

Immigrant Versus Nonimmigrant 9th Graders'

Use of School Counseling Services

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Abstract

This research investigated 9th-grade immigrant and nonimmigrant student use of school counseling services using the High School Longitudinal Study 2009 (HSL:09). This study highlighted profiles of both immigrant and nonimmigrant 9th graders who see school counselors for various services and examined the impact of a series of variables (demographic, support services received, school belonging, and school engagement) on the use of school counseling services. Lastly, this research compared immigrant students with nonimmigrant students in their use of school counseling services. Implications for school counseling practice and future research are discussed.

Keywords: immigrant 9th graders, nonimmigrant 9th graders, school counseling services, school counselors, HSL:09

Immigrant Versus Nonimmigrant 9th Graders' Use of School Counseling Services

Schools in the United States are serving a rapidly growing number of immigrant students (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012). In 2014, over 25 percent of all children under age 18, a total of 18.7 million, had an immigrant parent (Child Trends, 2014). By the year 2040, more than 1 out of 3 children are expected to be children of immigrants (Hernandez, Denton, & Macartney, 2007). Failure to address the needs of immigrant students means ignoring a series of social, psychological, linguistic, and academic issues that a large body of our students encounter every day in schools (Goh, Wahl, McDonald, Brissett, & Yoon, 2007; White & Kaufman, 1997).

In the current American school system, school counselors play a significant role within comprehensive school counseling programs in facilitating student development and addressing the needs of diverse student populations (American School Counselor Association, 2012). Immigrant students are among these diverse student populations that school counselors are committed to serve every day. However, the questions of “Who among immigrant students are seeking school counseling services?” and “What are the different patterns of school counseling usage between immigrant versus nonimmigrant students?” have remained unanswered. Further, no previous studies have investigated factors impacting immigrant student use of school counseling services using national data. The results of this study will contribute to the literature by describing the profiles of 9th-grade immigrant students who use school counseling services in high school. The profiles include student demographic variables: gender, socioeconomic status, ethnicity, length staying in the U.S., and first language. The

profiles also include some other variables related with support programs that students have or are currently enrolled including English language learners (ELL) and special education. These profiles could provide information that may help school counselors target their interventions to reach students who are less likely to see them for counseling services. Another significant contribution this study aimed to make is to provide information on the factors that impact immigrant student use of school counseling services. This information will help school counselors and other professionals in educational settings to design and implement more culturally appropriate interventions to promote school counseling services among immigrant students.

Also of significance is that the sample used in this study is from a national dataset (High School Longitudinal Study: 2009), which allows generalization of the results at a national level. Typically, it is challenging to collect large-scale data in school settings; therefore, school counseling research using a national data is scarce. This study aims to provide nation-wide generalizable results about school counseling usage of 9th-grade immigrant students as well as predictors and comparisons against a nonimmigrant student population.

Immigrant Students' Needs in U.S. Schools

In school counseling literature, there has been an increase in articles published on school counseling programs or interventions targeted at immigrant students (Goh et al., 2007; Thorn & Contreras, 2005). Previous literature identified the common needs among immigrant students in academic, career, personal/social development (Rowland & Davis, 2014). These needs share similarities with nonimmigrant students. However,

immigrant students experience unique barriers compared to nonimmigrant students, such as, stereotypes, language, and acculturation (Rowland & Davis, 2014). Undocumented immigrant students even have to face the fear of deportation beyond those common barriers (Chen, Budianto, & Wong, 2010). However, U.S. schools that serve these students are often poorly equipped and may leave them "overlooked and underserved" (Ruíz-de-Velasco, Fix, & Clewell, 2001, p. 1). Of course, not all immigrant students experience these risks that lead to their disengagement or failure in school. Immigrant youth academic trajectories can be extremely varied, which is often determined by a combination of individual, family, and school factors (Suárez-Orozco, Onaga, & Lardemelle, 2010).

Counseling Services for Immigrant Students

Thus far, in the counseling literature, there has been growing attention paid on immigrant student use of school counseling services and how school counselors could be better prepared and provide more effective services to this population. In an article written by Thakore-Dunlap and Van Velsor (2014), authors specifically stated that the South Asian immigrant students in the sampled school did not use any services provided by school counselors. Unfortunately, there is a paucity of literature on the patterns and predictors of immigrant students' use school counseling services as well as the difference between immigrant and nonimmigrant students in terms of their counseling use.

