The Era of Trump: How Jamaican DACA Recipients are Coping with the 2017 DACA Policy Change

Rachele M. Hall
St. John Fisher College, rachelem.hall@gmail.com

Follow this and additional works at: https://fisherpub.sjfc.edu/education_etd

Part of the Education Commons

How has open access to Fisher Digital Publications benefited you?

Recommended Citation

Please note that the Recommended Citation provides general citation information and may not be appropriate for your discipline. To receive help in creating a citation based on your discipline, please visit http://libguides.sjfc.edu/citations.

This document is posted at https://fisherpub.sjfc.edu/education_etd/426 and is brought to you for free and open access by Fisher Digital Publications at St. John Fisher College. For more information, please contact fisherpub@sjfc.edu.
The Era of Trump: How Jamaican DACA Recipients are Coping with the 2017 DACA Policy Change

Abstract
The topic of undocumented immigrants living in the United States stimulates consistent national and local debate. In 2012 President Barack Obama signed an executive order creating the Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA) policy which provided undocumented immigrants work authorization and reprieve from deportation. In 2017, newly elected President Donald J. Trump announced the removal of the DACA policy. Researchers have focused on the impact of the removal of the DACA policy on undocumented Latino/a immigrants, but limited to no research has focused on the impact for Black immigrants, specifically those identifying as Jamaican. The purpose of this study was to inquire what coping strategies Jamaican DACA recipients are using as they transition with the 2017 DACA policy change. The study employed qualitative methodology, in particular, a narrative inquiry approach. The study found that since the DACA policy change announcement, participants are transitioning from feeling fortunate to experiencing fear of deportation. Participants also indicated without the benefit of the DACA policy, they lack sense of control in their lives. The study also showed participants have a strong support network to help them cope with the DACA policy change, but participants use religion as their primary coping strategy. The participants suggested the best coping strategy for their peers is to find a trusted individual to share their story. The lived experiences of undocumented Jamaican immigrants was similar to the research studies focused that on Latino/a undocumented immigrants.

Document Type
Dissertation

Degree Name
Doctor of Education (EdD)

Department
Executive Leadership

First Supervisor
Shelley Jallow

Second Supervisor
Marguerita Circello

Subject Categories
Education

This dissertation is available at Fisher Digital Publications: https://fisherpub.sjfc.edu/education_etd/426
The Era of Trump: How Jamaican DACA Recipients are Coping with the 2017 DACA Policy Change

By

Rachele M. Hall

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree Ed.D. in Executive Leadership

Supervised by

Dr. Shelley Jallow

Committee Member

Dr. Marguerita Circello

Ralph C. Wilson, Jr. School of Education
St. John Fisher College

December 2019
Dedication

The Bible says but the Lord stood with me and gave me strength. I would not be standing today if it was not for the strength of my God. I am blessed beyond measure and I dedicate this study to my God first and foremost.

I also dedicate this to my parents. Lisa, Michael, and Tammy; you have individually impacted my life more than you could have ever imagined. You laid the groundwork for my integrity and authenticity. I pray that I can continue to make you proud on the ground and in heaven.

I dedicate this to my siblings for you are the reason my life shines so bright. Thank you for the support, understanding, laughs, and hugs.

I dedicate this to my mentor, brunch love crew, sticky mess crew, Westchester girls, the Davis’s, Dr. J and Professor Dr. Blount, cohort 9, Dr. Jallow, Dr. Circello and BOOM for being the most influential, dedicated, and thoughtful people in my life. You never let me quit. You lifted me in prayer and showered me with love. Thank you.
Biographical Sketch

Rachele Hall is currently the Associate Director for Community Building and Co-Curricular Programs at Westchester Community College. Ms. Hall attended the State University of New York College at Oneonta where she obtained her Bachelor of Science in Philosophy in 2006. She attended the University at Albany where she graduated with a Master of Science in Education Administration and Policy Studies in 2009. She began doctoral studies in the St. John Fisher College Executive Leadership program in the summer of 2017. Ms. Hall conducted her research on how Jamaican DACA students describe their coping strategies after the 2017 DACA policy change under the direction of Dr. Shelley Jallow and Dr. Marguerita Circello.
Abstract

The topic of undocumented immigrants living in the United States stimulates consistent national and local debate. In 2012 President Barack Obama signed an executive order creating the Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA) policy which provided undocumented immigrants work authorization and reprieve from deportation. In 2017, newly elected President Donald J. Trump announced the removal of the DACA policy. Researchers have focused on the impact of the removal of the DACA policy on undocumented Latino/a immigrants, but limited to no research has focused on the impact for Black immigrants, specifically those identifying as Jamaican.

The purpose of this study was to inquire what coping strategies Jamaican DACA recipients are using as they transition with the 2017 DACA policy change. The study employed qualitative methodology, in particular, a narrative inquiry approach.

The study found that since the DACA policy change announcement, participants are transitioning from feeling fortunate to experiencing fear of deportation. Participants also indicated without the benefit of the DACA policy, they lack sense of control in their lives. The study also showed participants have a strong support network to help them cope with the DACA policy change, but participants use religion as their primary coping strategy. The participants suggested the best coping strategy for their peers is to find a trusted individual to share their story. The lived experiences of undocumented Jamaican immigrants was similar to the research studies focused that on Latino/a undocumented immigrants.
# Table of Contents

Dedication .......................................................................................................................... iii

Biographical Sketch ........................................................................................................... iv

Abstract ............................................................................................................................... v

Table of Contents ............................................................................................................... vi

List of Tables ..................................................................................................................... ix

List of Figures ..................................................................................................................... x

Chapter 1: Introduction ....................................................................................................... 1

Problem Statement .......................................................................................................... 5

Theoretical Rationale .................................................................................................... 12

Statement of Purpose .................................................................................................... 14

Research Questions ....................................................................................................... 14

Significance of the Study .............................................................................................. 15

Definitions of Terms ..................................................................................................... 16

Chapter Summary ......................................................................................................... 17

Chapter 2: Review of the Literature .................................................................................. 18

Introduction and Purpose .............................................................................................. 18

U.S. Immigration Past to Present .................................................................................. 22

Jamaican Immigration 1500s to 2000s ......................................................................... 38

Undocumented Immigrants ........................................................................................... 42

Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals Program ......................................................... 43
# List of Tables

| Item  | Title                                                                 | Page |
|-------|                                                                      |      |
| Table 2.1 | Top 20 Immigrant-Sending Countries 1990                | 29   |
| Table 2.2 | Top 15 Countries of Origin for DACA Recipients           | 35   |
| Table 4.1 | Demographics for All Participants                            | 86   |
| Table 4.2 | Participants College Level, Graduation Status, and Employment Status | 87   |
| Table 4.3 | Participant Age of Arrival to the U.S. and Age of Learned Undocumented Status | 88   |
| Table 4.4 | Independent Peer Reviewer Codes, Researcher Codes, and Common Codes | 94   |
| Table 4.5 | IQ1, IQ2, IQ3, IQ4 Codes, Categories, and Theme             | 99   |
| Table 4.6 | IQ5, IQ6, IQ7, IQ8, IQ9. Codes, Categories, and Themes       | 104  |
| Table 4.7 | IQ10, IQ11, IQ12, IQ13, IQ14, IQ15, IQ16. Codes, Categories, and Themes | 112  |
## List of Figures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Figure 2.1</td>
<td>Latin American, Asian Immigrants</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 2.2</td>
<td>U.S. Log Capital-Labor Ratio, 1948-2013</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 2.3</td>
<td>Top Birth Countries for Black Immigrants</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 2.4</td>
<td>The Influence of Anti-immigration Policies and Laws on Health Status</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 1: Introduction

The United States has the dual identity as “a nation of immigrants and a gatekeeping nation” (Lee, 2006, p. 121). Gatekeeping refers to thecontrol the nation-states exert over their boundaries (Daniels, 2004). Gatekeeping highlights the role of law andthe policies set for migration (Daniels, 2004). Migration is the term used to describe the movement of an immigrant from one country, place, or locality to another (Migrate, 2018). An immigrant is as a person who is foreign born and comes to another country to take up permanent residence (Immigrant, 2018). According to the U.S. Customs and Border Protection website, a nonimmigrant is a person who has permanent residence outside of the United States but wishes to visit the US for a specific purpose (U.S. Customs and Border Protection, 2018).

Important historical events and natural disasters such as the Vietnam War, Hurricane Cesar in Nicaragua, and Tropical Cyclone 04B in Bangladesh, influenced migration to the US between 1965-1996 (Yang & Mahajan, 2018). According to Lopez, Passel, and Rohal (2015), the U.S. population grew by 131 million people from 1965 to 2015, and 72 million identified as immigrants. Since 1965, when the US had 9.6 million immigrants, the total foreign-born population has more than quadrupled (Lopez et al., 2015). The U.S. immigrant population grew from 5% in 1970 to 40% or 43.7 million immigrants living in the US in 2016 (Gibson & Lennon, 1999; Migration Policy Institute, 2016).
Naturalization is the process by which U.S. citizenship is granted to an immigrant after he or she fulfills the requirements established by Congress in the Immigration and Nationality Act (INA) (U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services, 2019). “Citizenship is defined as the status of being a legal member of a particular country by birth or naturalization” (Immigration Direct, 2019, para. 1). The foreign-born population includes 20.7 million naturalized U.S. citizens and 22.6 million immigrants (U.S. Census Bureau, 2015). In 2016, Pew Research Data reported out of the 22.6 million immigrant population in the US, there were approximately 11.1 million undocumented immigrants. “The term undocumented immigrant refers to foreign nationals residing in the US without legal immigration status” (USLegal.com, 2019, para. 1).

For a nation of immigrants and immigration, the US adjusts its immigration policies only rarely, largely because the politics surrounding immigration can be deeply divisive (Hipsman & Meissner, 2013.) Two prominent parties in the U.S. Senate, Republicans and Democrats, shut down the federal government for 3 days over the treatment of immigrants brought to the US illegally as children (Thompson, 2018). Immigration seems to be the most prominent wedge issue in America (Thompson, 2018). Immigration allows for both ends of the political spectrum to use the issue for political gain (Harris, 2018).

In 2010, a congressional bill entitled the Development, Relief and Education for Alien Minors Act (DREAM) was submitted to Congress to grant undocumented immigrants who came to the U.S. as children a path toward legal status (Schmid, 2013). This legislation “includes persons who entered the U.S. without inspection and proper permission from the U.S. government, and those who entered with a legal visa that is no
longer valid” (USLegal.com, 2019, para. 1). To be eligible for legal status under the DREAM Act, undocumented immigrants must have: (a) graduated from an American high school, (b) obtained a GED, or (c) admitted to an institution of higher learning (DREAM Act, 2010). If an undocumented immigrant met the criteria of the DREAM Act, such individuals would be eligible for legal status in the US. The DREAMers are required to present proof of arriving in the US before the age of 16 and be between the ages of 12 and 30 at the time of the enactment of the bill. They must also prove that they have lived in the US for at least 5 consecutive years since arrival in the US. Finally, they must be of good moral character (DREAM Act, 2010).

Congress did not pass the DREAM Act (Schmid, 2013). Senator Jeff Session said, “The bill is a law that at its fundamental core is a reward for illegal activity,” (Wong & Toeplitz, 2010, para.10). In response to Congress, President Barack Obama developed the program Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA) on June 15, 2012, bypassing legislation to implement portions of the DREAM Act (Schmid, 2013). The DACA executive order provided undocumented youth protection from deportation for 2 years and the opportunity to receive a work permit but no pathway to legal citizenship (Schmid, 2013). The DACA policy provided relief from deportation and work authorizations to more unauthorized immigrants than the 1986 Immigration Reform and Control Act (Baker, 2014). The Immigration Reform and Control Act of 1986 allowed approximately 3.2 million undocumented immigrants to apply for legal status (Lind, 2015). Yet many of the undocumented immigrants failed to meet the bill’s requirements (Lind, 2015). Thus, DACA represented a major political breakthrough for eligible undocumented youth (Casner-Lotto, 2012).
Despite DACA’s temporary relief in 2012 for many undocumented immigrants, the U.S. Immigration and Customs Enforcement (ICE) efforts intensified nationally and locally in the US (Hacker, Chu, Arsenault, & Marlin, 2012). ICE spokesperson Lori Haley said, “ICE focuses its enforcement resources on individuals who pose a threat to national security, public safety, and border security” (Hing, 2018, p.1). Thus, anyone who has "abused any program related to receipt of public benefits, and anyone an immigration officer deems a risk to public safety or national security, also could be marked as a priority” (Domonoske & Rose, 2017, para. 7).

ICE enforces federal laws governing border control, customs, trade, and immigration to promote homeland security and public safety (ICE, 2017). ICE is primarily devoted to three operational directorates – Homeland Security Investigations (HSI), Enforcement and Removal Operations (ERO) and Office of the Principal Legal Advisor (OPLA) (ICE, 2017). According to Homeland Security, ERO enforces the nation’s immigration laws in a fair and effective manner. It identifies and apprehends removable immigrants, detains these individuals when necessary, and removes undocumented immigrants from the US (ICE, 2017). The effects of ICE activity on immigrant stress levels and health status has only recently been examined in the US (Capps, Castañeda, Chaudry, & Santos, 2007). There is documented research in Japan and Australia on the impact of the immigrant enforcement policies related to the health of immigrants (Hacker et al., 2012). The full effects of immigration enforcement on the lives of undocumented children in the US remains hidden (Delva et al., 2013).

According to the 2014 Migration Policy Institute data hub, 7,854,000 undocumented people reported Mexico and Central America as their regions of birth out
of a reported total number of 11.1 million undocumented immigrants thus, guiding the majority of existing literature to focus on undocumented immigrants of Hispanic decent (Perez, 2010). Research on other ethnic groups within the immigrant community is limited (Lee, 2016). “When we are talking about immigrant stories, we are generally not highlighting and uplifting the Black struggles and how that intersectionality affects our identities and experiences” (Lee, 2016, p. 1).

According to Faris (2012), Black immigrants are from many parts of the world with half the population from the Caribbean and the rest mostly from Northern and sub-Saharan Africa. Black immigrant refers to any person who was born outside of the US, Puerto Rico, or other U.S. territories and whose country of origin is located in Africa or the Caribbean (Morgan-Trostle, Zheng, & Lipscombe, 2016). According to the report by Anderson and López (2018) Key Facts about Black immigrants in the U.S., Jamaican immigrants made up a total number of 716,000 foreign born people living in the U.S. Further research from Rosenblum and Soto (2015) indicates Jamaican immigrants rank 12th on the overall list of DACA eligible immigrant approvals with a total sum of 6,627 people. Research also indicated that Jamaican immigrants rank number one out of Black immigrants who currently have DACA status at 5,302 recipients (Anderson 2017).

**Problem Statement**

U.S. immigrants have faced a changing landscape with regard to immigration enforcement over the last 2 decades (Hacker et al., 2011). The federal executive branch increased its activity related to immigration following the events of September 11, 2001; a series of four coordinated terrorist attacks by the Islamic terrorist group al-Qaeda on the U.S. (Bergen, 2018; McLeigh, 2010). Eleven days after the September 11, 2001, terrorist
attacks, President George W. Bush announced that he would create a Department of Homeland Security (DHS) in the White House (Borja, 2008). The department would oversee and coordinate a comprehensive national strategy to safeguard the country against terrorism and respond to any future attacks on the US (Borja, 2008). The Bush administration increased enforcement to address undocumented immigration and national security concerns (McLeigh, 2010). Between 2003-2008 immigration enforcement agents under DHS initiated worksite raids, which involved closing off the perimeter of a facility, detaining workers, and then interviewing them individually to determine citizenship and background (McLeigh, 2010). Budget documents from June 30, 2018 show the administration of President Donald Trump transferred nearly $10 million away from the agency that responds to disasters and emergencies, redirecting it toward the deportation of undocumented residents of the US (Domonoske, 2018). The Trump administration stated without the transfer of funds, “ICE will not be able to deport those who have violated immigration laws and be forced to reduce its current interior enforcement operations” (Domonoske, 2018, p. 1).

Historically, immigration enforcement has either been concentrated at the U.S.-Mexico border or taken the form of worksite or home raids in specific communities (Capps, Fix, & Zong, 2017). Now, with advent of section 287(g) agreements within the U.S. Immigration and Customs Enforcement 287(g) program, which allow local police officers to carry out enforcement of federal immigration law, more immigrants are being targeted for deportations (Miller, 2005; Rodríguez, Chishti, Capps, & St. John, 2010). Researchers indicate the daily threat of discovery and deportation for undocumented immigrants is likely to create fear and emotional distress (Miller & Ramussen, 2010;
According to Viruell-Fuentes (2007), immigrants’ experiences of stigmatization translate to stress, isolation, and marginalization and this may lead to depression and anxiety.

The DACA program was only a temporary solution to a much larger issue of creating immigration laws that would protect undocumented people’s rights (Pepperdine Graduate School of Education & Psychology, 2017). On September 5, 2017 the Trump administration declared a change to the DACA policy. The Trump administration announced new applicants would not be protected under the DACA policy — and that those currently covered would start to lose their protection from deportation and work permits on March 6, 2018 (Lind, 2018). With the upcoming changes in the deportation policies from the Trump administration, there is a range of mixed emotions, including fear, sadness, helplessness, and hopelessness (Pepperdine Graduate School of Education & Psychology, 2017). These feelings have maturated to create anxiety and stress in the undocumented community (Pepperdine Graduate School of Education & Psychology, 2017).

For an individual undergoing a transition, the impact or degree to which the transition alters one’s daily life is important (Meyer, 2016). Both positive and negative transitions can produce stress, and multiple transitions happening simultaneously can make coping especially difficult (Meyer, 2016). Frisneda (2017) discussed that the impact of this stress can include difficulty sleeping, insomnia, changes in sleep or even change in appetite. The research predominantly focused on the response of the Latino immigrant to the DACA policy change.
Pre-DACA, undocumented youth faced barriers accessing and obtaining higher education, such as paying tuition and living expenses, and obtaining a job to support themselves and often their families while studying (Malik, 2015). Pre-DACA, undocumented youth faced barriers overcoming psychological obstacles such as anxiety, stress, and feelings of exclusion (Malik, 2015). Pre-DACA, undocumented students were unknown on college campuses (Quilantan, 2018). Most undocumented youth did not know they were undocumented until a caregiver told them, which disrupted their dreams and reduced the trust they had placed in their families, friends, and social institutions (Aranda & Vaquera, 2018). Some undocumented youth admitted feeling hopelessness because of their status, which caused them to self-harm and even attempt suicide (Aranda & Vaquera, 2018). Having temporary protection and work authorization from DACA helped with all of these issues (Malik, 2015).

DACA Form I-821D required undocumented students to identify themselves to the federal government (Quilantan, 2018). Appendix A details the I-821D form that required applicants to write their full name, current mailing address, ethnicity, current education status etc. for federal government processing (Department of Homeland Security, 2016). Despite the risk and fear of the nightmare scenario: _What if the federal government ended DACA and used the information provided to the government to track undocumented immigrations down for deportation_, undocumented immigrants submitted their completed DACA applications to the federal government (Lind, 2015). Now, during the Trump administration, DACA recipients are preparing to return to a life where they were constantly weighing the risk of deportation, at any given time, against everything else in their lives (Lind, 2015).
The DACA policy dictates participants must enroll in college however, college administrators recognize they cannot completely protect undocumented students from the DACA policy change (Quilantant, 2018). Administrators are aware that anxieties and frustrations on college campus are rooted in the unknown and therefore are concerned that students are not communicating their anxieties to staff members because they fear revealing themselves to authorities (Quilantant, 2018). Roughly 240,000 DACA students are enrolled in college who have not yet obtained a degree (McHugh, 2014). The anxiety over the future of DACA disrupts their education, often making it difficult for them to focus on their studies (Quilantant, 2018). The loss of work permits for DACA recipients will make them ineligible to work in the US (Fattal, 2017). DACA students often rely on their legal income to pay for college (Fattal, 2017). Additionally, those DACA recipients in certain states in the US would lose their ability to pay in-state tuition and other financial aid benefits (Fattal, 2017). The policy change makes it difficult for DACA recipients to continue their academic path and creates barriers to pursing higher education (Berman, 2017; Jawetz & Svajlenka, 2017).

During Donald Trump’s 2016 presidential campaign, he focused on seven major issues, one of which was the removal of the DACA executive order to “put American workers first” in immigration policymaking (Martin, 2017, p. 15). The political implications for President Trump’s focus on immigration was to appeal to voters who were against DACA when it first launched 5 years earlier (Bush, 2017). According to Bush (2017), President Trump’s political tactic was effective and within the first 100 days as president, the DACA policy was terminated (Hallman, 2017).
With the scheduled removal of DACA protection, the Trump administration has triggered a palpable level of fear and anxiety among those protected by the program, especially undocumented Black immigrants (Salmon, 2017). According to Starr (2017), being Black in America in general, is a daily process of walking on the eggshells of White supremacy but being undocumented adds another layer of racial aggression. Black people are much more likely than members of any other ethnic group to be stopped by police (Starr, 2017). The arrest of a Black person who is a U.S. citizen is only an arrest but arrests for an undocumented person could mean deportation (Starr, 2017). According to Domonoske and Rose (2017), in a recent Department of Homeland Security memo, it was made clear that Immigration and Customs Enforcement officers will be able to use DACA recipients’ personal information to deport them. Therefore, without DACA they will transition from detention center protection and face deportation to a home country they do not know (Jawetz & Svajlenka, 2017).

Most undocumented immigrants have been in the US for more than a decade (Foley, 2017). According to Passel, Cohn, Krogstad and Gonzalez-Barrera (2014), the median time an undocumented immigrant had been living in the US was 12.7 years. Many undocumented youths do not understand that their status is different from their peers (Colotl, 2017). According to Colotl (2017), it is not until applying for driver licenses and college that many undocumented youths discover their status.

The U.S. government has not collected much data on DACA recipients, and private research has met with limited success (Garvin & Daugherty, 2018). According to Garvin and Daugherty (2018), the Center for Immigration Studies director Jessica Vaughan reported, “For a group that has been at the center of so much controversy, we
really know very little about them” (p.1). However, according to Garvin and Daugherty (2018), government statistics do give a decent picture of the DACA beneficiaries in broad terms. The data show a little more than half of the DACA recipients are female and their average age is 23 (Garvin & Daugherty, 2018). The data also show overwhelmingly, the majority of DACA recipients came from Mexico and the biggest populations of recipients reside in California and Texas (Garvin & Daugherty, 2018). However, according to Garvin and Daugherty (2018), DACA recipients may not have provided accurate information to immigration authorities, and do not have to notify immigration authorities when they move.

The removal of DACA for recipients will include possible deportation, the loss of driver licenses and work authorizations (Guillen, 2017). According to Guillen (2017) one DACA recipient reported calling San Diego their home for the last 19 years of their life and had no recollection of living in Mexico, their birth country, because they moved to the US when they were 4 years old. Some DACA receipts who may be deported, could end up in a for-profit immigrant detention facility where immigrants can remain for years, or be deported back to their country of birth. That country may not accept their return, arguing the immigrant is not a citizen of the respective country (Spitta, 2018). In 2015, the UN Refugee Agency estimated 65.3 million immigrants were displaced globally after deportation from the US and non-acceptance by their birth country (Spitta, 2018). According to Starr (2017), one Black DACA recipient said:

Everywhere I go, I have to be suspicious of everything. It is draining because you really cannot just live freely. If I am having a conversation with police or a legal authority, [I think about] how I am presenting myself. Am I speaking properly?
Should I defend myself? It is this constant feeling of strategizing on how to survive. (p.1)

Currently, Black immigrants represent one of the largest flows of immigrants to the US and account for one-fifth of the growth in the Black population between 2001 and 2006 (Hamilton & Hummer, 2011; Kent, 2007). There are more than 575,000 Black undocumented immigrants in the US according to the Black Alliance for Just Immigration (Starr, 2017). While Black immigrations make up approximately 5% of the undocumented population, they made approximately 10% of immigrants in removal proceedings between 2003 and 2015 (Morgan-Trostle et al., 2016). Deputy Director Carl Lipscombe of the Black Alliance for Just Immigration stated that Black immigrants are not a focal point of the DACA conversation because the program never prioritized Black communities (Starr, 2017). Deputy Director Lipscombe said when the Obama administration marketed the program, most of the attention was tailored to the Latino communities, leaving Black undocumented immigrants unaware of DACA’s benefits (Starr, 2017). With the changing landscape of immigration customs enforcement, it is unknown how undocumented Jamaican DACA recipients cope.

Theoretical Rationale

The proposed theoretical framework for this qualitative study will be grounded in adulthood as a period of change and development, also known as transition theory (Schlossberg, 1981). Transition theory is defined as any event, or non-event, which results in a change in assumptions about oneself and the world, and thus requires a corresponding change in one’s behavior and relationships (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995). There are three essential parts of transition theory, (a) approaching transitions, (b)
taking stock of coping resources, and (c) taking charge (Schlossberg, Waters, Goodman, 1995). Schlossberg et al. (1995) identified four major sets of factors that influence a person’s ability and resources to cope with a transition: self, situation, support, and strategies, referred to as the 4S system (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995).

The first S, self, examines the personal, demographic characteristics, and psychological resources a person has (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995). These three factors will affect how an individual views life (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995). The second S, situation, will differ according to what initiated the transition. Furthermore, the second S is the trigger for transition of the new roles the individual is taking on, the amount of time connected to the transition, any previous experiences with similar transitions and assessment of the situation, (i.e., does the individual view the situation positively, negatively, or as benign) (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995). The third S, support, is linked to friends, family, institutions and/or communities that an individual has that directly impacts his or her ability to adopt to a transition (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995.) Lastly, the fourth S, strategies, is responsible for the individual’s ability to cope with transition (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995). The various coping responses include modifying a situation, managing stress, and controlling the meaning of the problem (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995).

Transition theory represents a framework that facilitates an understanding of adults in transition and aids them in connecting to the help they need to cope with the “ordinary and extraordinary process of living” (Evans, Forney, Guido, Patton, & Renn 2010, p. 213). Researcher Shelton (2014) examined the experiences of undocumented Latino/a students who demonstrate resilience navigating higher education utilizing
transition theory. The research findings reported that being undocumented shaped their experiences related to perceptions of campus climate, emotional challenges, academic and career limitations, and organizational involvement (Shelton, 2014). Researcher Sheikh (2013) used transition theory to understand the experiences of immigrant veterans making the transition to higher education. The research findings informed how immigrant veterans process transition and cope with new environments, as well as the different phases the participants are at in their transition (Sheikh, 2013). The 4S system can inform the researcher of the coping responses that modify the situation, control the meaning of the problem, and aid in managing stress (Evans et al., 2010). Transition theory will be used to examine how Jamaican DACA students cope to the recent uncertain future of the DACA policy and immigration and customs enforcement.

**Statement of Purpose**

The Black Alliance for Just Immigration estimates that 12,000 DACA recipients identify as Black (Anderson, 2017). According to the report *Key Facts about Black immigrants in the U.S.* (Anderson & López, 2018), Jamaican immigrants made up a total number of 716,000 foreign born people living in the US. Further, the three top countries of DACA approvals in the US are: Jamaica (5,302 approved applicants), Trinidad and Tobago (4,077 approved), and Nigeria (2,095 approved) (Anderson, 2017). The purpose of this study is to employ qualitative methods to conduct a narrative inquiry of how Jamaican DACA recipients are coping with the 2017 DACA policy change in the US.

**Research Questions**

To help fill the gap in literature the researcher proposes the following research questions.
1. How do Jamaican DACA recipients describe their future?
2. How do Jamaican DACA recipients describe their initial reaction to the immigration policy change?
3. How do Jamaican DACA recipients describe their support system?
4. How do Jamaican DACA recipients describe their coping strategies?

