



ALSCHEBNA VIA GETTY IMAGES



What's at Stake

Immigrant Impacts in 287(g) Jurisdictions

By Nicole Prchal Svajlenka March 2018

Center for American Progress



What's at Stake

Immigrant Impacts in 287(g) Jurisdictions

By Nicole Prchal Svajlenka March 2018

Contents

- 1 Introduction and summary**
- 3 Methodology**
- 4 287(g) overview**
- 8 Demographic snapshot of jurisdictions with 287(g) agreements**
- 14 Economic and fiscal contributions of immigrants in jurisdictions with 287(g) agreements**
- 17 Conclusion**
- 18 About the author**
- 19 Appendix**
- 31 Endnotes**

Introduction and summary

The Trump administration is working aggressively to ramp up the role local police and sheriffs' departments play in immigration enforcement. One way it is doing so is through a program called 287(g), which allows local law enforcement agencies to partner with U.S. Immigration and Customs Enforcement (ICE) to enforce federal immigration laws. In 2017 alone, 29 jurisdictions enrolled in the program—nearly doubling the number of jurisdictions training local police to act as immigration agents.¹

The Trump administration did not create 287(g), but they are expanding it. In doing so, they are ignoring the problems that have shrouded the program for as long as it has existed, including complaints of racial profiling, discrimination, and unreimbursed costs—not to mention myriad legal battles.²

The goal of this report is to provide data on the contributions that immigrants, including unauthorized immigrants, make to localities with 287(g) agreements, contributions that could be in jeopardy because of these agreements. Unauthorized immigrants are long-time residents in communities across the country and are inextricably linked to other community members, including their children, their neighbors, and their employers. As individuals, they own and operate businesses that are vital to their communities; they infuse the economy with spending; and they generate tax revenue. All of these benefits that would disappear if they were to leave the places they call home—either because they are deported or choose to do so due to a hostile environment.³ As additional local officials look at the possibility of signing new 287(g) agreements, this research should help inform those decisions as well as make clear what is at stake for communities already embroiled in the program.

In the 40 jurisdictions with 287(g) agreements analyzed in this report:



More than **1.5 million individuals** live in mixed-status families.



Immigrant households generate **\$65.9 billion** in spending power.



Immigrant households contribute **\$24.4 billion** in tax revenue annually.

Methodology

The data in this report are presented in two sections. The first section includes core demographic information on the foreign-born residents of jurisdictions with 287(g) agreements—number of immigrants, both overall and unauthorized; how long they have lived in the United States; and estimates of mixed-status families (those with family members holding different legal status.) The report's second section quantifies the economic and fiscal contributions of immigrants who live and work in jurisdictions with 287(g) agreements, calculating their rates of business ownership and fiscal contributions in the form of tax revenue and spending power. The terms foreign born and immigrants are used interchangeably throughout the report.

All data presented are from the U.S. Bureau of the Census' American Community Survey (ACS). The 2011-15 five-year ACS is used to provide a population overview of all 57 cities and counties with 287(g) agreements, while three years (2012, 2013, and 2014) of pooled ACS microdata are used more for detailed cross-tabulations. Due to geographic limitations, this more detailed data is only presented for 40 of the jurisdictions with 287(g) agreements. Additionally, data for Arizona and Massachusetts, the two states with 287(g) agreements that cover the entirety of both states, is not presented.

Measures are presented for both all immigrants and unauthorized immigrants specifically.

287(g) overview

In 1996, the Illegal Immigration Reform and Immigrant Responsibility Act added section 287(g) to the Immigration and Nationality Act, creating an avenue for local law involvement in immigration enforcement.⁴

The initial wave of 287(g) agreements were signed into effect in the late 2000s, coinciding with a period of growth for immigrant communities in many of the jurisdictions.⁵ In many suburban and rural communities, especially in the Southeast, job growth attracted new residents—including many Latino immigrants—to historically white places. Some residents were not prepared for the rapid demographic shift and the perceived impacts (such as overcrowded housing and increased traffic congestion) on their daily lives. In attempt to limit the number of immigrants living in their communities, they pressured their local governments to take action to limit these changes to their community.⁶ It was in this political and social environment that 287(g) agreements targeting unauthorized immigrants became a popular avenue. In 2012, more than 70 287(g) agreements were in effect.⁷ Between 2006 and 2013, more than 175,000 immigrants were deported as a result of the program.⁸

Historically, there were three types of 287(g) agreements: jail models, task force models, and hybrid models. Under the jail model, local law enforcement officers could perform immigration duties for individuals booked into jails. Under the task force model, officers could perform enforcement duties in the community at any time. As the name suggests, hybrid models included both types.⁹ Task force and hybrid models were discontinued in 2012, leaving only jail model agreements.

Local immigration enforcement policies, including 287(g) agreements, have chilling effects throughout and beyond immigrant communities.¹⁰ A 2012 survey of U.S. Latinos—regardless of citizenship status—found that 44 percent were less likely to contact the police if they were the victim of a crime out of fear that law enforcement would inquire about their immigration status and the immigration status of people they know. Thirty-eight percent reported feeling under

heightened suspicion now that local law enforcement is more entangled in the work of federal immigration enforcement authorities; that rate was even higher for Latino immigrants without legal status.¹¹ Policies targeting unauthorized immigrants have far-reaching consequences for public safety if they make the wider Latino or immigrant community less likely to report crimes—a trend that has drawn comments from police chiefs in Los Angeles, Houston, and Salt Lake City in 2017 and is borne out in the data in other cities.¹² One study of the Frederick County, Maryland, agreement between ICE and the sheriff’s office analyzing arrest patterns found a chilling effect on crime reporting, specifically between Latinos and the city police department.¹³

Since its inception, critics of 287(g) have voiced concerns that the program institutionalizes racial profiling and questionable police conduct. In 2010, the U.S. Department of Homeland Security’s (DHS) Office of Inspector General found that some jurisdictions were acting as a task force model despite only having authority in a jail setting. Moreover, researchers at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill (UNC) reported that deputized 287(g) officers in one jurisdiction with a jail model targeted drivers and passengers via traffic checkpoints near Latino churches and soccer fields, profiling the group.¹⁴ In 2011, the DHS terminated the Maricopa County, Arizona, 287(g) agreement after a U.S. Department of Justice (DOJ) investigation found what it determined was a “pattern or practice of wide-ranging discrimination against Latinos.”¹⁵ A separate lawsuit challenging then-Sheriff Joe Arpaio’s conduct, both while the 287(g) agreement was in place and after it was rescinded led to multiple court injunctions, including one based on the court’s conclusion that the Maricopa Sheriff’s Office engaged in racial profiling.¹⁶ (Although President Donald Trump later pardoned Arpaio for his criminal contempt of the court’s injunctions, the trial judge did not vacate the finding of guilt.)¹⁷ Furthermore, a 2012 DOJ investigation found evidence of racial profiling against Latinos under the 287(g) agreement in Alamance County, North Carolina.¹⁸

There is also a question over who becomes ensnared under 287(g) agreements. A 2011 report from the Migration Policy Institute found that approximately half of detainees issued as a result of 287(g) agreements were for misdemeanors and traffic offenses.¹⁹ A 2010 report from UNC found that 87 percent of those detained in North Carolina were charged with misdemeanors.²⁰ More recently, the *Naples Daily News* reported that three-quarters of immigrants transferred to ICE under the Collier County, Florida, 287(g) agreement were for “misdemeanor traffic offenses.”²¹

287(g) agreements have also been criticized for the amount of money that they cost jurisdictions.²² Law enforcement agencies, and thus taxpayers, are responsible for the startup costs, including sending officers to ICE trainings, the administrative costs associated with 287(g), and overtime pay for officers who perform immigration-related tasks instead of their actual police duties.²³ In addition, costly legal battles around issues of racial profiling—at the jurisdiction’s expense—have been numerous, providing further evidence that 287(g) agreements are a financial burden to jurisdictions, potentially costing taxpayers millions of dollars each year.²⁴

Several factors, including community pushback, concerns about police and immigrant relations, and the cost of 287(g) agreements led to their revocation in jurisdictions across the United States. Other jurisdictions cite the concerns as a reason to not sign 287(g) agreements in the first place.²⁵

The DHS has institutionalized other efforts to engage local law enforcement agencies in immigration enforcement, efforts that can make 287(g) a force multiplier in jurisdictions with multiple local enforcement programs. Secure Communities—a nationwide information-sharing program between law enforcement agencies, the FBI, and the DHS—makes this issue especially salient.²⁶ Under Secure Communities, law enforcement agencies share fingerprints of individuals arrested with the FBI, who then shares them with the DHS to check if an individual has legal status in the United States. With this information, the DHS often requests that the individual be held for further detention. Jurisdictions cannot opt out of this information sharing—it is mandatory—but they can opt out of honoring ICE detainer requests. Secure Communities means that ICE is already alerted to any immigrant in law enforcement custody who DHS has previously encountered. 287(g) agreements allow local law enforcement officers to begin an immigration investigation or choose to begin deportation proceedings on their own. To go even a step further, under 287(g) task force models, officers deputized under 287(g) could conduct immigration patrols, and many used this authority to set up checkpoints in communities.²⁷ In 2012, citing Secure Communities, ICE ended all existing agreements that were task force and hybrid models.²⁸

As a candidate, Donald Trump made immigration enforcement an anchor of his campaign, and the Trump administration has wasted no time in cracking down on immigrant communities. Immigration arrests increased 42 percent during Trump’s tenure in fiscal year 2017 compared with the same time period in fiscal year 2016. Compared with fiscal year 2016, the share of immigrants arrested in fiscal year 2017 with a criminal conviction declined.²⁹ One component of this ramped up

enforcement regime is an expansion of 287(g) agreements. The 29 new agreements include several counties with notorious law enforcement issues, including Waller County, Texas, which failed to meet state reform standards after the death of Sandra Bland in 2015, and Knox County, Tennessee, which had its previous application denied because of police misconduct.³⁰ While all agreements in place, as well as new agreements, have been jail models, numerous jurisdictions have expressed interest in reviving the task force model agreements.³¹