A very limited body of counseling literature on immigrant students focused on introducing counseling interventions. Group counseling has been a popular format among school counselors who are working with immigrant youth. For example,

Thakore-Dunlap and Van Velsor (2014) used group counseling to address acculturation and identity of South Asian immigrant students in high school. Chen et al. (2010) used group work to facilitate empowerment and serve as advocates for undocumented immigrant students. Rowland and Davis (2014) recommended reality therapy in school settings with immigrant youth because reality therapists are non-judgmental and are working towards creating a comfortable and respectful environment for immigrant students to feel safe. Also reality therapists take an active and direct role, which could be helpful when working with immigrant students on making an academic or career plan.

Besides, Goh et al. (2007) described how school counselors can have a positive impact on the adjustment of immigrant students by building cross-cultural bridges through the use of cross-cultural simulations and activities. Goh et al. (2007) recommended school counselors work as a help-seeking bridge, a language bridge, bridge to cultural heritage, and a bridge to mental health. A critical piece in this picture described by Goh et al. (2007) was building immigrant-affirming school communities, which should be a long-term plan and apply to all schools with or without immigrant students since our societies, our nation and our communities have been more and more diverse.

Mitchell and Bryan (2007) echoed previous studies by emphasizing school-family-community partnerships for school counselors to work with Caribbean immigrant families. Mitchell and Bryan (2007) elaborated on some innovative interventions that school counselors could help facilitate and implement to serve Caribbean families. Besides, Suárez-Orozco et al. (2010) endorsed a school counseling model that

simultaneously seeks to prevent negative outcomes and promote positive youth development. Because multiple ecological contexts have shown to affect student academic success and psychological well-being, the authors introduced a comprehensive program that will address student needs from a variety of domains. Investigators have recommended the formation of partnerships among schools, families, and the community to collaboratively promote the development of immigrant students.

More recently, Li, Li and Niu (2016) explored Chinese mental health professionals' perspectives on intercultural stressors among Chinese immigrant students and culturally sensitive interventions. The participants in their study made suggestions for school counselors and other school personnel to focus their work on building culturally sensitive home environment and culturally sensitive school, which might help bridging the cultural gaps among parents, students and school.

Watkinson and Hersi (2014) presented cultural responsive practices that school counselors can use to address career development of African immigrant students. The culturally responsive practices included developing a strong knowledge of students' backgrounds and cultures, designing small group interventions that are timely and sensitive to immigrant student needs, and strengthening school-family partnerships.

However, among the existing literature, the methodologies adopted were either case studies (Hopkins, Martinez-Wenzl, Aldana, & Gándara, 2013; Watkinson & Hersi, 2014), literature review (Suárez-Orozco et al., 2010), or featured essays (Gonzalez, Eades, & Supple, 2014). There was one quantitative study that used large national secondary data to investigate immigrant student use of school counseling services in

relation to math achievement (Shi & Brown, 2015). However, there is still a lack of empirical studies that have examined the profiles of immigrant students who seek school counseling services and investigated what factors impacted immigrant student use of school counseling services. Thus, this study is one of the first in the field of school counseling to focus on these variables and to utilize a nationally representative sample of immigrant 9th-grade students to investigate the profiles of those who use school counseling services.

The proposed study aims to answer the following research questions:

1. What school counseling services do immigrant 9th graders use?
2. What are the profiles of immigrant 9th graders who see school counselors for various services?
3. What is the impact of a series of variables (demographic, support services received, school belongingness, and school engagement) on immigrant 9th graders' use of school counseling services?
4. What are the significant differences between immigrant and nonimmigrant 9th graders in their use of school counseling services and the predictors of their use?

Method

This study used the High School Longitudinal Study of 2009 (HSL:09) public-use data. The HSL:09 is an on-going longitudinal study conducted by the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES). The base-year data were collected in 2009 with more than 23,000 ninth graders from 944 schools. The first follow-up study was conducted in 2012 when most participants were in the 11th grade. In the fall of 2013, high school transcripts and an update from the participants about their postsecondary

plans were collected. The second follow-up study is planned to occur in 2016, three years after the participants' expected graduation year.