**Significance of the Study**

This research is relevant to colleges, DACA recipients and government officials at the state level. This study provides a narrative of the impact DACA policy change has on undocumented Jamaican immigrants living in the US. The research findings are useful for colleges interested in developing proactive outreach, resources, and programs for undocumented students. The research findings also provide a voice for the young Black immigrant in the U.S. undocumented immigrant narrative.

According to Dineen (2017), President Trump has wavered between expelling all undocumented immigrants and expelling only those with criminal pasts. His administration’s lack of clarity on the issue so far leaves the fate of many undocumented students at U.S. colleges and universities unknown (Dineen, 2017). “Since college campuses are microcosms of society, marginalization and social disparagement can be echoed in these settings” (Suárez-Orozco et al., 2015, p. 432). Thus, colleges have recently inserted themselves into the conversation on DACA (Fattal, 2017). “The instinct to help and protect DACA students comes out of both an economic and a moral imperative” (Berman, 2017, p.1). Mental health practitioners on college campuses could use this study to develop coping program opportunities for DACA students.
Over the last decade, federal immigration raids of workplaces and private homes have intensified, resulting in deportation of hundreds of thousands of immigrants (Capps, Castañeda, Chaudry, & Santos, 2007; Chaudry, Capps, Pedroza, Castañeda, Santos, & Scott, 2010). DACA recipients can use the results of the study to develop coping strategies for use during transition of the removal of deferred action and increased deportation action. The study also informs DACA recipients of resources for psychological and emotional support they may not have considered. According to Gonzales, Terriquez, and Ruszczyk (2014), the capacity to trust others and actively seek out meaningful relationships is a powerful resource in dealing with stressors created by undocumented status. The study may help youth realize they are not alone in their transition. Research indicates that youth who took on a shared identity with others in similar circumstances appeared to feel less isolated (Gonzales et al., 2014).

Definitions of Terms

*Immigrant* – a person who comes to a country where they were not born in order to settle there (ICE, 2017).

*Undocumented immigrant* – not having the official documents that are needed to enter, live in, or work in a country legally (Legal, I.U., 2016)


*DACA* – acronym for Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals; defined as an administrative relief from deportation. The purpose of DACA is to protect eligible immigrant youth who came to the United States when they were children, from deportation. DACA gives young undocumented immigrants: (a) protection from
deportation, and (b) a work permit. The program expires after 2 years, subject to renewal (Department of Homeland Security, 2018).

*DACAmmented* – undocumented immigrants who have received administrative relief from deportation (Gonzales & Bautista-Chavez, 2014).

*Immigration and Customs Enforcement (ICE)* – enforces federal laws governing border control, customs, trade, and immigration to promote homeland security and public safety (ICE, 2017)

**Chapter Summary**

Chapter 1 provided a brief history of immigration policy in the US and the changing landscape. The chapter also provided brief insight into the ethnic background of the U.S. immigrant, their potential coping process due to changing immigration policy, and fear of immigration customs and enforcement officers. The chapter presented a theoretical framework to guide the study, four research questions and a definition of terms. Chapter 2 will provide an overview of current literature. Chapter 3 provides details on the research design methodology. Chapter 4 illustrates the findings of the study and Chapter 5 provides implications of the research, limitations, and recommendations for the future.
Chapter 2: Review of the Literature

Introduction and Purpose

Immigration continues to stimulate fierce debates at the national and local level in the US, with much attention revolving around undocumented immigrants living in the country (Chaudry, 2011). The administration of President George W. Bush, in 2001, increased enforcement to address undocumented immigration and national security concerns following the events of September 11, 2001; a series of four coordinated terrorist attacks by the Islamic terrorist group al-Qaeda on the US (Bergen, 2018; McLeigh, 2010). The Obama administration in 2012 took a different approach to national security and announced the Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals policy. The DACA policy allowed eligible undocumented youth temporary reprieve from deportation and work authorization for 2 years (Patler & Cabrera, 2015). However, despite the reprieve from deportation, having DACA status did not exempt youth from possible interactions with ICE agents (Capps et al., 2007). ICE enforces federal laws governing border control, customs, trade, and immigration to promote homeland security and public safety (ICE, 2017). The threat of deportation and family separation is a constant source of anxiety in immigrant communities (Pepperdine Graduate School of Education & Psychology, 2017).

The threat of deportation increased for DACAmented immigrants after President Donald Trump announced the end of the Obama-era program that shielded the undocumented immigrants in September 2017 (Shear & Davis, 2017). The Trump
administration declared that no one new would be protected under the DACA policy and those currently covered would start to lose their protection from deportation and work permits on March 5, 2018 (Lind, 2018). President Trump urged Congress to pass a replacement law before beginning to phase out the DACA protections by March, 2018 (Shear & Davis, 2017). Both Trump and Attorney General Jefferson (Jeff) Sessions argued that those in the country illegally were lawbreakers that hurt native-born Americans by taking their jobs and lowering pay wages (Shear & Davis, 2017).

President Trump blamed Democrats and the Mexican government for the increase in dangerous illegal immigrants in the U.S. (Rogers, 2018). The Trump administration announced the phase-out plan would be on a case-by-case basis of DACA applications filed by September 5, 2017 but would reject any new requests filed thereafter (Valverde, 2018). For individuals who already had DACA protection, the administration said the protection would expire March 5, 2018, but the individuals would be able to apply for DACA renewal by October 5, 2017 (Valverde, 2018). While Trump has said he is open to negotiating with Democrats for an improved immigration law, he has repeatedly backed away from potential deals that he argues do not include immigration changes that are tough enough (Rogers, 2018).

According to the 2014 Migration Policy Institute data hub, 7,854,000 undocumented people reported Mexico and Central America as their regions of birth out of a reported total number of 11.1 million undocumented immigrants. Thus, this has guided majority of the existing literature to focus on undocumented immigrants of Hispanic decent (Perez, 2010). Further, community colleges serve as the primary gateway to higher education for undocumented students (Chen, 2013; Perez, 2010; Pérez,
An important body of research chronicling undocumented undergraduate experiences has emerged over the last decade and has contributed to the understanding of the stresses that undocumented youth face (Abrego, 2006; Contreras, 2009; Gonzales, 2011).

Researcher Abrego (2006) focused on the substantial population of undocumented youth growing up with legal access to public education through high school, but facing legal and economic barriers to higher education, even when attaining college admission. Based on ethnography and in-depth interviews, Abrego (2006) examined the experiences of 24 documented and undocumented children of working-class Latino immigrants in Los Angeles. Abrego (2006) found that while socially, undocumented youth are full-fledged members of U.S. society, are educated in U.S. schools, usually speak English more often than Spanish, envision their future homes in the US and internalize U.S. values and expectations of merit. However, despite their academic efforts, Abrego (2006) reported undocumented student efforts to contribute to the US economically are met with legal obstacles, political restrictions and barriers to participate in traditional paths of upward mobility available to documented immigrants in the US.

Researcher Contreras (2009) expanded the research of Abrego (2006) to discuss undocumented Latino students in higher education and their resiliency, determination, and inspiration to be high achievers in a college setting. The qualitative case study consisting of 20 semi-structured, in-depth interviews of undocumented Latino students at Washington State University explored the processes these students employed in pursuing higher education and fulfilling their educational aspirations (Contreras, 2009). The findings of the study illustrated the need for greater oversight and professional
development in all situational types and commitment to educate students in K-12 and postsecondary sectors on the options that undocumented Latino students have for pursuing higher education (Contreras, 2009). The research also found that undocumented Latino students in higher education were a vulnerable student population with the Latino college population because their status, both as residents and as students, was constantly in flux and at the will of policy and legal communities (Contreras, 2009).

Researcher Gonzales (2011) examined the transition to adulthood among 1.5 generation undocumented Latino young adults. The term 1.5 generation describes the people who arrived in the US as children and adolescents (Gonzales, 2011). The research focused on the transition specifically of exiting the legal protection of K-12 education to entering into adult roles that require legal status as the basis for participation (Gonzales, 2011). The research focused on 150 interviews of undocumented 1.5 generation young adult Latinos in Southern California who were moving from protected to unprotected status and had to learn how to be illegal, a transformation that involves a change in daily routines, survival skills, aspirations, and social patterns (Gonzales, 2011). Gonzales (2011) analyzed each interview to identify common themes of undocumented immigrant adulthood transition. Gonzales (2011) found that transition from K-12 protection to adulthood was segmented for some undocumented immigrants while suggesting successful integration of undocumented youth to adulthood depends on U.S. immigration policy and the role of the state to determine incorporation into the mainstream.

The purpose of this study was to conduct a qualitative narrative inquiry of how Jamaican DACA students in community college are coping with the immigration and customs enforcement agency’s response to DACA policy change in the US as the
research on the undocumented experience has focused on the Latino population (Abrego, 2006; Contreras, 2009; Gonzales, 2011). This literature review examines: (a) the DACA program, (b) immigration policy enforcement, (c) mental health, (d) undocumented immigrants in community college, and (e) undocumented Black/Jamaican immigrants in the US.

**U.S. Immigration Past to Present**

The great immigration wave in the US delivered 40 million newcomers between 1830-1940 (Zeitz, 2017). Many of the immigrants were unskilled workers who spoke little English seeking economic change (Zeitz, 2017). Most often, the immigrant was a displaced landowner or semi-skilled journeyman or artisan who traveled to the US (Zietz, 2017). In 1924, Congress passed the Johnson-Reed Act, which limited the number of immigrants allowed to enter the US through a national origins quota, closing the door on most immigrants from Southern and Eastern Europe (Zeitz, 2017). The quota provided immigration visas to 2% of the total number of people of each nationality in the U.S. 1890 national census and completely excluded immigrants from Asia (U.S. Department of State, 2018).

It was not until 1965 that President Lyndon Johnson revised the Johnson-Reed Act and created the Immigration and National Act also known as the Hart-Celler Immigration Act (HCIA) (Zeitz, 2017). President Johnson’s intent of the legislation was to bring immigration policy into line with other anti-discrimination measures such as the 1964 Civil Rights Act, not to fundamentally change the face of the nation (Gjelten, 2015). President Johnson recognized that failing to spearhead an immigration overhaul would significantly undercut his civil-rights, social justice, and geopolitical goals set
during his term (Tichenor, 2016). The Immigration and National Act of 1965 abolished the national origins quota system that had structured U.S. immigration policy since the 1920s (Ludden, 2006). The act provided a system that focused on immigrants’ skills and family relationships with citizens or residents of the U.S. (Ludden, 2006).

In the first year of enactment, the law allowed large numbers of professionals, particularly from Asia and the Asia-Pacific region into the U.S. (Zetiz, 2017). The number of Asian immigrants grew from 491,000 in 1960 to about 12.8 million in 2014, representing a 2,597% increase (Zong & Batalova, 2016a). Numerical restrictions on visas were set to 170,000 per year, not including immediate relatives of U.S. citizens (Ludden, 2006).

In the 1970s and early 1980s, new laws mainly focused on the growing flow of refugees from Southeast Asia (Lopez et al., 2015). In 1975, the local governments of Vietnam, Laos, and Cambodia fell to communist forces, and the first refugees from these nations arrived in the US (Gordon, 1987). Communism is a political ideology that believes that societies can achieve full social equality by eliminating private property (Rosenberg, 2018). Communism was perceived as a threat to capitalistic countries such as the U.S. (Rosenberg, 2018). Capitalism is described as a system in which small groups of people, who control large amounts of money, or capital, make the most important economic decisions (Thought Co., 2018). In response to the communist forces, the US issued the Migration and Refugee Assistance Act of 1975 (Gordon, 1987). The first wave of refugees from Southeast Asia totaled 751,000 and greatly outnumbered the earlier immigrants from these countries (Gordon, 1987). Although almost all of the people who came to the US after fleeing Southeast Asia in 1975 were refugees under
American law, a significant number arrived in other immigration status such as: (a) spouses of American citizens, and (b) undocumented children of refugees (Gordon, 1987).

By the mid-1980s, an estimated 3 to 5 million noncitizens were living unlawfully in the country (Hipsman & Meissner, 2013). In an effort to address the growing population of unauthorized immigration, Congress created the 1986 Immigration Reform and Control Act (Lopez et al., 2015). The 1986 Immigration Reform and Control Act offered temporary protection from deportation and legal permanent resident status to millions of people who lived in the US since the 1980s (Lopez et al., 2015). The act provided roughly 2.7 million immigrants legal status under the law’s general legalization (Lopez et al., 2015).

However, the act did fail for several reasons (Hipsman & Meissner, 2013). First, the legalization program excluded a significant portion of the undocumented population that had arrived after the 5-year cutoff date but stayed in the US and became the core of a new undocumented population (Hipsman & Meissner, 2013). Second, improvements in border enforcement did not begin until the 1990s and lastly, the act provided weak sanctions for employers who hired undocumented immigrants (Hipsman & Meissner, 2013). Figure 2.1 details the migration of Latin American and Asian immigrants post 1965 immigration policy.

Given the continued large flow of immigrants that began in 1965 with the change in U.S. immigration law from a geographic quota system to one determined primarily by the goal of reuniting families, immigrants tended to move to both the East and West coasts, and along the southern border with labor markets (Chiswick, 2008). The economic analysis of immigration found immigrants who did work in the U.S. had little to no impact on the reduction of jobs (Wharton, 2016). Economic analysis of immigration also indicated that wages were unaffected by immigration over the long-term and that economic effects of immigration were mostly positive for natives and for the overall economy in the U.S. (Wharton, 2016). Figure 2.2 details the ratio of undocumented immigrants with economic trends in the US.
On November 29, 1990, Congress amended the U.S. immigration law and introduced the Immigration Act of 1990 (Laws.com, 2017). The law attempted to create a selection system that would meet the future needs of the economy by moving away from a near total focus on family-based immigration and toward admission of more immigrants based on their skills and education (Chishti & Yale-Loehr, 2016). Supporters of the legislation believed that facilitating the admission of higher-skilled immigrants would benefit the economy and increase the United States’ competitive edge in attracting the best and the brightest in the global labor market (Chishti & Yale-Loehr, 2016). The 1990 Act increased the number of visas for legal immigrants coming for family and employment (Lopez et al., 2015). The legislation capped the total number of immigrants’ visas, starting at 700,000 for fiscal years (FY) 1992-1994; the structure of the law

Figure 2.2. U.S. Log Capital-Labor Ratio, 1948-2013. Adapted from “The Effects of Immigration on the United States Economy.” The University of Pennsylvania. Copyright 2016 by the University of Pennsylvania.
virtually guaranteed a higher number of immigrants each year (Chishti & Yale-Loehr, 2016). The immigration cap was in response to testimony that indicated:

The same way a household budget, a specific annual level of immigration can be an important disciplining device in policymaking, forcing the federal government to determine priorities thoughtfully and to make choices consistent with the nation’s overall highest interest within agreed limits. (Chishti & Yale-Loehr, 2016, p. 2)

Within the initial 700,000 immigration cap, 465,000 visas were to go to family-sponsored immigrants, 140,000 to employment-based immigrants, 55,000 to the spouses and children of those legalized under the 1986 law, and 40,000 diversity visas (Chishti & Yale-Loehr, 2016). The new category “diversity visas” created a new type of relief from deportation for nationals of countries undergoing armed conflicts, environmental or health disasters, or other “extraordinary and temporary conditions,” known as “temporary protected status” (Lopez et al., 2015, p. 2, para 20).

The primary goal of the 1990 Act was to supplement the depleting skilled worker class in the US (Bell, 2015). Leaders in the government feared that illegal immigration was flooding the workforce with unskilled and non-English speaking workers who slowly threatened to push skilled labor jobs in the US to other nations with less stringent labor laws (Bell, 2015). The first several years of the 1990 Act created a steady increase in skilled labor immigrants (Bell, 2015). Due to the 1990 Act, the medical fields, the arts, sciences, education, and athletes all experienced increases in the number of skilled positions in the US (Bell, 2015). In an attempt to encourage migration and keep foreign-
born skilled workers in the US, other laws pertaining to deportation and exclusion were weakened (Bell, 2015).

According to Bell (2015), the weakening of the immigration laws, as well as the new rules and regulations for accepting nonimmigrant visas, accepting immigrants of previously disallowed countries, and the increase in temporary work visas, allowed nonskilled workers to find many loopholes in the new immigration law. The change in policy had both positives and negative effects (Bell, 2015). First, the increase in skilled workers allowed the US to compensate for the depletion of skilled workers in various fields of work, however there was also an increase in nonskilled, non-English speaking workers. The overall effect of the act increased border patrol spending, safety, and procedures (Bell, 2015).

Table 2.1 details the top 20 countries of migrants to the US after the Immigration Act of 1990. Mexico represented by far, the greatest number of migrants who were entering the US. This is followed by China, Hong Kong, Taiwan, and the Philippines.

U.S. legislators debate how to reform an antiquated and inflexible immigration system that does not address: (a) the mismatch between labor demand and visa supply, (b) the fate of the estimated 11 million unauthorized residents, or (c) the extended separation of U.S. citizens and residents and their families abroad (Papademetriou, Meissner, & Sohnen, 2013). The primary emphasis of immigration legislation from 2001 to 2018 has been to reduce government benefits to immigrants, increase border security, and provide broader reasoning for excluding immigrants on terrorism grounds (Papademetriou & Meissner, 2013). Furthermore, over the past 2 decades, new anti-
immigration policies and laws have emerged to address the migration of undocumented immigrants (Martinez et al., 2015).

Table 2.1

Top 20 Immigrant-Sending Countries 1990

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sending Country</th>
<th>Number of Immigrants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>744,830</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China/Hong Kong/Taiwan</td>
<td>921,070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>286,124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cuba</td>
<td>736,971</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominican Republic</td>
<td>347,858</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecuador</td>
<td>143,314</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>El Salvador</td>
<td>465,433</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>711,929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guatemala</td>
<td>225,739</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haiti</td>
<td>225,393</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honduras</td>
<td>108,923</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>450,406</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jamaica</td>
<td>334,140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>568,397</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>4,298,014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>144,199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>912,674</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>388,328</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>640,145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam</td>
<td>543,262</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To assess and understand how immigration policies and laws may affect both access to health services and health outcomes among undocumented immigrants, Martinez et al. (2015) conducted a systematic review of literature. Forty critically appraised articles were analyzed: 30 articles related to access to health services and 10 related to health outcomes (Martinez et al., 2015). The articles showed a direct relationship between anti-immigration policies and their effect on access to health services (Martinez et al., 2015).

A multiple streams (MS) model of policy process was used to conceptualize the policy process regarding immigration policies targeting undocumented immigrants (Martinez et al., 2015). MS is a framework that explains how policies are made by national governments under conditions of ambiguity (Martinez et al., 2015). The timeframe of articles chosen was 1990–2012, as the results aimed to be as relevant as possible to the current global state of affairs regarding immigration policies and health status, as well as health outcomes among undocumented immigrants (Martinez et al., 2015). The majority of the studies established a clear association between immigration policies and mental health outcomes such as depression, anxiety, and post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) (Martinez et al., 2015; Steel et al., 2011).

Martinez et al. (2015) stated immigration policies have led to a set of dilemmas and issues associated with the delivery of care to immigrants by providers, practitioners, and health promoters; however, little is known about the most recent immigration policies across the world and their potential impact on services and health outcomes among undocumented immigrants.
In 2008, U.S. junior senator from Chicago, Illinois, Barack Obama, secured the Democratic Party nomination for the 2008 presidential election (Pleva, 2010). Immigration reform was a major component of President Barack Obama’s campaign platform (Pleva, 2010). Obama promised to “secure the border, crack down on employers who hired undocumented immigrants, and provide a path to citizenship for undocumented immigrants” (Pleva, 2010, para. 1). In 2010, a congressional bill entitled the DREAM Act was submitted to Congress to grant undocumented immigrants who came to the US as children a path toward legal status (Schmid, 2013). Congress did not pass the DREAM Act (Schmid, 2013).

Anti-illegal immigration groups did not value the DREAM Act legislation (Bolton, 2010). One senator reported, “The legislation is a nightmare of economic and national security disasters just waiting to happen” (Bolton, 2010, p. 1). There were three major objections to the DREAM Act, (a) it created incentives for future illegal immigration by adults bringing young children with them, (b) it did not adequately guard against applicants' fraud, and (c) some felt that the age cutoff at 16 was too high (Antle, 2017). Pro immigrant advocates stayed hopeful up until the vote, but Senate insiders expected the DREAM Act to fall short of 60 votes (Bolton, 2010). Opponents argued that the bill constituted amnesty, and that Congress should focus on border security before considering paths to legal status for illegal immigrants (Steinhauer, 2011).

Despite the failure of the bill, President Obama continued to establish deportation priorities and give immigration enforcement field offices greater discretion about which undocumented immigrants to let go, officials discovered that low-risk undocumented immigrants continued to congest the system (Ross, 2012). Obama defined low risk
undocumented immigrants as undocumented immigrants who came to the US before age 16, were no older than 30, lived in the US for at least 5 years, were in school, high school graduates or were military veterans in good standing and had a clean criminal record (Preston & Cushman, 2012). Further, the influence of activists, undocumented immigrants, elected officials, political operatives, and Obama’s awareness of the ongoing suffering of undocumented immigrants in American prompted the Obama administration to settle on a temporary, administrative solution (Ross, 2012).

The American Psychological Association (APA) interviewed three undocumented youth, Jong-Min, Pedro, and Silvia in 2012. The video interview described the negative impacts that their undocumented status had on their lives (APA, 2012). Jong-Min shared how being undocumented made him feel like he was in an “invisible prison” (APA, 2012, para. 2). Pedro shared his traumatic experience of being held prisoner for 24 hours simply for being found on a Greyhound bus on his way back from college (APA, 2012). Silvia shared her story of her mother trying to flee deportation for being undocumented and having a seizure while doing so (APA, 2012). Being undocumented created significant obstacles for all three youth (APA, 2012). Many undocumented immigrant youth are frequently subject to experiences such as: “racial profiling . . . ongoing discrimination . . . immigration raids in their communities by ICE . . . [and] arbitrary stopping of family members to check their documentation status” (APA, 2012, para. 3). Continuing, many undocumented youth faced being forcibly taken or separated from their families, returning home to find their family members had been taken away, placement in detention camps or the child welfare system, and deportation (APA, 2012).
According to the APA (2012), these stressful experiences can lead to a number of negative emotional and behavioral outcomes including anxiety, fear, depression, anger, social isolation, and lack of sense of belonging. Over time, these levels of emotions can lead to more severe issues like post-traumatic stress disorder, poor identity formation, difficulty forming relationships, feelings of persecution, distrust of institutions and authority figures, acting out behaviors, and difficulties at school (APA, 2012).

In June 2012, the Obama administration announced a deportation policy shift calling it, Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (Ross, 2012). Before the policy, immigrant-rights communities had labeled Obama as the “deporter in chief” (Chishti, Pierce, & Bolter, 2017, p. 1). The Obama administration represented the culmination of a gradual but consistent focus of its enforcement efforts on two key groups: the deportation of criminals and recent unauthorized border crossers (Chishti, Pierce, & Bolter, 2017). Eighty-five percent of all removals and returns during fiscal year 2016 were of noncitizens who had recently crossed the U.S. border unlawfully (Chishti et al., 2017). Ninety percent, who had been convicted of what the Department of Homeland Security (DHS) defines as serious crimes, i.e. theft, drugs, violence, were removed from various U.S. territories (Chishti et al., 2017). In Obama’s (2012) announcement of the policy he said,

> Put yourself in their shoes. Imagine you have done everything right your entire life -- studied hard, worked hard, maybe even graduated at the top of your class -- only to suddenly face the threat of deportation to a country that you know nothing about, with a language that you may not even speak. (para. 3)
Obama (2012) stated in the absence of any immigration action from Congress to fix the broken immigration system, effective immediately the DHS would take steps to lift the shadow of deportation of the children brought to the US by their parents who do not present a risk to national security or public safety. The DACA executive order provided undocumented youth protection from deportation for 2 years, with the potential to receive a work permit but no pathway to legal citizenship (Schmid, 2013).

Further, Obama bypassed Congress with the DACA executive order as he faced a Republican majority House of Representatives starting in 2011, which made it unlikely for Obama to be able to get the original DREAM Act passed (Hecht, 2017). Obama announced the DACA policy because he wanted to keep the promise he made during his first term as President, to help undocumented immigrants who had been living in America for an extended period of time (Hecht, 2017). The Republican-led House of Representatives deemed the policy unconstitutional declaring that the policy exceeded the authority of a president and the Constitution gives Congress authority over immigration (Robb, 2017; Spakovsky, 2017). However, judges on the Supreme Court in 2016 argued, it is not uncommon for presidents to allow certain groups of immigrants to enter the US on a temporary basis therefore, deferred action is constitutional (Wyrich, 2017).

The DACA policy provided relief from deportation and work authorizations to more unauthorized immigrants than the 1986 Immigration Reform and Control Act (Pope, 2016). Table 2.2 details the top countries of origin for DACA recipients. The data only refers to individuals who were active DACA recipients as of September 4, 2017 (López & Krogstad, 2017).
Table 2.2

*Top 15 Countries of Origin for DACA Recipients*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>548,000</td>
<td>79.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>El Salvador</td>
<td>25,900</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guatemala</td>
<td>17,700</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honduras</td>
<td>16,100</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>7,420</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Korea</td>
<td>7,310</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>5,780</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecuador</td>
<td>5,460</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>5,020</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>3,970</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>3,880</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>2,640</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jamaica</td>
<td>2,640</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venezuela</td>
<td>2,480</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominican Republic</td>
<td>2,430</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Adapted from “Key facts about 'Dreamers' enrolled in DACA” by G. López, & J. Krogstad, 2017, Copyright 2017 Pew Research Center.

The DACA policy protected as many as 800,000 undocumented immigrants 2012-2016 (Gonzales, 2018). Immigrants who applied for protection under the program—enrollment was not automatic—received temporary social security numbers and 2-year work permits (Gonzales, 2018). From 2005 to 2015 researcher Gonzales (2018) reported following 150 undocumented young adults in Los Angeles, examining how they transitioned to adulthood in a context of limited rights. In the study, Gonzales compared a group of undocumented youth who attended college with a group that had
left school at or before high school graduation. The researcher found undocumented youth with DACA status increased their educational attainment, had higher social mobility, and better mental health. According to Gonzales (2018), before DACA, undocumented immigrants could not translate academic achievement into professional success. Lacking social security numbers, driver licenses, and other credentials, college graduates found they had little choice but to enter the informal, low-wage labor market (Gonzales, 2018).

The DACA policy remained in effect from June 2012 to September 3, 2018, when the newly elected U.S. President Donald J. Trump ordered an end to the Obama-era program (Shear & Davis, 2017). President Trump urged Congress to pass an immigration replacement plan before phasing out its temporary protection from deportation and 2-year work authorization (Shear & Davis, 2017). President Trump said in a statement that he was driven by a concern for “the millions of Americans victimized by the unfair system” (Shear & Davis, 2017, p.1). The Trump administration stated:

We will resolve the DACA issue with heart and compassion— but through the lawful democratic process—while at the same time ensuring that any immigration reform we adopt provides enduring benefits for the American citizens we were elected to serve. (Edelman, 2017, p.1)

On September 5, 2017, President Trump gave a deadline of March 5, 2018 as the official termination date for the 800,000 DACA recipients and 6 months for Congress to develop new policy (Gomez & Kaplan, 2018). Estimates from the Migration Policy Institute suggest that over the 2 years starting on March 5, 2018, an average of 915 work permits issued under DACA would expire daily (Zong, Soto, Batalova, Gelatt, & Capps,
However, two federal court orders, one in California in January and one in New York in February, slowed DACA expiration (Lind, 2018). In California, the ruling Judge Alsup stated, “DACA covers a class of immigrants whose presence, seemingly all agree, pose the least, if any, threat and allows them to sign up for honest labor on the condition of continued good behavior” (McCallister, 2018, p. 1). Judge Alsup continued to state, “This has become an important program for DACA recipients and their families, for the employers who hire them, for our tax treasuries, and for our economy” (McCallister, 2018, p. 1). In closing Judge Alsup stated, “Immigration lawyers have clearly demonstrated that DACA recipients are likely to suffer serious, irreparable harm with the ending of the policy” (McCallister, 2018, p. 1).