Furthermore, in July 2017, Thomas Homan, acting director of ICE, signaled the administration's desire to "triple those agreements by the end of the year."³² As of January 1, 2018, there were 59 signed agreements covering three cities, 54 counties, and two states as well as more than 1,800 law enforcement officials. Dozens of additional jurisdictions have expressed interest in joining the program.³³

Demographic snapshot of jurisdictions with 287(g) agreements

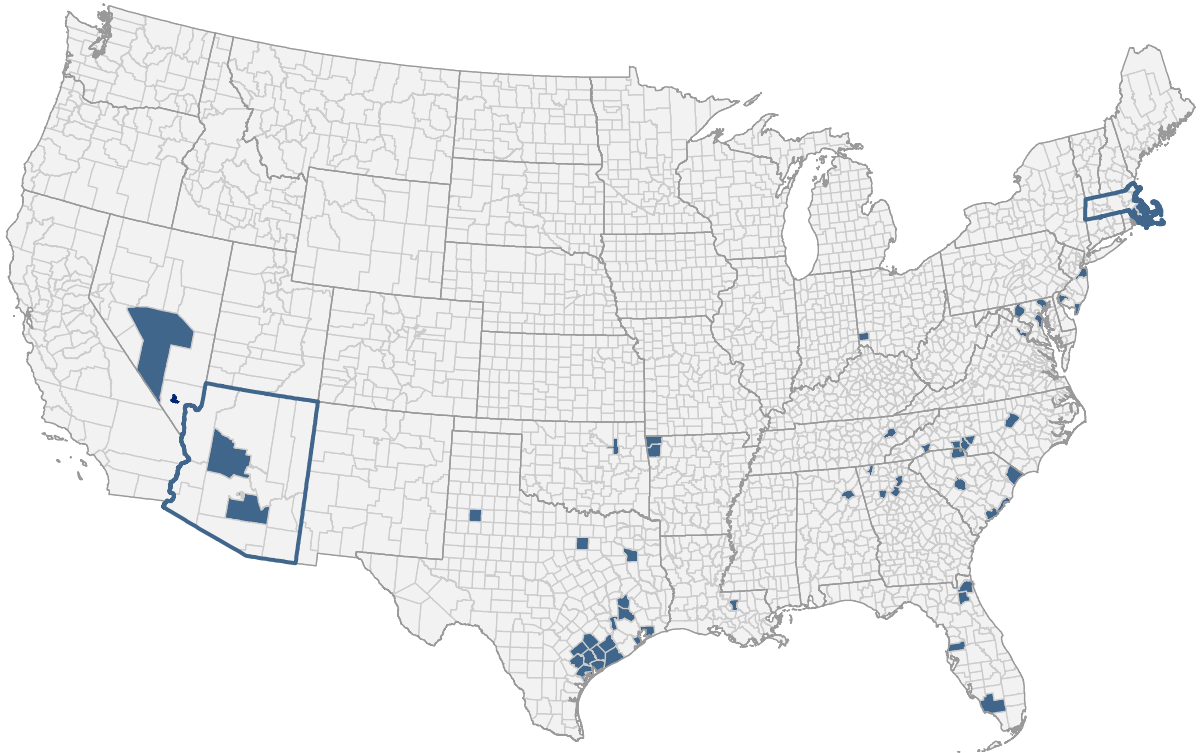
Basic demographics

Author's note: All data in this section are author calculations based on U.S. Bureau of the Census data. They are all available in Table A1, where they are sourced.

Jurisdictions with 287(g) agreements range widely in terms of their demographics—they are scattered across the nation; are found in places urban and rural; and have immigrant communities both large and small. For the most part, 287(g) jurisdictions are largely located in the Southeast United States as well as in Texas. These jurisdictions range greatly in terms of the size of their immigrant communities. Tarrant County, Texas, for example, ranks as the largest jurisdiction, with more than 1.9 million residents, 302,000 of whom were born in another country. At the other end of the spectrum, four counties in Texas—Goliad, Refugio, DeWitt, and Jackson Counties—each have fewer than 1,000 foreign-born residents. Approximately 6 percent of immigrants in the United States live in the 57 cities and counties with 287(g) agreements, 10 percent when you include Arizona and Massachusetts, the two states with state-wide 287(g) agreements.

FIGURE 1

Jurisdictions with signed 287(g) agreements, as of January 1, 2018



Note: Jurisdictions with 287(g) agreements are blue. Arizona and Massachusetts, the two states with 287(g) agreements, are outlined in blue.

Source: U.S. Immigration and Customs Enforcement, "287(g) Results and Participating Entities," available at <https://www.ice.gov/287g> (last accessed January 2018).

Just as the size of the immigrant community varies in jurisdictions with 287(g) agreements, so too does the share of the population that is foreign-born—ranging from 2 percent in Goliad County, Texas, to 42 percent in Hudson County, New Jersey. Most jurisdictions that enroll in 287(g) agreements—45 of 57—have smaller concentrations of immigrants than the U.S. average. Conversely, traditional immigrant-receiving communities, or those with large shares of foreign-born residents, do not have 287(g) agreements in place. The general theory is that these communities have a longer history with immigrants and tend to be more comfortable with their presence.

On March 2, 2018, Hudson County, New Jersey, terminated their 287(g) agreement. In a county where more than 40 percent of residents are foreign-born, advocacy groups on the ground had long fought back against the agreement.³⁴ The county executive cited state bail reform as the reason for the change, but one freeholder—the term for county elected officials in New Jersey—specifically mentioned the Trump administration’s position on immigrants as a contributing factor.³⁵ Home to nearly 75,000 unauthorized immigrants, 19 percent of the county’s population lives in mixed-status families. Immigrants own 3,800 businesses, generate \$8 billion in spending power, and contribute \$3.3 billion to federal, state, and local taxes each year. At the time of data analysis, Hudson County had a signed 287(g) agreement. Throughout the report, data is presented for the jurisdiction.

At its peak in 2012, 10 percent of the nation’s immigrants lived in cities and counties with 287(g) agreements, 27 percent when including states with 287(g) agreements.³⁶ With the end of task force and hybrid 287(g) models, that share declined substantially. While the number of 287(g) agreements is multiplying under the Trump administration, the expansion is happening in less populous places, both in terms of overall population and immigrant populations.

According to the 2015 five-year ACS, 38 percent of people in the United States are non-Hispanic white. Looking at 287(g) communities more broadly, slightly more than half of these communities have populations that are more diverse than the United States as whole and slightly less than half have populations that are less diverse.

Data on unauthorized immigrants is available for 40 jurisdictions with 287(g) agreements.³⁷ All but one (Clay County, Florida) of these locales have unauthorized immigrant populations larger than 1,000 individuals. In the United States, unauthorized immigrants make up 3.4 percent of the U.S. total population.

Jurisdictions with 287(g) agreements in Southeastern states, such as Georgia, North Carolina, and South Carolina, as well as Texas, tend to have higher shares of immigrants who lack legal status. Jurisdictions in Northern states, such as Massachusetts, New Jersey, and Maryland, tend to have lower shares of unauthorized immigrants, as does Florida. Places with above average shares of immigrants also had above average shares of unauthorized immigrants, while the picture was mixed for places with smaller than average shares of foreign-born residents.

In more than half of jurisdictions with 287(g), unauthorized immigrants make up a smaller share of the population compared to the United States. Conversely, jurisdictions with both large shares of immigrants and large shares of immigrants who are unauthorized see that reflected in their overall population. For example, more than 1-in-10 residents in Hall County, Georgia; Hudson County, New Jersey; and Whitfield County, Georgia are unauthorized. Regardless of the size of the unauthorized immigrant community in a place, studies show that fear of immigration enforcement drives down crime reporting—not only from unauthorized immigrants but also from Latinos more broadly, making entire communities less safe.³⁸ And although unauthorized immigrants make up a small share of residents in most 287(g) jurisdictions, the impacts communities will feel from local law enforcement participation with ICE will be far more significant and widespread and will immediately affect a much larger community.³⁹

Length of time in the United States

Immigrants have longer histories in places with 287(g) agreements than one might anticipate. The median length of time an immigrant has been in the United States based on the data set used for this report is 17 years; 11 years for unauthorized immigrants. In all 40 of the 287(g) jurisdictions, more than half of the foreign-born community has been in the United States for 15 years or more. Not one of the jurisdictions has an immigrant population with a median length of residency less than 10 years.

When looking at unauthorized immigrants specifically, it is striking how long these community members have lived in the United States: 60 percent for more than 10 years. Only one jurisdiction—Clay County, Florida—has a median number of years in the United States less than five years.

These findings certainly challenge the notion that unauthorized immigrants do not have long-term histories with their respective communities and, in turn, suggests that these agreements affect people with deep ties in these jurisdictions.⁴⁰ In many 287(g) jurisdictions, the median length of time immigrants have lived there mirror the overall U.S. stats.

Looking at median length of time in the United States and the dates on which most agreements were signed, it appears that most jurisdictions entered into 287(g) agreements in the years immediately following the initial arrival of immigrants, and

these individuals remain in these communities to this day. While ICE lists all current 287(g) agreements as being signed in 2016 and 2017, many of these dates represent agreement renewals. The bulk of 287(g) agreements were originally signed between 2007 and 2009—which the analysis of time in the United States suggests is just a few years after the arrival dates.⁴¹ However, given these trends, two things remain unexplained and are questions that policymakers, advocates, and elected officials in areas considering 287(g) agreements should answer:

- First, why are new, relatively small jurisdictions signing up for 287(g) agreements?
- Second, given that they are targeting groups of individuals who have been a part of the community for more than a decade, why do places continue to re-enroll in 287(g)?

This complicates the prevailing narrative that 287(g) agreements are a response to shifting demographics.⁴²

Mixed status families

Beyond the length of time they have lived in the United States, a stronger measure of unauthorized immigrants' ties to their communities can be seen in their mixed-status families. Across the United States, more than 10.8 million people live in the same household as an unauthorized family member, representing 4 percent of all households. Approximately 6.2 million young people under the age of 18, representing 8 percent of all youth, live in mixed-status families. Rates of mixed status families in 287(g) jurisdictions are particularly high in Hall County, Georgia, at 30 percent, and Whitfield County, Georgia, at 26 percent.