The HSLs:09 is the first national data that includes a questionnaire for school counselors, which provides researchers with a helpful tool to investigate school counseling practice at a national level. Since the goal of this study is to examine immigrant students' use of school counseling services, it is appropriate to use the HSLs:09 student-level data. All variables needed for this study are available in the public-use data.

Participants

The participants in this study include both 9th grade immigrant students and nonimmigrant students in the HSLs:09 data. Immigrant students have to meet the following criteria in order to be included in the present study: (a) participated in the base year of HSLs:09; (b) were born outside of the U.S. Nonimmigrant students were those who: (a) participated in the base year of HSLs:09; (b) were born in the U.S. or U.S. territories. This procedure yielded a total of 1239 immigrant students and 14560 nonimmigrant students. However, for nonimmigrant students the sample size is too large and in very large samples, p values go quickly to zero and solely relying on p values can lead researchers to claim support for results of no practical significance (Lin, Lucas, & Shmueli, 2013). One of the recommended methods to handle very large samples is to randomly select a subset of the sample and conduct analysis with the subset of the sample (Yao, Dresner, & Palmer, 2009). In this study, we followed this recommendation and used SPSS v23 (IBM Corp, 2015) to randomly select 10 percent of the original sample, which yielded a total of 1459 nonimmigrant student sample to be

included in this study. Table 1 presents detailed demographic information of both immigrant and nonimmigrant student samples. Due to small sample size and problems with model convergence, American Indian and Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander students were excluded from the analysis with both immigrant and nonimmigrant samples.

Table 1
Demographic Information of the Samples

Variables		Immigrant Students n (%)	Nonimmigrant Students n (%)
Gender	Male	598 (48.3%)	743 (50.9%)
	Female	641 (51.7%)	716 (49.1%)
Ethnicity	White	127 (10.3%)	903 (61.9%)
	Asian	402 (32.5%)	77 (5.3%)
	Black	63 (5.1%)	135 (9.3%)
	Hispanic	384 (31%)	202 (13.9%)
	Mixed	52 (4.2%)	126 (8.7%)
	Native Hawaiian/ Pacific Islander	17 (1.4%)	4 (0.3%)
	American Indian/Alaska Native	4 (0.4%)	7 (0.5%)
First language spoken	Non-English language	768 (64.8%)	79 (5.5%)
	English only	267 (22.5%)	1268 (88.6%)
	English & non-English equally	151 (12.7%)	84 (5.9%)
Services received	Ever in English language learners (ELL) program	526 (42.5%)	72 (5%)
	Currently in ELL program	147 (11.9%)	20 (1.4%)
	Currently in Special Education	59 (4.8%)	132 (9%)
		<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>
Length in the U.S.		6.87 (4.00)	N/A
Average grade when placed in U.S. schools		2nd to 3rd	N/A

Materials

Demographic Variables. The following four demographic variables were included in the analysis for both immigrant and nonimmigrant 9th graders: gender (1 = male; 2 = female), SES (continuous composite variable that was calculated using parents' education, occupation, and family income), race/ethnicity (1 = White, 2 = Asian, 3 = Black, 4 = Hispanic, 5 = mixed), first language learned to speak (1 = English only, 2 = non-English language, 3 = English and non-English equally). For immigrant 9th graders' analysis, another two demographic variables were added: year student came to the U.S. to stay (recoded into "length staying in the U.S."), and grade level 9th graders were placed in when started school in the U.S.

ELL and Special Education Service Variables. Two variables were included in this study that asked about ELL program and special education services students are currently receiving: (a) 9th grader's current ELL status, and (b) whether 9th grader is currently receiving special education services.

School Belonging. HSLS:09 included a scale of the sample members' perception of school belonging. This scale variable was created through principal components factor analysis and standardized to a mean of zero and standard deviation of one. This scale was created using the following variables: (a) 9th grader feels safe at school; (b) 9th grader is proud to be part of his/her school; (c) 9th grader feels that school is often a waste of time; (d) getting good grades is important to 9th grader. The coefficient of reliability (alpha) for this scale is .78. This scale was available in the HSLS:09 data for researchers to use. The items included in this scale are consistent

with commonly used school belonging scales in the literature (e.g., Goodenow, 1993; Whiting, Everson, & Feinauer, 2017).