In New York, the U.S. district court in Brooklyn issued a preliminary injunction requiring United States Citizenship and Immigration Services (USCIS) to accept DACA applications from people who had DACA previously (National Immigration Law Center, 2018). The preliminary injunction was similar to the order from the U.S. district court in California (National Immigration Law Center, 2018). The court in New York held that there was a substantial likelihood that DACA recipients would win their claim that the Trump administration ended DACA in a way that was uninformed and impulsive, thus making the action unlawful (National Immigration Law Center, 2018).

By March 5, 2018, Congress had not passed an immigration policy to replace DACA, leaving 800,000 enrollees worried and anxious (Gomez & Kaplan, 2018). The deadline did not mean all DACA authorizations would expire en masse (Rivas, 2018). However, DACA recipients with work authorizations set to expire after March 5, 2018 would face the inability to work legally in the US, remove protection from deportation,
and create challenges to completing their college degree (Rivas, 2018). As of November 5, 2018, the U.S. Justice Department asked the Supreme Court to intervene on President Trump’s plan to end DACA, while the DACA protections remain uncertain for undocumented immigrant youth (Wolf, 2018).

**Jamaican Immigration 1500s to 2000s**

Jamaica is one of the four large islands of the Caribbean archipelago (Murrell, 2018). From 1509 until the early 1660s, Jamaica served as a destination for Spanish trading ships in route to Cuba and Spain (Murrell, 2018). By 1738, the island was the home of 75,000 Jamaican slaves and under British law (Murrell, 2018). By 1830, an anti-slavery campaign in Britain began and the sugar cane slave population gathered in large numbers in religious circles to pressure Britain to abolish slavery (Murrell, 2018). By 1834, Jamaican slaves were free but had no rights or access to property (Murrell, 2018). From 1838 to 1850, Jamaican immigrants were recruited to work in Panama and Costa Rica (Murrell, 2018). Between 1881 and the beginning of World War I, the US recruited over 250,000 workers from the Caribbean, 90,000 of whom were Jamaicans, to work on the Panama Canal (Murrell, 2018). During both world wars, the US again recruited Jamaican men for service (Murrell, 2018).

According to Murrell (2018), it was not until the 20th century that large numbers of Jamaican immigrants migrated to the US. The wave migration began after Britain restricted migration in its former Black Commonwealth colonies and the 1965 Hart-Celler Immigration Act (HCIA) (Murrell, 2018). The HCIA changed the U.S. immigration policy and, inadvertently, opened the way for a surge in immigration from the Caribbean (Murrell, 2018). The act abolished the quota system, which critics
condemned as a racist contradiction of fundamental American values (Kammer, 2015). By liberalizing the rules for immigration, specifically by prioritizing family reunification, the act stimulated rapid growth of immigration (Kammer, 2015).

Roughly 300,000 documented immigrants migrated to the US in just under a quarter of a century (Murrell, 2018). Once immigrants had naturalized, they were able to sponsor relatives in their native lands in an ever-lengthening migratory process called chain migration (Kammer, 2015). Chain migration is the unintended consequence in HCIA’s enduring legacy (Kammer, 2015). Another major factor in the immigration boom was the worldwide population explosion (Kammer, 2015). The population of Latin America, for example, rose from about 200 million in 1960 to 600 million by the end of the century (Kammer, 2015).

After the ratification of the HCIA in the US, a national crisis ensued in Jamaica with approximately 15% of the population leaving the country between 1970 and 1980 (Murrell, 2018). The exodus between 1970 and 1980 resulted in a serious brain drain and an acute shortage of professionals, such as skilled workers, technicians, doctors, lawyers, and managers, in essential services occurred in Jamaica (Murrell, 2018). Many Jamaicans migrated to the US for socioeconomic reasons due to social and economic hardship, a failing economy, lack of economic diversity and scarcity of professional and skilled jobs in Jamaica (Murrell, 2018).

According to Glennie and Chappell (2010), from the late 1960s onward, the US became the primary destination for skilled migrants from Jamaica and the rest of the Caribbean. By 2008, about 637,000 Jamaican foreign-born immigrants lived in the US according to the official U.S. census bureau (Glennie & Chappell, 2010). The Jamaican
immigrants in the US, who mainly lived in New York and Florida, were generally educated and more likely to participate in the labor force (Glennie & Chappell, 2010). According to Ogunwole, Battle, and Cohen (2017), between 2008 and 2012 approximately 24% of the Jamaican foreign-born immigrants aged 25 years and over had completed a bachelor’s degree or higher educational attainment.

A record 3.8 million Black immigrants lived in the US as of 2015, more than four times the number in 1980, according to a Pew Research analysis of the U.S. Census bureau data (Anderson, 2015). The U.S. has long had a significant Black population (Anderson, 2015). In the United States’ earliest censuses (at the end the 18th century), Blacks accounted for nearly one-fifth of the U.S. population, with nearly all brought to the US as slaves from Africa (Anderson, 2015). Most of the United States’ 40 million U.S. born Blacks trace their roots to this population (Anderson, 2015).

The modern wave of Black immigration to the US began when the U.S. immigration policy changed in the 1960s becoming more open to a wider variety of migrants (Anderson, 2015). Black immigrants are from many parts of the world, but half are from the Caribbean alone (Anderson, 2015). Jamaica is the largest source country with 682,000 Black immigrants born there, accounting for 18% of the national total (Anderson, 2015).

The Morgan-Trostle et al. (2016) research study further provided a descriptive statistical analysis of Black immigrants in the US. The study utilized data from the American Community Survey (ACS), 2014 Yearbook of Immigration Statistics published by the Department of Homeland Security (DHS) as well as immigration data on the Transactional Records Access Clearinghouse (TRAC) website developed by Syracuse
University. One year of the ACS data allowed the researchers to collect specific information from immigrants regarding their level of education, poverty rate, citizenship status, place of birth, and geographic location.

The data on Black immigrants from the DHS source was calculated based on immigrants from African and Caribbean countries (Morgan-Trostle et al., 2016). According to research findings, half of the Black immigrants in the US were from the Caribbean region. Figure 2.3 details the top birth countries for Black immigrants in 2014. Jamaica was the top country of origin for Black immigrants in 2014 with 665,628 or 18% of the Black immigrants in the US. Haiti held second place at 16% or 598,000 (Morgan-Trostle et al., 2016).

Additional findings reported 27% of Black immigrants had obtained degrees through higher education only three percentage points lower than the overall U.S. population. Higher educational attainment is associated with economic success, social status, better health, family stability, and life opportunities (Barshay, 2018). The last notable finding from the research reported after the introduction of the DACA program, 5,302 undocumented Jamaica immigrants were approved for deportation relief (Morgan-Trostle et al., 2016) making them number one on the list of DACA approvals for Black immigrants (Morgan-Trostle et al., 2016).

Undocumented Immigrants

Until the mid-1960s, U.S. immigration law imposed no limits on the number of legal immigrants admitted from the Western Hemisphere and at the same time sponsored a large temporary worker program (Massey & Riosmena, 2010). As Congress passed law to make legal entry more difficult, beginning in the 1980s it also undertook an escalating series of measures to combat undocumented immigration (Massey & Riosmena, 2010). An undocumented immigrant is defined as a foreign-born person who does not have the legal right to be or remain in the US. (Gasson, 2017). When President Lyndon Johnson created the Immigration and National Act of 1965 also known as the Hart-Celler Immigration Act and put a cap on the percentage of people from each nation per year, it was the first time the U.S. had put an official cap on immigration, specifically from Mexico (Little, 2017).
The HCIA directed the U.S. Congress to open its gates to Asians, Africans and eastern and southern Europeans, abolishing the Asian quotas, but in contrast made the US less accessible for Latinos (Hong, 2015). Prior to this, immigrants from Mexico freely, and commonly, found work in the U.S. (Little, 2017). The HCIA act passed and “whole groups of migrants from Mexico and Latin America whose entrance to the U.S. would have been considered legal before 1965 suddenly because illegal” according to Hong (2015, p. 1).

The term undocumented immigrant has been operationalized using certain factors: (a) legally entered the nation state or territory but remained in the country after their visa/permit expired; (b) received a negative decision on their refugee/asylee application but remained in the country; (c) experienced changes in their socioeconomic position and could not renew residence permit, but remained in the country; (d) used fraudulent documentation to enter the country or territory; or (e) unlawfully entered the country or territory, including those who were smuggled (Martinez et al., 2015). In general, there are three broad categories of immigrants: (a) voluntary migrants who come to join relatives already settled in the receiving nation, or to fill particular jobs for which expertise may be lacking among nationals; (b) refugees and asylum seekers who enter the country to avoid persecution; and (c) undocumented immigrants who enter the country illegally (Martinez et al., 2015). The research will focus on the third category, undocumented immigrants who enter the country illegally.

**Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals Program**

Just 1 year after the Obama administration’s announcement of the Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals program, researchers began to study the impact deferred
action had on undocumented immigrants. Gonzales and Terriquez (2013) examined data from the National UnDACAmented Research Project’s (NURP) longitudinal mixed-methods study of the impact of DACA on the educational labor market, health, and civic engagement of young adult immigrants. Gonzales and Terriquez (2013) completed a quantitative study based on the assessment of 1,402 adults between the ages of 18-31 who were approved for DACA from June 2012 through June 2013 and were a part of the original NURP data pool. The study indicated DACA opened up some economic opportunity for those who were DACAmented. The findings reported that 61% of those DACAmented obtained a new job, 54% opened their first bank account, 38% obtained their first credit card, and 61% obtained their driver’s license.

The report also found the limitations of the DACA program’s pathway to U.S. citizenship; many respondents were still concerned about deportation. DACA recipients reported 68% knew someone who was deported, 14% had a parent or sibling deported, 31% had another family member deported, and 49% knew a neighbor, co-worker, or other person who was deported. The results of the study found federal comprehensive immigration reform could benefit their family members with 86% of the DACA recipients reporting their mother could benefit, 75% reporting their father could benefit, and 62% sibling or 60% other family member could benefit.

The research presented by Gonzales and Terriquez (2013) marked the 1-year anniversary of the deferred action program. The results of the Gonzales and Terriquez (2013) study were based only on preliminary findings from the NURP, as the DACA program was still new and the impact of the program was still developing. However, the findings did provide important insights into how some DACA recipients were benefiting
from temporary documentation but continued to face the fear of deportation (Gonzales & Terriquez, 2013). Gonzales and Terriquez (2013) began the pathway for examination of the DACA program and the impact it had on undocumented immigrants who were eligible for the program.

Gonzales and Terriquez continued their examination of the short-term benefits of becoming DACAmented and added researcher Ruszczyk in their 2014 study. Gonzales, Terriquez, and Ruszczyk (2014) set forth to examine how immigrant youth were responding to their new DACAmented status. The researchers wanted to examine if there were any individual, family, or community factors that better positioned some of the young people to take advantage of DACA benefits. Gonzales et al. (2014) answered their inquiries by conducting a quantitative investigation. Data from the first 16 months of the DACA program previously collected by NURP (Gonzales et al., 2014). The NURP survey included data from 2,684 undocumented young adults who received DACA, as well as those who may have been eligible for DACA but did not apply or who applied and were still awaiting a response (Gonzales et al., 2014). The research sample included 2,381 individuals who had received DACA status. Survey respondents were recruited through a multistage process, which included connections with community organizations with known ties to the immigrant community as well as snowball-sampling relatives, friends, and neighbors (Gonzales et al., 2014). Survey links were sent to eligible respondents in the Western, South, Northeast, and Midwest regions of the US. The target population of young immigrants were Latin American, Caribbean, European, African, and from Canada, generally with high levels of educational attainment (Gonzales et al., 2014).
For the statistical analysis of the data, the researchers required respondents to share if they had, since receiving DACA, (a) obtained a new job, (b) increased their job earnings, (c) obtained an internship, (d) opened their first bank account, (e) obtained their first credit card, (f) obtained a driver’s license, and (g) obtained health care (Gonzales et al., 2014). The researchers then used this data and investigated how the factors traditionally correlated with classification of young adult’s educational attainment, family socioeconomic background, demographic characteristics, and ties to the immigrant organizations, shaped their ability to access the resources listed above (Gonzales et al., 2014). Research findings indicated DACA had reduced some of the challenges that undocumented young adults must overcome to achieve economic and social incorporation. Furthermore, the study found those who were DACAmented with higher levels of education and access to greater family and community resources appeared to benefit the most from the new program (Gonzales et al., 2014).

According to Gonzales et al. (2014) the study added to the growing body of research documenting the experience by undocumented immigrants who arrive as children (Gonzales, 2011). The research investigated young adults’ postsecondary educational attainment, co-ethnic community, gender, family socioeconomic background, age, and ties to the immigrant organizations and how that corresponded with types of resources they obtained. The investigation uncovered how social policy interacts with other processes to shape pathways for undocumented young adults (Gonzales et al., 2014).

Black immigrants make up a small share but a substantial number of DACA recipients (Svajlenka, 2018). Black immigrants are an estimated 12,000 of 800,000
recipients and comprise less than 10% of the US’ entire immigrant population (Anderson & López, 2018; Morial 2018). Morial (2018) stated the US is long overdue for a discussion about immigration as it relates to Black immigrants, particularly with the 2018 Trump administration’s plan to end DACA’s federal legal protection from deportation. To live in the US as an undocumented person is to live a life overshadowed by fear, but combining that fear with the harsh realities of race in the US, is a volatile mix (Morial, 2018). Roughly, 21% of the Black immigrants are overrepresented in deportation proceedings because of criminal convictions, and according to the deputy director of the Black Alliance for Just Immigration (BAJI), the same disparity holds true for detention rates (Iyer, 2017; Morial, 2018). Morial (2018) indicated the BAJI’s State of Black Immigrants reported, “One out of every five noncitizens facing deportation on criminal grounds before the Executive Office of Immigration Review was Black” (p. 1).

While undocumented Black immigrants have a universal story of migration, struggle, and survival as the Latino/a immigrant, they must also cope with the heightened risk of social vulnerability commonly tied to race in the US (Morial, 2018). The over-policing in Black communities and increased engagement with the criminal justice system increases the risk for undocumented Black immigrant deportation (Morial, 2018). Further, the disturbing language said to come from the White House claiming that Nigerians live in huts or all Haitians have AIDS has evidenced a disdain for immigrants who come to the US from majority Black countries (Morial, 2018). The researcher indicated it is time for rights groups, advocates, and allies to begin to specifically look at and address the complicated needs and reality of Black undocumented immigrants whose
stories and voices are rarely heard above prevailing Latino/a media narrative (Morial, 2018).

The DACA literature provided insight into DACA as a social policy and the impact DACA had on the lives of undocumented immigrants, the benefits of DACA’s temporary relief from deportation for the Latino/a communities (Gonzales & Terriquez, 2013; Gonzales et al., 2014). The DACA literature briefly examined the different experiences of non-Latino/a DACA communities detailing the experiences of Black undocumented immigrants (Morial, 2018). The literature on Black undocumented immigrants indicated a need for further research and advocacy (Morial, 2018).

**Mental Health**

Very rarely are the psychological implications of *illegal* identity considered (Sullivan & Rehm 2005). Researchers Sullivan and Rehm (2005) reviewed the literature of the mental health of undocumented Mexican immigrants, as the Mexican population was one of the fastest growing populations in the US. Sullivan and Rehm indicated in professional literature, the fields of mental health and undocumented Mexican immigration rarely converged. Prior research generally excluded any formal discussion of legal status and typically addressed disciplines of sociology, public policy, and economics, but seldom focused on health (Sullivan & Rehm, 2005). The primary reason for the lack of mental health data specific to the undocumented population was the difficulty of ethically soliciting sensitive information (Sullivan & Rehm, 2005). The researchers indicated that other scholars avoided studying the population because they presumed undocumented Mexican immigrants would be reluctant to give answers that might result in self and/or family incrimination and persecution (Sullivan & Rehm,
2005). As a result, the physical and mental health consequences of undocumented migration had not been systematically studied (Sullivan & Rehm, 2005).

The Sullivan and Rehm (2005) review of literature found themes of dangerous border crossings, limited financial resources; marginalization/isolation; stigma/guilt/shame; vulnerability/exploitability; and fear, stress, and depression for undocumented immigrants. However, the review did not provide the exact psychological burden of being undocumented and Mexican in the US because the sample populations were not adequately described or documented, and had inconsistent operational definitions, assessment tools, and variables (Sullivan & Rehm, 2005).

In 2011, researcher Joseph explored how immigrant discrimination and undocumented status influenced the mental and psychological well-being of Latino immigrations, specifically Brazilian immigrants in the US. Joseph (2011) indicated undocumented Latino immigrants bear the brunt of discrimination, live in fear of being deported, and have very few (if any) civil rights, which can affect their physical and mental health. The researcher used semi-structured in-depth interviews of 49 Brazilian immigrants who migrated to the US and subsequently returned to Brazil. The interviews examined the mental health impact of the lived experiences of racialized and undocumented Brazilian immigrants in the US (Joseph, 2011). The interviews lasted for an average of 60 minutes and consisted of open-and closed-ended questions that explored the following themes: (a) self-ascribed racial classification throughout the migration process, (b) perceptions of race in Brazil and the US, and (c) experiences of discrimination in Brazil and the US (Joseph, 2011). Each interview was audio-recorded, transcribed, and then imported into NVivo qualitative software for data analysis (Joseph,
To examine the mental health and discrimination, the researcher utilized the following thematic codes: (a) comfort level in the US, (b) difficulty in living undocumented in the US, (c) working in the US, (c) perceived quality of life (individual and overall) in the US compared to Brazil, and (d) experiences of discrimination (Joseph, 2011).

Results of the study indicated 50% of the respondents reported having experienced discrimination of some form while living in the US and felt the discrimination stemmed from their racial classification, lack of English language proficiency, or being perceived as Hispanic and undocumented (Joseph, 2011). Seventy-six of the respondents self-identified as living undocumented in the US and felt they were constantly anxious and living in isolation so they were never able to let their guard down and simply live while residing the U.S. for fear of being ethno-racially profiled by law enforcement resulting in deportation (Joseph, 2011). Thirty-nine percent of the respondents described having a positive quality of life due to a stable, better paying job affording them a suitable living condition (Joseph, 2011). Within the 39% of respondents who reported positive quality of life, all reported obtaining a green card or U.S. citizenship during their time in the US (Joseph, 2011). Twenty-seven percent reported their quality of life as mostly negative and approximately 25% described their quality of life both as positive and negative detailing a poor quality of life as: (a) working long hours in physically strenuous jobs, (b) negative interactions with other Brazilians, and (c) living as undocumented immigrants (Joseph, 2011). Lastly, 33% of all respondents discussed how physically taxing their U.S. jobs were—the days were long, the breaks were few, and the pay was minimal (Joseph, 2011). The respondents reported being
undocumented immigrants contributed to the additional burden of exploitation by employers who threatened to report them to Immigration and Customs enforcement, causing physical and mental distress in the form of weight gain and loss, lack of sleep, anxiety, fear, and depression (Joseph, 2011).

Although the data for the study did not include the traditional measures of mental health used in survey data, the findings demonstrated that discrimination was prevalent, and the qualitative experience of being a racialized and undocumented immigrant in the US facilitates various stresses among the group that could affect their mental health (Joseph, 2011). The findings of the study raised further questions about other factors that have mental health implications (Joseph, 2011). The researcher suggested that incorporating Brazilian immigrants in survey research could significantly enhance the scholar’s knowledge of how race, ethnicity, and documentation status can influence immigrants’ experiences in the US. As the US continues to struggle with immigration reform within a combative economic and healthcare environment, debates will be essential to incorporate less visible immigrants in such policy discussions and social scientific studies (Joseph, 2011).

In 2017, a new student found that a quarter of undocumented Mexican immigrants were at risk for mental health disorders (Moon, 2017). Prior research to inform the mental health of undocumented immigrants was limited and existing studies often lacked scientific rigor according to researchers Garcini et al. (2017). The purpose of the Garcini et al. (2017) study aimed to: (a) provide population-based estimates for the prevalence of mental disorders, including substance use, among undocumented Mexican immigrants;
(b) assess for relevant comorbidities; and (c) identify sociodemographic, immigration and contextual vulnerabilities associated with meeting criteria for a disorder.

The researchers used a cross-sectional study utilizing respondent driven sampling (RDS) to collect and analyze data from clinical interviews with 248 undocumented Mexican immigrants residing near the California-Mexico border. RDS is similar to snowball sampling, a chain-referral sampling method where participants recommend other people they know (Heckathorn, 1997). RDS combines snowball sampling with a mathematical model that weights the sample to compensate for the fact that the sample was collected in a non-random way (Heckathorn, 1997). The researchers indicated RDS is the most effective method to study hidden populations (Heckathorn, 1997). RDS data was collected between November 2014 to January 2015 with three previously selected undocumented Latino immigrants. Native Spanish Speaking psychology trainees working under the direct supervision of mental health clinicians conducted face-to-face semi-structured interviews (Garcini et al., 2017).

The results of the study indicated 23% of the participants met criteria for a mental health disorder (Garcini et al., 2017). The most prevalent disorders for participants were major depressive disorder (14%), panic disorder (8%), and generalized anxiety disorder (7%) (Garcini et al., 2017). Major depressive disorder characterized as a persistent feeling of sadness focused on the lows or negative emotions and symptoms that an individual may have experienced (Lieber, 2018). Panic disorder characterized as recurring unexpected panic attacks (Shelton, 2018). A panic attack is an abrupt surge of intense fear or discomfort that reaches a peak within minutes, but various other psychological and physical symptoms can occur (Shelton, 2018). Symptoms include
rapid heart rate, sweating, shaking, shortness of breath, hot flashes, and lightheadedness—as well as a sense of impending disaster, chills, nausea, abnormal pain, chest pain, headache, and numbness or tingling (Shelton, 2018). General anxiety disorder is characterized as an uneasy feeling about life in general (Gregory, 2018). General anxiety disorder is often associated with feelings long-lasting feelings of unease and constant worry over everything (Gregory, 2018).

In conclusion, the study found undocumented Mexican immigrants were an at-risk population for mental disorders, in particular depression and anxiety disorders (Garcini et al., 2017). Given the distress from post migration living difficulties associated with meeting criteria for a disorder, the researchers recommended government officials revisit policies and develop new alternatives to facilitate access and provision of context-sensitive mental health services for the undocumented Mexican population (Garcini et al., 2017). The researchers argued this alternative was necessary to protect the human rights of the immigrants and that of their U.S. families (Garcini et al., 2017).

Hidden in plain sight, Black immigrants are erased and deported without anyone checking twice according to Jackson (2017). There are undocumented Black immigrants across the country who are erased from the (non-black) Latino dominated immigration conversation despite being disproportionately targeted by both the criminal justice and immigration systems due to racial profiling, tougher sentencing, and mass incarceration of Black people (Jackson, 2017).

Engaging in mental health services carries a continued stigma, as feelings of shame and pain arise for members of the undocumented Black community who are not able to individually cope with the stressors of being Black and undocumented (Jackson,
The stressors are as follows: (a) trauma and the fear that today could be the day you are violently detained and deported; (b) the self-monitoring of words and actions to ensure you keep out of sight from authorities; (c) the anxiety about finding a way to make a living, pay for school or provide for your loved ones; (d) the suffering, isolation, and silence; and (e) the separation from family members and support systems (Jackson, 2017).

While some members of the undocumented Black immigrant community have been granted changes in their legal status, it does not erase any of the trauma from being undocumented and Black (Jackson, 2017). Some immigrants have begun to speak more openly about their depression, anxiety, and mental and emotional pains, but they are often hindered by being unable to access mental health resources due to their legal status, compounded by low income, lack of health insurance coverage, and fear of coming out to mental health practitioners (Jackson, 2017). A grassroots advocacy organization for undocumented Black immigrants run by undocumented Black immigrants called UndoucBlack Network (UBN), is prioritizing the mental wellness of the community because it means the survival and continued resistance of undocumented Black immigrants (Jackson, 2017). However, according to Jackson (2017), the survival of the undocumented Black immigrant is political and their stories are no longer hidden.

Given that individuals of Latin American ancestry comprise a large percentage of the current immigrant population and that Latinos are now the largest ethno-racial minority in the United States, the immigration debate has largely been racialized as a Latino issue (Joseph, 2011). As such, scientific research has focused on the undocumented Latino immigrant mental health experience and the impact and fear associated with
undocumented status in the US, with limited literature focused on non-Latino undocumented immigrants. Jackson (2017) indicated undocumented Black immigrants suffer from fear and mental health trauma similar to non-Black immigrants.

**Community College**

In the face of immense barriers, many undocumented youths have exhibited exemplary perseverance, work ethic, and leadership (U.S. Department of Education, 2015). Undocumented students represent one of the most vulnerable groups served by U.S. schools (U.S. Department of Education, 2015). Only 5% to 10% of the 65,000 undocumented high school graduates continue their education and enroll in an institution of higher education, and far fewer successfully graduate with a degree (Richards & Bohorquez, 2015; Pérez, 2014). In the context of America’s vast system of higher education, community colleges are of particular importance for immigrant students (Teranishi, Suárez-Orozco, & Suárez-Orozco, 2011). More than 1,200 community colleges offer an accessible and affordable postsecondary education (Teranishi et al., 2011). Community colleges offer flexible open-door admissions policies, certificate programs, associate degrees, English as a second language, accessible locations, academic support, smaller classes, a range of courses on topics that give immigrants the opportunity to learn English, and training for the labor force. Much of this costs less than 4-year colleges (Barato, 2009; Teranishi et al., 2011). The institutions are also a source for civil and cultural engagement in the local community, catering to working adults with evening courses (Teranishi et al., 2011). See Appendix B.

With the growing number of undocumented immigrant students graduating from their high school, many states are assessing and revising policies related to access and
affordability of higher education for undocumented students (Biswas, 2005). Some states have passed laws to clarify policies on enrollment, tuition, and financial aid in order to expand opportunity for undocumented students (Biswas, 2005). See Appendix C. The advantages of policies favoring in-state tuition and financial aid for undocumented student access to higher education is linked to economic success for undocumented immigrants.

According to Garcia and Tierney (2011), undocumented immigrant postsecondary students are an understudied group on American campuses. The purpose of the Garcia and Tierney study was to inform research communities about the challenges undocumented students may face accessing postsecondary education and suggestions for future research. The qualitative research methods for this Garcia and Tierney (2011) study were guided by three research questions: (a) How do the formal educational experiences of undocumented college students affect their postsecondary educational goals? (b) How do undocumented students attend college on a daily basis (e.g., transportation, finances, studying, employment, support networks)? and (c) What role does social, political, and economic support play in undocumented student’s success in college?

The researchers recruited participants by snowball sampling former study participants. Snowball sampling uses existing social relationships where researchers have a better chance to recruit new participants (Robinson, 2017). This connected the researchers to currently enrolled undocumented college students. All participants were required to be: (a) undocumented immigrants, (b) 18 years or older, and (c) attending a postsecondary institution (Garcia & Tierney, 2011). The study of 40 undocumented
participants and five educators who were knowledgeable about undocumented students took place in Southern California. Thirty-eight of the students matriculated to California’s public postsecondary institutions—11 attended the University of California (UC), 16 attended California State University (CSU), and 11 attended California Community Colleges (CCC) (Garcia & Tierney, 2011). Two students attended private institutions; one student attended a private university in California, and the other attended a small liberal arts college in the Midwest (Garcia & Tierney, 2011). The methodology included a 1-hour semi-structured audio-recorded interview for each participant between the 2008-2009 academic year (Garcia & Tierney, 2011).