Collectively, unauthorized immigrants and their families make up 7 percent of the total U.S. population. A ratio can help put these numbers in perspective: Across the United States, 69 out of every 1,000 people live in mixed-status families. For jurisdictions with 287(g) agreements, this value ranges from 10 out of every 1,000 to 213 out of every 1,000 people. In total, more than 1.5 million individuals live in mixed-status families across the 40 jurisdictions described in this report.

Families in the immigrant community are made up of citizens, legal residents, and those lacking legal status, complicating the argument that lawfully present immigrants and U.S. citizens have nothing to worry about when it comes to

immigration enforcement. Make no mistake—policies that target immigrants without legal status also harm native-born citizens. Children living in mixed status families are particularly vulnerable after a parent’s detention and deportation, which most often results in the loss of the family’s primary earner.⁴³ Negative effects, such as emotional and behavioral consequences—including anxiety and depression; economic and housing instability; and declines in school performance—all stem from the forced separation.⁴⁴

Economic and fiscal contributions of immigrants in jurisdictions with 287(g) agreements

Beyond longstanding ties to families and the community, additional reasons 287(g) agreements are not smart and potentially disruptive come down to financial strain. In creating hostile environments for immigrants and their families, jurisdictions that pursue 287(g) jeopardize economic gains that come from business ownership, spending power, and tax revenue attributed to foreign-born residents.

Research on Arizona's 2007 anti-immigrant legislation can be used as an illustrative comparison of the economic effects that accompany an exodus of immigrants from a given locality. The Public Policy Institute of California estimates the Legal Arizona Workers Act—which mandated the use of E-Verify by employers in the state and imposed state licensing penalties on employers who knowingly hire unauthorized workers—resulted in 17 percent of Latino immigrants leaving the state and a shift for those who remained from the formal economy to the underground economy.⁴⁵ Moody's Analytics found that the number of immigrants leaving Arizona was responsible for a 2 percent reduction in the state's GDP each year from 2008 to 2015 as well as a lower employment rate.⁴⁶

Business owners

Immigrants are more likely than those who were born in the United States to own their own business.⁴⁷ Immigrants represent 17 percent of the labor force but 19 percent of business owners. The Fiscal Policy Institute's (FPI) recent work has shone a light on immigrants' even larger role in what David Dyssegaard Kallick of FPI calls "Main Street businesses."⁴⁸ Data from 2012 to 2014 indicates that these places—"shops and services that are the backbone of neighborhoods around the country," including restaurants, grocery stores, dry cleaners, gas stations, and the like—are disproportionately owned by immigrants, at 29 percent.

The effects of “Main Street businesses” extend beyond the revenue from the stores and services themselves, as they are, according to FPI, “[P]laying a critical role in making neighborhoods attractive places to live and work.”⁴⁹ Additionally, immigrant-owned businesses create millions of jobs for native-born workers.⁵⁰

TABLE 1
Foreign-born business ownership in jurisdictions with 287(g) agreements

Jurisdiction	Foreign-born business owners		Foreign-born “Main Street” business owners	
	Number	Share	Number	Share
Anne Arundel County, Maryland	1,000	11%		
Butler County, Ohio	1,100	25%		
Cobb County, Georgia	2,600	16%	800	29%
Collier County, Florida	3,000	25%	500	29%
East Baton Rouge Parish, Louisiana	600	8%	300	23%
Galveston County, Texas	500	19%		
Gwinnett County, Georgia	1,900	33%		
Hall County, Georgia	500	16%		
Harford County, Maryland	300	8%		
Horry County, South Carolina	500	10%		
Hudson County, New Jersey	3,800	44%	1,300	59%
Jacksonville, Florida	3,400	19%	1,000	33%
Knox County, Tennessee	700	11%	500	40%
Las Vegas, Nevada	7,300	27%	1,800	35%
Mecklenburg County, North Carolina	3,600	18%	900	29%
Monmouth County, New Jersey	2,500	19%	700	31%
Montgomery County, Texas	800	14%		
Pasco County, Florida	1,600	19%	600	40%
Prince William County, cities of Manassas and Manassas Park, Virginia	2,300	41%	900	70%
Tarrant County, Texas	5,800	24%	2,200	47%
Wake County, North Carolina	3,200	16%	600	19%
Yavapai County, Arizona	400	10%		
United States	989,500	19%	261,800	29%

Note: The analysis is based on respondents’ place of work, not their residence. The measure captures those who are self-employed in an incorporated business. “Main Street” businesses are classified as the following North American Industry Classification System (NAICS) sectors: retail; accommodation and food services; and neighborhood services—beauty salons, barber shops, nail salons, dry cleaners, and car washes. Data not available for all jurisdictions.

Source: Author’s analysis of 2012, 2013, 2014 Center for Migration Studies (2014) Estimates of the Unauthorized Population. Data set based on the augmented American Community Survey data files hosted by IPUMS (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series), 2010 to 2013. Steven Ruggles and others, “Integrated Public Use Microdata Series: Version 7.0” (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, 2017), available at <https://doi.org/10.18128/D010.V7.0>.

Immigrants make outsized contributions as business owners in many jurisdictions with 287(g) agreements.⁵¹ Immigrants own more than one-third of businesses in Hudson County, New Jersey, Prince William County, Virginia, and in Gwinnett County, Georgia. In each of the 13 of the jurisdictions analyzed, immigrants own more than 1,000 businesses that could be threatened by 287(g) agreements. Foreign-born business owners represent more than one-third of the local-serving Main Street businesses in Prince William County, Virginia, Hudson County, New Jersey, Tarrant County, Texas, Knox County, Tennessee, and Las Vegas, Nevada.

Spending power and tax revenue

Another major economic contribution that immigrants make to their communities as well as the United States comes in the form of spending power and tax revenue. Immigrants pay taxes, but they also infuse money into their local economy as they procure goods and services, benefiting all residents regardless of their nativity. Again, as immigrants make the decision to leave a hostile environment, the spending power and tax revenue that they generate also disappears.

Based on methodology developed by New American Economy, in these 40 jurisdictions, households with unauthorized adults have a collective \$14.7 billion in spending power.⁵² In addition, they contribute \$3.1 billion in federal taxes and \$1.7 billion in state and local taxes annually.⁵³

At the even broader level of all households with a foreign-born adult, the 40 jurisdictions profiled here stand to lose \$65.9 billion in spending power. Collectively, immigrant households in these jurisdictions are responsible for \$17.3 billion in federal tax revenue and \$7.1 billion in state and local tax revenue annually. Jurisdictions with above average share of contributions compared to the United States at large include Hudson County, New Jersey; Prince William County, Virginia; Las Vegas, Nevada; Gwinnett County, Georgia; Whitfield County, Georgia; Cobb County, Georgia; Collier County, Florida; Tarrant County, Texas; and Monmouth County, New Jersey.

Communities that have or pursue 287(g) agreements put these financial gains at risk. In one study, immigrant families' incomes fell by 70 percent after a parent was detained.⁵⁴ While this can be devastating to a family, the repercussions extend beyond the family unit. Researchers from the University of North Carolina found that, in the wake of a 287(g) agreement, business owners in Latino neighborhoods in a 287(g) jurisdiction noted declines in the number of Latino customers as well as their spending.⁵⁵

Conclusion

Under the Trump administration, ICE eliminated the use of prosecutorial discretion, no longer focusing its limited enforcement resources on high-priority individuals.⁵⁶ With elimination of prosecutorial discretion, ICE has regressed, arresting far more people without criminal convictions while local law enforcement officials take on even greater roles in the federal government's deportation force. Perhaps the most egregious breach of these standards is the 287(g) program, which goes beyond other immigration enforcement programs by turning local police officers and sheriff's deputies into ICE personnel. At best, 287(g) agreements intensify federal enforcement efforts and send an adversarial message to the country's foreign-born residents; at worst they are mechanisms for discrimination that jeopardize large swaths of the communities that participate.

As of January 1, 2018, 59 jurisdictions had 287(g) agreements, a number the Trump administration wants and fully expects to expand. In fact, since completion of this report's data analysis, an additional 17 jurisdictions announced signed 287(g) agreements, bringing the total to 75, factoring in Hudson County's decision to terminate its agreement.⁵⁷ Before community leaders make the decision to pursue or sign a 287(g) agreement, they should take into account this report's demographic and economic data, which shows there is much at stake if the immigrant community disappears.

About the author

Nicole Prchal Svajlenka is a senior policy analyst with the Immigration Policy team at the Center for American Progress. She is grateful to the Center for Migration Studies of New York for providing access to its data; Pavel Dramski of New American Economy and David Dyssegaard Kallick of the Fiscal Policy Institute for providing insight into their methodologies; as well as Chris Rickerd of the American Civil Liberties Union for his thoughtful review. She also thanks Tom Jawetz and Philip E. Wolgin of the Center for American Progress for their valuable feedback, the other members of the Immigration Policy team for their input and assistance, and the Art and Editorial team for their work on this report.

Appendix

Two types of ACS data are presented in this report. The first is the 2011-15 pretabulated data, accessed via the U.S. Bureau of the Census' American FactFinder. This dataset includes population estimates for all 59 jurisdictions with 287(g) agreements.

All other cross-tabulations presented in this report come from pooling three years of ACS microdata (2012, 2013, and 2014), provided by the Center for Migration Studies of New York, which estimates the legal status of foreign-born respondents.⁵⁸

There are several reasons the data are not available for all jurisdictions. Microdata is available in geographies called public use microdata areas (PUMAs), which presents some limitations. First, PUMAs have a population threshold of 100,000, so counties with fewer than 100,000 people will be combined with other counties. Second, places larger than 100,000 people are constructed from multiple PUMAs, but they do not always align perfectly with city or county boundaries. PUMAs are assigned to a city or county if more than half of the population living in the PUMA live in the jurisdiction in question. The PUMAs are then aggregated, and an error rate is created, measuring the share of people who are incorrectly included or excluded. This report presents data for jurisdictions with error rates lower than 15 percent. Given the nature of these PUMA "building blocks," places that are excluded are typically home to a small foreign-born population.

Length of time in the United States reported is the median and corresponds with the survey year for each of the three years.

The methodology for mixed status families is derived from the Center for American Progress' "Keeping Families Together" report.⁵⁹ The original methodology includes only households of two or more people but includes all immigrants regardless of legal status. This analysis instead counts unauthorized immigrants and anyone who has an unauthorized family member in the same household in this measure.