School Counseling Services Variables. In HSLS:09, six categorical (1 = yes and 0 = no) variables specifically asked about what school counseling services students used: (a) 9th grader talked to school counselor about 2009-2010 math courses; (b) 9th grader talked to school counselor about 2009-2010 science courses; (c) 9th grader talked to school counselor about 2009-2010 other courses; (d) 9th grader talked to school counselor about going to college; (e) 9th grader talked to school counselor about adult jobs/careers; (f) 9th grader talked to school counselor about personal problems. For this study, a new variable was created by first adding up the first three variables about coursework and then recode it into a variable with two categories 0 = no and all other answers = 1. This new variable captured school counseling service about coursework. In the end, this study used four school counseling services variables in the analysis: (a) the newly created variable about coursework; (b) 9th grader talked to school counselor about going to college; (c) 9th grader talked to school counselor about adult jobs/careers; (d) 9th grader talked to school counselor about personal problems.

Sample Size

A power analysis was conducted using an online sample size calculation software by Soper (2015). With an anticipated effect size of 0.5 (a medium effect size recommended by Cohen) (Cohen, 1988), desired statistical power level of 0.8, and a probability level of 0.05, the minimum required sample size was 97. With listwise deletion to treat missing data, the final analytic sample size for regression analysis with the immigrant student sample was 1239 and nonimmigrant student sample size was

1459, which was considered sufficient to yield meaningful results for both immigrant and nonimmigrant students.

Results

This study used SPSS 23 (IBM Corp, 2015) to analyze the data. First, we conducted frequency analysis with all the school counseling service variables to answer the first research question “What school counseling services do immigrant 9th graders use?” Second, we performed a series of chi-square test of independence to examine the relation between immigrant students’ use of school counseling services and demographic characteristics. Third, we conducted logistic regression to answer the third research question that examines the impact of a series of variables on immigrant students’ use of school counseling services. In the logistic regression, we entered demographic variables, ELL and special education service variables, and school belonging variables. Lastly, we conducted the same data analysis (step one through three mentioned above) using nonimmigrant student sample as the analytic sample in order to examine the differences between immigrant versus nonimmigrant students.

Question 1: What school counseling services do immigrant 9th graders use?

Table 2 presents frequency results about the school counseling services used by immigrant 9th graders. The most commonly used school counseling service was “talked w/high school counselor about options for after high school,” which was used by half of the immigrant 9th graders. Approximately 20% of immigrant 9th graders “talked with school counselors about math courses and other courses.” Only 10% of immigrant 9th graders “talked with school counselors about adult jobs/careers” or “counselor helped

put together education/career plan.” The least commonly used school counseling service was “talked with school counselors about personal problems.”

Table 2

Frequency Results about Immigrant Students' Use of School Counseling Services

School Counseling Services	Immigrant Students		Nonimmigrant Students	
	Yes n (%)	No n (%)	Yes n (%)	No n (%)
Talked with school counselors about courses	354 (28.5%)	764 (61.7%)	420 (28.8%)	956 (65.7%)
Talked with school counselors about colleges	191 (15.4%)	962 (77.6%)	276 (19%)	1121 (77%)
Talked with school counselors about career/jobs	148 (11.9%)	1006 (81.2%)	210 (14.4%)	1195 (82.1%)
Talked with school counselors about personal problems	79 (6.4%)	1076 (86.8%)	129 (8.9%)	1274 (87.5%)

Question 2: What are the profiles of immigrant 9th graders who see school counselors for various services?

A series of chi-square test of independence were conducted to examine the differences among immigrant 9th graders in their use of school counseling services. Crosstabs results showed that female students were significantly more likely to talk to school counselors about courses than male students, $X^2(1) = 4.84$, $p < .05$. Statistically significant differences were also found among different race/ethnic groups in their talking with school counselors about courses: White and Asian students were more likely to talk to school counselors about courses, $X^2(1) = 13.80$, $p < .01$. However, mixed students were more likely than other racial groups to talk with school counselors about personal problems, $X^2(1) = 14.57$, $p < .01$. Moreover, students who were not enrolled in ELL program were more likely to talk with school counselors about personal problems than ELL students, $X^2(1, N = 1069) = 6.97$, $p < .01$.