The researchers also conducted informal secondary interviews with 12 students who they believed were representative of the sample in terms of gender, ethnic background, and institutions attended. The secondary interviews lasted between a half hour and 1 hour, but focused on issues and themes that emerged during the first semi-structured interview (Garcia & Tierney, 2011). Observations of the participants took place at their club meetings and in other social settings (Garcia & Tierney, 2011). During data analysis, the primary goal was to find connections in what individual students and educational professionals said about undocumented immigrant students. Research findings from this study indicated that absent a support system, these students reported relying on himself, herself, or no one at all. The findings further indicated money is the most important factor in determining an undocumented student’s sustainability in the college setting (Garcia & Tierney, 2011).

Garcia and Tierney (2011) cited Abrego (2006) in the study suggesting that besides basic demographic information, relatively little was known about those
undocumented immigrants who pursue a college education. The Garcia and Tierney (2011) study shed light on a little investigated group of individuals. The study outlined the most significant challenges that undocumented college students face pursuing postsecondary education are relationships and finance, framed by the absence of available networks for social capital. The research findings showed undocumented students appear to have created very few relationships with academic counselors for fear of revealing something about themselves that might get them in trouble (i.e., report to ICE, deportation). Further, the findings of Garcia and Tierney (2011) related that few offices on campus were available to meet the financial concerns of the students.

**Immigration Policy Enforcement**

Just 1 year after the creation of the DHS and ICE in 2002, researchers began to acknowledge the national policy shift towards involving state and local police in enforcing U.S. federal immigration laws (Vidales, Day, & Powe, 2009). The Vidales et al. (2009) study reported that historically, enforcement of immigration law was the sole responsibility of the federal government. Vidales et al. (2009) suggested many factors have led to the desire for greater involvement by city and state enforcement, including fear of terrorism, growing nativist sentiments, and frustration with a *broken* immigration system. The quasi/natural experiment was conducted in 2002 and again in 2007 in the Westside area of the city of Costa Mesa, California, was conducted by Vidales et al. (2009). They examined the impact of local police involvement in enforcing immigration laws on Latino/a residents’ and their perceptions of the police and on residents’ perceptions of community relations.
The goal of the study was to develop further understanding of the impacts of increased collaboration between local police and immigration enforcement, for crime prevention and community relations in Costa Mesa (Vidales et al., 2009). The data collection process included Spanish and English language telephone surveys. The Vidales et al. (2009) sample had 169 respondents in 2002 and only 91 respondents in 2007 from the Costa Mesa community. Respondents were Latino/a and non-Latino/a residents who lived in the Westside. Vidales et al. (2009) found Latino/a residents reported that they were more likely to be stopped by the police in 2007 compared to 2002. The study reported Latino/a respondents had more negative perceptions of the police, found the police less helpful, and felt less accepted in the community since 2002. Lastly, the study also found Latino/a respondents said that they were less likely to report crimes after the recognizing the local police were enforcing immigration law as directed by the Department of Homeland Security (Vidales et al., 2009).

Researchers Androff et al. (2011) examined U.S. immigration policy and immigrant children’s well-being with the impact of policy shifts. The researchers stated, America was built upon a history of immigration, yet the current immigration policy and anti-immigration sentiment negatively affected the vulnerable population of immigrant families and children (Androff et al., 2011). Immigrant children face many problems, including economic insecurity, barriers to education, poor health outcomes, the arrest and deportation of family members, discrimination, and trauma and harm to their communities, according to Androff et al. (2011).

The criminalization of immigration has occurred within the context of the federal response to the terrorist attacks of September 11, 2001, which also has expanded the
government’s punitive stand toward undocumented immigrants (Androff et al., 2011). September 11, 2001 was a series of four coordinated terrorist attacks by the Islamic terrorist group al-Qaeda on the U.S. (Bergen, 2018; McLeigh, 2010). This turn toward criminalizing undocumented immigrants in the US at the federal level has resulted in the harsh enforcement of criminal sanctions at the state level, particularly in those states along the US-Mexico border (Androff et al., 2013). Numerous border-state policies have started to restrict education, public benefits, and social services to undocumented immigrants (Androff et al., 2011). Enforcement of immigration laws was minimal prior to 2000 (Androff et al., 2011). From 1996-2000, less than 12,000 people had been deported and barred from reentry; in 2006 alone, more than 13,000 people were barred from reentering the US for 10 years (Androff et al., 2011; González, 2008). The researchers reported the difference is not in the actual U.S. law, but the enforcement of the laws has changed (Androff et al., 2011).

One in five children in the US live in an immigrant family: 80% of the children are born in the country and legally are entitled to the same supports as all U.S. citizen children (Androff et al., 2011). However, while the children are entitled to the same resources, children in immigrant families are disproportionately poor, more likely to have parents without a high school diploma and often live in linguistically isolated households (Androff et al., 2011). Public education is a right for all children, including documented children (Androff et al., 2011). By law, undocumented children are eligible for free public elementary and secondary education, however continuing their education is problematic (Androff et al., 2011). The researchers also indicate federal law prohibits the hiring of undocumented workers which renders undocumented students ineligible for
federal financial aid in the form of work study (Androff et al., 2011). The undocumented students are in a bind—they apply for citizenship in order to receive federal aid, they will expose their undocumented status and risk immediate deportation, regardless of how well acclimated or outstanding their academic achievement (Androff et al., 2011).

In May 2008, the federal government under the President George W. Bush’s administration, conducted the largest crackdown on undocumented workers with the arrest of 389 immigrants at a meatpacking plan in Postville, Iowa (Androff et al., 2011). The authorities alleged that three-fourths of the almost 1,000 employees had used false or suspect social security numbers (Androff et al., 2011; Hsu, 2008). When undocumented parents are arrested and detained for deportation, their children are left behind because many have citizenship status (Androff et al., 2011). With tightened immigration enforcement, people are no longer released pending deportation hearings, rather they are held in prison the whole time prior to the hearing, leaving no opportunity to see their families or prepare for deportation (Androff et al., 2011). Research on the impact of the workplace raids on immigrant families show significant stress and trauma for the children (Androff et al., 2011).

The stress upon immigrant parents can negatively affect their children’s development, such as reduced cognitive function and increased systems of depression (Androff et al., 2011). Undocumented families report lower levels of access to services and resources that require identification, such as checking and savings accounts, accessing health care, credit, and driver’s licenses (Androff et al., 2011). In the summer of 2008, Chinese immigrant Hiu Lui Ng, died of terminal cancer at age 34 while detained by immigration officials because he was denied access to decent medical treatment due to
his status (Androff et al., 2011). The Ng case represents the substandard health care services available to the thousands of people detained in immigration facilities (Androff et al., 2011).

Research has documented the stress on families and children that results from immigration (Androff et al., 2011). However, little research has documented how the economic distress of immigrant families has intensified by recent policies and enforcement practices directed toward undocumented immigrants (Androff et al., 2011). The impact of these enforcement policies has economically marginalized families, and traumatized and discriminated against all immigrants, even those who legally live in this country according to Androff et al. (2011).

In 2013, a systemic review of literature by researchers Martinez et al. assessed how immigration policies and laws may affect both access to health services and health outcomes of undocumented immigrants. The researchers utilized eight databases (PegausColumbia Law Library’s online catalog, CLIO Beta, LexisNexis, Westlaw, JAMA and Archives, MEDLINE, PsychINFO, PubMed) and conducted a review of 325 papers assessed for validity based on specified inclusion criteria to conduct the study (Martinez et al., 2013). Forty critically appraised articles were selected for final analysis; 30 articles related to access to health services, and 10 related to health outcomes (Martinez et al., 2013). The articles showed a direct relationship between anti-immigration policies and their effects on access to health services (Martinez et al., 2013). The researchers concluded that due to the anti-immigration policies, undocumented immigrants were impacted by mental health outcomes, including depression, anxiety, and post-traumatic stress disorder (Martinez et al., 2013). Action items were presented,
including the promotion of cultural diversity training and the development of innovative strategies to support safety-net health care facilities serving vulnerable populations (Martinez et al., 2013).

A multiple streams (MS) model of policy process was used to conceptualize the policy process regarding immigration policies targeting undocumented immigrants (Martinez et al., 2013). MS is a framework that explains how policies are made by national governments under conditions of ambiguity (Martinez et al., 2013). The MS model views the policy process as composed of three streams of actors and processes: a problem stream, consisting of problems and their proponents; a policy stream, containing a variety of policy solutions and their proponents; and a political stream, consisting of public officials and elections (Martinez et al., 2013). The three streams often operate independently. However, there are occasions when some or all of the streams may intersect and cause substantial policy change (Young, Shepley, & Song, 2010). The researchers also designed and reported their systemic review according to the PRISMA statement, which ensures the highest standard in systematic review (Moher, Liberati, Tetzlaff, & Altman, 2009). The PRISMA statement consists of an evidence-based checklist of 27 items deemed essential for transparent reporting of a systemic review and a four-phase flow diagram (Martinez et al., 2013).

The researchers chose the timeframe 1990-2012, as the results aimed to be as relevant as possible to the current global state of affairs regarding immigration policies and health status, as well as health outcomes among undocumented immigrants (Martinez et al., 2013). Articles were included for full-length final review if they fit the following criteria: (a) the immigrant population included was undocumented as opposed to
documented immigrants, (b) access to health services and health outcomes were the primary focus of the study, (c) the study reported quantitative or qualitative results or rigorous policy analysis, and five articles were published in English or Spanish (Martinez et al., 2013). Using the multiple streams (MS) model of policy process, the researchers were able to deconstruct the framework that explains how immigration policies were made and implemented (Martinez et al., 2013). Figure 2.4 details the influence of anti-immigration policies and laws on health status.


The passage of anti-immigration policies through the legislative, executive, and judicial branches, were fueled in most cases by anti-illegal immigration rhetoric that came about as a result of economic and social problems in the country (Martinez et al., 2015). The review found most of the anti-illegal immigration initiatives were proposed under a “policy” or “political” umbrella to attract voters in certain localities with strong “anti-immigration” sentiments (Martinez et al., 2015). The MS model led to furthering understanding of how the sources of immigration enforcement power vary by country and
jurisdiction and the powers come through a complex body of statues, rules, and case law governing entry into a particular country (Martinez et al., 2015). There was general consensus that immigration control was an exercise of the executive power, the executive arm of the government (Martinez et al., 2015).

In the United States, for example, the researchers found the intersection of the different branches of government as they each related to immigration law (Martinez et al., 2015). The Commerce Clause is defined as a provision of the U.S. Constitution that authorizes Congress to regulate trade with foreign nations, and among the several states (Seibler, 2018). The Migration or Importation Clause determined the U.S. Constitution permits the migration or importation of people to the US, but Congress can impose a tax or duty as such importation for an amount not exceeding 10 dollars for each person (Somin, 2016). The Naturalization Clause defined as all persons born or naturalized in the U.S., and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the US and of the state wherein they reside (Harrington, 2018).

No state shall make or enforce any law, which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the US; nor shall any state deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws. (Legal Information Institute, n.d., p. 1)

The War Clause defined grants power to the President to declare war, grant letters of marque, and reprisal (Kagan, 2018). Implied constitutional powers is defined a political power of U.S. government which has not been explicitly granted by the U.S.
Constitution but that is implied by the necessary and proper clause to be delegated for the purpose of carrying out the enumerated powers (Longley, 2019).

The way anti-immigration laws and policies influence health status is illustrated in Figure 2.5 and in general, the independent variable was an aspect of lawmakers (Path A) guided by any of the policy streams (i.e., problem, policy, political) (Martinez et al., 2013). Anti-immigration laws and policies were the outcome variables and political and other jurisdictional characteristics often were the key explanatory variables tested (Martinez et al., 2013). Paths B and C examined key mediators in the causal chain linking anti-immigration laws and health (Martinez et al., 2013). The researchers indicated laws and policies might vary considerably in the degree to which they are effectively implemented (Martinez et al., 2013). Paths C and D involved studying the effect of law on environments (social structures and institutions) and health behaviors (Martinez et al., 2013).

Anti-immigration laws and their implementation affected social institutions and environments by increasing or decreasing available resources or expanding or reducing rights (Martinez et al., 2013). The results further indicated laws might affect health behaviors both directly (Path D) and shifting the environmental conditions could make particular behavioral choices more or less attractive (Paths C-E) (Martinez et al., 2013). Martinez et al. (2013) determined changes in environments and behaviors led to changes in health status (e.g., access to health services and health outcomes) leading to changes in population level morbidity and mortality.

Looking at the results in terms of access to health services, the researchers found immigration laws and policies explicitly provide or restrict access to health services
(Martinez et al., 2013). Three categories were identified regarding access to health services: (a) laws and policies restricting rights to access health services, (b) laws and policies granting minimum rights to health services, and (c) laws and policies granting more than minimum rights to health services (Martinez et al., 2013). In the 30 reviewed articles, they found discussion of several laws that prohibited or restricted immigrants from accessing basic health services; in particular, the policies explicitly stated that undocumented immigrants could not seek health services or contained clauses that prevented them from seeking health services and mandated professionals to report documentation status (Martinez et al., 2013). Some jurisdictions only provided health care to undocumented immigrants in detention centers while a few others entitled undocumented immigrants access to health care beyond emergency care (Martinez et al., 2013).

However, this entitlement often involved administrative procedures, including the completion of applications and forms, that when put into practice, impaired access to care to a certain extent (Martinez et al., 2013). The perceived fear of deportation and harassment from authorities correlated to the lack of access to a wider range of health services (Martinez et al., 2013). The research indicated immigrants perceived the policies as a threat not only to them, but also to their families and as sources of criminalization (Martinez et al., 2013). Institutions such as law enforcement agencies and health care establishments discriminated against undocumented immigrants causing them to fear deportation and feel discrimination and harassment by governmental and non-governmental offices (Martinez et al., 2013).
The results, in terms of health outcomes, established a clear association between immigration policies and mental health outcomes such as depression, anxiety, and post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) (Hacker et al., 2011; Martinez et al., 2013). Screening instruments used to measure depression found that undocumented immigrants were at the highest risk of depressive symptoms and were disproportionately impacted by PTSD, anxiety, and depression when compared to other documented immigrants and citizens (Martinez et al., 2013; Steel et al., 2011).

The research indicated in localities and jurisdictions with anti-immigration policies, the prevalence of negative mental health outcomes was even higher when compared to locations and jurisdictions in the same country with neutral or welcoming policies toward immigrants (Martinez et al., 2013). Mental health concerns including depression, anxiety, and PTSD were not only identified among adult undocumented immigrants, but also among undocumented children (Martinez et al., 2013). The researchers also found undocumented children faced unique challenges including barriers to education along with anxiety over arrest, incarceration, and imprisonment of family members due to immigration status, leading to increased child trauma and harm (Androff et al., 2011; Martinez et al., 2013).

Martinez et al. (2013) found immigration policies have led to a set of dilemmas and issues associated with the delivery of care to immigrants by providers, practitioners, and health promoters. However, Martinez et al. (2013) concluded little is known about the most recent immigration policies across the world and the potential impact on services and health outcomes among undocumented immigrants. Some of the most recent immigration policies used highly subjective standards for enforcement, which
made it easier for immigration officers and personnel to enforce the policies, but in turn held the potential to expose immigrants to increased profiling and potential discrimination (Martinez et al., 2013).

In the 2017, Gulbas and Zayas focused on the ecocultural theories of risk and resilience in a mixed methods examination of the experiences of citizen children with undocumented parents. This mixed method study included families from Austin, Texas; Sacramento, California; and several other locations throughout Mexico (Distrito Federal, Hidalgo, Michoacán, Oaxaca, and Sinaloa) (Gulbas & Zayas, 2017). The participant demographics were: (a) U.S. citizen children between the eight and 14 years old with at least one undocumented Mexican parent, (b) those who accompanied their deported parent to Mexico, (c) those who stayed in the US with a parent or guardian after one or both parents underwent deportation proceedings, and (d) those undocumented parents who had never been detained by immigration enforcement (Gulbas & Zayas, 2017).

Gulbas and Zayas (2017) collected data through in-depth bilingual interviews with citizen children based on a semi structured open-ended questions and interview guide that provided a series of probes which allowed facilitators to delve deeper into certain topics (Gulbas & Zayas, 2017). All interviews were transcribed, developed into a coding framework with the emergent themes and then a framework matrix was generated in NVivo9, a qualitative data analysis computer software (Gulbas & Zayas, 2017). The results showed the effects of immigration customs enforcement effects on a child’s mental and emotional health, level of stress, sense of identify and belonging, and academic performance (Gulbas & Zayas, 2017). The cultural script of silence emerged within a specific context: enforcement of U.S. immigration policies (Gulbas & Zayas,
With the potential for an act of immigration enforcement to break family ties, most children perceived encouragers with immigration enforcement as the worst event that could happen to their family (Gulbas & Zayas, 2017).

The researchers reported participants described indirect encounters such as the potential threat of parental deportation or knowing others who had been deported; or direct encounters, through the arrest, detention, and/or deportation of a parent. The script of silence shaped parents’ interactions with their children and the information parents shared with their children about immigration, citizenship, and undocumented status (Gulbas & Zayas, 2017). The script also informed how parents taught or modeled behaviors, and the ways in which parents communicated and provided support to their children (Gulbas & Zayas, 2017).

All participants in the study reported they felt, experienced, and understood the sociopolitical condition of illegality via their encounters with public institutions and border community settings such as healthcare, employment, housing, neighborhood violence, and discrimination politically, and economically (Gulbas & Zayas, 2017). Access to financial, education, extracurricular, mental health, legal, and immigration related resources often translated to the differences between suffering, on the one hand, and resiliency in mixed families where some members were U.S. citizens and some were undocumented (Gulbas & Zayas, 2017). The mixed family status participants reported immigration enforcement experiences were particularly stressful and capable of exacerbating the negative effects of having an undocumented family member (Gulbas & Zayas, 2017).
According to Gulbas and Zayas (2017), this study differs from other studies regarding the impact of immigration customs enforcement. Most research focuses attention solely on issues of risk, which obscures the ways in which citizen children actively navigate stressful situations (Gulbas & Zayas, 2017). This study was framed to address not only the effects of immigration enforcement on the well-being of citizen children but also how citizen children cope with the fears associated with having an undocumented parent; and the strength citizen children draw on as they face the realities and consequences of parental deportation (Gulbas & Zayas, 2017). The results illustrated a cultural script of silence, a shared script or code held among family members that prohibited the discussion of legal status both within and outside of the household (Gulbas & Zayas, 2017).

**Chapter Summary**

Chapter 2 review of literature from U.S. immigration from past to present thus far has demonstrated undocumented life in America is hard on the mind (Villavicencio, 2017). DACA led to an overall decrease in stress and helped undocumented immigrants perform better in their jobs and in their studies (Gonzales & Brant, 2017). DACA lessoned recipient’s fears of police, ICE, and the constant threat of deportation (Gonzales & Brant, 2017). The scheduled removal of the DACA program will most likely have a negative impact on the mental health of immigrants (Clement, 2017).

The growing body of literature indicates researchers are just beginning to understand the ripple effects of immigration enforcement policies on immigrant mental health as well the families whose members have different levels of status (documented, undocumented, DACAmented) (Androff et al., 2011; Green & Eagar, 2010; Gulbas & Zayas, 2017;
Ichikawa, Nakahara, & Wakai, 2006; Martinez et al., 2013; Vidales, et al., 2009).

Community colleges are inserting themselves in the conversation of DACA in support of their students (Fattal, 2017).

The current literature on DACA is growing and dominated by the Latino/a experience (Suárez-Orozco et al., 2015). The limited research studies on the undocumented Black immigrant experience concludes there is a population of immigrants outside of the Latino community who are concerned with their DACA status, enrolled in community college, and concerned with immigration customs enforcement’s response to federal policy to detain and deport undocumented immigrants. Chapter 3 will describe the research design and methods, participants, and instruments used to conduct the study.
Chapter 3: Research Design Methodology

General Perspective

The United States is often described as a nation of immigrants, and the Statue of Liberty stands as a reminder of the nation’s willingness to open its doors (McLeigh, 2010). In 2012, President Barack Obama created the executive order Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals. The DACA policy allowed eligible, undocumented youth temporary reprieve from deportation and work authorization for 2 years (Patler & Cabrera, 2015). However, on September 5, 2017 the Trump administration announced no one new would be protected under the DACA policy and those currently covered would start to lose their protection from deportation and work permits on March 5, 2018 (Lind, 2018). Research indicates in the context of America’s system of higher education, community colleges are of importance for immigrant students because more than 1,200 community colleges offer an accessible and affordable postsecondary education (Teranishi et al., 2011). However, researchers Garcia and Tierney (2011) indicated undocumented immigrant postsecondary students are an understudied group on American campuses. Therefore, this study initially focused on immigrants who were enrolled in community college.

The researcher focused specifically on the Jamaican Black immigrant population as the research showed Jamaica is the largest source country with 745,000 immigrants living in the US and of these 5,302 are approved DACA applicants (Anderson, 2017; U.S. Census Bureau, 2018; Zong & Batalova, 2016). The researcher’s goal was to tell the story of the Jamaican DACA recipient as it related to the President Donald J. Trump’s
The official termination of DACA announced on September 5, 2017 in the US. To do this, the researcher conducted a qualitative narrative inquiry of how Jamaican DACA recipients were coping with the 2017 DACA policy change.

The theoretical framework the researcher chose to explain the Jamaican DACA recipient coping process was grounded in one of the three essential parts of Nancy Schlossberg’s transition theory, (a) approaching transitions, (b) taking stock of coping resources, and (c) taking charge (Schlossberg et al., 1995). Transition theory is defined as any event, or non-event, which results in a change in assumptions about oneself and the world and thus requires a corresponding change in one’s behavior and relationships (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995). Schlossberg also identified four major sets of factors that influence a person’s ability and resources to cope with a transition: self, situation, support, and strategies, referred to as the 4S system (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995).

The researcher conducted a qualitative, narrative inquiry to incorporate Schlossberg’s 4S system to inform the research questions of the coping responses of undocumented Jamaican immigrants with DACA status. A qualitative study is employed to (a) provide a deeper understanding of the underlying reasons, attitudes, and motivations behind various human behavior(s); (b) obtain firsthand knowledge of social life unfiltered through operational definitions of rating scales; and (c) explore, uncover, describe, and understand what lies behind any phenomenon about which perhaps little is known (Cypress, 2015; Rosenthal, 2016; Taylor, Bogdan, & DeVault, 2015).

The researcher conducted semi-structured interviews using the following questions to help guide and support the data inquiry:

1. How do Jamaican DACA recipients describe their future?
2. How do Jamaican DACA recipients describe their initial reaction to the immigration policy change?

3. How do Jamaican DACA recipients describe their support system?

4. How do Jamaican DACA recipients describe their coping strategies?

The study focused specifically on the direct, lived experience of the recipients, therefore providing a good fit for a narrative inquiry which highlights ethical matters as well as shapes new theoretical understandings of people’s experiences (Clandinin & Huber, 2010).

Research Context

The research was initially conducted at a medium sized college located in a suburb of New York City during the spring and summer of 2019. The research study focused on Jamaican immigrant recipients who held DACA status between 2012-2017. According to the Migration Policy Institute (2018), approximately 61,000 undocumented immigrants lived in the suburb of New York City where the study was conducted and approximately 4,000 immigrants identified as Caribbean. At the time of the study, approximately 2,600 students who were enrolled in the college identified as Black (Community College Review, n.d.).

To gather data within the allotted time, the participants were recruited at the medium sized college campus. The researcher sent an email (Appendix D) to the Director of Student Involvement at the medium sized college to request permission to use the recruitment flyer (Appendix E) at a meeting of the Caribbean student club named Club Jamaica. Club Jamaica was a student club on campus with 30 student members. After permission was granted the researcher attended one meeting, identifying herself as
a St. John Fisher College doctoral student, briefly explained the research study, and read the recruitment flyer aloud. The researcher then gave the flyer to each member of the club, as well as a letter of introduction (Appendix F) and encouraged them to share the information with potential research participants. The researcher explained that during the study, participants might experience some emotional discomfort while sharing their story; however, the researcher would provide the phone number to an on-campus personal counseling resource and local community organization, Neighbor’s Link.

In January 2017, President Trump signed an executive order on interior enforcement entitled, “Enhancing Public Safety in the Interior of the United States,” focusing on such issues as sanctuary cities and local-federal immigration enforcement cooperation, enforcement priorities, the reinstatement of the Secure Communities program and an increase in the number of U.S. Immigration Customs Enforcement (ICE) agents (Executive Order, 2017). The impact of the executive order was heavily reported during the recruitment of participants in the spring and summer 2019.

During the participant recruitment process, the media reported an increased threat of ICE agents in the research area near the medium sized college in Westchester, NY. President Trump announced ICE agents would actively be detaining approximately 2,000 undocumented immigrants across the country, including New York City (Aguilera & De La Garza, 2019). U.S. Immigration Customs Enforcement arrested 31 people between May 19 and May 23, 2019 during a 5-day enforcement surge in New York State including Westchester County, Brewster, New York City, Long Island, and Poughkeepsie, NY (Lungariello, 2019). According to ICE, those arrested were facing removal proceedings and federal prosecution (Lungariello, 2019).
The daily threat of discovery and deportation for undocumented immigrants is likely to create fear and emotional distress (Miller & Rasmussen, 2010; Silove et al., 2001; Steinberg, 2008). Research indicates DACA recipients felt the benefits from temporary documentation but continued to face the fear of deportation (Gonzales & Terriquez, 2013). With the increased threat and fear of deportation in the recruitment area, it was necessary to broaden the scope of research participants to areas outside of New York State and the medium sized college environment to obtain eligible participants for the study.

**Research Participants**

As a certified undocumented student ally, the researcher was aware that hidden populations would only speak to individuals they knew and could trust. Thus, the researcher focused initial interviews at the medium sized college where she worked. The researcher intended to interview participants who: (a) attended the medium sized college 2012-2018, (b) identified as Jamaican, (c) identified as having DACA status 2012-2017, and (d) were in possession of a DACA identification card (See Appendix G and Appendix H). The researcher had a letter of support from the medium sized college to conduct her study as well as the school’s Institutional Review Board approval. However, after the increased threat of ICE and arrests near the medium sized college, the researcher expanded the targeted population by eliminating the requirement to attend the college. All other requirements for participation in the study were continued.

This study used a snowball sampling method for participant recruitment. Snowball sampling is a form of non-probability sampling utilized often to find and recruit “hidden populations” (Tolly, Ulin, Mack, Succop, & Robinson, 2016, p. 6). In snowball
sampling, participants with whom contact has already been made can use their social networks to refer other people who could potentially participate in or contribute to the study to the researcher (Tolly et al., 2016). The recruited respondents were asked to refer or recruit others for the study.

This study included interviews with eight participants who identified as Jamaican and having DACA status between 2012-2017. The gender make-up for this study was 100% female with ages ranging from 21 to 36 years old. Each participant signed the informed consent form. (See Appendix I). Each participant was compensated with a $50 Visa gift card and a list of campus administrators and community organizations that could support them after the interview.

**Instruments Used in Data Collection**

The study used semi-structured interviews as the primary source of data collection. This form of data collection is best for qualitative narrative inquiry because it allows both the interviewer and the person being interviewed the flexibility to go into details when needed (Keller & Conradin, 2019). The secondary instrument used was a pre-demographic questionnaire.