Business ownership—in particular Main Street businesses—is adapted from Fiscal Policy Institute methodology. The analysis is based on place of work instead of respondents’ residence to specifically focus on businesses located in a jurisdiction rather than workers who live there but may own businesses elsewhere. Both place of work and place of residence analyses were run, with results being similar. The measure captures those who are self-employed in an incorporated business. Main Street businesses are classified as the following North American Industry Classification System (NAICS) sectors: retail, accommodation and food services, and neighborhood services (beauty salons, barber shops, nail salons, dry cleaning, and car washes).

Tax revenue and spending power is adapted from New American Economy methodology. Foreign-born households include any household with a foreign-born adult in the labor force; unauthorized households include any household with a foreign-born adult without legal status in the labor force. Income quintiles are based on household income. Federal tax rates come from the Congressional Budget Office’s 2016 estimates, and state tax rates come from the Institute on Taxation and Economic Policy.

Detailed jurisdictional data for all measures can be found in the accompanying data tables.

TABLE A1

Characteristics of residents in jurisdictions with 287(g) agreements

Jurisdiction	Total number of residents	Residents who are white		Residents who are foreign born	
		Number	Share	Number	Share
Anne Arundel County, Maryland	555,280	392,444	71%	45,033	8%
Aransas County, Texas	24,292	16,581	68%	1,440	6%
Benton County, Arkansas	238,198	178,691	75%	27,182	11%
Bristol County, Massachusetts	552,763	465,443	84%	68,061	12%
Butler County, Ohio	372,538	309,123	83%	19,498	5%
Cabarrus County, North Carolina	188,375	131,169	70%	14,406	8%
Calhoun County, Texas	21,666	9,546	44%	2,262	10%
Cape May County, New Jersey	95,805	82,334	86%	5,346	6%
Chambers County, Texas	37,251	25,470	68%	3,859	10%
Charleston County, South Carolina	372,904	235,661	63%	18,650	5%
Clay County, Florida	197,417	148,325	75%	13,915	7%
Cobb County, Georgia	719,133	391,063	54%	112,125	16%
Collier County, Florida	341,091	220,021	65%	79,198	23%
DeWitt County, Texas	20,540	11,571	56%	601	3%
East Baton Rouge Parish, Louisiana	444,690	204,045	46%	22,921	5%
Etowah County, Alabama	103,766	81,479	79%	2,796	3%
Frederick County, Maryland	241,373	183,419	76%	23,405	10%
Galveston County, Texas	308,163	179,352	58%	30,097	10%
Gaston County, North Carolina	209,807	156,240	74%	11,228	5%
Goliad County, Texas	7,410	4,338	59%	155	2%
Gwinnett County, Georgia	859,234	354,281	41%	211,561	25%
Hall County, Georgia	187,916	117,093	62%	29,508	16%
Harford County, Maryland	248,966	193,288	78%	13,344	5%
Henderson County, North Carolina	109,719	91,730	84%	8,139	7%
Horry County, South Carolina	290,730	223,819	77%	18,202	6%
Hudson County, New Jersey	662,619	194,795	29%	277,730	42%
Jackson County, Texas	14,486	8,791	61%	984	7%
Jacksonville, Florida	846,951	454,752	54%	83,727	10%
Knox County, Tennessee	444,348	369,088	83%	22,295	5%
Las Vegas, Nevada	605,097	277,879	46%	127,458	21%
Lavaca County, Texas	19,549	14,590	75%	1,178	6%
Lexington County, South Carolina	273,843	208,072	76%	13,948	5%

Jurisdiction	Total number of residents	Residents who are white		Residents who are foreign born	
		Number	Share	Number	Share
Lubbock County, Texas	290,782	161,779	56%	16,564	6%
Matagorda County, Texas	36,598	16,895	46%	4,066	11%
Mecklenburg County, North Carolina	990,288	486,387	49%	141,983	14%
Mesa, Arizona	458,860	293,738	64%	55,224	12%
Monmouth County, New Jersey	629,185	477,374	76%	83,684	13%
Montgomery County, Texas	502,586	347,262	69%	64,131	13%
Nye County, Nevada	42,625	33,146	78%	3,124	7%
Pasco County, Florida	479,288	372,407	78%	45,279	9%
Pinal County, Arizona	389,772	226,031	58%	39,523	10%
Plymouth County, Massachusetts	503,681	417,802	83%	41,731	8%
Prince William County, cities of Manassas and Manassas Park, Virginia	493,639	226,532	46%	111,793	23%
Refugio County, Texas	7,277	3,126	43%	213	3%
Salem County, New Jersey	65,120	49,283	76%	3,412	5%
Smith County, Texas	217,552	132,668	61%	17,803	8%
Tarrant County, Texas	1,914,526	954,181	50%	301,746	16%
Tulsa County, Oklahoma	623,335	398,866	64%	51,215	8%
Victoria County, Texas	90,099	41,908	47%	5,310	6%
Wake County, North Carolina	976,019	595,920	61%	125,883	13%
Walker County, Texas	69,330	39,808	57%	5,118	7%
Waller County, Texas	45,847	19,713	43%	6,412	14%
Washington County, Arkansas	216,432	156,896	72%	24,686	11%
Wharton County, Texas	41,264	19,043	46%	3,606	9%
Whitfield County, Georgia	103,456	62,546	60%	18,902	18%
Yavapai County, Arizona	215,996	175,206	81%	14,559	7%
York County, South Carolina	240,076	172,474	72%	11,313	5%
United States	316,515,021	197,258,278	62%	41,717,420	13%

Source: U.S. Census Bureau, *American FactFinder, 2014 ACS 5-year estimates* (U.S. Department of Commerce), tables B01003 - Total Population, B03002 - Hispanic or Latino Origin by Race, and B05012 - Nativity in the United States, available at <https://factfinder.census.gov/>.

TABLE A2
Immigrants in jurisdictions with 287(g) agreements

Jurisdiction	Total number of residents	Residents who are foreign born		Residents who are unauthorized immigrants		Share of immigrants who are unauthorized
		Number	Share	Number	Share	
Anne Arundel County, Maryland	555,800	46,400	8%	11,800	2%	25%
Benton County, Arkansas	238,400	28,200	12%	12,300	5%	44%
Bristol County, Massachusetts	575,900	69,200	12%	5,400	1%	8%
Butler County, Ohio	373,600	19,100	5%	4,400	1%	23%
Calhoun and Victoria counties, Texas	112,200	7,400	7%	2,300	2%	31%
Cape May County, New Jersey	107,700	5,700	5%	1,900	2%	34%
Clay County, Florida	197,300	13,800	7%	1,000	0%	7%
Cobb County, Georgia	722,700	113,600	16%	39,700	5%	35%
Collier County, Florida	342,600	83,100	24%	24,000	7%	29%
East Baton Rouge Parish, Louisiana	445,500	22,100	5%	5,700	1%	26%
Etowah County, Alabama	104,100	2,800	3%	1,200	1%	43%
Frederick County, Maryland	241,900	20,500	8%	3,500	1%	17%
Galveston County, Texas	308,400	29,400	10%	10,200	3%	35%
Gaston County, North Carolina	210,100	10,700	5%	5,100	2%	48%
Gwinnett County, Georgia	864,900	212,300	25%	73,200	8%	34%
Hall County, Georgia	189,300	32,800	17%	19,900	11%	61%
Harford County, Maryland	249,300	13,300	5%	1,300	1%	10%
Horry County, South Carolina	291,500	19,100	7%	8,300	3%	43%
Hudson County, New Jersey	666,100	285,100	43%	74,500	11%	26%
Jacksonville, Florida	890,000	87,900	10%	15,600	2%	18%
Knox County, Tennessee	434,700	24,600	6%	7,000	2%	29%
Las Vegas, Nevada	687,200	146,900	21%	52,400	8%	36%
Lexington County, South Carolina	294,900	15,600	5%	7,500	3%	48%
Lubbock County, Texas	290,100	15,900	5%	3,700	1%	23%
Mecklenburg County, North Carolina	993,900	145,700	15%	54,200	5%	37%
Mesa, Arizona	507,400	62,500	12%	22,800	4%	37%
Monmouth County, New Jersey	631,300	83,500	13%	20,400	3%	24%
Montgomery County, Texas	504,700	64,900	13%	27,400	5%	42%
Pasco County, Florida	479,200	45,200	9%	14,200	1%	12%
Pinal County, Arizona	498,000	43,400	9%	7,700	2%	18%
Prince William County, cities of Manassas and Manassas Park, Virginia	496,400	118,900	24%	34,900	7%	29%

Jurisdiction	Total number of residents	Residents who are foreign born		Residents who are unauthorized immigrants		Share of immigrants who are unauthorized
		Number	Share	Number	Share	
Smith County, Texas	217,500	19,500	9%	8,500	4%	44%
Tarrant County, Texas	1,920,800	307,600	16%	123,500	6%	40%
Tulsa County, Oklahoma	690,600	53,000	8%	24,700	4%	47%
Wake County, North Carolina	979,000	129,600	13%	46,100	5%	36%
Washington County, Arkansas	216,500	24,400	11%	10,800	5%	44%
Whitfield County, Georgia	104,000	19,400	19%	10,900	10%	56%
Yavapai County, Arizona	216,100	16,000	7%	5,200	2%	33%
York County, South Carolina	240,400	10,700	4%	3,700	2%	35%
United States	317,106,200	42,223,000	13%	10,912,500	3%	26%

Note: Tables A2 through A5 use a different data set than Table A1 and thus values will be different.

Source: Author's analysis of 2012, 2013, 2014 Center for Migration Studies (2014) Estimates of the Unauthorized Population. Data set based on the augmented American Community Survey data files hosted by IPUMS (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series), 2010 to 2013. Steven Ruggles and others, "Integrated Public Use Microdata Series: Version 7.0" (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, 2017), available at <https://doi.org/10.18128/D010.V7.0>.