Question 3: What is the impact of a series of variables (demographic, ELL and Special Education Services received, and school belonging) on immigrant 9th graders' use of school counseling services?

Using immigrant students as the analytic sample, four logistic regression analysis were conducted with the four school counseling service variables as dependent variables: model 1 using “talked with school counselor about courses” as dependent variable, model 2 using “talked with school counselor about college” as dependent variable, model 3 using “talked with school counselor about career/jobs” as dependent variable, and model 4 using “talked with school counselor about personal problems” as dependent variable. As shown in Table A1 (see Appendix A), model 1 and model 2 were found to be statistically significant. Table A2 presented regression results of the two significant models. In model 1, SES and gender were found to be significantly predictive of the dependent variable in this model. Immigrant students from higher SES and females were more likely to talk with school counselors about courses. In model 2, Asian immigrant students were more likely than White immigrant students to talk with school counselors about college. Also immigrant students with a higher sense of school belonging were more likely to talk with school counselors about college.

Question 4: What are the differences between immigrant and nonimmigrant students in their use of school counseling services, the profiles of those who see school counselors, and the predictors of their usage?

To answer this question, we conducted the data analysis used to answer research question one to three using nonimmigrant students in the HSLs:09 as the analytic sample. First, the frequency results (Table 2) showed the frequency ranking of

school counseling services used by nonimmigrant students was the same as immigrant students. The most commonly used service was to talk with school counselors about courses, followed by college and career/jobs. Talking with school counselors about personal problem was the least commonly used service by both immigrant and nonimmigrant students.

Second, after conducting chi square test of independence using nonimmigrant student population, it was found that female students ($X^2(1) = 9.61, p < .01$) and White students ($X^2(1) = 13.67, p < .01$) were more likely to talk with school counselors about college. Female students ($X^2(1) = 15.40, p < .001$) and White students ($X^2(1) = 10.94, p < .05$) were more likely to talk with school counselors about career/jobs. Students who were not receiving Special Education services were more likely to talk with school counselors about personal problems, $X^2(1) = 5.92, p < .05$.

Lastly, using nonimmigrant students as the analytic sample, four logistic regression analyses were conducted with the four school counseling services variables as dependent variables: Model 5 used “talked with school counselors about courses” as dependent variable, model 6 used “talked with school counselors about college” as dependent variable, model 7 used “talked with school counselors about career/jobs” as dependent variable and model 8 used “talked with school counselors about personal problems” as dependent variable. As shown in Table A1, all four models were statistically significant.

Regression results were provided in Table A2. In model 5, gender and school belonging were statistically significantly predictive of whether or not nonimmigrant students talked with school counselors about courses. Female nonimmigrant students

and students with a higher sense of school belonging were more likely to talk with counselors about courses. In model 6, significant predictors included SES, ethnicity, first language, and school belonging. Nonimmigrant students from lower SES, White and Mixed ethnicity groups, and those with a higher sense of school belonging were more likely to talk with school counselors about college. In model 7, gender, SES, ethnicity, first language and school belonging were found to be significant predictors. Being female, Black and mixed, from lower SES, spoke both English and non-English equally as first language, and those with a higher sense of school belonging were more likely to talk with school counselors about career/jobs. In model 8, nonimmigrant students from lower SES and with a higher sense of school belonging were more likely to talk with school counselors about personal problems.

Discussion

The present study used a nationally representative sample to examine immigrant 9th-grade students' use of school counseling services. The first research question revealed that the most commonly used counseling services among immigrant 9th graders were to talk with school counselors about courses, followed by college, and career/jobs. The least commonly used counseling service was to talk with school counselors about personal problems. A variety of reasons could possibly explain why immigrant youth might be reluctant to visit a school counselor for personal problems: some may feel an inherent distrust for Americans or people outside of their heritage, some may think it is disrespectful to share problems outside of their family, and others may feel overlooked by adults (e.g., Europeans) (Baruth & Manning, 2007). Another possible reason could be that they do not have that many personal problems for which

they need help. For example, students from families with more resources where parents hold advanced degrees and professional skill sets, might have other helpful resources. However, it is encouraging to find many immigrant students would like to talk about postsecondary options and academic coursework with their counselors. A possible explanation for this finding would be that immigrant parents might not be familiar with coursework or education system in and after high school and therefore immigrant students might feel the necessity to seek help from other adults who might provide more help (Fry, 2008). Besides, to talk about coursework and postsecondary plans might be more acceptable for immigrant families than to talk about personal or family related problems (Baruth & Manning, 2007).