**Pre-demographic questionnaire.** The purpose of this instrument was to gather qualitative, demographic data from participants. There was no statistical analysis performed during data collection. The pre-demographic questionnaire is presented in Appendix G. The researcher asked the pre-demographic questions before conducting the interview. Following the demographic questionnaire, eligible respondents were asked if they were willing to participate in a semi-structured interview.
**Semi-structured interviews.** The researcher conducted semi-structured interviews in the form of a narrative inquiry as the primary source of data collection. Semi-structured interviews are often the best way for learning about the *motivations* behind people’s choices and behavior, their *attitudes* and *beliefs*, and the *impacts on their lives* of specific policies or events (Master, 2012 p. 1). Semi structured interviews provide a clear set of instructions for interviews and can provide reliable, comparable qualitative data (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006). The interview protocol can be found in Appendix J.

In an effort to maintain confidentiality of each research participant, the researcher assigned all participants the pseudonym Participant and the number related to their interview sequence. The researcher conducted interviews that were tape recorded and transcribed by REV.com. The researcher established trustworthiness in the study by member checking. According to Pitney (2004) member checking allows the researcher to ask clarifying questions to verify information that may be unclear or ambiguous. The interviews were conducted over a 3-month period during late spring and early summer 2019. The researcher had two international students review the research questions for clarity after Institutional Review Board approval in May 2019.

**Procedures for Data Analysis**

The goal of the study was to gain insight on how Jamaican DACA recipients were managing their day-to-day life as the immigration policies changed in the US. Narrative research studies the phenomena through stories told by those who have experienced it (Creswell, 2014). Hence, the researcher conducted narrative, semi-structured interviews
to gain a deeper understanding of the lived experiences of Jamaican DACA recipients to collect data.

The researcher used the collected data and analyzed the data in multiple steps. Data analysis reports the findings of research in the form of descriptive accounts of a person’s experience and presents similar themes between all participants in a given study (Merriam, 2009). The researcher listened to the recorded interviews, reviewed transcriptions, and interview notes multiple times looking for common themes in the narrative stories of each participant by circling similarities. Next, the researcher began to code the emerging themes from the transcription.

**Coding process.** A thematic code is a short word or short phrase that symbolically assigns a description for written data or visual data (Flick, 2014). The researcher utilized the review of literature, research questions and theoretical framework to identify connection to coding themes from the narrative inquiry of each participant that reflects their coping strategies. The researcher then created a codebook that included the code, definition, and an example from each participant’s interview. The codebook has been stored electronically, and password protected on the researcher’s computer. The researcher recruited a peer reviewer to create their own code to compare to the researcher’s code. Inter-coder reliability refers to the extent to which two or more independent coders agree on the coding of the content of interest with an application of the same coding scheme (Lavarkas, 2008). The peer reviewer created a codebook that was stored electronically and password protected.

The first step of coding included in vivo and a priori codes. According to Saldaña (2015), in vivo codes are derived directly from the voice of the participants and interview
transcripts serve as a method for acclimating yourself to the participant’s perspective and actions. The researcher used the software NVivo to create auto codes based on the transcribed interviews of participants. The NVivo codes increased the connection between the participant interview and the research questions, which allowed the researcher to explore a prior coding. A priori coding is the generation of a list of codes beforehand that harmonizes your study’s conceptual framework and provides analysis that correlates directly to your research questions (Saldaña, 2015). The researcher coded by hand, reviewing each transcribed interview.

The second stage of coding included axial coding to determine if the codes in the research were dominant and which codes were less important (Saldaña, 2015). Axial coding enabled the researcher to group similar codes of data together to reduce the number of initially developed codes and relabel them into conceptual categories (Saldaña, 2015).

The third and final stage of coding was selective coding. This form of coding systematically integrates all categories and conceptions around one theoretical explanation of the phenomenon (Saldaña, 2015). This form of coding allows the researcher to find the primary theme of the research (Saldaña, 2015).

**Trustworthiness.** The researcher used an approved third-party transcription service to transcribe audio recorded interviews. The researcher did not use any identifying information in the audio recording. The names of the participants in this study were replaced with pseudonyms to protect their identity. The researcher reviewed each transcript while listening to interview audio recordings to verify that each word was accurately transcribed, and nothing was omitted, to foster trustworthiness (Creswell,
After the review of each transcript and audio recording, the researcher deleted the recording as instructed by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) to maintain confidentiality.

**Reliability.** The researcher recruited a knowledgeable, independent peer reviewer to conduct a reliability check. The researcher used the method inter-coder reliability. Inter-coder reliability refers to the extent to which two or more independent coders agree on the coding of the content of interest with an application of the same coding scheme (Lavarkas, 2008). The researcher shared the interview transcripts with the independent peer reviewer who then created her own codes to compare to the researcher’s codes.

**Chapter Summary**

This chapter has explained the methods used in a qualitative study that explored factors that led to the coping strategies of Jamaican DACA recipients in the era of Trump immigration policy change. The narrative inquiry provided a platform for Jamaican DACA recipients to share their lived experiences with pending threat of deportation. The goal of this study is to fill in the gap in the literature by providing the Jamaican DACA recipients’ perspectives based on their personal stories. This information may provide insight for higher education professionals to better serve the undocumented recipient population during federal and state immigration policy changes. Chapter 4 will provide a full description of the results and findings of this research study.
Chapter 4: Results

This study sought to understand the methods used by Jamaican Deferred Action for Childhood Arrival recipients to cope with the 2017 DACA policy change. The DACA policy was created in 2012 by President Barack Obama and allowed eligible undocumented youth temporary reprieve from deportation and work authorization for 2 years (Patler & Cabrera, 2015). The DACA policy was only a temporary solution to a much larger issue of creating immigration laws that would protect undocumented people’s rights (Pepperdine Graduate School of Education & Psychology, 2017). Pre-DACA, undocumented youth faced barriers accessing and obtaining higher education, such as paying tuition and living expenses, and obtaining a job to support themselves and often their families while studying (Malik, 2015). Pre-DACA, undocumented youth faced barriers overcoming psychological obstacles such as anxiety, stress, and feelings of exclusion (Malik, 2015).

A review of literature indicated the scheduled removal of the DACA policy would most likely have a negative impact on the mental health of immigrants (Clement, 2017). The research examined the perceptions of Jamaican DACA recipients as it related to the DACA policy change and the impact it had on their daily life. The areas that were considered included the participant’s perception of self, situation response, level of support, and coping strategies.

The purpose of this study was to understand the lived experiences of Jamaican DACA recipients after the 2017 DACA policy change was announced. While some
studies have explored the factors related to Latino immigrants and the impact of the policy change (Gonzales & Terriquez, 2013; Gonzales et al., 2014), no studies have focused on the Black immigrant experience. The study provides a voice for the young Black undocumented immigrant narrative in the United States. Furthermore, the study informs communities such as colleges and religious organizations that serve Black undocumented populations, to develop proactive outreach, resources, and programs for support.

This research focused on the narratives of Jamaican DACA recipients by using the 4S system in Schlossberg’s (1981) transition theory to guide the study. Transition theory is defined as any event, or non-event, which results in a change in assumptions about oneself and the world and thus requires a corresponding change in one’s behavior and relationships (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995). Within the transition theory, Schlossberg identified four major sets of factors that influence a person’s ability and resources to cope with a transition: self, situation, support, and strategies, referred to as the 4S system (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995). For an individual undergoing a transition, the impact or degree to which the transition alters one’s daily life is important (Meyer, 2016). Both positive and negative transitions can produce stress, and multiple transitions happening simultaneously can make coping especially difficult (Meyer, 2016). The 4S system served as the framework theme for interview questions and results.

The research study utilized narrative inquiry, a qualitative research approach. A narrative inquiry allows the researcher to gain understanding of the lived experiences of a person or a group of people and can frame data as they relate to events and the perceptions created within the context of experiences or culture (Creswell, 2014). This
research approach was best suited for this study because it allowed the researcher to gather detailed information directly from the participants.

The primary data collection tool was in-depth, semi-structured, one-on-one interviews using the 4S system as the framework. In total, eight Jamaican DACA recipients who met the selection criteria were interviewed. The qualitative study included a pre-demographic questionnaire to provide descriptive background information and ensure eligibility for participation in the study. The questionnaire obtained the participant’s age, location, ethnicity, and immigration status. There was no statistical analysis performed on the data collected.

The research provides an overview of eight Jamaican DACA recipient responses to the four research questions that guided the study. The chapter details the Jamaican DACA recipient story through the data analysis of 20 interview questions. The chapter details the major themes developed from the Jamaica DACA recipient lived experiences which provided insight into their individual life transformations since the 2017 DACA policy change. The chapter will conclude with a summary of the results.

Participants

The eight participants of this study were undocumented Jamaican immigrants who applied for the 2012 DACA program and received temporary reprieve from deportation. Participants were initially recruited from a medium sized college located in a suburb north of New York City because approximately 2,600 students who were enrolled in the college identified as Black (Community College Review, n.d.). However, during recruitment of participants, the local media reported an immigration and customs enforcement surge in New York State (Lungariello, 2019). Thus, with the increased
threat and fear of deportation in the recruitment area, participants were recruited from areas outside of New York State and the medium sized college environment. Only one participant identified as being an alum from the medium sized college. The researcher made contact, either by phone or email to set up interviews with participants.

The researcher used the pseudonyms, Participant 1, Participant 2, Participant 3, Participant 4, Participant 5, Participant 6, Participant 7, and Participant 8 to protect the identities of the participants. Table 4.1 provides descriptive demographic data on each participant obtained from their responses to the Pre-Demographic Questionnaire (Appendix G), verbally administered and documented by the researcher at the start of each interview session. Table 4.2 highlights the participant’s place of higher learning, graduation status, and employment status. Table 4.3 provides a recap of participant age of arrival in the US and the age participants learned of their undocumented status.

Table 4.1

Demographics for All Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participant 1</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>New York</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 2</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>New York</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 3</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Pennsylvania</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 4</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>New York</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 5</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Colorado</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 6</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Texas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 7</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>New York</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 8</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>New York</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All eight participants identified as female for this study. Three of the participants were between the ages 20-25. Five of the participants were between the ages 26-31,
while only one participant was between the ages of 32-37. The geographic location of each participant indicated five of the participants were located in New York State, one was located in Texas, one was located in Colorado, and one was located in Pennsylvania.

Table 4.2
Participants College Level, Graduation Status, and Employment Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Community College</th>
<th>4-Year University</th>
<th>Employment Status</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participant 1</td>
<td>Graduated</td>
<td>Graduated</td>
<td>Employed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 2</td>
<td>Did not attend</td>
<td>Graduated</td>
<td>Employed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 3</td>
<td>Did not attend</td>
<td>Did not attend</td>
<td>Employed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 4</td>
<td>Did not attend</td>
<td>Did not attend</td>
<td>Employed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 5</td>
<td>Did not attend</td>
<td>Graduated</td>
<td>Employed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 6</td>
<td>Did not attend</td>
<td>Graduated</td>
<td>Employed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 7</td>
<td>Graduated</td>
<td>Did not attend</td>
<td>Employed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 8</td>
<td>Did not attend</td>
<td>Graduated</td>
<td>Employed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the eight participants, only two graduated from community college. Five of the participants graduated from a 4-year university. During interviews, four of the five participants who graduated from a 4-year university stated they received academic scholarships that covered the cost of their 4-year university. Two of the participants never attended a community college or a 4-year university, while only one participant graduated from community college and did not attend a 4-year university. All eight of the participants were currently employed. During interviews, five participants stated they
were able to utilize their academic degree and work legally because of the work authorization provided by the DACA policy.

Table 4.3

*Participant Age of Arrival to the U.S. and Age of Learned Undocumented Status*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Arrival Age</th>
<th>Learned Status Age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Participant 1</td>
<td>2 years old</td>
<td>16 years old</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 2</td>
<td>6 years old</td>
<td>15 years old</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 3</td>
<td>6 years old</td>
<td>13 years old</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 4</td>
<td>2 years old</td>
<td>14 years old</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 5</td>
<td>6 years old</td>
<td>6 years old</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 6</td>
<td>8 years old</td>
<td>8 years old</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 7</td>
<td>4 years old</td>
<td>16 years old</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participant 8</td>
<td>6 years old</td>
<td>18 years old</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the eight participants, four arrived in the US at the age of 6. Two arrived in the US at the age of 2. One of the participants arrived at the age of 4 and one participant arrived at the age of 8. Six of the eight participants learned about their undocumented status between the ages of 13-18 years. During interviews, most participants stated that they learned of their undocumented status while trying to apply for jobs that required a social security number. Two of the participants stated during their interview they were aware of the undocumented status from the age they arrived in the US.

**Participant 1.** Participant 1, a 26-year-old Jamaican woman, was raised in the US since she was 2 years old. Participant 1 found herself with no source of income or ability
to hold a job until she applied and received DACA status in 2012. With DACA status Participant 1 was able to obtain employment, her driver’s permit, and continue her education to obtain a bachelor’s degree. Since graduating, Participant 1 has used her work authorization through her DACA status to attain full-time employment.

**Participant 2.** Participant 2, a married 26-year-old Jamaican woman, was raised in the US since she was 6 years old. Participant 2 applied and received DACA, which enabled her to obtain employment and drive.

**Participant 3.** Participant 3, a 36-year-old Jamaican woman, came to the US on a visitor visa in which she overstayed. While working toward her general education degree (GED), Participant 3 learned about the DACA policy 2 years after its launch and applied in 2014. After receiving DACA protection, Participant 3 began working full-time and advocating for immigrant rights.

**Participant 4.** Participant 4, a 31-year-old Jamaican woman, was raised in the US and has an 8-year-old son. As a single mother, Participant 4 found the 2012 DACA program to be a miracle for her life. With DACA status Participant 4 quickly began full-time employment, obtained her driver’s license and began researching a pathway to citizenship.

**Participant 5.** Participant 5, a 31-year-old Jamaican woman, was raised in the US since she was 6 years old. Participant 5 found slight hope after the DACA policy was announced and her family collected money to file the paperwork. After receiving approved DACA status, Participant 5 still was stressed and paranoid that immigration customs enforcement could find and deport her at any time.
**Participant 6.** Participant 6, a 23-year-old Jamaican woman, was raised in the US since she was 8 years old. Participant 6 applied for DACA in 2015 and needed to apply for renewal in 2017. She worried if Trump’s DACA policy changes would impact her application.

**Participant 7.** Participant 7, a 21-year-old Jamaican woman, was raised in the US since she was 4 years old. Participant 7 became scared and unsure of what to do with her life until she applied for DACA in 2014. With DACA status Participant 7 felt a weight lifted off her shoulders and was able to work part-time, drive, complete her associate’s degree, and continue her education to obtain a bachelor’s degree.

**Participant 8.** Participant 8, a married 25-year-old Jamaican woman, was raised in the US since she was 6 years old. In 2012 the DACA policy was announced while Participant 8 attended college. With DACA status Participant 8’s unlawful presence notice was put on hold and she was able to pursue her bachelor’s degree in teaching. Since graduating, Participant 8 worked full-time as a schoolteacher.

**Research Questions**

The study was designed to answer the research question, how are Jamaican DACA recipients coping with the 2017 DACA policy change? On September 5, 2017, the Trump administration declared that no one new would be protected under the program — and that those currently covered would start to lose their protection and work permits on March 6, 2018 (Lind, 2018). To better understand the lived experience of each research participant, the researcher incorporated the interview protocol (Appendix H) consisting of four research questions linked to Nancy Schlossberg’s transition theory.
4S system (self, situation, support, and strategy) with 11 interview questions in total that aligned with each research question. The research questions for this study were:

1. How do Jamaican DACA recipients describe their future?
2. How do Jamaican DACA recipients describe their initial reaction to the immigration policy change?
3. How do Jamaican DACA recipients describe their support system?
4. How do Jamaican DACA recipients describe their coping strategies?

Appendix H shows the interview questions that linked to the 4S system and research questions.

Interview questions 1, 2, 3, and 4 were used to establish an understanding of how each participant described their transition connected to self in the 4S system. Questions 1 and 2 inferred when a participant learned about their lack of citizenship in the US and the impact it had on how they saw their future. Questions 3 and 4 specifically examined the purpose of the study and asked participants to describe their lives without DACA protection and explored what the impact of not having protection from deportation or work authorization had on the participants’ future plans.

Interview questions 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9 were established to understand how each participant described their transition connected to the situation in the 4S system. Questions 5 and 6 were used to gain an understanding of how each participant felt during the implementation of the 2012 Obama administration DACA policy and their feelings during the implementation of the 2017 Trump administration DACA policy change. Questions 7, 8, and 9 specifically examined the purpose of the study and examined the specific impact the policy change had on participants, an immediate experience or
response they had when the change was announced, and if the policy change caused the participant to respond differently to situations in their daily lives.

Interview questions 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, and 16 were used to establish an understanding of how each participant described their transition connected to the support in the 4S system. Questions 10 and 11 focused on when each participant learned about the 2017 DACA policy change and whom they spoke to immediately following the news. Questions 13 through 15 gave a general overview of how each participant described support in their lives. Questions 12 and 16 specifically asked if college administrators were asked to support the participant and if not, asked participants to identify exactly how family and/or friends had supported them through the DACA policy change. Questions 13 and 15 directly asked participants if they had support and in what ways did they receive support. Question 14 however, directly connected to the purpose of the study and asked participants who had given them support during the DACA policy change.

Lastly, interview questions 17, 18, 19, and 20 were established to understand how each participant described their transition connected to strategy in the 4S system. Questions 17 and 18 specifically focused on the purpose of the study. Questions 17 and 18 focused on how each participant was managing her emotions regarding the policy change and what techniques each participant used to cope with the policy change. Question 19 asked which strategy each participant found most helpful for coping. Question 20 generally asked what recommendations for coping each participant had for others in a similar situation.
Statements from the in-depth interviews were used to identify and understand the lived experience of Jamaican DACA recipients. These statements allowed major themes to develop. All interview questions were answered by all participants. However, the length of response for each question varied. Most answers from participants were straightforward. Only during interview question 19 under the 4S system strategy with Participant 4 and Participant 7 did the researcher need to ask for clarification on their coping techniques.

Data Analysis and Findings

This section describes the process utilized for data analysis. Findings are organized by research question.

Questionnaire data. It was important that the study included basic demographic information to better understand the participants in the study. The researcher asked the pre-demographic questions primarily as a selection tool before conducting participant interviews. The questionnaire allowed the researcher to have knowledge of the participants’ age, location, and background to ensure eligibility for the study. The data from the survey provided important statistical information about the participants. However, this study followed a qualitative approach to presenting the participants’ experiences. No quantitative data analyses were performed for this study.

Codes. Once the coding process was complete, the following codes were identified. Table 4.4 displays the codes of the independent peer reviewer, the codes of the researcher, and common codes.
Table 4.4

Independent Peer Reviewer Codes, Researcher Codes, and Common Codes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Peer Reviewer Codes</th>
<th>Researcher Codes</th>
<th>Common Codes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alone</td>
<td>Anxiety</td>
<td>Anxiety</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety</td>
<td>Ability to vent</td>
<td>Stress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aware</td>
<td>Articles with accurate information</td>
<td>Blocking out feelings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Block it out</td>
<td>Cautious</td>
<td>Church</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Church</td>
<td>Blocking out feelings</td>
<td>Fear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Close to home</td>
<td>Church</td>
<td>God</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DACA info</td>
<td>Community counseling</td>
<td>Lawyer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depressed</td>
<td>Do not cause conflict</td>
<td>Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disguise</td>
<td>Do not share status others</td>
<td>Prayer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dream on hold</td>
<td>Emotional support</td>
<td>Worry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotion</td>
<td>Fear</td>
<td>Worry about what is next in life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encouragement</td>
<td>Financial support</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family support</td>
<td>Follow rules while driving</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fear</td>
<td>Friend</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fearless</td>
<td>God</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future plans</td>
<td>Grateful</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>God</td>
<td>Happy</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>Husband</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of coping</td>
<td>Ignore feelings</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of knowledge</td>
<td>Isolation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of trust</td>
<td>Lawyer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lawyer</td>
<td>Local non-for-profit organization</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leaving the US</td>
<td>Meditation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marriage</td>
<td>Mom</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New life</td>
<td>No support from college administration</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No ability</td>
<td>Not thinking about the situation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Future</td>
<td>Panic attacks</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not working</td>
<td>Paranoia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>Prayer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pray</td>
<td>Relief</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protection</td>
<td>Sister</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Status</td>
<td>Stress</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suggestion</td>
<td>Spend less money</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support</td>
<td>Talking to family</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traveling</td>
<td>Therapist</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertainty</td>
<td>Worry</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unfamiliarity</td>
<td>Worry about deportation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worry</td>
<td>Worry about what is next in life</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The researcher utilized the theoretical framework, transition theory 4S system (self, situation, support, and strategy), as themes.
**Interview results.** In-depth, one-on-one, semi-structured interviews were the primary method for data collection. The interview questions linked to the 4S system from the theoretical framework. The 4S system includes self, situation, support, and strategy used during transition. The researcher conducted eight interviews with Jamaican DACA recipients who were recruited primarily through snowball sampling method. The results of the interview sessions include the relationship between the research question, individual responses to interview questions and the link to the 4S system self, situation, strategy, and support. There are supporting quotes shared by participants regarding their lived experiences included to enrich the analysis. The researcher did abbreviate quotes in the analysis.

**Research question 1.** *How do Jamaican DACA recipients describe their future?* This research question linked to interview questions 1, 2, 3, and 4. The interview questions and responses from each participant is detailed below. A summary of participant response for interview questions 1, 2, 3, and 4 is provided. The responses provided insight into how the participants viewed their personal and psychological resources for self in the 4S system.

**IQ1.** Interview question 1 asked participants when they learned they were undocumented. Participant 1 said she learned she was undocumented living in the US when she was 16 years old in high school, signing up for the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) and did not have a social security number. Participant 2 said she learned she was undocumented living in the US when she was in high school and wanted to attend an academic program out of state but did not have a social security number. Participant 3 said she learned she was undocumented when she was in the eighth grade and tried to
apply to high schools in the community but did not have a social security number. Participant 4 said learned she was undocumented when she tried to apply for her 14-year-old working papers and did not have a social security number. Participant 5 said she always knew she was undocumented and was informed at an early age to behave a certain way and say certain things to maintain her place in the US. Participant 6 said she always knew she was not from the US but did not understand the consequences associated with being undocumented. Participant 7 said learned she was undocumented when she turned 16 and tried to obtain her driver’s license but did not have a social security number. Participant 8 said she knew she was not returning to Jamaica after her sixth birthday but did not understand it was against the US law to stay in the states with an expired visa.

This interview question served only to understand each participant’s self-discovery of non-citizenship in the US. In summary, most participants learned they were undocumented in the US when they required a social security number to apply for their working papers, driver’s license, or academic study.

IQ2. Interview question 2 asked participants if their undocumented status had any impact on how they saw their future. Participant 1 said she let her dreams of working and becoming a nurse fade away. Participant 2 said she began to worry about her future. Participant 3 said she began to do poorly in school. Participant 4 said it had a huge impact on her, as she was upset that she had to watch her friends work, go to college, drive, and travel outside of the country when she could not. Participant 5 said she thought she had no future and became extremely depressed. Participant 6 said she worried about how she could have the same experiences as her friends if she was not a citizen and so she was always careful not to tell anyone her status. Participant 7 said she
became scared and unsure of what to do with her life. Participant 8 said she did not fully understand the impact of her status until her senior year of high school and thinking about options for college. In summary, the common phrases from interview question 2 were worry they could not work in their field of choice, belief they had no future, and disappointed that they were having different experiences than friends. The categories that emerged, ability to work, ability to drive, and interacting with undocumented peers described the participants’ personal and psychological resources for the theme self.

**IQ3.** Interview question 3 asked participants if they could describe their future without DACA protection. Participant 1 discussed no flexibility to work, no source of income, difficulty in doing everyday things that may require identification and no traveling outside of the country. Participant 2 said she would lose her ability to work, make money, and drive. Participant 3 said she worried about being deported and separated from her children. Participant 4 said she would not be able to drive or work and provide for her son. Participant 5 said she would lose her ability to work and provide for herself. Participant 6 said she would not be able to work or drive. Participant 7 said she would be scared and unsure of what she could do with her life. Participant 8 said she worried about not being able to go to college, work, or drive. In summary, without the benefits of DACA, participants felt concern for the ability to take care of themselves and their children, and had fear of deportation. Loss of ability to continue career and academic goals was also mentioned. The categories that emerged – ability to take care of children, possibility of being separated from children, and the lack ability to work, described the participants’ personal and psychological resources for the theme self.
**IQ4.** Interview question 4 asked participants if their plans changed when the DACA policy change was announced. The DACA policy change was President Donald Trump’s plan to end federal legal protection from deportation and work authorization for undocumented immigrants (Morial, 2018). Participant 1 said yes, her dream to be a pediatrician was put on hold. Participant 2 said no. Participant 3 said she was devastated but motivated to help herself. Participant 4 said yes, she was worried. Participant 5 said she became paranoid and met with an immigration lawyer. Participant 6 said, yes, she was worried about not participating in society normally by driving and working. Participant 7 said yes, she was worried about obtaining her goals and decided not to move out of state. Participant 8 said yes, she was very stressed, worried about maintaining her job and worried about being able to own a car or a house one day. In summary, when the DACA policy change announcement was made participants described putting their dreams on hold, worrying about driving, and working. The categories that emerged, ability to work and ability to drive, described the participants’ personal and psychological resources for the theme self.

**Self.** Table 4.5 displays the codes, categories, and the theme – self, which were generated from participant interview responses to interview questions 1, 2, 3, and 4. The theme self-examined the personal, demographic characteristics, and psychological resources or sense of control a person has (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995). These three factors affect how an individual views life (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995). The responses show that without the benefit of the DACA policy, participants lacked a sense of control in their lives. Participants showed characteristics of fear or worry about their
ability to drive, ability to work, ability to care for their children, possible separation from their children, and interactions with undocumented peers.

Table 4.5

*IQ1, IQ2, IQ3, IQ4 Codes, Categories, and Theme*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Theme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Worry</td>
<td>Ability to drive</td>
<td>Self</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fear</td>
<td>Ability to work</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ability to take care of children</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Possibility of separation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>from children</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interaction with documented peers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Work.** Six out of eight participants described being worried about the DACA policy change and losing their ability to work. Participant 1 and Participant 5 described becoming very cautious at work. Participant 8 stated she was worried about losing her job as a teacher. Participant 7 said:

I was so scared. I did not know what to do. I knew immediately my plans to move to Philadelphia were out. That just couldn’t happen anymore. I was worried I was going to lose my job which meant asking my parents to pay for me again. I knew traveling was kind of off the table to, that I needed to be careful if I wanted to take a plane. I just don’t see my future clearly without DACA. Participant 6 reported:

I pray every day that I do not lose my job. I work really hard, pay my taxes and participate in activities like an everyday citizen. Without my job I don’t even
know who I am. There is nothing like having paycheck at the end of 2 weeks that you know you earned.

**Children.** Two of the eight participants had children. Participant 3 had three children and Participant 4 had one son. Participant 3 said, with the DACA policy change announcement she was afraid that she would be separated from her children if she were deported. Participant 4 stated that she needed to work and drive in order to provide for her son. Participant 4 said:

> Before the DACA policy, a car hit me while I was pregnant. Luckily, nothing happened to me or the baby and I received insurance money. It was a blessing because I could not work at the time without papers and I was so worried about providing for my son. As soon as the money was starting to run out, Obama announced the DACA policy and I was so happy. I applied right away because I needed to work to take care of my son. Now, I’m worried the policy change announcement, I’m worried.

The participants in this study each described a sense of worry in regard to the DACA policy change announcement. Participants described a sense of worry as it related to work, driving, school, children, and their interactions with their peers. In summary participants described their view of the theme self.