TABLE A3

Immigrants' length of time in the United States in jurisdictions with 287(g) agreements

Jurisdiction	All immigrants						Unauthorized immigrants					
	Share that has been in the U.S.						Share that has been in the U.S.					
	5 or more years	10 or more years	15 or more years	20 or more years	25 or more years	Median years	5 or more years	10 or more years	15 or more years	20 or more years	25 or more years	Median years
Anne Arundel County, Maryland	88%	74%	56%	42%	30%	16	81%	57%	26%	9%		11
Benton County, Arkansas	79%	66%	45%	28%	20%	13	84%	64%	33%	14%	7%	12
Bristol County, Massachusetts	91%	85%	75%	67%	60%	32	69%	50%	23%	16%	9%	9
Butler County, Ohio	82%	59%	44%	29%	21%	13	83%	39%	20%			9
Calhoun and Victoria counties, Texas	93%	77%	60%	55%	42%	22	86%	63%	28%	24%		12
Cape May County, New Jersey	84%	66%	47%	41%	35%	14	78%	35%				9
Clay County, Florida	89%	79%	71%	63%	43%	23	46%					4
Cobb County, Georgia	88%	73%	51%	33%	23%	15	86%	62%	34%	14%	5%	12
Collier County, Florida	87%	68%	49%	36%	27%	14	87%	57%	32%	14%	6%	10
East Baton Rouge Parish, Louisiana	78%	55%	41%	31%	25%	12	69%	28%				7
Etowah County, Alabama	99%	96%	61%	37%	30%	18	100%	93%				14
Frederick County, Maryland	87%	77%	54%	36%	23%	15	87%	73%	32%			12
Galveston County, Texas	90%	78%	60%	46%	33%	18	87%	67%	36%	22%	11%	12
Gaston County, North Carolina	93%	76%	45%	29%	21%	14	95%	71%	27%			12
Gwinnett County, Georgia	91%	76%	54%	37%	24%	15	89%	65%	37%	17%	5%	12
Hall County, Georgia	93%	84%	57%	33%	19%	16	94%	83%	51%	20%	7%	15
Harford County, Maryland	92%	77%	65%	54%	41%	21	84%	74%	56%			17
Horry County, South Carolina	83%	59%	37%	30%	25%	11	83%	45%	12%			9
Hudson County, New Jersey	84%	67%	49%	37%	27%	14	81%	49%	23%	10%	3%	9
Jacksonville, Florida	86%	69%	49%	36%	28%	14	83%	54%	22%	13%	5%	10
Knox County, Tennessee	86%	63%	41%	29%	20%	12	84%	44%	15%			9
Las Vegas, Nevada	92%	76%	59%	46%	34%	18	91%	64%	36%	19%	8%	12
Lexington County, South Carolina	84%	67%	46%	30%	20%	14	80%	55%	24%	7%		10
Lubbock County, Texas	89%	72%	50%	41%	31%	15	89%	58%	18%	14%		11
Mecklenburg County, North Carolina	82%	65%	42%	28%	19%	13	82%	55%	23%	9%	3%	10
Mesa, Arizona	89%	77%	59%	43%	30%	18	92%	76%	45%	23%	8%	14

Jurisdiction	All immigrants						Unauthorized immigrants					
	Share that has been in the U.S.						Share that has been in the U.S.					
	5 or more years	10 or more years	15 or more years	20 or more years	25 or more years	Median years	5 or more years	10 or more years	15 or more years	20 or more years	25 or more years	Median years
Monmouth County, New Jersey	92%	78%	62%	51%	39%	20	86%	56%	28%	14%	4%	10
Montgomery County, Texas	87%	70%	50%	35%	24%	14	89%	60%	33%	18%	5%	12
Pasco County, Florida	90%	77%	61%	48%	39%	19	76%	53%	25%	12%		10
Pinal County, Arizona	82%	70%	58%	47%	34%	18	90%	71%	38%	20%	6%	13
Prince William County, cities of Manassas and Manassas Park, Virginia	89%	71%	50%	35%	22%	14	86%	57%	28%	11%	5%	11
Smith County, Texas	87%	72%	57%	41%	33%	16	82%	60%	36%	19%	13%	12
Tarrant County, Texas	86%	72%	51%	37%	26%	15	84%	64%	34%	16%	6%	12
Tulsa County, Oklahoma	84%	66%	45%	31%	22%	13	82%	56%	26%	10%	3%	11
Wake County, North Carolina	83%	65%	43%	27%	18%	13	83%	57%	26%	8%	4%	11
Washington County, Arkansas	90%	77%	49%	27%	15%	14	96%	77%	38%	16%		14
Whitfield County, Georgia	90%	76%	50%	30%	22%	15	90%	73%	40%	16%	10%	13
Yavapai County, Arizona	91%	83%	67%	51%	43%	20	88%	71%	45%	19%		14
York County, South Carolina	91%	71%	49%	36%	25%	14	96%	69%	32%	17%		14
United States	88%	74%	57%	44%	33%	17	84%	60%	32%	17%	7%	11

Note: Tables A2 through A5 use a different data set than Table A1 and thus values will be different. Data not available for all jurisdictions.

Source: Author's analysis of 2012, 2013, 2014 Center for Migration Studies (2014) Estimates of the Unauthorized Population. Data set based on the augmented American Community Survey data files hosted by IPUMS (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series), 2010 to 2013. Steven Ruggles and others, "Integrated Public Use Microdata Series: Version 7.0" (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, 2017), available at <https://doi.org/10.18128/D010V7.0>.

TABLE A4
Mixed status families in jurisdictions with 287(g) agreements

Jurisdiction	Number of individuals living in mixed status families			Number of individuals living in mixed status families as a share of total population	Number of citizens and lawfully present immigrants who are minors	Share of youth living with unauthorized family members
	Total	Unauthorized immigrants	Citizens and lawfully present immigrants			
Anne Arundel County, Maryland	22,400	11,800	10,600	4%	5,800	5%
Benton County, Arkansas	21,600	12,300	9,400	9%	6,500	10%
Bristol County, Massachusetts	12,200	5,400	6,800	2%	3,000	2%
Butler County, Ohio	8,800	4,400	4,400	2%	2,900	3%
Calhoun and Victoria counties, Texas	4,200	2,300	1,900	4%	1,100	4%
Cape May County, New Jersey	2,900	1,900	1,000	3%		
Clay County, Florida	2,000	1,000	1,000	1%		
Cobb County, Georgia	75,300	39,700	35,600	10%	24,300	14%
Collier County, Florida	43,600	24,000	19,600	13%	12,300	19%
East Baton Rouge Parish, Louisiana	9,100	5,700	3,400	2%	2,000	2%
Etowah County, Alabama	1,800	1,200	600	2%	500	2%
Frederick County, Maryland	7,200	3,500	3,700	3%	1,800	3%
Galveston County, Texas	19,000	10,200	8,900	6%	5,600	7%
Gaston County, North Carolina	8,800	5,100	3,600	4%	2,700	6%
Gwinnett County, Georgia	140,200	73,200	67,000	16%	42,700	18%
Hall County, Georgia	40,300	19,900	20,300	21%	15,200	30%
Harford County, Maryland	2,500	1,300	1,200	1%		
Horry County, South Carolina	12,800	8,300	4,500	4%	3,400	6%
Hudson County, New Jersey	128,600	74,500	54,100	19%	25,800	19%
Jacksonville, Florida	29,200	15,600	13,700	3%	6,100	3%
Knox County, Tennessee	12,500	7,000	5,400	3%	2,800	3%
Las Vegas, Nevada	101,900	52,400	49,500	15%	30,500	18%
Lexington County, South Carolina	13,600	7,500	6,100	5%	4,300	6%
Lubbock County, Texas	6,500	3,700	2,800	2%	1,500	2%
Mecklenburg County, North Carolina	94,700	54,200	40,500	10%	27,100	11%
Mesa, Arizona	50,300	22,800	27,500	10%	18,700	15%
Monmouth County, New Jersey	37,400	20,400	17,000	6%	10,100	7%
Montgomery County, Texas	52,800	27,400	25,400	10%	17,500	13%
Pasco County, Florida	9,900	5,300	4,700	2%	1,700	2%
Pinal County, Arizona	17,100	7,700	9,300	3%	5,400	4%

Jurisdiction	Number of individuals living in mixed status families			Number of individuals living in mixed status families as a share of total population	Number of citizens and lawfully present immigrants who are minors	Share of youth living with unauthorized family members
	Total	Unauthorized immigrants	Citizens and lawfully present immigrants			
Prince William County, cities of Manassas and Manassas Park, Virginia	72,500	34,900	37,700	15%	21,500	15%
Smith County, Texas	18,400	8,500	9,900	8%	6,600	12%
Tarrant County, Texas	241,800	123,500	118,400	13%	78,900	15%
Tulsa County, Oklahoma	46,800	24,700	22,100	7%	15,200	9%
Wake County, North Carolina	77,900	46,100	31,800	8%	22,300	9%
Washington County, Arkansas	21,300	10,800	10,500	10%	7,500	14%
Whitfield County, Georgia	21,600	10,900	10,700	21%	7,500	26%
Yavapai County, Arizona	8,500	5,200	3,300	4%	2,300	6%
York County, South Carolina	7,000	3,700	3,300	3%	2,100	4%
United States	21,732,100	10,912,500	10,819,600	7%	6,209,800	8%

Note: Tables A2 through A5 use a different data set than Table A1 and thus values will be different. Data not available for all jurisdictions.

Source: Author's analysis of 2012, 2013, 2014 Center for Migration Studies (2014) Estimates of the Unauthorized Population. Data set based on the augmented American Community Survey data files hosted by IPUMS (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series), 2010 to 2013. Steven Ruggles and others, "Integrated Public Use Microdata Series: Version 7.0" (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, 2017), available at <https://doi.org/10.18128/D010.V7.0>.