Furthermore, this study found significant relationship between the usage of school counseling services and their demographic characteristics. Female, Asian, and White immigrant students were more likely to talk with school counselors about courses. Mixed and non-ELL students were more likely to talk with school counselors about personal problems. Asian immigrants are stereotyped to put greater emphasis and value on education and academic achievement (Fuligru, Witkow, & Garcia, 2005), which could possibly explain Asian immigrant students seeking school counselors more often about courses. What counseling services immigrant students use might be explained by their specific needs. For example, mixed ethnicity students might experience identity development issues, negative social reactions, low self-esteem and bullying (Hud-Aleem & Countryman, 2008). These issues might be the reasons for mixed ethnicity immigrant students to seek counseling services at school (Moss & Davis, 2011).

In regard to the results from the regression results among immigrant students, higher SES and female immigrant students were more likely to talk with counselors about courses. While, Asians with a higher school belonging were significantly more likely to talk with counselors about college. Immigrant students from higher SES families might put values on their academic performance and therefore might need to talk more about coursework with their counselors (Rowland & Davis, 2014). Asian students held the highest college enrollment and completion rates compared to other ethnicities (Tate, 2017) and therefore it made sense that they might be more likely to seek counselors' service regarding to college during high school. Also, although no previous research could be located to support this finding, it is not surprising to find immigrant students who are feeling more connected to schools were more open to seek counseling services and therefore could talk with school counselors about college plans.

Lastly, when comparing the differences between immigrant and nonimmigrant students, a very important finding that school counselors should pay attention to is that both immigrant and nonimmigrants are less likely to see school counselors for personal problems. Even though these two student populations have significant differences in help seeking behaviors, this particular finding raised a very important question to school counselors to reflect on what makes it so difficult for both student populations to come and talk about personal problems with counselors. Regression results showed school belonging was a significant predictor in talking with counselors about college for both immigrant and nonimmigrant students. Previous research did support that counseling services that are responsive to student needs enhanced student connectedness to school (Lapan, Wells, Peterson, & McCann, 2014). In this study, 9th graders are less

likely to talk with counselors about personal problems, regardless of being immigrant or nonimmigrant student; this could be related to their unfamiliarity with the counselors and not feeling connected to the school yet.

Besides this major similarity, several differences were found when comparing regression results between the two populations. For example, SES was a significant predictor for immigrant students to talk with counselor about courses but not for nonimmigrant students. This result indicated that immigrant youth were impacted by family SES more saliently than nonimmigrant youth (Archambault, Janosz, Dupéré, Brault, Andrew, 2017).

Another significant finding was that the two models with talking with counselors about career/jobs and personal problems as dependent variables were significant for nonimmigrant students but not for immigrant students. School belonging was found to be a significant predictor in both models for nonimmigrant students. Interestingly, SES was found to be negatively predictive of nonimmigrant students seeking counseling services about college, career and personal problems. While for immigrant students SES was found to be positively predictive of seeing counselors about courses. One possible explanation for this finding could be nonimmigrant students from high SES have other resources provided by parents and families that could help address their counseling needs. But immigrant student do not have access to these resources even though they are from high SES families or simply because immigrant families do not have the tradition or values in seeking counseling services (Fry, 2008; Rowland & Davis, 2014).

The third significant difference between immigrant and nonimmigrant students was related with the first language spoken. Among nonimmigrant students, those who spoke English and non-English language equally were more likely to talk with school counselors about going to college and jobs/career. For immigrant students, first language spoken was not a significant predictor. Language barriers were documented in previous research that could be related to immigrant students' counseling seeking behavior (Rowland & Davis, 2014). Also, these differences could be explained by the cultural differences between immigrant and nonimmigrant students. Unfortunately, there is no existing literature available that could support the differences found in this study.