**Research question 2.** How do Jamaican DACA recipients describe their initial reaction to the immigration policy change? This question linked to interview questions 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9. The interview questions and responses from each participant is detailed below. A summary of participant responses for interview questions 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9 is provided. The responses provided insight into how the participants described the trigger
for transition of the new roles or behaviors participants used to respond to situation in the
4S system.

\textit{IQ5}. Interview question 5 asked participants how they felt about DACA during
the Obama administration. Participant 1 said she was happy. Participant 2 said she was
so happy she cried. Participant 3 said she was thankful. Participant 4 said was relieved
and grateful. Participant 5 said she was still stressed and paranoid. Participant 6 said she
felt like she could be normal. Participant 7 said a weight was lifted. Participant 8 said
she felt grateful but guilty that she received the status and others did not. In summary, the
participants described being happy, relieved, and grateful for the DACA policy during the
Obama administration. One participant, an outlier, stated they were still stressed and
paranoid regarding DACA during the Obama administration. The category that emerged
was fortunate. The category fortunate served as the initial participant view of the DACA
policy situation.

\textit{IQ6}. Interview question 6 asked participants how they felt about DACA during
the Trump administration. Participant 1 said she hoped he does not remove the policy
and worried about being deported. Participant 2 said she was not optimistic. Participant
3 said she was stressed and worried about deportation. Participant 4 said she did not
believe Trump would move the country backward. Participant 5 said she was extremely
stressed, paranoid, and did not want to leave home. Participant 6 said she panicked and
worried about being deported. Participant 7 said she felt trapped and worried if Trump
was going to deport all immigrants with DACA. Participant 8 said she felt very high
anxiety and started to have panic attacks. In summary, participants described being
worried about deportation, having anxiety, stress, and paranoia regarding the DACA
policy during the Trump administration. One participant, an outlier, stated she did not believe President Trump would move the country backwards in regard to the DACA policy. The category that emerged, fear of deportation, described the trigger for transition of the new roles or behaviors participants used to respond to the theme situation.

**IQ7.** Interview question 7 asked participants how did or does the DACA policy change impact them. Participant 1 said she tried to imagine what was next in her life and how to support her family. Participant 2 said she was still pushing to thrive. Participant 3 said she kept the change in the back of her mind, but kept moving forward. Participant 4 said she felt safe for now because her DACA was renewed. Participant 5 said she met with an immigration lawyer to potentially migrate to another country. Participant 6 said when she saw the police she panicked. Participant 7 said she was worried all the time. Participant 8 said her mental health suffered and she started to have panic attacks. In summary, most participants stated the impact the DACA policy created in their life was worry, panic attacks, and imagining what was next in their life. One participant, an outlier, said she felt safe because her DACA was renewed for 2 more years. The category that emerged, police interaction, described the trigger for transition of the new roles or behaviors participants used to respond to the theme situation.

**IQ8.** Interview question 8 asked participants to share an experience they had immediately after the DACA policy change was announced. Participant 1 said she immediately thought “thank God I finished school”. Participant 2 said she prayed to God and did not feel despair. Participant 3 said she could not understand. Participant 4 said she had no significant experience. Participant 5 said she felt fearless because she planned
to migrate to another country. Participant 6 said she cried. Participant 7 said she feared being deported. Participant 8 said she had already prepared for the worst-case scenario. Each participant described unique experiences in regard to their immediate reactions to the DACA policy change announcement. The responses however, linked to the theme situation, in which participant assessment varied from positive, negative, or benign.

IQ9. Interview question 9 asked participants if they acted differently in their day-to-day life because of the change in the DACA policy and if so, how and if not, why. Participant 1 said yes, she isolated herself and was more cautious and careful not to cause conflict. Participant 2 said no, she did not act differently. Participant 3 said no, because she knew her rights. Participant 4 said yes especially when she was driving and working, she made sure to follow the rules. Participant 5 said yes, she was nervous and was sure not to tell people her status. Participant 6 said yes, she was much more cautious and had her documented friends drive her car long distances. Participant 7 said yes, she was more cautious in her day-to-day life. Participant 8 said yes, she was in survivor mode spending less money and making cautious decisions. In summary, due to the change in the DACA policy most participants described acting differently in their day-to-day lives by being more cautious, following the rules of the road, spending less money, not causing conflict, isolating themselves from others, and not sharing their DACA status with others. The categories that emerged, driving, interactions with peers, and work described the participant transition from the role they took during the Obama administration to the new role they were taking during the Trump administration. This links to the theme situation.

Situation. Table 4.6 displays the codes from the participant interview responses to interview questions 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9. The table displays the common categories
derived from participant responses. Lastly, the table displays the overarching theme of situation, in which participants summarized the new roles they were taking on as they transitioned with the DACA policy change announcement. By definition, situation is the trigger for transition of the new roles the individual is taking on, the amount of time connected to the transition, any previous experiences with similar transitions and assessment of the situation, i.e., does the individual view the situation positively, negatively, or as benign (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995).

Table 4.6

IQ5, IQ6, IQ7, IQ8, IQ9. Codes, Categories, and Themes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Happy, relief, grateful</td>
<td>Fortunate</td>
<td>Situation during the Obama administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worry about deportation, anxiety, stress, paranoia, panic attacks,</td>
<td>Work</td>
<td>Situation during the Trump administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>worry about what was next in life, cautious, isolation, follow rules</td>
<td>Driving</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>while driving, do not share status with others, spend less money, do</td>
<td>Police</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not cause conflict</td>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Deportation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Interaction with peers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Six of the eight participants described their view of the DACA policy during the Obama administration as a time of happiness and relief. Participants expressed gratitude for the DACA policy and how it changed their ability to be “normal” as described by Participant 6. Participant 6 stated, “I felt normal. I could change my life. I could work, drive, and do everything my friends were doing.” Overall, participants described their assessment of the DACA policy situation during the Obama administration as fortunate.
**Fortunate.** Participant 1 stated, “it was a breath of air knowing I could work and help my mom.” Participant 2 expressed similar feelings as Participant 1.

Participant 2 said:

I cried because it came. I applied at a time where I was about to graduate college, and that’s when I really needed to get a job and I wanted to be able to drive. So, it meant a lot to me. Honestly, if you want me to be honest, I thought about the job and being able to drive more than being protected. I wasn’t thinking about the protection.

Participant 3 said:

At the time I was going to Temple because I was trying to get my GED at the same time because I heard the requirement was you had to have a high school diploma or GED. That really motivated me even more. I was like “I better pass this test because I need to get these working papers.”

The change in the DACA policy under the Trump administration served as a trigger for transition in the new role participants described as their response to the situation. Six of the eight participants described worry about deportation and worry regarding police interaction.

**Police interaction.** Participant 6 described having developed anxiety and panic attacks when she would see law enforcement. Participant 6 said, “I was worried every time a cop would drive behind me. I was scared they would pull me over, check my driver’s license, see that I’m undocumented, and send me to a detention center.”

Participant 1 briefly shared a story about undocumented immigrant neighbors she had who contacted the health inspector for housing concerns and 5 days later immigration customs enforcement came knocking on the door to question them. Participant 1 said,
“Seeing my neighbors being taken away for speaking up made me realize that I should not ruffle any feathers and I need to be silent at a time like this.” Participant 6 said:

I developed anxiety and panic attacks overtime. At first, I did not know what they were but my chest would get really tight and I would get dizzy whenever I saw a police uniform. It could be a mall security guard and I would get anxious. I would think to myself, do they know I’m undocumented, do they know my application is up for renewal and I have not received a response yet? There were a few times that I was driving, and a cop pulled up next to me, so I made the immediate right-hand turn to and parked the car because I started having a panic attack. This level of fear is unreal and even more scary in Texas with so many detention centers.

**Deportation.** According to the USA.gov website, deportation is the formal removal of a foreign national from the US for violating immigration law, such as participating in criminal acts, being a threat to public safety, or violating their visitation visa. The USA.gov website further states those who come to the US without travel documents or with forged documents may be deported quickly without an immigration court hearing. The fear of deportation for participants came up several times throughout each interview. Participant 1 shared her thoughts and perspectives on the possibility of being deported since the policy change. Participant 1 said:

I am always careful, observant, and quiet. I do not want to draw attention to myself in fear that people will learn my status and report me. I do not want to be deported to Jamaica. I mean, I am Jamaican yes, but I am American. I was raised here, I do not know anyone in Jamaica. I would be scared to go there. I have read
about things that happen to Jamaica and I wouldn’t feel safe because I do not know anyone.

Participant 7 said:

When Trump made the announcement, I was worried like was he going to come to my house. He had my information from the application. He’s the President of the United States. All the world’s resources at his disposal. Like what type of deportation was he going to do? He could do anything he wanted to really. So, I decided not to move out of state but instead try and save as much money as I could for in case I got deported or had to run. It’s not fair though, I shouldn’t have to live like in this fear that I’m constantly in.

Participant 8 said:

So, I have anxiety. So, the election season was very stressful for me. I didn't know at the time, but I did have a couple panic attacks where I just couldn't really do anything much and like I almost lost my job because I was just so fearful, and my anxiety was always at a high, high level. And when he made the announcement, it was paralyzing. It was just like I was already preparing for it because I believed him. I didn't think he was joking with deporting people. It did not come across as a joke.

The participants in this study described themselves as having panic attacks, isolating themselves or living their day-to-day lives with worry and caution since the DACA policy change announcement. Participants described this transition in their roles at work, driving, police interaction, fear of deportation, and interactions with their peers from being fortunate during the Obama administration to having fear of police interaction
and fear of deportation during the Trump Administration. In summary, participants linked to the theme situation as they described the trigger for transition to their new roles in life and the assessment of their feelings regarding the new situation.

**Research question 3.** How do Jamaican DACA recipients describe their support system? This research question linked to interview questions 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, and 16. The interview questions and responses from each participant are detailed below. A summary of participant responses for interview questions 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, and 16 is provided. The responses provided insight into the people and places the participants described as their support in the 4S system.

**IQ10.** Interview question 10 asked participants when they learned about the DACA policy change. Participant 1 said she heard from a friend. Participant 2 said her job called her. Participant 3 said she heard at work from her colleagues. Participant 4 said she learned of it from Apple news. Participant 5 said her family called her. Participant 6 said she learned from news and people at work. Participant 7 said she learned of it from an on-campus e-mail. Participant 8 said she could not remember how she learned of it. This interview question served to understand when participants learned there was a change in the DACA policy. In summary, most participants learned from their employer.

**IQ11.** Interview question 11 asked participants who they spoke to when they learned about the DACA policy change. Participant 1 said she spoke to a close friend who had DACA status. Participants 2 and 4 said they spoke to their mothers. Participant 3 said she spoke to the lawyer at her workplace. Participant 5 said she spoke to a lawyer. Participant 6 said she discussed it with her family. Participant 7 also indicated she spoke
to her family. Participant 8 said she talked to her community counseling program, mom, and husband. In summary, most participants described speaking to their mother or a lawyer after they learned about the DACA policy change. Two participants, outliers, mentioned speaking to a community counseling program and a friend. The categories that emerged, family and legal counsel, described the participant link to the theme support and from whom they sought support for the ability to adopt to the DACA policy change announcement.

**IQ12.** Interview question 12 asked participants if they looked for support from college administrators regarding the DACA policy change. Participant 1 said no because the staff did not understand DACA or undocumented immigrants. Participant 2 said no because no one in the college knew about it. Participant 3 said no because she did not attend college. Participant 4 said no, she spoke to a lawyer. Participant 5 said no. Participant 6 said no, administrators did not have the resources to help. Participant 7 said “yes, I have one person who helped me.” Participant 8 said no, but her high school counselor helped her. Interview question 12 was asked to gauge the level of support from college administrators for DACA students. Seven out of eight participants said they did not seek support from college administrators due to their lack of knowledge. Only one participant, an outlier, said they did receive help from a college administrator. The category that emerged, faculty/school support described the participant link to the theme support participant ability to adopt to the DACA policy change.

**IQ13.** Interview question 13 asked participants if they had support. Participant 1 said yes, she had people with whom she could talk. Participant 2 said yes, she could rely on her mom, God, sister, and brother-in-law. Participant 3 said yes, she could rely on
support from a local non-for-profit organization. Participant 4 said yes, she could rely on her mom and close friend. Participant 5 said yes, she had support from her sister. Participant 6 said yes, she had support from her family. Participant 7 said yes. Participant 8 said yes, she had support from her therapist and husband. All participants stated they had a support system in place. Most said their support came from their mom or sister. Two participants were outliers as they mentioned local non-for-profit organizations and therapists as providers of support. The category that emerged, family, linked to the research theme support participant ability to adopt to the DACA policy change.

IQ14. Interview question 14 asked participants who gave them support. Participant 1 said her mom and sister gave support. Participant 2 said her mom, God, sister, brother-in-law and husband provided support. Participant 3 said God. Participant 4 said her mom and close friend were supportive. Participant 5 said her sister and friends that knew her situation were supportive. Participant 6 said her family, grandmother and aunt were helpful. Participant 7 said mom, dad, sister and brother were supportive. Participant 8 said mom, husband, and therapist were there for her. Participants mostly described their mom, sister, God, friends, and husband as their source of support. One participant, an outlier, mentioned support from a therapist. The categories, that emerged, religion, family, and friends linked to the research theme support participant ability to adopt to the DACA policy change.

IQ15. Interview question 15 asked participants how they received support. Participant 1 said she received accurate information and financial resources from nonprofit organizations. Participant 2 said her sister and brother-in-law helped her
financially. Participant 3 said she received emotional support from church. Participant 4 said by reading articles she knew what to do if immigration customs enforcements (ICE) found her. Participant 5 said her sister lets her vent. Participant 6 said she had emotional support from family and some financial resources. Participant 7 also indicated she had financial and emotional support. Participant 8 said she had emotional support. 

Participants described the ways in which they received support as financial resources, accurate information, and emotional support. Two participants, outliers, mentioned church as a source of emotional support and a nonprofit organization as a source of financial support. The categories that emerged, monetary assistance, emotional support, and source of knowledge linked to the theme support and participant ability to adopt to the DACA policy change.

IQ16. Interview question 16 asked participants to share an example of how friends and/or family had supported them through the DACA policy change. Participant 1 said her family encouraged her. Participant 2 said her family sent messages checking on her. Participant 3 said did not have family support. Participant 4 said she received emotional support from her mom. Participant 5 said her family honored her wishes not to discuss immigration or DACA. Participant 6 said family provided emotional support. Participant 7 said her family let her talk while they listened. Participant 8 said her undocuBlack community chats and talking to her husband helped her. The examples of support during the DACA policy change participants described were words of encouragement from family and friends and emotional support from family. One participant, an outlier, stated she did not have family support through the DACA policy change. Another participant, an additional outlier, mentioned having support through a
community network. The category that emerged, emotional support linked to the theme support and participant ability to adopt to the DACA policy change

**Support.** Table 4.7 displays the codes from the participant interview responses to interview questions 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, and 16. The table displays the common categories derived from participant responses. Lastly, the table displays the overarching theme of support, in which participants summarized who provided them with support to adopt with the DACA policy change announcement. Support is linked to friends, family, institutions and/or communities that an individual has that directly impacts their ability to adopt to a transition (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995).

Table 4.7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mom, lawyer, husband, community counseling, friend, no support from college administration, therapist, local non-for-profit organization, God, sister, articles with accurate information, church, financial support, emotional support and ability to vent.</td>
<td>Family and Friends</td>
<td>Support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Religion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Legal Counsel</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Personal Counseling</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Community Organization</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Faculty/School Support</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Monetary Assistance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Emotional Support</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Source of Knowledge</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Family and friends.** Family was very important for many of the research participants. Seven out of eight of the participants described calling, texting, or visiting with their family daily. They spoke about how important the connection to family had been as they navigated the policy changes and the impact it had on their daily lives. Participant 7 said, “my family-my mom, sister, brother, and dad all support me. I have
some great friends too that understand and have been there for me emotionally.”

Participant 1 echoed similar family ties and said, “My mom and my sister are my everything.” She went on to say, “I manage to get through every day because of them.”

While many of the participants focused on the emotional support they received from family and friends, Participant 2 shared her experience outside of just emotional support. Participant 2 explained:

So yeah, I always have support, my mom, my sister, my brother-in-law, they've always been my biggest supporters before marriage. My husband, we've known each other for it's going to be 9 years this year. He's always been there for me, so I never felt alone. And I never felt deserted, or that I would be left out to dry if something were to happen, because I always had these people behind me. So, for prior to getting DACA, and even during the process, my sister and brother-in-law, they've always helped financially. They've helped give money to apply for the renewals, and they helped me pay for the first application process. Also, when they heard the stories about Trump and him trying to reverse it, always sending messages, seeing how I am. So, all of those things.

Participant 6 explained her support came from her grandmother, father, and mother. She explained that:

I have a ton of support thankfully and I know it’s because of the way my family came here. So, my parents and I came here on visitation visas and we overstayed our welcome. My parents knew what they were doing, they wanted me to have more opportunities they said. So, when I was trying to work, go to school, get my education, my family was in full support. Both my parents work so they always
made sure I had money and whatever I needed for school whether it was high school or college. They made sure that I felt like I belonged. I honestly felt truly American my whole life if that makes any sense. It wasn’t until recently, when Trump started running for office that I felt any different.

Participant 4 stated:

My mom is one, and then I also have one of my friends and he knows my status. Because I feel like my American friends, like even I told him my status, like they still don't get it. We so, it'll be like, "Hey, like let's go," Where did my friend go for her birthday? She went somewhere like Belize and she invited me. Like they don't get it, but I do have like this one friend and he gets it. Like, because he . . . I think he was like a political science major and he's also Jamaican, you know. His mom didn't have papers and he's very up to date on things. So, a lot of times like I can talk to him about it. I can talk to Dee for sure, and Dee will like to tell me stuff as well, you know. And like even he'll like ... Make sure you file your taxes, or he'll send me like articles and things of that nature. So, he understands, and I can definitely talk to him about stress and, and he doesn't invite me out the country. So, he gets it.

There was one outlier in the research regarding the category family and friends support. Participant 3 described not having family support. Participant 3’s story was unique as it was the only story from the research participants that described lack of support.

Participant 3 shared her story:

I had two aunts who lived close by who could have filed for me to be a citizen, but they just refused to and that kind of hurt. You have your own family, and
they refuse to help. I'm like, "Why didn't y'all just send me back home?" “Why let me be stuck here, with no one” . . . I didn't know the struggle that was going to come with all of that. At 19, when I was with my aunt, I had my second child. My aunt put me out, and I got my passport and visa from her, but it was already expired, couldn't do nothing once your visa's expired. It's just like, what do I do now? It was devastating, really devastating.

The category community organization emerged from repeated outliers during participant responses to interview questions regarding who provided support and where participants sought support.

Community organizations. According to the Community Tool Box website, a community organization is the process of people coming together from a shared place, shared work situation/workplace, or shared experiences/concerns to address issues that matter to them. Three of the eight participants mentioned working with or having some connection to community organizations supporting their needs as undocumented immigrants. Participant 1 stated the reason she was connected to the community organization in New York was because they helped pay for her application for DACA renewal. Participant 1 said, “The organization was really nice and helpful. They were very knowledgeable regarding immigration law and had the financial resources that I did not have at the time to pay for the $495 renewal fee.” Two of the other participants, Participant 8 and Participant 3 were tied much more closely to their organizations. Participant 8 explained:

I have support in places besides home so like there's resources as far as the UndocuBlacknetwork, being able to talk to other people that are in my position
and trade certain information that we could access as far as like free resources. For example, I’m talking about legal aid, talking about scholarships for paying fees, and simple things like certain things that you could eat to improve your mood. Chemicals in tomatoes or certain colors that improve your mood or the chemicals in spinach. Those kinds of things are helpful when you have a community that each of us have our own survival methods and we're sharing those survival methods with each other. It's helpful to know people that are in your similar situation and are accessing resources to address it.

Participant 3 explained:

If wasn't from my own set of people at work and friends because not even family members helped, but through the coalition and different organizations, I was able to get the help that I needed. If not, I don't have no hope, this is it for me. And with Pennsylvania Immigration and Citizenship Coalition and a few different organizations in Pennsylvania, they always helped me. Especially with the funds, you're coming up with $495 and you don't have a job. That's not easy. The organization helps raise funds for a few people to get support, and just for people to know it's not just a Hispanic or Spanish issue, it's not just Latina. It's Black people out there, and I was the only Black person that I know of because a lot of people didn't want to come forward and share their stories because we're so prideful in the Caribbean community. Don't tell nobody you're undocumented. Don't tell nobody you don't have any papers because that could be a risk, but at the same time, if I didn't do that, people wouldn't know, and I wouldn't have received the help that I did from people in those organizations.
The eight participants all described at least one person in their lives who had provided support during the DACA policy change announcement. The participants described the ways in which family and friends, religion, legal counsel, personal counseling, community organizations, faculty/school support, monetary assistance, emotional support, and source of knowledge have played a role in their ability to adopt to transition. This is linked to the theme support.

**Research question 4.** *How do Jamaican DACA recipients describe their coping strategies?* This is linked to interview questions 17, 18, 19 and 20. The interview questions and responses from each participant are detailed below. A summary of participant responses for interview questions 17, 18, 19, and 20 is provided. The responses provided insight into the coping methods for transition the participants described as their strategy in the 4S system.

**IQ17.** Interview question 17 asked participants to describe how they managed their feelings regarding the DACA policy change. Participant 1 said she tried to block it out and relied on prayer. Participant 2 said she used prayer and crying. Participant 3 said she attended church. Participant 4 she tried to block it out. Participant 5 said she lived in blissful ignorance. Participant 6 said she only thought about being deported. Participant 7 said she did nothing. Participant 8 said she relied on therapy. The ways in which most participants described managing their feelings in regard to the DACA policy change was through prayer and blocking out their feelings. There were two participants’ responses, outliers, that said they used therapy to manage their feelings or they cried. The categories that emerged, religion and denial, linked to the theme strategy as the process used by participants to manage the stress connected to the transition of the DACA policy change.
"IQ18. Interview question 18 asked participants to describe the methods they used to cope with the DACA policy change. Participant 1 said she tried not to think about it and prayed. Participant 2 said prayer was important. Participant 3 said she prepared for the worst, attended church, and educated herself. Participant 4 said she kept problems to herself. Participant 5 said nothing, she ignored it, or she vented to her sister. Participant 6 said praying was helpful; God will protect her and she talked to family. Participant 7 said she did nothing but talked to family. Participant 8 said church, praying, eating sweets, and crying when she needed to, were helpful to her. Most participants described ignoring their feelings, prayer, and talking to family as their primary method for coping with the DACA policy change. One participant, an outlier, mentioned she kept her problems to herself as a method of coping. The categories that emerged, prayer, denial, and family communication linked to the theme strategy as the process used by participants to cope with the transition of the DACA policy change.

IQ19. Interview question 19 asked participants what coping strategy they found most helpful. Participant 1 said blocking out the situation helped. Participant 2 said not thinking about the situation was her strategy. Participant 3 said prayer was useful. Participant 4 said meditating and listening to gospel music helped her. Participant 5 said talking to her sister helped. Participant 6 said prayer and talking to family helped her cope. Participant 7 said family chats were useful. Participant 8 said she relied on church and therapy. Most participants described blocking out or not thinking about the situation, meditation or prayer, and talking to family as their most helpful method for coping with the DACA policy change. Two participants’ responses were outliers, in which one participant said she listened to gospel music to cope and another participant mentioned
attending therapy to cope. The categories that emerged, denial, family communication and prayer linked to the theme strategy as the process used by participants to manage the stress connected to the transitions of the DACA policy change.

**IQ20.** Interview question 20 asked participants what coping strategy would they recommend for others in a similar situation. Participant 1 said seek help with trusted individuals. Participant 2 said find someone who will support you if you do not believe in God. Participant 3 said get to know God. Participant 4 said have a vision in your life and set goals. Participant 5 said have a trusted person with whom to speak. Participant 6 said talk to someone who understands your situation. Participant 7 said have someone with whom you can talk. Participant 8 said find people who are like you who you can talk to and indulge in self-care such as color therapy, aroma therapy, or mental health therapy. Six of the eight participants recommended that others in a similar situation find talking to someone as a helpful coping strategy. There were three outlier responses in which participants said, get to know God, set goals in life, and practice self-care such as mental health therapy. This interview question served only to connect to the significance of the study in which participant recommendations could be used to help others in a similar situation.

**Strategy.** Table 4.8 displays the codes from the participant interview responses to interview questions 17, 18, 19, and 20. The table displays the common categories derived from participant responses. Lastly, the table displays the overarching theme of strategy, in which participants summarized their ability to cope with the DACA policy change. Strategy is responsible for the individual’s ability to cope with transition, which
includes modifying a situation, managing stress, and controlling the meaning of the problem (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995).

Table 4.8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Codes</th>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Blocking out feelings, prayer, ignore feelings, talking to family, not thinking about the situation, and meditation.</td>
<td>Denial Religion Prayer Family Communication</td>
<td>Strategy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Prayer.** Participant 1, 2, 3, and 8 each expressed strong connections to faith, God, and prayer. Each participant shared stories about a blessing or miracle in their life in which they gave credit to God. When prompted with the question how do you describe your coping strategies, Participant 3 stated:

Jesus. My Savior. That's the only thing that keeps me sane. Church. That's it. That church is a big family and support for me. Praying keeps me grounded and full of belief. Praying is better than anything. I started therapy, but it didn't really, I don’t know, it wasn’t helpful. I tell people if they don’t know the Lord, get to know Him for their self. I’m serious.

Participant 1 said:

I pray and I trust God. He has brought me this far and I believe, and he will take me further. God helped me get through my associate’s degree and God helped me get through my bachelor’s degree. I just believe.

Participant 2 explained:
So, I'm a Pentecostal, and I was born into religion so it's all I know. And I'm telling you, honestly prayer, it has helped over, and over, and over again. And when I need to cry, I cry. I just let it out, and I just pray, and talk to God about it. And I usually feel better at the end of it. And, always my mom is just like, "Don't worry, God is going to get you through this. He's going to take you through."

And she's the one that's like, "He didn't take you this far to leave you. He's taken care of you this far, he's not going to just drop you now.

Participant 8 said:

I went to church a lot. I would pray a lot. During the times that I had what I know now are panic attacks, I would just like lie down on my dorm room floor and just like cry until like I got it out.

**Denial.** Denial is described as a defense mechanism in which confirmation with a personal problem or with reality is avoided by denying the existence of the problem or reality (Dean, 2019). Participants 1, 5, and 6 described acts of denial during their interviews. The participants explained that sometimes it was mentally easier to pretend that they were not undocumented, and the impact of immigration policy was not real. Participant 7 said, “While I do not live in denial about what’s happening in the world, I definitely do not go out of my way to watch the news or read twitter, I just go on with my life.” Similar techniques were described by Participant 1 who said, “I just pretend it’s not happening. I live my life, set goals, and do not let it bother me. I give it to God.” Participants 5 and 6 had more to share on their acts of denial. Participant 5 said:

So, I live in blissful ignorance. My family is not allowed to text me certain things because it will send me into a panic, and so I had a very firm conversation with
them. I don't want to know because what happens is people pick the wrong times
to text you. They will text me very early in the morning when I must mentally get
myself together for work, or they'll text me very late at night right before I'm
going to my bed, and who wants to go to sleep with that anxiety? Who wants to
go to work stressing? So, I look things up on my terms. So, when I haven't heard
anything for a while, when I haven't seen an article pop up, I look them up. I look
it up and see what's going on, so I'm aware of it, but other than that I don't allow
people to text me things like that. I actually have a message on my WhatsApp
that says do not send me pictures and do not send me messages. The what isn't
very specific, but I tell them don't send me nothing. I can't . . . There's nothing I
can do. All I can do is react when it happens. That's it. So, I don't see the point
in stressing myself out. I don't. I made my peace with the fact that my future is in
other people's hands, or I can leave the country, so those are my two options, so
I've kind of made my peace with that.

