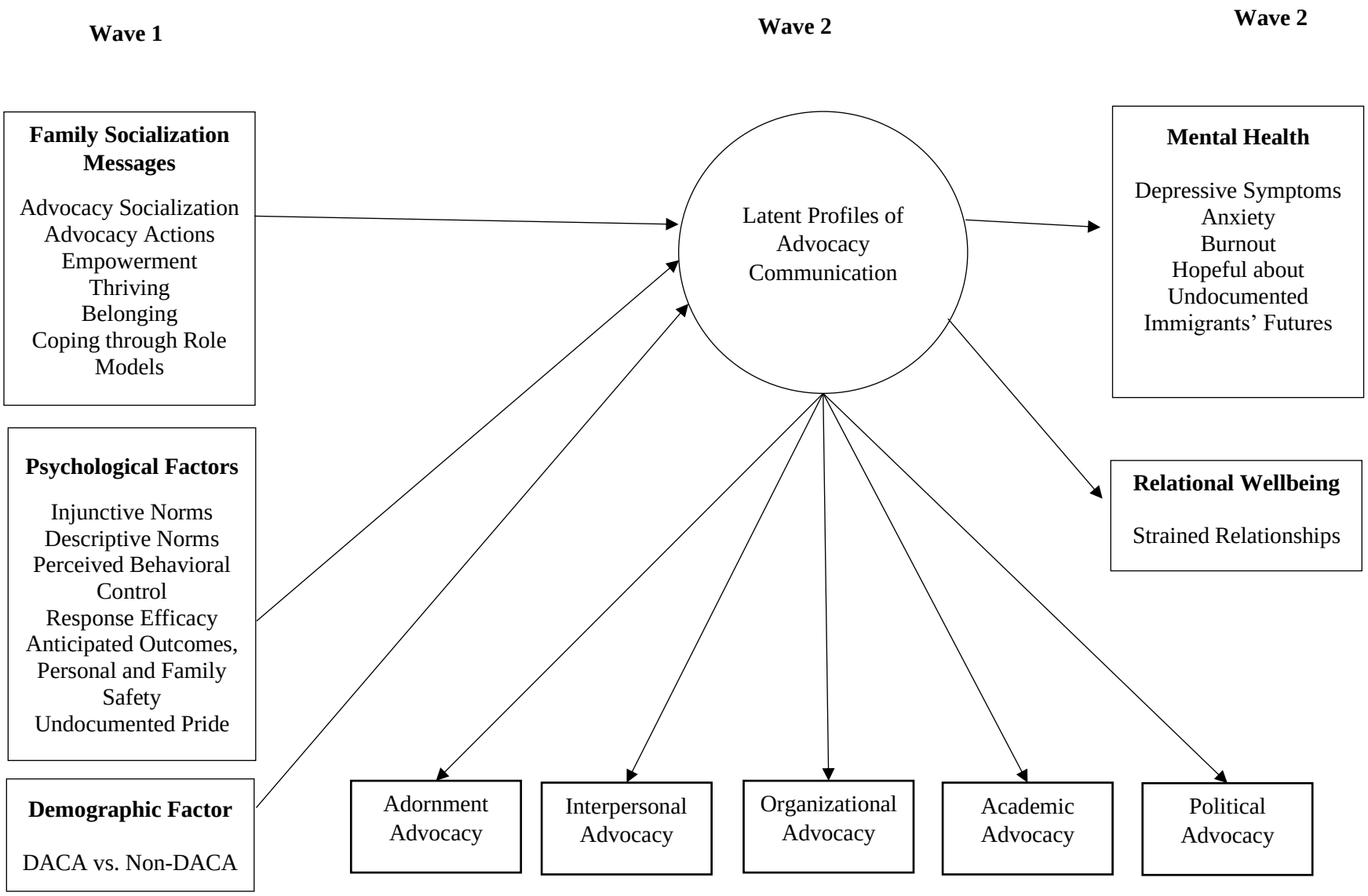
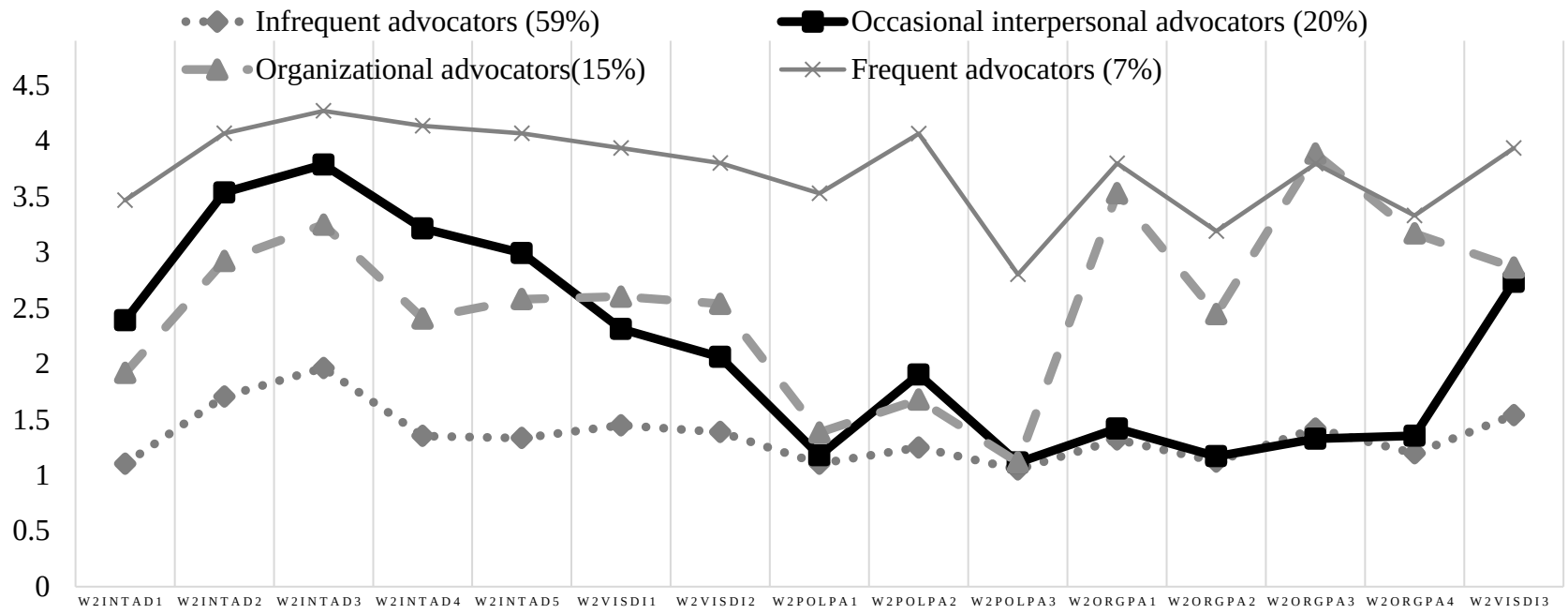
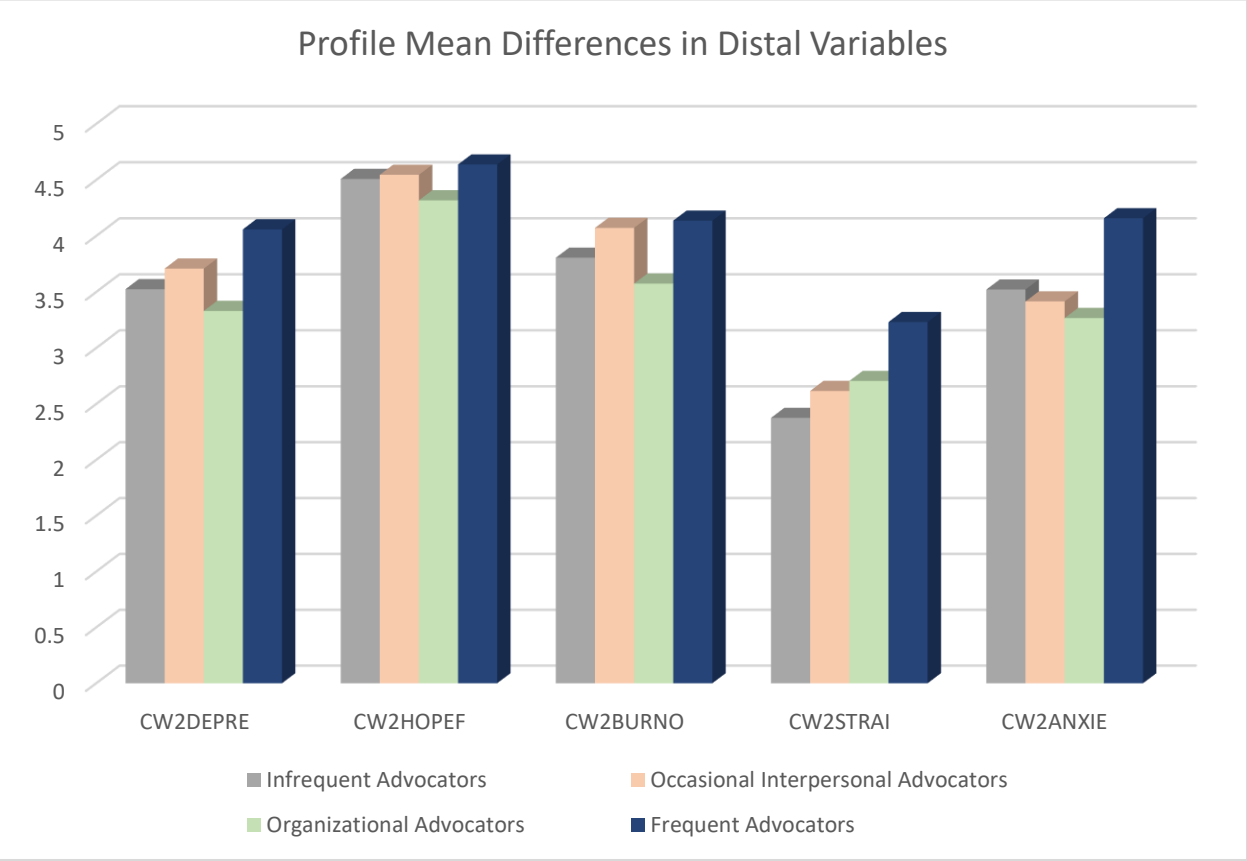


Figure 2B. Model Depiction of Conditional Item Profile Means for the Four-Profile Model



Note. Interpersonal Advocacy = W2INTAD1, W2INTAD2, W2INTAD3, W2INTAD4, W2INTAD5*; Adornment Advocacy* = W2VISDI1, W2VISDI2; *Political Advocacy* = W2POLPA1, W2POLPA2, W2POLPA3; *Organizational Advocacy* = W2ORGPA1, W2ORGPA2, W2ORGPA3, W2ORGPA4; *Adornment Advocacy* = W2VISDI3(1 = *Never, 2 = Rarely, 3 = Sometimes, 4 = Often, 5 = All the time*

F*igure 2C. Model Depiction of Mean Differences in Menal and Relational Wellbeing Across the Four Profiles*



Note. Cw2Depre = Depressive symptoms; Cw2Hopeful = Hopefulness for Undocumented Immigrants' Futures; Cw2Burnout = Burnout; Cw2Strained = Strained Relationships; Cw2Anxiety = Anxiety.

Figure 3A. *Model Depiction of Latent Transition Model.*