TABLE A.5

Immigrant households' spending power and tax contributions in jurisdictions with 287(g) agreements

Jurisdiction	All households			Foreign-born households			Households with unauthorized immigrants		
	Spending power	Federal tax contributions	State and local tax contributions	Spending power	Federal tax contributions	State and local tax contributions	Spending power	Federal tax contributions	State and local tax contributions
Anne Arundel County, Maryland	\$15.3B	\$4.7B	\$1.9B	\$1.9B	\$600.3M	\$234.9M	\$303M	\$76.1M	\$37.5M
Benton County, Arkansas	\$4.6B	\$1.2B	\$575.3M	\$678.1M	\$169.3M	\$84.8M	\$209.1M	\$42.4M	\$27.5M
Bristol County, Massachusetts	\$11.9B	\$3.1B	\$1.4B	\$2.1B	\$518.4M	\$249.7M	\$161.6M	\$38.7M	\$19.3M
Butler County, Ohio	\$7.3B	\$1.9B	\$921.1M	\$530M	\$148.5M	\$67.1M	\$87.2M	\$20.5M	\$11.5M
Calhoun and Victoria counties, Texas	\$2.1B	\$510.3M	\$200.4M	\$185.2M	\$39.9M	\$18.9M	\$43.6M	\$8.2M	\$4.7M
Cape May County, New Jersey	\$2.4B	\$635.5M	\$299.6M	\$187.4M	\$46.9M	\$22.9M	\$41.4M	\$8.4M	\$5.1M
Clay County, Florida	\$3.8B	\$918.3M	\$316.5M	\$519.5M	\$132.7M	\$42M	\$26.4M	\$6.3M	\$2.2M
Cobb County, Georgia	\$17B	\$4.8B	\$1.9B	\$3.4B	\$926.2M	\$383.3M	\$721.6M	\$155.7M	\$85.3M
Collier County, Florida	\$8.4B	\$2.4B	\$645.3M	\$1.6B	\$407.4M	\$138.8M	\$291.3M	\$49.8M	\$29.2M
East Baton Rouge Parish, Louisiana	\$8.8B	\$2.3B	\$934.3M	\$638.6M	\$167.3M	\$67.5M	\$131.5M	\$30.8M	\$13.8M
Etowah County, Alabama	\$1.5B	\$308.3M	\$162.2M	\$96.6M	\$26.3M	\$8.8M			
Frederick County, Maryland	\$6.3B	\$1.9B	\$784.3M	\$829.5M	\$251.8M	\$101.9M	\$107.9M	\$26.5M	\$13.1M
Galveston County, Texas	\$6.9B	\$1.9B	\$633.8M	\$1.1B	\$287.6M	\$95.2M	\$178M	\$35.8M	\$18.5M
Gaston County, North Carolina	\$3.3B	\$739.6M	\$390.1M	\$245.5M	\$60.8M	\$28.6M	\$81.8M	\$16.6M	\$9.5M
Gwinnett County, Georgia	\$15.5B	\$4B	\$1.8B	\$4.3B	\$981.9M	\$505.5M	\$1.2B	\$252M	\$150.4M
Hall County, Georgia	\$3.1B	\$744.4M	\$357M	\$517.7M	\$109.4M	\$61.9M	\$264.2M	\$42.2M	\$33.1M
Harford County, Maryland	\$6.2B	\$1.8B	\$768.6M	\$570.6M	\$159.4M	\$70.3M	\$49.4M	\$12.4M	\$6M
Horry County, South Carolina	\$5.1B	\$1.1B	\$468.5M	\$442.2M	\$94.5M	\$40.4M	\$131.8M	\$23M	\$12M
Hudson County, New Jersey	\$14.8B	\$4.2B	\$1.8B	\$8B	\$2.3B	\$978.6M	\$2B	\$545.9M	\$247.1M
Jacksonville, Florida	\$16.3B	\$3.9B	\$1.4B	\$2.4B	\$613.4M	\$204.1M	\$401.5M	\$94.9M	\$34.6M
Knox County, Tennessee	\$9.1B	\$2.3B	\$739.7M	\$763M	\$212.6M	\$56.4M	\$149.9M	\$33M	\$12.8M
Las Vegas, Nevada	\$12.4B	\$2.9B	\$884.9M	\$3.4B	\$765.2M	\$250.8M	\$814.4M	\$140.8M	\$64.7M
Lexington County, South Carolina	\$5.8B	\$1.4B	\$536.2M	\$369M	\$81.9M	\$33.8M	\$116.6M	\$20M	\$10.6M
Lubbock County, Texas	\$5.1B	\$1.2B	\$498.5M	\$474.3M	\$116M	\$45.7M	\$58.8M	\$9.3M	\$6.7M
Mecklenburg County, North Carolina	\$22.5B	\$6.3B	\$2.6B	\$3.6B	\$945.7M	\$420.8M	\$984.9M	\$217.5M	\$114.8M

Jurisdiction	All households			Foreign-born households			Households with unauthorized immigrants		
	Spending power	Federal tax contributions	State and local tax contributions	Spending power	Federal tax contributions	State and local tax contributions	Spending power	Federal tax contributions	State and local tax contributions
Mesa, Arizona	\$8.7B	\$2B	\$960.9M	\$1.4B	\$323.8M	\$158.5M	\$364.9M	\$63.3M	\$44.4M
Monmouth County, New Jersey	\$18.5B	\$6.1B	\$2.3B	\$3.5B	\$1.2B	\$434.1M	\$484.1M	\$117.1M	\$59.9M
Montgomery County, Texas	\$12.2B	\$3.5B	\$1.1B	\$2.1B	\$596.7M	\$181.8M	\$416.8M	\$78.4M	\$44.8M
Pasco County, Florida	\$8.4B	\$1.9B	\$749M	\$1.3B	\$310.7M	\$112.8M	\$92.8M	\$17.8M	\$8.8M
Pinal County, Arizona	\$7.5B	\$1.7B	\$830.9M	\$885.4M	\$188.4M	\$99.8M	\$142.1M	\$25.6M	\$16.7M
Prince William County, cities of Manassas and Manassas Park, Virginia	\$12.3B	\$3.6B	\$1.2B	\$3.5B	\$961.8M	\$353M	\$826.6M	\$199.8M	\$84.8M
Smith County, Texas	\$3.8B	\$923M	\$373.9M	\$398.2M	\$86.9M	\$40.4M	\$127.8M	\$22.3M	\$14.1M
Tarrant County, Texas	\$38.9B	\$10.2B	\$3.6B	\$7.4B	\$1.8B	\$710.7M	\$2B	\$366.9M	\$211.6M
Tulsa County, Oklahoma	\$13.6B	\$3.3B	\$1.4B	\$1.2B	\$292.4M	\$130.2M	\$420.8M	\$76.4M	\$46.4M
Wake County, North Carolina	\$23.3B	\$6.6B	\$2.7B	\$3.9B	\$1.1B	\$448.4M	\$818.2M	\$179.3M	\$95.7M
Washington County, Arkansas	\$3.8B	\$944.2M	\$480.2M	\$451.1M	\$95.9M	\$58.9M	\$157.4M	\$24.4M	\$22.2M
Whitfield County, Georgia	\$1.5B	\$329.6M	\$174.9M	\$294.3M	\$55.4M	\$35.8M	\$159.8M	\$28.4M	\$19.6M
Yavapai County, Arizona	\$3.9B	\$857.3M	\$437.7M	\$431.2M	\$99.2M	\$46.9M	\$73.9M	\$9.8M	\$9.2M
York County, South Carolina	\$4.8B	\$1.2B	\$437.1M	\$324.4M	\$84.4M	\$29.6M	\$64.5M	\$12.9M	\$5.9M
United States	\$6.3T	\$1.7T	\$716.6B	\$1.2T	\$319.7B	\$133.1B	\$221.2B	\$50B	\$25.7B

Note: Tables A2 through A5 use a different data set than Table A1, and thus values will be different. Data not available for all jurisdictions.

Source: Author's analysis of 2012, 2013, 2014 Center for Migration Studies (2014) Estimates of the Unauthorized Population. Data set based on the augmented American Community Survey data files hosted by IPUMS (Integrated Public Use Microdata Series), 2010 to 2013. Steven Ruggles and others, "Integrated Public Use Microdata Series: Version 7.0" (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, 2017), available at <https://doi.org/10.18128/0010.V7.0>.

Endnotes

- 1 Immigration and Customs Enforcement, “287(g) Results and Participating Entities” (Washington: Immigration and Customs Enforcement, 2018), available at <https://www.ice.gov/287g>.