Participant 6 explained:

I know you’re going to say this is unhealthy and even I know it’s unhealthy, but I
stopped watching the news, reading the news, and listening to the news. I just act
as if my life is normal and I’m like any other American citizen. I know being
Black makes me a target in this country with the racism and all, so I try to be
careful and just stay out of conversations regarding immigration or political. I
don’t want to draw attention to myself. So, I guess I’m living in the denial you
could say.
The participants shared how overwhelming their undocumented status has been on their lives and what methods they most frequently used to manage their emotions. The participants shared both the psychologically healthy and unhealthy ways of coping with DACA policy changes.

**Summary of Results**

Chapter 4 presented the analysis and findings based on the four research questions and 4S system that guided this qualitative narrative inquiry. It presented the data collected by the researcher who conducted semi-structured in-depth interviews with eight Jamaican DACA recipients throughout the US. Each participant provided personal, insightful, and detailed descriptions of their lived experiences as undocumented Jamaican immigrants who have lived in the US for nearly all their childhood and adult lives.

The researcher linked the themes from transition theory 4S system (self, situation, support, and strategy) to various categories. The theme self, linked to the following categories: *ability to drive, ability to work, ability to support children, possibility of separation from children, and interaction with documented peers.* The theme situation linked to the following two separate transitions; one transition during Obama administration and another transition during the Trump administration. During the Obama administration the situation category was *fortunate.* During the Trump administration the situation categories were *working, driving, police interaction, deportation,* and *interaction with peers.* The theme support linked to the following categories: *family and friends, religion, legal counsel, personal counseling, community organization, faculty/school support, monetary assistance, emotional support,* and *source*
of knowledge. The last theme, strategy, linked to the following categories: denial, religion, prayer, and family communication.

The eight participants gave their own personal accounts of their experience facing DACA policy change and highlighted the actions and precautions they use in their daily lives. Each participant’s story was unique although there were commonalities among each of the stories. In Chapter 5 the researcher will offer implications of the findings that speak to previous research findings and suggest recommendations for future studies.
Chapter 5: Discussion

Introduction

The purpose of this narrative qualitative study was to gain a better understanding of how Jamaican Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals recipients were coping with the 2017 DACA policy change issued by the newly elected President Donald Trump. DACA is the 2012 President Barack Obama executive order that provided undocumented youth protection from deportation for 2 years and opportunity to receive a work permit but no pathway to legal citizenship (Schmid, 2013).

Using Nancy Schlossberg’s 4S system from Schlossberg transition theory, factors associated with the recipient’s idea of self, their response to the situation, their support network, and the strategies used to cope with the change were explored to examine the recipients lived experiences. This study sought to provide (a) a voice for the young Black undocumented immigrant living in the United States; (b) resources for psychological and emotional support with examples of coping strategies for recipients to use during the changes made to the DACA policy; and (c) tangible ideas for community colleges interested in developing proactive outreach, resources, and programs for undocumented/DACAmented students.

There is a growing body of literature that is beginning to understand the effects of immigration policy changes on immigrant mental health (Androff et al., 2011; Green & Eagar, 2010; Gulbas & Zayas, 2017; Ichikawa et al., 2006; Martinez et al., 2015; Suárez-Orozco et al., 2015; Vidales et al., 2009). The literature is dominated by the
approximately 630,000 Latino/a DACA recipients’ experience with minimal research that focuses on the experiences of non-Latino/a immigrants (López & Krogstad, 2017). Further research indicated approximately 12,000 DACA recipients are Black, with DACA approvals from Jamaica (5,302 approved applicants), Trinidad and Tobago (4,077 approved), and Nigeria (2,095 approved) (Anderson, 2017). Thus, the researcher examined the impact of immigration policy change on Jamaican DACA recipients and their ability to cope.

The participants reflected on their lived experiences and provided their perspectives in response to semi-structured interview questions focused on the purpose of this study and research questions for this study. The purpose of this study was to understand how Jamaican DACA recipients are coping with the 2017 DACA policy change. The results of the study provide answers to the research questions introduced in Chapter 1:

1. How do Jamaican DACA recipients describe their future?
2. How do Jamaican DACA recipients describe their initial reaction to the immigration policy change?
3. How do Jamaican DACA recipients describe their support system?
4. How do Jamaican DACA recipients describe their coping strategies?

Implications of Findings

This study expands upon the current literature focused on the impact of immigration policy change in the US. The findings from this study contribute to the minimal research focused specifically on Black immigrant response to immigration policy change. This information can be used by community colleges and/or
organizations interested in developing proactive outreach, resources, and programs for DACA recipients, as well as, a resource for DACA recipients seeking coping strategies.

The nature of a narrative qualitative research approach limits the ability to generalize the experiences of Jamaican DACA recipients. It is also important to note that the intention of a qualitative study is not to generalize the information discovered but share the lived experiences of the participants.

This study identified 23 factors that Jamaican DACA recipients associated with their ability to cope with the 2017 DACA policy change. These factors were ability to drive, ability to work, ability to support children, possibility of separation from children, interaction with documented peers, feeling fortunate, police interaction, deportation, interaction with peers, family and friends, religion, legal counsel, personal counseling, community organization, faculty/school support, monetary assistance, emotional support, source of knowledge, denial, religion, prayer, and family communication.

To conceptualize the findings using the 4S system of the transition theory (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995), the researcher related each factor to one of the 4S’s in the system. The theme self, linked to the following categories: ability to drive, ability to work, ability to support children, possibility of separation from children, and interaction with documented peers. The theme situation linked to the following two separate transitions; one transition during Obama administration and another transition during the Trump administration. During the Obama administration the situation category was fortunate. During the Trump administration the situation categories were working, driving, police interaction, deportation, and interaction with peers. The theme support linked to the following categories: family and friends, religion, legal counsel, personal
counseling, community organization, faculty/school support, monetary assistance, emotional support, and source of knowledge. The last theme strategy, linked to the following categories: denial, religion, prayer, and family communication.

The major findings that emerged from the data collected by the research link to the 4S system self, situation, support, strategy and the four research questions that guided the study. Additionally, the findings from this study provide researchers with a foundation for understanding how DACA recipients not part of the Latino/a community are coping with the 2017 DACA policy change.

**Major finding 1. Without the benefit of the DACA policy, participants lack sense of control in their lives.** Each participant spoke about their life before DACA and how they believed they had no future in the US without documentation that allowed them to work, drive, attend college, and safely stay in the US with their family and friends. This idea is supported by research findings of Gonzales et al. (2014) that indicated DACA had reduced some of the challenges that undocumented young adults must overcome to achieve economic and social incorporation. One participant spoke about trying to register for her SATs but not having a social security number. Another participant spoke about trying to obtain her working papers in high school but not being able to do so without a social security number. One participant spoke about wanting to attend college but not being eligible for financial aid due to her lack of citizenship in the US.

Research supports the notion that the lack of a social security number and citizenship holds undocumented immigrants back from transitioning in life at the same time as their peer group who were born in the US. The Gonzales and Terriquez (2013) study reported that of those undocumented immigrants who applied and received DACA
approval, 61% obtained a new job, 54% opened their first bank account, 38% obtained their first credit card, and 61% obtained their driver’s license.

The findings in this study imply that the benefits of the DACA policy, such as work authorization and reprieve from deportation, directly impacts how Jamaican DACA recipients describe their future. Understanding the benefits of DACA and how it relates to Jamaican DACA recipients is necessary because most current research details only the Latino/a experience. Participant 3 stated, “people need to know it’s not just a Hispanic or Spanish issue, it’s not just Latina.” Participant 5 stated, “everyone thinks undocumented people are Mexican or from El Salvador or something, but there are Jamaicans.” It is important for individuals, college practitioners, politicians, religious leaders, and community organizations to acknowledge that the DACA policy impacts cultural groups not part of the Latino/a community. There is a need for outreach and supportive literature for these groups. Furthermore, the stories detailed by the Jamaican DACA recipients echo the same fears and worries as those Latino/a immigrants expressed in research studies (Androff et al., 2011; Gulbas & Zayas, 2017; Martinez et al., 2015). There is a need for advocacy both in the political and religious sectors.

**Major finding 2. Since the DACA policy change announcement, participants are transitioning from feeling fortunate to fear of deportation.** During the interview, participants were asked how they felt about the DACA policy during the Obama administration and many described feeling fortunate. Participants 4 and 8 specifically stated, “it was just like wow, DACA happened at the perfect time for me.” However, when participants were asked to describe how they felt about DACA and the immigration policy change during the Trump administration, many described various areas of fear (a)
interaction with peers, (b) police interaction, (c) the ability to drive, and (d) work, but (e) most frequently participants described their fear of deportation.

Many of the participants spoke about arriving in the US when they were between the ages of 2 and 6 years old. Most participants described their lives as being American first and Jamaican as secondary. One participant spoke about panicking every time she sees the police, in fear that they will send her to Jamaica, a country she does not know.

The Vidales et al. (2009) study reported the Latino/a immigrants in their study had negative perceptions of the police and are less likely to report crimes after recognizing the local police were enforcing immigration law as directed by the Department of Homeland Security. Another participant spoke about maintaining her silence whenever she is wronged or taken advantage of because she is afraid to report the incident to the police in fear of being targeted due to her status. This constant fear of deportation has caused many of the participants to report isolating themselves for periods of time, as well as, being very cautious in their daily lives with whom they share their status, where and who they socialize with, and how they spend their money.

Enforcement of immigration laws was minimal prior to 2000 (Androff et al., 2011). However, after the September 11, 2001 series of four coordinated terrorist attacks by the Islamic terrorist group al-Qaeda on the US and the development of the Department of Homeland Security branch of the federal government, there was an increase in deportation (Androff et al., 2011; Bergen, 2018; McLeigh, 2010). In 2006 alone, more than 13,000 people were barred from reentering the US for 10 years (Androff et al., 2011; González, 2008). The study reported the difference is not in the actual U.S. law, but the enforcement of the laws has changed (Androff et al., 2011).
The findings in this study imply that since the DACA policy change announcement in 2017 there has been an increase of fear of deportation for Jamaican DACA recipients. Understanding the fear of deportation and how it relates to Jamaican DACA recipients is necessary because Black people are much more likely than members of any other ethnic group to be stopped by police (Starr, 2017). The arrest of a Black person who is a U.S. citizen is only an arrest but arrests for an undocumented person could mean deportation (Starr, 2017). Participant 5 stated, “I am American. Yeah, I have a Jamaican accent and I cook Jamaican food, but I came to American when I was 5 years old. I have been here for 25 years.” Two more participants made similar statements reporting because they grew up in America, they do not know anything about Jamaica other than what they have been told by family members. The fear of deportation by immigration custom enforcement agents since 2017 has been a daily concern reported by research participants. It is important for college practitioners and individuals or organizations supporting undocumented and DACAmmented immigrants to be properly trained how to effectively and safely connect this hidden population to trusted resources.

**Major finding 3.** Participants have strong support networks which help them cope with DACA policy change. When participants were asked to describe their support system, responses varied from legal counsel, personal counseling, community organizations, friends, and family. Of these responses, most frequently mentioned was the support from family. Seven of the eight participants mentioned having the support of at least one parent, sibling, or close friend. Many of the recipients spoke about calling on their friends or family when they were anxious about the local news or needed words of encouragement. A few of the recipients mentioned receiving financial support from
family and friends in order to obtain the legal and application fees associated with applying for DACA. One recipient mentioned that without her mother supporting her mentally and emotionally she would struggle to get through the day. This support network for many of the recipients has allowed a few to say they find themselves being optimistic and encouraged to move forward with their dreams and goals despite the changing political climate in the US.

The findings in this study imply that a strong support network has enabled Jamaican DACA recipients to cope with the 2017 DACA policy change. Understanding how Jamaican DACA recipients cope is necessary because it provides peers, college practitioners, and religious leaders with an opportunity to intentionally implement or provide support programs and resources that are readily accessible. Research by Jackson (2017) indicates feelings of shame and pain arise for members of the undocumented Black community who are not able to individually cope with the stressors of being Black and undocumented. Thus, this results in the following stressors: (a) trauma and the fear that today could be the day you are violently detained and deported; (b) the self-monitoring of words and actions to ensure you keep out of sight from authorities; (c) the anxiety about finding a way to make a living, pay for school or provide for your loved ones; (d) the suffering, isolation, and silence; and (e) the separation from family members and support systems (Jackson, 2017).

**Major finding 4.** *Participants use religion as primary coping strategy.* Seven of the eight recipients mentioned having religious practices such as prayer and attending church as methods they use to help them cope with changes to the DACA policy. Many of the recipients said they believe God protects them and has blessed them thus far in life.
One recipient mentioned how she felt God blessed her when it was time for her to apply for college and her college of interest called her high school guidance counselor because for the first time that year they were offering full scholarships to valedictorian and salutatorians outside of the college’s local area. Luckily, the recipient as the valedictorian of her class, was able to apply for the scholarship, received it and then was able to attend college for free.

Another recipient shared her story of how God blessed her with the 2012 DACA policy because the financial resources she had received due to a car accident was running low and she needed to work but could not due to her citizenship status. The recipient said, “God was just on time for me and enabled me to pay for the DACA application with my remaining funds and obtain work authorization after my application was approved.” This belief in God for most recipients brings comfort and trust that miracles and blessings will protect them during changing immigration policy.

The findings of this study imply that religion plays a large role in how Jamaican DACA recipients are coping the 2017 DACA policy change announcement. Understanding the primary coping strategy for Jamaican DACA recipients is important because it creates opportunities for peers and religious leaders to develop support groups, targeted Bible lessons and prayers, as well as, a culture of acceptance without fear.

**Limitations**

This study included eight participants who fit a selective participation criterion. Both male and female Jamaican DACA recipients were recruited through the same methods of advertising however, after several attempts to contact males, only females participated in the study. This indicates that more variability was needed to
examine whether gender influences how Jamaican DACA recipients are coping with the 2017 DACA policy change. The lack of male participants may have limited the ability to identify common themes and understand the male lived experience of how they view self, the DACA policy situation, their support network and strategies they use to cope. However, in a qualitative study, the number of participants does not lesson the importance of the findings. Yet, because of the lack of male representatives, the study may be limited in the ability to be expressive of the experiences of male Jamaican DACA recipients.

Another limitation of this study was while participation was open to all Jamaican DACA recipients, the snowball method made it difficult to find recipients in all states. Most participants lived in one state and referred to their peers who were in the same community organization or college. The findings from this study were not inclusive of all states, which may have presented different perspectives given their geographical location and varying state laws on the abilities and opportunities provided to undocumented and DACAmented immigrants.

A final limitation of this study was President Trump’s signed executive order on interior enforcement entitled, “Enhancing Public Safety in the Interior of the United States,” focusing on such issues as sanctuary cities and local-federal immigration enforcement cooperation, enforcement priorities, the reinstatement of the Secure Communities program and an increase in the number of Immigration Customs Enforcement agents (Executive Order, 2017). The impact of the executive order was heavily reported during the recruitment of participants in the spring and summer 2019. The executive order caused many DACA recipients to be reluctant to participate out of
fear they would be identified and pursued for deportation. This caused the participant pool to be smaller in size.

**Recommendations**

This study demonstrates that Jamaican DACA recipients understand without the DACA policy in effect (a) they lack sense of control in their lives, (b) live in fear of deportation, (c) use family as a support network, and (d) utilize religion as a primary coping strategy. Due to the findings of this study, multiple recommendations can be made. The recommendations are as follows: self-advocacy, civic engagement, political advocacy, undocumented/DACAmented ally training for professional educators, and religious advocacy.

**Self-advocacy.** Participants 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 8 in this study expressed the importance of finding accurate information and knowing/understanding their rights to help determine their future. By establishing self-advocacy, undocumented and DACAmented immigrants can join groups/organizations in which they can safely speak up and share their thoughts. Undocumented and DACAmented immigrants can use this process to insert themselves into conversations regarding policies that may have a direct impact on their lives. The act of self-advocacy could influence political leaders to support the causes brought forth by undocumented and DACAmented immigrants.

**Civic engagement.** Participants 1, 3, 4, and 8 described being aware of political trends. However, only two participants described regular civic engagement. It is important for undocumented and DACAmented immigrants to be aware of the news and upcoming policies that may affect their lives. Individuals should consider vetting local organizations committed to supporting undocumented and DACAmented immigrants and
then join one. Individuals should attend local town hall meetings and open forums held by community organizations to obtain the most up to date information on immigration policy. Individuals should also read local news and set alerts for updates regarding policy changes on specific immigration laws in respective cities and states. It is important for undocumented and DACAmented immigrants to be aware of policy changes that may affect their ability to stay safe.

**Political advocacy.** All participants in this study expressed their lack of understanding of President Trump’s decision to remove the 2012 DACA policy. While in the literal sense the participants understood immigration is a standard platform for a politician to use during campaign season and election, the participants did not understand why President Trump did not consider the huge effects his political decision had on the well-being of participant lives. The end to the policy meant no more reprieve from deportation and no more work authorization, thus affecting the lives of roughly 800,000 DACA recipients.

Immigration advocates however, managed to keep DACA partially alive through legal challenges in which lower, state-wide courts decided that people who already had the status should be able to renew it until the Supreme Court issued a final ruling (Dickerson, 2019). On November 12, 2019, the Supreme Court justices heard arguments to determine whether the Trump administration acted lawfully in September 2017 when it ended the program, using only a modest rescission memo (Dickerson, 2019). At the time of this study, an official ruling had not been made. It is important that the Supreme Court justices and state legislators acknowledge that while the parents of each participant in this study violated the U.S. customs and immigration law, the participants were children and
under U.S. law, children are not qualified to make decisions on their own. Therefore, creating protections from deportation, work opportunities, and a pathway for citizenship for undocumented immigrant children should be a top priority. The state legislators should review the current immigration process in the US and determine what procedures are needed to revamp the pathway to citizenship. New policies could decrease the number of undocumented children entering the US. The state legislators could review the policies and procedures of countries with successful immigration practices to develop a more cohesive process in the US.

**Training for community college professionals.** Only two participants in the study reported attending community college, however literature (Chen, 2013; Perez, 2010; and Pérez, 2011) indicates community college is the gateway to higher education for undocumented students. At the time of the study, according to the Migration Policy Institute (2018), approximately 61,000 undocumented immigrants lived in the suburb of New York City where the study was conducted and approximately 4,000 immigrants identified as Caribbean. Further, at the initial participant recruitment location, approximately 2,600 students identified as Black (Community College Review, n.d.). However, seven out of eight participants in the study said they did not seek support from college administrators due to their lack of knowledge. It is important for community college professionals to understand there is a population of students who are undocumented on their campus who are not using professional staff for support.

At the time of this study, there was an increase of immigration and custom enforcement agents in the participant recruitment area which led to an increase of threat and fear of deportation (Lungariello, 2019). The information about the increase of ICE
agents was shared via social media and local news outlets. The college communities in the area did not make any announcements to inform the students of their rights and/or resources the undocumented/DACAmented students could utilize. The development of undocumented/DACAmented ally training for professional educators could relieve stress for the immigrant community, their lack of trust for outsiders, and provide accurate and up to date resources for support.

The purpose of ally training is to acknowledge undocumented/DACAmented immigrants are human, not alien. The training can support the notion that undocumented/DACAmented immigrants should not be discriminated against and do have rights in the US. The training could inform professionals of the legal alternatives to assist students in academic settings and the programs and financial opportunities for which they are eligible. Ally training can teach professionals the art of listening and communicating without interrogation as well as not outing a student regarding their status to other students or colleagues when seeking support. Undocumented/DACAmented immigrant training could create a culture of trust, empathy and support in educational settings.

Lastly, the training could help professional educators understand the current immigration policies in place in addition to the policies, laws, and practices that are current in their state and/or school to help protect students from potential ICE agents on their campus or surrounding area.

Religious advocacy. Participants 1, 2, 3, 6, and 8 mentioned God as their solution to coping with the 2017 DACA policy change. However, only one participant mentioned church as their support network. It is important for religious leaders to know
there are potentially undocumented/DACAmented immigrants in their church community. It is also important for religious leaders to possess the knowledge of how to support the undocumented/DACAmented immigrants in their church community.

It would be beneficial to religious leaders to undergo undocumented/DACAmented ally training. It would also be beneficial to religious leaders to connect with local organizations who support the legal and social needs of undocumented/DACAmented immigrants. Additionally, it would be important for religious leaders to acknowledge the presence of undocumented/DACAmented immigrants in their church by welcoming them and informing them they are safe in the church community and the religious leader can be trusted.

**Suggestions for future research.** The study’s findings had implications for future research surrounding the coping strategies used by Jamaican DACA recipients. Below are topics for future studies.

Due to the lack of male participants, future studies should focus on male response to the 2017 DACA policy change. It would be beneficial to hear the perspectives of male Jamaican DACA recipients.

Most of the participants in this study lived in one state. Future studies could explore the experiences and coping methods of Jamaican DACA recipients in other states. This may reveal different techniques used by Jamaican DACA recipients to cope with immigration policy change.

All participants in this study identified as Jamaican. Future studies could explore the experiences of other ethnic groups such as Asian or European.
Conclusion

The US has long had a sizable Black population because of the transatlantic slave trade beginning in the 16th century (Anderson & López, 2018). But significant voluntary Black migration is a relatively new development – and one that has increased rapidly over the past 2 decades (Anderson & López, 2018). Of the Black immigrants, Jamaican immigrants make up a total number of 716,000 foreign born people living in the US (Anderson & López, 2018). Despite the growing number of Black immigrants in the US, the focus on immigration policy and research continues to discuss only the Latino/a population (Androff et al., 2011; Green & Eagar, 2010; Gulbas & Zayas, 2017; Ichikawa et al., 2006; Martínez et al., 2015; Suárez-Orozco et al., 2015; Vidales et al., 2009). The narrative of Black or Jamaican immigrants had not been discussed.

With the scheduled removal of DACA protection, the Trump administration triggered a palpable level of fear and anxiety among those protected by the program, especially undocumented Black immigrants (Salmon, 2017). This research was developed to explore and share the impact of immigration policy change specifically on Black DACA recipients who identified as Jamaican.

The purpose of this study was to understand how Jamaican DACA recipients are coping with the 2017 DACA policy change and the factors associated with the recipient’s idea of self, their response to the situation, their support network, and the strategies used to cope with the change. To proceed with this investigation the researcher utilized the 4S system from the Schlossberg transition theory (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995). Transition theory is defined as any event, or non-event, which results in a change in assumptions about oneself and the world and thus requires a corresponding change in
one’s behavior and relationships (Chickering & Schlossberg, 1995). Within the transition theory, Chickering and Schlossberg (1995) identified four major sets of factors that influence a person’s ability and resources to cope with a transition: self, situation, support, and strategies referred to as the 4S system.

Utilizing the transition theory and 4S system, the researcher developed the following research questions:

1. How do Jamaican DACA recipients describe their future?
2. How do Jamaican DACA recipients describe their initial reaction to the immigration policy change?
3. How do Jamaican DACA recipients describe their support system?
4. How do Jamaican DACA recipients describe their coping strategies?

This study revealed that Jamaican DACA recipients understand without the DACA policy in effect they lack sense of control in their lives and live in fear of deportation. Further, Jamaican DACA recipients primarily use family as a support network and religion as a coping strategy. The study utilized a qualitative, narrative approach to gather data. Data were collected using a pre-demographic questionnaire and with semi-structured interviews.

This research study supports current literature focused on the impact of immigration policy change in the US that indicated DACA had reduced some of the challenges that undocumented young adults must overcome to achieve economic and social incorporation (Gonzales et al., 2014). The study also found the responses from the Jamaican DACA recipients connected with the Vidales et al. (2009) study that reported the participants in their study had negative perceptions of the police and are less likely to
report crimes after recognizing the local police were enforcing immigration law as directed by the Department of Homeland Security.

This study identified 23 categories that Jamaican DACA recipients associated with their ability to cope with the 2017 DACA policy change. These categories were ability to drive, ability to work, ability to support children, possibility of separation from children, interaction with documented peers, feeling fortunate, police interaction, deportation, interaction with peers, family and friends, religion, legal counsel, personal counseling, community organization, faculty/school support, monetary assistance, emotional support, source of knowledge, denial, religion, prayer, and family communication. This study related each category to the Chickering and Schlosberg (1995) 4S system: self, situation, support, strategy.

This research study makes recommendations on how improvements can be made for Jamaican DACA recipients to feel comfortable and accepted in society. The recommendations include self-advocacy, civic engagement, political advocacy, undocumented/DACAmented ally training for professionals in education, and religious advocacy. State legislators need to consider DACA recipients were children when they entered the US and require special consideration when creating federal and state policies that become law. Undocumented/DACAmented ally training for professionals in education can create an environment of acceptance, trust, and support. The trained allies will be aware of current policies and laws impacting undocumented/DACAmented students and can serve as a reliable resource. Lastly, religious leaders should acknowledge the undocumented/DACAmented members of their congregation and find
ways to support them inside and outside of the church by connecting with local
organizations trained to support immigrant communities.

This study contributes to the body of literature that was previously discussed in
Chapter 2. With the exploration of the how Jamaican DACA recipients are coping with
the 2017 DACA policy change, this study filled a gap in the literature relating to this
ethnic population. The study provided a platform for Jamaican DACA recipients to share
their immigration story in the US.
References


Anderson, M., (2015). *A rising share of the U.S. Black population is foreign born; 9 percent are immigrants; and while most are from the Caribbean, Africans drive recent growth.* Retrieved from the Pew Research Center website: https://www.pewsocialtrends.org/2015/04/09/a-rising-share-of-the-u-s-black-population-is-foreign-born/


Department of Homeland Security. (2016). *Number of I-821D, consideration of deferred action for childhood arrivals by fiscal year, quarter, intake, biometrics and case status: 2012-2016 (June 30)*. Retrieved from


Miller, K. E., & Rasmussen, A. (2010). War exposure, daily stressors, and mental health in conflict and post-conflict settings: bridging the divide between trauma-focused and psychosocial frameworks. *Social Science & Medicine, 70*(1), 7–16.


Appendix A

Consideration of Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals
Department of Homeland Security
U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>For USCIS Use Only</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Requestor interviewed on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remarks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To Be Completed by an Attorney or Accredited Representative, if any.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Select this box if Form G-28 is asserted to represent the requestor.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attorney Same Bar Number (if any):</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

START HERE - Type or print in black ink. Read Form I-821D Instructions for information on how to complete this form.

Part 1. Information About You (For Initial and Renewal Requests)

I am not in immigration detention and I have included Form I-765, Application for Employment Authorization, and Form I-866/FE, Form I-765 Worksheet; and

I am requesting:
1. [ ] Initial Request - Consideration of Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals
2. [ ] Renewal Request - Consideration of Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals

For this Renewal request, my most recent period of Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals expires on (mm/dd/yyyy) ▶

Full Legal Name
3.a. Family Name (Last Name) ▶
3.b. Given Name (First Name) ▶
3.c. Middle Name ▶

U.S. Mailing Address (Enter the same address on Form I-765)
4.a. In Care Of Name (if applicable) ▶
4.b. Street Number and Name ▶
4.d. City or Town ▶
4.e. State ▶ 4d. ZIP Code ▶

Removal Proceedings Information

5. Are you NOW or have you EVER been in removal proceedings, or do you have a removal order issued in any other context (for example, as the border or within the United States by an immigration agency)? □ Yes □ No

NOTE: The term “removal proceedings” includes exclusion or deportation proceedings initiated before April 1, 1997, an Immigration and Nationality Act (INA) section 240 removal proceeding; expedited removal; reinstatement of a final order of exclusion, deportation, or removal; an INA section 247 removal after admission under the Visa Waiver Program; or removal as a criminal alien under INA section 238.