Implications

The findings of this study offer important implications to school counselors in regard to providing counseling services for immigrant students. First, since most immigrant students are likely to talk with school counselors about courses, college and career, school counselors need to be prepared to provide counseling services in this area to immigrant students. However, every immigrant student might present specific and very diversified needs when they discuss post high school plans. Counselors should incorporate each student's individual needs when working with immigrant student plans (Watkinson & Hersi, 2014). Second, school counselors might want to explore and conduct some action research in their own schools about the specific barriers that have prevented immigrant students from talking about personal problems and how they could be more approachable to this population. If the main barrier lies in school environment and staff's attitude or behavior, work can be done to make changes. If the barrier is related to student cultural backgrounds, school counselors might

consider culturally responsive practices to help students feel respected as well as supported. School counselors could conduct a needs assessment to find out the specific needs or barriers of the immigrant students in their schools. To test if a certain program or intervention works, school counselors could use action research, which answers the question “does this intervention work for this particular student population in this particular school?” (Sagor, 2000). What data to be collected will be determined by the specific research questions school counselors would like to answer in their research projects. For example, if a school counselor would like to find out what are the factors that could predict immigrant student absenteeism, he or she might want to collect data on demographic information, students perceptions of the school and teachers, family and home environment, parent-student relationship, etc. These factors could be entered as predictor variables in multiple regression to see if any of those factors were significant predictors of absenteeism. Third, school counselors might consider collaborating with ELL teachers and parents when working with those immigrant students who are currently in ELL programs (Cook, 2015). School counselors play a vital role in helping immigrant students face the challenges and meet their academic potential. It is critical to recognize the inherent strengths of immigrant students who bring the tremendous resilience, hope and motivation of immigrant optimism (Kao & Tienda, 1995). Our schools can do much better than what we are traditionally doing to harness the boundless potential of immigrant youth (Suarez-Orozco et al., 2010). However, this mission can not be easily accomplished by school professionals alone. Collaboration with parents, community, and other professionals in the school building is critical to successfully addressing the needs of immigrant students.

Lastly, since school belonging is a significant factor in predicting immigrant students talking with school counselors about going to college, school counselors could use evidence-based interventions to enhance immigrant student sense of school belonging. For example, using an ecological framework, Suarez-Orozco et al. (2010) proposed a comprehensive school counseling program that takes a preventative approach for school counselors to use in order to successfully promote academic engagement among immigrant students. Traditionally, school counselors are using interventions to remediate problem behaviors and work as a *firefighter*, which is time-consuming and may not necessarily meeting the needs of the growing number of immigrant students. The preventative comprehensive program provides an alternative solution for school counselors to more efficiently serve immigrant students in a more effective way. Another example is to use evidence-based intervention to promote school connectedness and a more welcoming school environment for immigrant students. Caring School Community (CSC) was a multiyear school improvement program that aimed to promote core values, prosocial behavior, and a schoolwide feeling of community. This program incorporates family perspectives, cultures, and traditions and thereby promoting interpersonal understanding among school community, which could be a great way to enhance school environment for immigrant population.

Limitations

Although this study yielded valuable findings that contribute to the literature by filling a literature gap in regard to immigrant student use of school counseling services, there exist several limitations that need to be considered when interpreting the results. First, this study used secondary data from a large national dataset. Although this

allowed for greater external reliability in the results, the researcher choices were limited in terms of constructing the research questions and selecting the variables of interest. Second, measurements used in the dataset restricted the way different constructs were measured. So it is critical for readers to be aware of how the constructs in this study were measured in the original dataset. Third, this study used listwise deletion method to handle missing data. Listwise deletion removes an entire record for a participant if any single value is missing for that person (Honaker & King, 2010). Therefore, although the sample size of this study was sufficient, quite a lot of data were excluded from the analysis due to using the listwise deletion method to treat the missing data.

Future researchers could replicate this study using a different dataset either from a secondary data source or collecting their own data at a local level, depending on the specific focus of the research. Using primary data would allow researchers to use different instruments rather than limiting to using the scales created by the secondary data. Also, future research may want to use a different methodology to look deeper into the issue of immigrant counseling seeking behavior. For example, a qualitative study could provide richer information about immigrant students' perspectives and their experiences with school counseling services.