Note: This report analyzes jurisdictions with 287(g) agreements as of January 1, 2018. Between January 1, 2018 and publication, 17 additional jurisdictions entered into 287(g) agreements with ICE.
- 2 Anita Khashu, “The Role of Local Police: Striking a Balance Between Immigration Enforcement and Civil Liberties” (Washington: Police Foundation, 2011) available at <https://www.policefoundation.org/publication/the-role-of-local-police-striking-a-balance-between-immigration-enforcement-and-civil-liberties/>.
- 3 Magnus Lofstrom, Sarah Bohn, and Steven Raphael, “Lessons from the 2007 Legal Arizona Workers Act” (San Francisco: Public Policy Institute of California, 2011), available at http://www.ppic.org/content/pubs/report/R_311MLR.pdf.
- 4 Immigration and Customs Enforcement, “History of 287(g),” available at <https://www.ice.gov/287g> (last accessed March 2018).
- 5 Audrey Singer, Jill H. Wilson, and Brooke DeRenzis, “Immigrants, politics, and local response in suburban Washington” (Washington: Brookings Institution, 2009), available at https://www.brookings.edu/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/0225_immigration_singer.pdf; Mathew Coleman, “The Local Migration State: The Site-Specific Devolution of Immigration Enforcement in the U.S. South,” *Law & Policy* (2012): 159–190; Mathew Coleman, “Immigration Geopolitics Beyond the U.S.-Mexico Border,” *Antipode* 38 (2007): 54–76; Monica Varsanyi, “Immigration Policing Through the Backdoor: City Ordinances, the ‘Right to the City,’ and the Exclusion of Undocumented Day Laborers,” *Urban Geography* 29 (2008): 29–52; Daniel J. Hopkins, “Politicizing Places: Explaining Where and When Immigrants Provoke Local Opposition,” *The American Political Science Review* 104 (February 2010): 40–60; Amada Armenta, “From Sheriff’s Deputies to Immigration Officers: Screening Immigrant Status in a Tennessee Jail,” *Law & Policy* 34 (April 2012): 191–210; Mathew Coleman and Austin Kocher, “Detention, Deportation, Devolution, and Immigrant Incapacitation in the US, Post 9/11,” *The Geographical Journal* 177 (September 2011): 228–237; Edmond W. Caldwell Jr., “The North Carolina Sheriffs’ Association’s Perspective on the 287(g) Jail Enforcement Model,” *Popular Government* (2009); Hannah Gill and others, “Legal and Social Perspectives on Local Enforcement of Immigration under the 287(g) Program,” *Popular Government* (2009).
- 6 Singer, Wilson, and DeRenzis, “Immigrants, politics, and local response in suburban Washington”; Coleman, “The Local Migration State: The Site-Specific Devolution of Immigration Enforcement in the U.S. South”; Mathew Coleman, “Immigration Geopolitics Beyond the U.S.-Mexico Border,” *Antipode* 38 (2007): 54–76; Varsanyi, “Immigration Policing Through the Backdoor”; Hopkins, “Politicizing Places: Explaining Where and When Immigrants Provoke Local Opposition”; Armenta, “From Sheriff’s Deputies to Immigration Officers”; Coleman and Kocher, “Detention, Deportation, Devolution, and Immigrant Incapacitation in the US, Post 9/11”; Caldwell Jr., “The North Carolina Sheriffs’ Association’s Perspective on the 287(g) Jail Enforcement Model”; Gill and others, “Legal and Social Perspectives on Local Enforcement of Immigration under the 287(g) Program.”
- 7 Immigration and Customs Enforcement, “Listing of 287g Communities 2009-2017,” accessible at <https://www.ice.gov/foia/library> (last accessed March 2018).
- 8 Anna Flag, “The Opposite of Sanctuary: Where the Local Lawmen Serve as Immigration Enforcers,” *The Marshall Project*, February 20, 2017, available at <https://www.themarshallproject.org/2017/02/20/the-opposite-of-sanctuary>.
- 9 Cristina Rodriguez and others, “A Program in Flux: New Priorities and Implementation Challenges for 287(g)” (Washington: Migration Policy Institute, 2010), available at <https://www.migrationpolicy.org/research/program-flux-new-priorities-and-implementation-challenges-287g>.
- 10 Danyelle Solomon, Tom Jawetz, and Sanam Malik, “The Negative Consequences of Entangling Local Policing and Immigration Enforcement” (Washington: Center for American Progress, 2017), available at <https://www.americanprogress.org/issues/immigration/reports/2017/03/21/428776/negative-consequences-entangling-local-policing-immigration-enforcement/>.
- 11 Nik Theodore, “Insecure Communities: Latino Perceptions of Police Involvement in Immigration Enforcement,” (Chicago: Department of Urban Planning and Policy, University of Illinois at Chicago, 2013), available at https://greatcities.uic.edu/wp-content/uploads/2014/05/Insecure_Communities_Report_FINAL.pdf.
- 12 Lindsey Bever, “Hispanics ‘are going further into the shadows’ amid chilling immigration debate, police say,” *The Washington Post*, May 12, 2017, available at https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/post-nation/wp/2017/05/12/immigration-debate-might-be-having-a-chilling-effect-on-crime-reporting-in-hispanic-communities-police-say/?utm_term=.e158f50b26ad; Rob Arthur, “Latinos in Three Cities are Reporting Fewer Crimes Since Trump Took Office,” *FiveThirtyEight*, May 18, 2017, available at <https://fivethirtyeight.com/features/latinos-report-fewer-crimes-in-three-cities-amid-fears-of-deportation/>; Christopher Smart, “Fearful of deportation, unauthorized immigrants in Salt Lake City are not reporting crime, police chief says,” *The Salt Lake Tribune*, January 8, 2018, available at <https://www.sltrib.com/news/2018/01/08/fearful-of-deportation-unauthorized-immigrants-in-salt-lake-city-are-not-reporting-crime-police-chief-says/>.
- 13 Michael Coon, “Local Immigration Enforcement and Arrests of the Hispanic Population,” *Journal on Migration and Human Security* 5 (2017): 645–666, available at <http://jmhs.cmsny.org/index.php/jmhs/article/view/102>.
- 14 U.S. Department of Homeland Security, “The Performance of 287(g) Agreements,” (2010), available at https://www.oig.dhs.gov/assets/Mgmt/OIG_10-63_Mar10.pdf; Mai Thi Nguyen and Hannah Gill, “Interior immigration enforcement: The impacts of expanding local enforcement authority,” *Urban Studies* January (2015): 1–22.

- 15 Department of Homeland Security, "Statement by Secretary Napolitano on DOJ's Findings of Discriminatory Policing in Maricopa County," Press release, December 15, 2011, available at <https://www.dhs.gov/news/2011/12/15/secretary-napolitano-doj-s-findings-discriminatory-policing-maricopa-county>; Department of Justice, "Department of Justice Releases Investigative Findings on the Maricopa County Sheriff's Office," Press release, December 15, 2011, available at <https://www.justice.gov/opa/pr/departement-justice-releases-investigative-findings-maricopa-county-sheriff-s-office>.
- 16 *Ortega Melendres v. Arpaio*, May 24, 2013, available at https://www.aclu.org/sites/default/files/field_document/arpaio_decision.pdf
- 17 Joseph Flaherty, "Arpaio is Still Guilty: Despite Pardon, Judge Declines to Vacate Conviction," *Phoenix New Times*, October 20, 2017, available at <http://www.phoenixnewtimes.com/news/arpaio-is-still-guilty-despite-pardon-judge-declines-to-vacate-verdict-9799935>.
- 18 Letter from Thomas E. Perez, "United States' Investigation of the Alamance County Sheriff's Office," to Clyde B. Albright and Chuck Kitchen, September 18, 2012, available at <https://www.justice.gov/iso/opa/resources/171201291812462488198.pdf>.
- 19 Randy Capps and others, "Delegation and Divergence: 287(g) State and Local Immigration Enforcement," (Washington: Migration Policy Institute, 2011), available at <https://www.migrationpolicy.org/research/delegation-and-divergence-287-g-state-and-local-immigration-enforcement>.
- 20 Mai Thi Nguyen and Hannah Gill, "The 287(g) program: The costs and consequences of local immigration enforcement in North Carolina communities" (Chapel Hill, NC: University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, 2010), available at https://isa.unc.edu/files/2012/06/287g_report_final.pdf.
- 21 Alexi C. Cardona and Patrick Riley, "Alleged crimes minor, dozens of Collier immigrants face deportation under Trump," *Naples Daily News*, April 15, 2017, available at <https://www.naplesnews.com/story/news/local/2017/04/15/more-collier-undocumented-immigrants-face-deportation-donald-trump-us-immigration-customs-enforcement/100074864/>.
- 22 Tanvi Misra, "The Rise of Anti-Sanctuary Cities," CityLab, March 1, 2017, available at <https://www.citylab.com/equity/2017/03/the-rise-of-anti-sanctuary-cities/517377/>.
- 23 Catholic Legal Immigration Network, Inc. "The Cost of State & Local Involvement in Immigration Enforcement," (2014), available at https://cliniclegal.org/sites/default/files/cost_of_involvement_in_immigration_enforcement_version_5_mm.pdf; American Immigration Council, "The 287(g) Program: An Overview," (2017), available at <https://www.americanimmigrationcouncil.org/research/287g-program-immigration>.
- 24 Audrey Singer, Jill H. Wilson, and Brooke DeRenzis, "Immigrants, politics, and local response in suburban Washington" (Washington: Brookings Institution, 2009), available at https://www.brookings.edu/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/0225_immigration_singer.pdf; Nguyen and Gill, "The 287(g) program."
- 25 Elvia Limón, "Carrollton drops controversial ICE-police partnership after broad federal program reinstated," *The Dallas Morning News*, September 6, 2017, available at <https://www.dallasnews.com/news/carrollton/2017/09/06/carrollton-ends-controversial-287g-immigration-agreement-will-rely-secure-communities-program>; Meagan Flynn, "With Little Change After Harris County Cuts 287(g), What Was Ever the Point?" *Houston Press*, May 1, 2017, available at <http://www.houstonpress.com/news/cutting-287-g-in-harris-county-has-had-little-effect-9396699>; Dan McDonald and Norman Miller, "Police in Framingham withdraw from federal immigration program," *The MetroWest Daily News*, October 2, 2009, available at <http://www.metrowestdailynews.com/x593064993/Police-in-Framingham-withdraw-from-federal-immigration-program>; Jose Quintero, "Immigration enforcement remains controversial topic," *The Daily Press*, March 3, 2017, available at <http://www.vvdailypress.com/news/20170303/immigration-enforcement-remains-controversial-topic>; Lise Olsen, "ICE has expanded 287(g) partnerships in Texas, but some counties disagree," *Houston Chronicle*, August 4, 2017, available at <https://m.chron.com/news/houston-texas/article/ICE-has-expanded-287-g-programs-in-Texas-but-11734490.php#item-85307-tbla-5>.
- 26 Immigration and Customs Enforcement, "Secure Communities," available at <https://www.ice.gov/secure-communities/> (last accessed March 2018).
- 27 William A. Kandel, "Sanctuary Jurisdictions and Criminal Aliens: In Brief" (Washington: Congressional Research Service, 2017), available at <https://fas.org/srg/crs/homesecc/R44118.pdf>.
- 28 Immigration and Customs Enforcement, "FY 2012: ICE announces year-end removal numbers, highlights focus on key priorities and issues new national detainee guidance to further focus resources," Press release, December 20, 2012, available at <https://www.ice.gov/news/releases/fy-2012-ice-announces-year-end-removal-numbers-highlights-focus-key-priorities-and>.
- 29 U.S. Immigration and Customs Enforcement, *Fiscal Year 2017 ICE Enforcement and Removal Operations Report* (U.S. Department of Homeland Security, 2017), available at <https://www.ice.gov/sites/default/files/documents/Report/2017/iceEndOfYearFY2017.pdf>; Kristen Bialik, "Most immigrants arrested by ICE have prior criminal convictions, a big change from 2009" (Washington: Pew Research Center, 2018) available at <http://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2018/02/15/most-immigrants-arrested-by-ice-have-prior-criminal-convictions-a-big-change-from-2009/>.
- 30 Amanda Sakuma, "Jail where Sandra Bland dies now authorized to detain undocumented immigrants," *Colorlines*, July 18, 2017, available at <https://www.colorlines.com/articles/jail-where-sandra-bland-died-now-authorized-detain-undocumented-immigrants>.
- 31 Thomson Reuters, "Interested," available at <http://fingfx.thomsonreuters.com/gfx/rngs/TRUMP-EFFECT-IMMIGRATION-POLICE/010051YZ4FG/287ggraphics%20data.pdf> (last accessed March 2018).
- 32 The White House, "Press Briefing by Press Secretary Sarah Sanders," July 27, 2017, available at <https://www.whitehouse.gov/briefings-statements/press-briefing-press-secretary-sarah-sanders-072717/>.