If you answered “Yes” to Item Number 5, you must select a box below indicating your current status or outcome of your removal proceedings.

Status or outcome:
5.a. [ ] Currently in Proceedings (Active)
5.b. [ ] Currently in Proceedings (Administratively Closed)
5.c. [ ] Terminated
5.d. [ ] Subject to a Final Order
5.e. [ ] Other. Explain in Part B, Additional Information.
5.f. Most Recent Date of Proceedings (mm/dd/yyyy) ▶
5.g. Location of Proceedings ▶

Form I-821D 01/09/2017 V Page 1 of 7
Part 1. Information About You (For Initial and Renewal Requests) (continued)

### Other Information

6. Alien Registration Number (A-Number) (if any)
   - A: [ ]

7. U.S. Social Security Number (if any)
   - [ ]

8. Date of Birth (mm/dd/yyyy)
   - [ ]

9. Gender
   - Male [ ]
   - Female [ ]

10a. City/Town/Village of Birth

10b. Country of Birth

11. Current Country of Residence

12. Country of Citizenship or Nationality

13. Marital Status
   - Married [ ]
   - Widowed [ ]
   - Single [ ]
   - Divorced [ ]

### Other Names Used (if Applicable)

If you need additional space, use Part 8. Additional Information.

14a. Family Name (Last Name)

14b. Given Name (First Name)

14c. Middle Name

### Processing Information

15. Ethnicity (Select only one box)
   - Hispanic or Latino [ ]
   - Not Hispanic or Latino [ ]

16. Race (Select all applicable boxes)
   - White [ ]
   - Asian [ ]
   - Black or African American [ ]
   - American Indian or Alaska Native [ ]
   - Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander [ ]

17. Height
   - Feet [ ]
   - Inches [ ]

18. Weight
   - Pounds [ ]

19. Eye Color (Select only one box)
   - Black [ ]
   - Blue [ ]
   - Brown [ ]
   - Gray [ ]
   - Green [ ]
   - Hazel [ ]
   - Maroon [ ]
   - Pink [ ]
   - Unknown/Other [ ]

20. Hair Color (Select only one box)
   - Bald (No hair) [ ]
   - Black [ ]
   - Blond [ ]
   - Brown [ ]
   - Gray [ ]
   - Red [ ]
   - Sandy [ ]
   - White [ ]
   - Unknown/Other [ ]

Part 2. Residence and Travel Information (For Initial and Renewal Requests)

1. I have been continuously residing in the U.S. since at least
   June 13, 2007, up to the present time. [ ] No

NOTE: If you departed the United States for some period of
time before your 16th birthday and returned to the United States
on or after your 16th birthday to begin your current period of
continuous residence, and if this is an initial request, submit
evidence that you established residence in the United States prior
to 16 years of age as set forth in the instructions to this form.

For Initial Requests: List your current address and, to the best
of your knowledge, the addresses where you resided since the
date of your initial entry into the United States to present.

For Renewal Requests: List only the addresses where you
resided since you submitted your last Form I-821D that was
approved.

If you require additional space, use Part 8. Additional
Information.
**Part 2. Residence and Travel Information (For Initial and Renewal Requests) (continued)**

**Present Address**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2.a. Dates at this residence (mm/dd/yyyy)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>From ▶</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To ▶ Present</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 2.b. Street Number and Name             |


| 2.d. City or Town                        |

| 2.e. State  ZIP Code                      |

**Address 1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3.a. Dates at this residence (mm/dd/yyyy)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>From ▶</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To ▶</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 3.b. Street Number and Name             |


| 3.d. City or Town                        |

| 3.e. State  ZIP Code                      |

**Address 2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>4.a. Dates at this residence (mm/dd/yyyy)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>From ▶</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To ▶</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 4.b. Street Number and Name             |


| 4.d. City or Town                        |

| 4.e. State  ZIP Code                      |

**Address 3**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>5.a. Dates at this residence (mm/dd/yyyy)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>From ▶</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To ▶</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 5.b. Street Number and Name             |


| 5.d. City or Town                        |

| 5.e. State  ZIP Code                      |

**Travel Information**

**For Initial Requests:** List all of your absences from the United States since June 15, 2007.

**For Renewal Requests:** List only your absences from the United States since you submitted your last Form I-821D that was approved.

If you require additional space, use Part B. Additional Information.

**Departure 1**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>6.a. Departure Date (mm/dd/yyyy)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

| 6.b. Return Date (mm/dd/yyyy)    |

| 6.c. Reason for Departure        |

**Departure 2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>7.a. Departure Date (mm/dd/yyyy)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

| 7.b. Return Date (mm/dd/yyyy)    |

| 7.c. Reason for Departure        |

**Have you left the United States without advance parole or after August 15, 2012?**

| Yes  No                          |

**What country issued your last passport?**

| Passport Number                  |

**Passport Expiration Date**

| (mm/dd/yyyy)                      |

**Border Crossing Card Number (if any)**

|                                      |

**Part 3. For Initial Requests Only**

1. I initially arrived and established residence in the U.S. prior to 16 years of age.

| Yes  No                          |

2. Date of Initial Entry into the United States (or about)

| (mm/dd/yyyy)                      |

3. Place of Initial Entry into the United States
### Part 3. For Initial Requests Only (continued)

4. Immigration Status on June 15, 2012 (e.g., No Lawful Status, Expiration, Parole Expired)

5.a. Were you EVER issued an Arrival-Departure Record (Form I-94, I-555, or I-95)?
   - Yes
   - No

5.b. If you answered “Yes” to Item Number 5.a., provide your Form I-94, I-555, or I-95 number (if available).
   - 

5.c. If you answered “Yes” to Item Number 5.a., provide the date your authorized stay expired, as shown on Form I-94, I-555, or I-95 (if available).
   - 

### Education Information

6. Indicate how you meet the education guidelines (e.g., Graduated from high school, Received a general educational development (GED) certificate, or equivalent state-authorized exam, Currently in school)

7. Name, City, and State of School Currently Attending or Where Education Received

8. Date of Graduation (e.g., Receipt of a Certificate of Completion, GED certificate, or equivalent state-authorized exam) or, if currently in school, date of last attendance.

### Military Service Information

9. Were you a member of the U.S. Armed Forces or U.S. Coast Guard?
   - Yes
   - No

If you answered “Yes” to Item Number 9, you must provide responses to Items Numbers 9.a. - 9.d.

9.a. Military Branch

9.b. Service Start Date (mm/dd/yyyy)

9.c. Discharge Date (mm/dd/yyyy)

9.d. Type of Discharge

### Part 4. Criminal, National Security, and Public Safety Information (For Initial and Renewal Requests)

If any of the following questions apply to you, use Part 5. Additional Information to describe the circumstances and include a full explanation.

1. Have you EVER been arrested for, charged with, or convicted of a felony or misdemeanor, including incidents handled in juvenile court, in the United States? Do not include minor traffic violations unless they were alcohol- or drug-related.
   - Yes
   - No

If you answered “Yes,” you must include a certified court disposition, arrest record, charging document, sentencing record, etc., for each arrest, unless disclosure is prohibited under state law.

2. Have you EVER been arrested for, charged with, or convicted of a crime in any other country other than the United States?
   - Yes
   - No

If you answered “Yes,” you must include a certified court disposition, arrest record, charging document, sentencing record, etc., for each arrest.

3. Have you EVER engaged in, or plan to engage in terrorist activities?
   - Yes
   - No

4. Are you NOW or have you EVER been a member of a gang?
   - Yes
   - No

5. Have you EVER engaged in, ordered, instigated, assisted, or otherwise participated in any of the following:
   a. Acts involving torture, genocide, or human trafficking?
   - Yes
   - No

   b. Killing any person?
   - Yes
   - No

   c. Severely injuring any person?
   - Yes
   - No

   d. Any kind of sexual contact or relations with any person who was being forced or threatened?
   - Yes
   - No

6. Have you EVER recruited, enlisted, conscripted, or used any person to serve in or help an armed force or group while such person was under age 15?
   - Yes
   - No

7. Have you EVER used any person under age 15 to take part in hostilities, or to help or provide services to people in combat?
   - Yes
   - No
Part 5. Statement, Certification, Signature, and Contact Information of the Requestor (For Initial and Renewal Requests)

NOTE: Select the box for either Item Number 1.a. or 1.b.

1.a. □ I can read and understand English, and have read and understand each and every question and instruction on this form, as well as my answer to each question.

1.b. □ The interpreter named in Part 6 has read to me each and every question and instruction on this form, as well as my answer to each question, in a language which I am fluent. I understand each and every question and instruction on this form as translated to me by my interpreter, and have provided true and correct responses in the language indicated above.

Requestor's Certification

I certify, under penalty of perjury under the laws of the United States of America, that the foregoing is true and correct and that copies of documents submitted are exact photocopies of unaltered original documents. I understand that I may be required to submit original documents to U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services (USCIS) at a later date. I also understand that knowingly and willfully providing materially false information on this form is a federal felony punishable by a fine, imprisonment up to 5 years, or both, under 18 U.S.C. section 1001. Furthermore, I authorize the release of any information from my records that USCIS may need to reach a determination on my deferred action request.

2.a. Requestor's Signature

2.b. Date of Signature (mm/dd/yyyy)

Requestor’s Contact Information

3. Requestor’s Daytime Telephone Number

4. Requestor’s Mobile Telephone Number

5. Requestor’s Email Address

Part 6. Contact Information, Certification, and Signature of the Interpreter (For Initial and Renewal Requests)

Interpreter's Full Name

Provide the following information concerning the interpreter:

1.a. Interpreter’s Family Name (Last Name)

1.b. Interpreter’s Given Name (First Name)

2. Interpreter’s Business or Organization Name (if any)

Interpreter’s Mailing Address

3.a. Street Number and Name


3.c. City or Town

3.d. State □ ZIP Code

3.f. Province

3.g. Postal Code

3.h. Country

Interpreter’s Contact Information

4. Interpreter’s Daytime Telephone Number

5. Interpreter’s Email Address
### Part 5: Contact Information, Certification, and Signature of the Interpreter (For Initial and Renewal Requests) (continued)

**Interpreter's Certification**

I certify that:

1. I am fluent in English and ___ (language), which is the same language provided in Part 5, Item Number 1.b.;
2. I have read and understood this form, as well as the answer to each question, in the language provided in Part 5, Item Number 1.b.; and
3. The requestor has informed me that he or she understands each and every instruction and question on the form, as well as the answer to each question.

**Preparer's Mailing Address**

3.a. Street Number 
3.c. City or Town 
3.d. State 3.e. ZIP Code 
3.f. Province 
3.g. Postal Code

**Preparer’s Contact Information**

4. Preparer's Daytime Telephone Number  
5. Preparer’s Fax Number  
6. Preparer’s Email Address

**Preparer’s Full Name**

Provide the following information concerning the preparer:

1.a. Preparer’s Family Name (Last Name)  
1.b. Preparer's Given Name (First Name)  
2. Preparer's Business or Organization Name

**Preparer's Declaration**

I declare that I prepared this Form I-821D at the requestor's behalf, and it is based on all the information of which I have knowledge.

1.a. Preparer's Signature  
1.b. Date of Signature (mm/dd/yyyy)

**NOTE:** If you need extra space to complete any item within this request, see the next page for Part 8. Additional Information.
### Part B. Additional Information (For Initial and Renewal Requests)

If you need extra space to complete any item within this request, use the space below. You may also make copies of this page to complete and file with this request. Include your name and A-Number (if any) at the top of each sheet of paper, indicate the Page Number, Part Number, and Item Number to which your answer refers; and sign and date each sheet.

#### Full Legal Name

1.a. Family Name (Last Name)

1.b. Given Name (First Name)

1.c. Middle Name or

2. A-Number (if any)

3.a. Page Number 3.b. Part Number 3.c. Item Number

### Table Format

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>4.a. Page Number</th>
<th>4.b. Part Number</th>
<th>4.c. Item Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.d. 

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>5.a. Page Number</th>
<th>5.b. Part Number</th>
<th>5.c. Item Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.d. 

---

Form L421D 01/09/17  Y  Page 7 of 7
### Appendix B

#### Profile of the Unauthorized Population: United States

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographics</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>% of Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unauthorized Population</td>
<td>11,300,000</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Top Countries of Birth</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>5,944,000</td>
<td>53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>El Salvador</td>
<td>655,000</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guatemala</td>
<td>525,000</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>362,000</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honduras</td>
<td>355,000</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Regions of Birth</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico and Central America</td>
<td>7,593,000</td>
<td>67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caribbean</td>
<td>351,000</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South America</td>
<td>685,000</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe/Canada/Oceania</td>
<td>579,000</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>1,774,000</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td>318,000</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Years of U.S. Residence</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 5</td>
<td>2,009,000</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 to 9</td>
<td>2,246,000</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Education and Language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Enrollment of Children and Youth</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
<th>% of Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population ages 3 to 17</td>
<td>1,092,000</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enrolled</td>
<td>1,002,000</td>
<td>92%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not enrolled</td>
<td>90,000</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population ages 3 to 12</td>
<td>438,000</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enrolled</td>
<td>385,000</td>
<td>88%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not enrolled</td>
<td>53,000</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population ages 13 to 17</td>
<td>654,000</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enrolled</td>
<td>617,000</td>
<td>94%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not enrolled</td>
<td>37,000</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population ages 18 to 24</td>
<td>1,325,000</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enrolled</td>
<td>497,000</td>
<td>37%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not enrolled</td>
<td>828,000</td>
<td>63%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational Attainment of Adults</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population ages 25 and older</td>
<td>8,844,000</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-5 grade</td>
<td>1,138,000</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-8 grade</td>
<td>1,556,000</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9-12 grade</td>
<td>1,422,000</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source:* Migration Policy Institute (MPI) analysis of U.S. Census Bureau data from the pooled 2012-16 American Community Survey (ACS) and the 2008 Survey of Income and Program Participation (SIPP), drawing on a methodology developed in consultation with James Bachmeier of Temple University and Jennifer Van Hook of The Pennsylvania State University, Population Research Institute.
## Appendix C

### State Policies on College Enrollment, In-State Tuition, and Financial Aid for Unauthorized Immigrants, Top 15 States of Residence of DACA-Eligible Youth (updated October 2015)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Restrictions on College Enrollment?</th>
<th>In-State Tuition Policy?</th>
<th>High School Attendance/Graduation Requirements for In-State Tuition</th>
<th>Other Requirements for In-State Tuition</th>
<th>Eligible for State Financial Aid?</th>
<th>Eligible for Additional Benefits?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arizona</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yea: Assembly Bill (AB) 540 (2011)</td>
<td>Must have attended a California high school for 3+ academic years. Must have graduated from high school or earned a high school equivalency diploma in California, or received a passing mark on the California High School Proficiency Exam.</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Yes: students eligible for AB 540 are also eligible for Cal Grants, community college fee waivers, and institutional aid, dependent on meeting income and/or academic requirements. AB 139 (2012) and AB 191 (2013)</td>
<td>Yes: Students eligible for AB 540 are also eligible for student loans in the UC and CSU systems through the California Dream Loan Program: SB 1232 (2014)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>California</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yea: Senate Bill 33 (2013)</td>
<td>Must have attended a Colorado high school for at least 3 years immediately preceding graduation or completing a GED in Colorado.</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colorado</td>
<td>No</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State</td>
<td>In-state tuition eligibility</td>
<td>Board of Regents policy or other</td>
<td>Need to apply for in-state tuition</td>
<td>Eligibility for privately funded scholarships</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Florida</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes; Board of Regents policy (2010)</td>
<td>Must have attended a Florida high school for 3 consecutive years immediately before graduation. GED not accepted.</td>
<td>Must apply to a Florida postsecondary institution within 2 years of graduating from high school and submit an official Florida high school transcript as evidence of attendance and graduation.</td>
<td>No</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Georgia</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No; Senate Bill 452 (2008)</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Illinois</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes; House Bill 90 (2003).</td>
<td>Must have attended school in Illinois at least 3 years and graduated high school or received equivalent of diploma in Illinois.</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Eligible for privately funded scholarships administered through the Illinois Dream Fund Commission. Also eligible for college savings accounts. SB 2195 (2012).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Massachusetts</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No. Exception: Massachusetts Department of Higher Education has determined that DACA grantees qualify for in-state tuition (2012).</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maryland</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes; Senate Bill 187 (2011; took effect in 2012).</td>
<td>Must have attended a Maryland high school for at least 3 years and graduated or earned a high school equivalency diploma in Maryland.</td>
<td>Must register at a community college within 4 years of graduating from high school receiving an equivalency diploma. To receive in-state tuition for a four-year university, students must have attended a Maryland community college and earned 60+ credits or an associate's degree.</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State</td>
<td>In-State Tuition Eligibility</td>
<td>LBA or DACA Eligibility</td>
<td>Other Requirements</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nevada</td>
<td>No: However, some public colleges and universities individually elect to provide in-state tuition and institutional aid to unauthorized students.</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Jersey</td>
<td>Yes: Senate Bill 2479 (2013); must meet ENCA eligibility criteria and must have met in ENCA application.</td>
<td>Must have attended a New Jersey high school for at least 3 years and received a high school diploma or equivalent in New Jersey.</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New York</td>
<td>No:</td>
<td>Must have attended an approved New York high school for 2 or more years or attended a high school equivalency program, and earned a high school diploma or equivalent in New York.</td>
<td>Must apply to a New York college within 5 years of graduating from high school or receiving an equivalency diploma.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Carolina</td>
<td>No: Exception: The North Carolina Community College System allows North Carolina employers to “sponsor” the cost of college tuition for employees who are DACA recipients. Employers are charged the in-state tuition rate (2013: North Carolina General Statutes § 115C-504).</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texas</td>
<td>Yes: House Bill 1402 (2003) and Senate Bill 1402 (2003);</td>
<td>Must have resided in Texas for at least 3 years before graduating from high school and one year before registering for college. Must have earned a high school diploma or equivalent in Texas.</td>
<td>Yes; students eligible for HB 1402 SB 1028 are also eligible for state grants, dependent on meeting income and/or academic requirements.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State</td>
<td>Eligibility</td>
<td>Residency Requirements</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Virginia</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Exception: State Attorney</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>General ruled that DACA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>grantees who meet</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Virginia residency</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>requirements for at least 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>year after approval are</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>eligible for in-state tuition</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(2014). Attorney General</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mark Hearing Guidance Letter</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>on April 29, 2014</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Washington</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes: House Bill 1079</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Yes:</td>
<td>N/A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(2014), and Senate Bill</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>DACA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6533</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>grantees and</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>and other students eligible</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>other students</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>for HB 1079 are also eligible</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>eligible for</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>for State Need Grants,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>HB 1079 are also</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>dependent on meeting</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>eligible for</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>income requirements.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>State Need</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Senate Bill 6533 (2014)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Grants,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>dependent on</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>meeting income</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>requirements.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendix D

Email:
Date:

Dear Mr. Machado

I am Rachele M. Hall, a doctoral student in the Executive Leadership Program at St. John Fisher College-Iona Extension Site. My research topic is: The Era of Trump: How Jamaican DACA Students in Community College are Coping with the Immigration and Customs Enforcement Agency’s Response to DACA Policy Change. DACA stands for Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals. It was a policy implemented by former President Barack Obama as a temporary protection of deportation and work authorization for undocumented immigrations in 2012. The purpose of the study is to examine the methods Jamaican DACA students in community college are using to cope with the removal of the DACA policy as directed by the new President Donald J. Trump on September 5, 2017.

After having received Institutional Review Board approval from St. John Fisher College, I am requesting your permission to have one meeting with the student club identified as Club Jamaica to share my recruitment flyer with the members. I believe the input from the Club Jamaican students will be a valuable asset to this research study. I have attached my recruitment flyer for your review.

The research is significant because most data on the undocumented community focuses on the Latino population. Findings in this study could provide DACA students with an opportunity to share their story in a safe space and techniques DACA student peers could use to cope with the policy change. Additionally, the study could provide college administrators information on how to better support DACA students and assist community organizations with their advocacy efforts on behalf of DACA students. Lastly, the study will provide phone numbers of support services on and off campus to assist DACA students with any emotional or immigration needs they may have.

I appreciate your consideration of my request. If you have any questions please feel free to contact me using the information below.

Respectfully,

Rachele M. Hall
518-653-6607
rmh04256@sjfc.edu
Appendix E

Recruitment Flyer

Are you Jamaican?  
Do you have DACA status?  
How are you coping with DACA policy change?

Research Participants wanted.

The purpose of this study is examine how Jamaican DACA students in community college are coping with the immigration and customs enforcement agency’s response to the DACA policy change in the U.S. Your participation in this study could provide you with an opportunity to share your story in a safe space. You may also learn techniques to cope with the policy change. Additionally, your participation could provide college administrators information on how to better support students like you and assist community organizations with their advocacy efforts on behalf of DACA students like you. Lastly, your participation will connect you with phone numbers of support services on and off campus to assist you with any emotional or immigration needs.

- The researcher is looking for participants who are at least 18 years or older and identify as Jamaican with DACA status.

- There will be a single one-on-one interview session for 60 minutes to 90 minutes in a private meeting room at the college.

- A $50 gift card will be provided to all research participants.

Rachele Hall, a doctoral student in the Executive Leadership Program at St. John Fisher College, and the Associate Director of Community Building & Co-Curricular Programming at SUNY [redacted], is conducting this study. If you are interested in participating or have questions, please contact her at [redacted] or rmh04256@sjfc.edu.
Appendix F

Letter of Introduction

Date:

Dear Participant:

Hello and thank you for agreeing to participate in the research study. We are planning to meet on date, time and place

I am an Educational Doctorate (Ed. D) candidate at St. John Fisher College. I believe your input will be valuable to this research study. As part of the study, I will ask you a series of questions related to your thoughts and feelings regarding the immigration policy Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals. Your participation in this study could help college administrators create better processes to support students like you, community organizations to advocate on your behalf for policy change, and help your student peers in situation similar to yours cope with the policy change. The Institutional Review Board of St. John Fisher College has approved the research study for the completion of the dissertation.

In this study, you will be asked semi-structured questions in the interview. The interview will last approximately 45-60 minutes. The interview will be recorded so that I can collect the results of each interview and combine them for analysis. If you decide to end the interview early, there will be no repercussions to you.

There are no foreseen risks to you for participating in the interview, as all interviews will be confidential. Participants will be given the option to create their own
pseudonym so that your name is not revealed. No participant or school names will be used in the research findings or presentation. All notes and recordings of the interviews will be password protected and stored on my computer. Hard copies of the interview will be locked and stored in a secure location. I will also provide $50 cash compensation for participants who successfully complete the interview and review their transcription for accuracy, a list of campus administrators and community organizations that can support you after the interview.

If you have questions or concerns, please feel free to email me rmh04256@sjfc.edu

Best regards,

Rachele M. Hall
Ed. D. Candidate and Researcher
St. John Fisher College
Appendix G

Pre-Demographic Questionnaire

Please answer the following questions prior to interview:

1. Do you identify as Jamaican?

2. Do you have DACA status?
Appendix H

DACA Identification Card
Appendix I
St. John Fisher College
INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Title of study: The Era of Trump: How Jamaican DACA Students in Community College are Coping with the Immigration and Customs Enforcement Agency’s Response to DACA Policy Change.

Name(s) of researcher(s): Rachele Hall

Faculty Supervisor: Dr. Shelley Jallow Phone for further information: [REDACTED]

Purpose of study: To inquire how Jamaican DACA students in community college are coping with the immigration and customs enforcement agency’s response to the DACA policy change in the U.S.

Place of study: In person

Length of participation: 60 minutes- 90 minutes

Method(s) of data collection: The researcher will use an audio recording device to interview participants. A third party will transcribe the audio recording. The researcher may take notes during the meeting to support the recording.

Risks and benefits: The participants may experience some emotional discomfort while sharing their story. The researcher will provide participants with an on campus personal counseling resource at 914-606-7784, as well as, a local community support resource Neighbors Link at 914-666-3410. The study can provide the participant an opportunity to share their story in a safe space and to learn of support services on and off campus to assist with any emotional needs. In addition, the information could potentially increase the ability of community
organizations to advocate on behalf of policy change for DACA students. A $50 gift card will be provided for participation in the study.

**Method for protecting confidentiality/privacy of subjects:** All participants will be given a pseudonym and the site will not be identified by name.

**Method for protecting confidentiality/privacy of data collected:** All audio recordings will be destroyed after they are transcribed. All electronic notes and will be in password protected files; hard copies will be stored in the researcher’s home for 3 years.

**Your rights:** As a research participant, you have the right to:

1. Have the purpose of the study, and the expected risks and benefits fully explained to you before you choose to participate.
2. Withdraw from participation at any time without penalty.
3. Refuse to answer a particular question without penalty.
4. Be informed of the results of the study.

*I have read the above, received a copy of this form, and I agree to participate in the above-named study.*

______________________________ ________________________________   ______
Print name (Participant)   Signature            Date

______________________________ ________________________________  ______
Print name (Investigator)  Signature     Date

All digital audio recordings will be destroyed after transcription. All transcriptions of interviews will be maintained using a private, locked, and password-protected file and password-protected computer stored securely in the private home of the researcher. Electronic files will include assigned identity codes and pseudonyms; they will not include actual names or any information that could personally identify or connect participants to this study. Other materials, including notes or paper files related to data collection and analysis will be stored securely in unmarked boxes, locked inside a cabinet in the private home of the principal researcher. Only the researcher will have access to electronic or paper records. Signed informed consent documents will be kept for 3 years after publication. All paper records will be crosscut shredded and professionally
delivered for incineration. Electronic records will be cleared, purged, and destroyed from the hard drive and all devices such that restoring data is not possible.

I have read the above, received a copy of this form, and I agree to be audiotape with voice distortion.

________________________________________  ____________________________  ______
Print name (Participant)   Signature            Date

________________________________________  ____________________________  ______
Print name (Investigator)  Signature     Date

If you have any further questions regarding this study, please contact the researcher listed above. If you experience emotional or physical discomfort due to participation in this study, please contact your personal health care provider or an appropriate crisis service provider (914-606-7784).

The Institutional Review Board of St. John Fisher College has reviewed this project. For any concerns regarding this study/or if you feel that your rights as a participant (or the rights of another participant) have been violated or caused you undue distress (physical or emotional distress), please contact Jill Rathbun by phone during normal business hours at (585) 385-8012 or irb@sjfc.edu. She will contact a supervisory IRB official to assist you.
# Appendix J

## Interview Protocol

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interview Questions</th>
<th>4S</th>
<th>Research Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. When did you learn you were undocumented?</td>
<td><strong>Self</strong></td>
<td>How do Jamaican DACA recipients describe their future?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Did/does this have any impact on how you see your future?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Can you describe your future without the protection of DACA?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Did any of your future plans change when the DACA policy change was announced?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. How did you feel about DACA during Obama administration?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. How do you feel about DACA during Trump Administration?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. How did/does the change impact you?</td>
<td><strong>Situation</strong></td>
<td>How do Jamaican DACA recipients describe their initial reaction to the immigration policy change?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Tell me about an experience you had immediately after the DACA policy change was announced.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Do you act differently in your day to day life because of the DACA policy change?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>When did you learn about the DACA policy change?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>Who did you speak to when you learned about the DACA policy change?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>Did you seek support from a college administrator regarding the DACA policy change?</td>
<td>How do Jamaican DACA recipients describe their support system?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>Do you have support?</td>
<td>Support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>Who gives you support?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>How do you receive support?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>Tell me how your friends and/or family have supported you through the DACA policy change.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>How do you manage your feelings regarding the DACA policy change?</td>
<td>Strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>What are you doing to cope with the change of the DACA policy?</td>
<td>How do Jamaican DACA recipients describe their coping strategies?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>What coping strategy do you find most helpful?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.</td>
<td>What coping strategy would you recommend for others in a similar situation?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>