Conclusion

Although the authors were making a meaningful effort to start building this line of inquiry and filling a literature gap by examining immigrant student use of school counseling services, future researchers are highly encouraged to continue investigating using different methodology. Considering the rapid growth of the immigrant student population, school counselor practitioners and educational policy makers need to be

informed by well-designed and rigorous research results to be fully prepared to work with immigrant youth.

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Appendix A

Table 1

Regression Model Summary

	Dependent Variable	Chi-square	df	Nagelkerke R ²
Immigrant Student Population				
Model 1	Talked with school counselors about courses	26.36*	13	.044
Model 2	Talked with school counselors about college	22.33*	13	.043
Model 3	Talked with school counselors about career/jobs	14.32	13	.031
Model 4	Talked with school counselors about personal problems	22.09	13	.066
Nonimmigrant Student Population				
Model 5	Talked with school counselors about courses	30.24**	11	.052
Model 6	Talked with school counselors about college	37.54***	11	.034
Model 7	Talked with school counselors about career/jobs	43.23***	11	.066
Model 8	Talked with school counselors about personal problems	23.02*	11	.044

Appendix A

Table 2

Summary of Significant Logistic Regression Models

Dependent Variable		Predictor Variable	B	S.E.	Wald	Exp (B)
Immigrant Students Population						
Model 1	Talk with school counselor about courses	SES	.18	.09	4.01*	1.20
		Sex	.42	.16	7.44**	1.53
		Ethnicity			2.72	
		First language			.17	
		Years in U.S.	-.03	.05	.38	.97
		Grade when placed	-.05	.06	.57	.96
		ELL status	.06	.30	.04	1.06
		Special Ed	.01	.36	.00	1.01
		School belonging	.15	.10	2.11	1.16
Model 2	Talk with school counselor about college	SES	-.06	.11	.33	.94
		Sex	.11	.19	.55	1.12
		Ethnicity (White vs. Asian)	.75	.36	4.45*	2.12
		First language			1.14	
		Years in U.S.	-.02	.05	.15	.98
		Grade when placed	-.05	.07	.50	.95
		ELL status	.07	.35	.04	1.07
		Special Ed	-.10	.46	.05	.90
		School belonging	.44	.12	13.00**	1.55
Nonimmigrant Student Population						
Model 5	Talk with school counselor about courses	SES	-.05	.08	.39	.95
		Sex	.27	.13	4.17*	1.31
		Ethnicity			7.60	
		First language			3.73	

Dependent Variable		Predictor Variable	B	S.E.	Wald	Exp (B)
Model 6	Talk with school counselor about college	ELL status	-1.62	1.07	2.29	1.19
		Special Ed	.03	.24	.02	1.03
		School belonging	.30	.09	11.84**	1.35
		SES	-.21	.10	4.65*	.81
		Sex	.27	.15	3.09	1.31
		Ethnicity (White vs. Hispanic)	-.68	.33	4.27*	.51
		Ethnicity (White vs. Mixed)	.60	.25	5.54*	1.81
		First language (English only vs. Non-English and English equally)	.99	.36	7.53**	2.69
		ELL status	-.95	1.08	.78	.39
		Special Ed	-.03	.28	.01	.97
Model 7	Talk with school counselor about career/jobs	School belonging	.32	.10	10.04**	1.38
		SES	-.25	.11	4.93*	.78
		Sex	.45	.17	6.65*	1.56
		Ethnicity (White vs. Black)	.61	.25	5.85*	1.85
		Ethnicity (White vs. Mixed)	.67	.27	6.05*	1.95
		First language (English only vs. Non-English and English equally)	1.16	.39	8.87**	3.20
		ELL status	.06	.30	.04	1.06
		Special Ed	.01	.36	.00	1.01
		School belonging	.24	.11	4.47*	1.27
		Model 8	Talk with school counselor about personal problems	SES	-.32	.14
Sex	.31			.21	2.15	1.36
Ethnicity					3.22	
First language					.89	
ELL status	.06			.30	.04	1.06
Special Ed	.49			.33	2.29	1.64
School belonging	.38			.14	7.58**	1.46

Biographical Statement

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