- 33 Immigration and Customs Enforcement, "287(g) Results and Participating Entities," available at <https://www.ice.gov/factsheets/287g> (last accessed February 2018); Orange County, California, ended its 287(g) agreement under the California Values Act effective January 1, 2018. Prior to then, it was the largest jurisdiction to participate in the program, with 3.1 million residents, more than 950,000 of whom were foreign-born. See, Cindy Carcamo, "Orange County quits program that exemplified its tough stance on illegal immigration," *Los Angeles Times*, January 6, 2018, available at <http://www.latimes.com/local/california/la-me-orangecounty-halts-immigration-program-20180103-story.html>. On March 5, 2018, Hudson County, New Jersey, ended its 287(g) agreement. See, Monsy Alvarado, "Hudson County ends participation in federal immigration detention program," *NorthJersey.com*, March 2, 2018, available at <https://www.northjersey.com/story/news/2018/03/02/hudson-county-ends-participation-federal-immigration-detention-program/390586002/>.
- 34 ACLU New Jersey, "After Push from Advocates, Hudson County Ends ICE Agreement," March 2, 2018, available at <https://www.aclu-nj.org/news/2018/03/02/after-push-advocates-hudson-county-ends-ice-agreement>.
- 35 Alvarado, "Hudson County ends participation in federal immigration detention program."
- 36 U.S. Census Bureau, "American Fact Finder," 2012 ACS 5-year estimates, table B05012, Nativity in the United States, available at <https://factfinder.census.gov/> (last accessed March 2018).
- 37 Note that, due to geographic limitations, estimates for Calhoun County, Texas, and Victoria County, Texas, are aggregated. In addition, data for Virginia's Prince William-Manassas Regional Adult Detention Center includes residents of Prince William County, Manassas, and Manassas Park.
- 38 Solomon, Jawetz, and Malik, "The Negative Consequences of Entangling Local Policing and Immigration Enforcement."
- 39 Nik Theodore, "Insecure Communities: Latino Perceptions of Police Involvement in Immigration Enforcement" (Chicago: Department of Urban Planning and Policy, University of Illinois at Chicago, 2013), available at https://greatcities.uic.edu/wp-content/uploads/2014/05/Insecure_Communities_Report_FINAL.pdf.
- 40 Singer, Wilson, and DeRenzis, "Immigrants, politics, and local response in suburban Washington"; Coleman, "The Local Migration State: The Site-Specific Devolution of Immigration Enforcement in the U.S. South"; Mathew Coleman, "Immigration Geopolitics Beyond the U.S.-Mexico Border," *Antipode* 38 (2007): 54-76; Varsanyi, "Immigration Policing Through the Backdoor"; Hopkins, "Politicizing Places: Explaining Where and When Immigrants Provoke Local Opposition"; Armenta, "From Sheriff's Deputies to Immigration Officers"; Coleman and Kocher, "Detention, Deportation, Devolution, and Immigrant Incapacitation in the US, Post 9/11"; Caldwell Jr., "The North Carolina Sheriffs' Association's Perspective on the 287(g) Jail Enforcement Model"; Gill and others, "Legal and Social Perspectives on Local Enforcement of Immigration under the 287(g) Program."
- 41 Randy Capps and others, "Delegation and Divergence: 287(g) State and Local Immigration Enforcement," (Washington: Migration Policy Institute, 2011), available at <https://www.migrationpolicy.org/research/delegation-and-divergence-287g-state-and-local-immigration-enforcement>. Immigration and Customs Enforcement. "Listing of 287g Communities 2009-2017," via FOIA Library, accessible at <https://www.ice.gov/foia/library>.
- 42 Singer, Wilson, and DeRenzis, "Immigrants, politics, and local response in suburban Washington"; Coleman, "The Local Migration State: The Site-Specific Devolution of Immigration Enforcement in the U.S. South"; Mathew Coleman, "Immigration Geopolitics Beyond the U.S.-Mexico Border," *Antipode* 38 (2007): 54-76; Varsanyi, "Immigration Policing Through the Backdoor"; Hopkins, "Politicizing Places: Explaining Where and When Immigrants Provoke Local Opposition"; Armenta, "From Sheriff's Deputies to Immigration Officers"; Coleman and Kocher, "Detention, Deportation, Devolution, and Immigrant Incapacitation in the US, Post 9/11"; Caldwell Jr., "The North Carolina Sheriffs' Association's Perspective on the 287(g) Jail Enforcement Model"; Gill and others, "Legal and Social Perspectives on Local Enforcement of Immigration under the 287(g) Program."
- 43 Randy Capps and others, "Implications of immigration enforcement activities for the well-being of children in immigrant families: A review of the literature" (Washington: Urban Institute and Migration Policy Institute, 2015), available at <https://www.migrationpolicy.org/research/implications-immigration-enforcement-activities-well-being-children-immigrant-families>.
- 44 Heather Koball and others, "Health and social service needs of US-citizen children with detained or deported immigrant parents," (Washington: Urban Institute and Migration Policy Institute, 2015), available at <https://www.urban.org/sites/default/files/publication/71131/2000405-Health-and-Social-Service-Needs-of-US-Citizen-Children-with-Detained-or-Deported-Immigrant-Parents.pdf>; Leila Schochet, "Trump's Immigration Policies are Harming American Children" (Washington: Center for American Progress, 2017), available at <https://www.americanprogress.org/issues/early-childhood/reports/2017/07/31/436377/trumps-immigration-policies-harming-american-children/>.
- 45 Magnus Lofstrom, Sarah Bohn, and Steven Raphael, "Lessons from the 2007 Legal Arizona Workers Act," (San Francisco: Public Policy Institute of California, 2011), available at http://www.ppic.org/content/pubs/report/R_311MLR.pdf.
- 46 Bob Davis, "The thorny economics of illegal immigration," *The Wall Street Journal*, February 9, 2016, available at <https://www.msn.com/en-us/money/markets/the-thorny-economics-of-illegal-immigration/ar-BBpguEo>.
- 47 Dane Stangler and Jason Wiens, "The Economic Case for Welcoming Immigrant Entrepreneurs," (Kansas City: Ewing Marion Kauffman Foundation, 2015), available at <https://www.kauffman.org/what-we-do/resources/entrepreneurship-policy-digest/the-economic-case-for-welcoming-immigrant-entrepreneurs>.
- 48 David Dyssegaard Kallick, "Bringing Vitality to Main Street: How Immigrant Small Businesses Help Local Economies Grow" (Washington: New York: Fiscal Policy Institute; Americas Society/Council of the Americas, 2015), available at <http://fiscalpolicy.org/immigrant-main-street-business-owners-playing-an-outsized-role>.
- 49 Ibid.
- 50 New American Economy, "Entrepreneurship," available at <http://www.newamericaneconomy.org/issues/entrepreneurship/> (last accessed February 2018).
- 51 Data on business ownership is available for 22 jurisdictions with 287(g) agreements and on Main Street business ownership for 13 jurisdictions.
- 52 New American Economy, "The power of the purse: How Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders contribute to the U.S. economy," (New York: New American Economy, 2017), available at <http://www.newamericaneconomy.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/10/NAE-AAPI-v14.pdf>.

- 53 This does not parse out tax contributions to Social Security and Medicare or employers' contributions.
- 54 Randy Capps and others, "Implications of immigration enforcement activities for the well-being of children in immigrant families: A review of the literature" (Washington: Urban Institute and Migration Policy Institute, 2015), available at <https://www.migrationpolicy.org/research/implications-immigration-enforcement-activities-well-being-children-immigrant-families>.
- 55 Mai Thi Nguyen and Hannah Gill, "Interior immigration enforcement: The impacts of expanding local enforcement authority," *Urban Studies* (2015): 1–22.
- 56 Tom Jawetz, "Trump's Deportation Rules Will Make America Unsafe Again," *Fortune*, February 24, 2017, available at <http://fortune.com/2017/02/24/donald-trump-public-safety-executive-order-deportation-immigration-illegal-undocumented/>; American Immigration Lawyers Association, "Cogs in the Deportation Machine: How Policy Changes by the Trump Administration Have Touched Every Major Area of Enforcement" (2018), available at <http://www.aila.org/deportationmachine>; Executive Order Number 13768, "Enhancing Public Safety in the Interior of the United States," 3 C.F.R. 8799, 2017, available at <https://www.whitehouse.gov/presidential-actions/executive-order-enhancing-public-safety-interior-united-states/>.
- 57 Hudson County's decision to end its 287(g) agreement brings the total to 75, not 76 signed agreements.
- 58 Robert Warren, "Democratizing Data about Unauthorized Residents in the United States: Estimates and Public use Data, 2010 to 2013," *Journal on Migration and Human Security* (2014), available at <http://jmhs.cmsny.org/index.php/jmhs/article/view/38>.
- 59 Silva Mathema, "Keeping families together" (Washington: Center for American Progress, 2017), accessible at <https://www.americanprogress.org/issues/immigration/reports/2017/03/16/428335/keeping-families-together/>.

Our Mission

The Center for American Progress is an independent, nonpartisan policy institute that is dedicated to improving the lives of all Americans, through bold, progressive ideas, as well as strong leadership and concerted action. Our aim is not just to change the conversation, but to change the country.

Our Values

As progressives, we believe America should be a land of boundless opportunity, where people can climb the ladder of economic mobility. We believe we owe it to future generations to protect the planet and promote peace and shared global prosperity.

And we believe an effective government can earn the trust of the American people, champion the common good over narrow self-interest, and harness the strength of our diversity.

Our Approach

We develop new policy ideas, challenge the media to cover the issues that truly matter, and shape the national debate. With policy teams in major issue areas, American Progress can think creatively at the cross-section of traditional boundaries to develop ideas for policymakers that lead to real change. By employing an extensive communications and outreach effort that we adapt to a rapidly changing media landscape, we move our ideas aggressively in the national policy debate.

Center for American Progress

