

A Report on the State of Immigrant Inclusion in Florida

June 2021

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Disclaimer

The authors alone are responsible for the content of this report.

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OVERVIEW

The Forward Together Florida Coalition is thrilled to present The State of Immigrant Inclusion in Florida Report, providing local governments and nonprofits with the research and resources for informed policy and decision making related to strategic planning around immigrant inclusion. This report is the result of a collaboration between statewide coalitions in Florida, practitioners and researchers across the country, who came together as a part of the Forward Together program¹ of Weavetales. Forward Together is a statewide project aimed at building an effective model for inclusion in Florida. Its goal is to devise goals for a more welcoming and diverse Florida in the next 10 to 20 years.

This report consists of three sections and is organized as follows. The first section provides an overview of the history on immigration in Florida and the conceptualization of key terms. Section two consists of three empirical studies that examines the state of immigrant inclusion in Florida. The final section compiles ten recommendations that have policy and practice implications on creating more inclusive communities in Florida. There are also recommendations given throughout this report.

Some of the key findings of this report are the following:

- (1) Cities in Florida are, on average, not that inclusive towards immigrants.² The estimated level of inclusion is between to .75 and 1.25 for all incorporated cities, which translates to very low to low on the nine-point Immigrant Inclusion Scale (Appendix A).
- (2) The estimated average level of immigrant inclusion for local governments is very low, ranging between .32 to .68. We are 95% confident that these estimates are correct.
- (3) Local governments in Florida remain considerably exclusive even when the immigrant population is sizable relative to the median immigrant population size.
- (4) Levels of immigrant inclusion in Florida vary based upon the city population size, wherein the larger the city population, the more inclusive the city will be.
- (5) Local governments in Florida do many things to support the immigrant community. Yet, our data suggests that there is an overrepresentation of initiatives aiming to celebrate immigrant culture over promoting immigrants' rights and protecting immigrants from deportation.

¹ <https://www.weavetales.org/forward-together>

² See visualization here:

<https://www.google.com/maps/d/viewer?mid=16sWbZh2GYPV18AIYynt90bD0Sfoodmso&ll=28.253610952401193%2C-83.6266723&z=7>

LITERATURE REVIEW

HISTORY OF IMMIGRATION IN FLORIDA

Marianne Quijano

Since the sixteenth century, Florida has been a refuge for slave fugitives, indigenous travelers, pirates, and colonial settlers. Frequently the target of Spanish, British, French, and Dutch Atlantic geopolitics, Florida was a site of cross-cultural encounters among multiple, colliding European empires (Landers, 2014). Porous borders and cultural pluralism defined Florida in the Atlantic World. Nonetheless, colonial Florida was the site of violence through exploited labor among indigenous and African slaves (Cave, 2017). Spanish Floridians positioned the peninsula as an asylum for slaves fleeing harsher slavery in British territories. By offering sanctuary to fugitive slaves, early Floridians approached migration as a way of articulating their empire's geopolitics (Landers, 1984).

Florida's borders shifted from being Spanish, British, and finally American for its duration as a colonial territory, and Florida waned in its reputation as an asylum for colonial outsiders. After the U.S. acquired Florida in 1819, one of the major migrations that occurred was the forced removal of nearly 5,000 Seminole Indians in the following decades to eliminate possible sites for runaway slaves to find refuge and for more open land for white planters. The Seminoles struggled through warfare against Florida's slave-owning planters, whose encroachment threatened to disrupt the Seminoles' ancestral ties with the land (Strang, 2014). White settlement in Florida under U.S. jurisdiction came at the expense of exiling indigenous inhabitants of Florida's land. After facing forced removals to the west of the Mississippi River by the U.S. and state governments, Seminoles and other indigenous nations re-created their societies. Decades later, descendants of those Seminoles still find their lives shaped by those early forced removals. Some, who took part in the U.S.'s more contemporary military actions as servicemen, have even noticed how references to the U.S.-Seminole Wars still appeared in U.S. military's speeches and rituals during later Vietnam War and Gulf Wars (Dunbar-Ortiz, 2014).

During the end of the nineteenth century, Florida's industrialization projects attracted more laborers, merchants, and farmers of European and Asian origins to the state, while thousands of African Americans began leaving the state as part of the Great Migration out of racially hostile southern states (Gannon, 2003; Shofner, 1979). Small informal "colonies" of non-Anglo immigrants—including Danish, Swedish, and Japanese immigrants—began forming in South Florida in particular. Although not all of these "colonies" lasted long, they offered a burst of productivity, manpower, and purchasing power for developing Florida's economy and land (Pozzetta, 1974, p. 53). Chinese migrants also settled and provided labor on plantations, railroads, lumber and turpentine camps or took part in founding grocery stores. Nonetheless, by the turn of the century, Chinese migrants increasingly became the target of anti-immigrant nativism and exclusionary federal and state

policies. Among some of the “colonies” that endured despite the rise of nativism was the Japanese Yamato colony in South Florida. Japanese immigrants, who formed part of Yamato since 1904, ranged in their socioeconomic classes and professional skills. Yamato’s founders were college-educated businessmen, but others were also farmers and real-estate businessmen (Mohl, 1996, p. 270–71). While much of those living in Yamato returned to Japan after World War II, some remained in South Florida toward the end of the century. Still, all physical evidence of the colony vanished after the 1970s (Pozzetta & Kersey, Jr., 1976).

During this same period of the late-nineteenth century, Cuban immigrants also began to arrive on the peninsula. Cuba’s Ten Years War with Spain for its independence and the decline of Cuba’s cigar industry in Florida pushed Cuban migrants to settle for work in Tampa and Key West. The latter city offered a productive new location for Vicente Martínez Ybor’s Cuban cigar factory. When José Martí sought to provoke enthusiasm for Cuban independence among exiles in the U.S., Florida-based Cubans were among the most enthusiastic in forming the transnational Cuban independence movement (Pérez, Jr., 1978). White and black Cubans took part in the international revolutionary effort for independence from Spain. At this time, black Cubans who came to South Florida also worked in journalism and labor activism. Because black Cubans faced exclusion from some of their white compatriots, they formed networks and forging families with African Americans in South Florida beyond “Ybor City” ((Greenbaum, 2010, p. 57). During this period, Cubans left their mark in Florida with their labor union solidarity through protests and strikes. However, because of stubborn racial divisions and Florida’s nativism, this labor activism among Cuban migrants declined after 1901. The collapse of their union solidarity further intensified the extent of racial and ethnic divisions within the Latinx and Caribbean immigrant community for the remainder of Tampa’s history in the twentieth century.

Post-World War II Migrants and Wartime Refugees from Asia

The disparate experiences of different Asian immigrant communities reflect how U.S. war and foreign policy shape how directions in migration shift or intensify. After World War II, the U.S. passed the New Immigration Act of 1965, which reversed the previously exclusionary immigration policies of the 1920s. The U.S.’s heightened presence in Cold War-era Asia provided opportunities for some of Asia’s men and women to become members of the U.S. military or form families with servicemen. For Philippine immigration, the spread of the U.S. overseas military presence was a crucial component. U.S. bases in the Philippines became places for recruiting Filipinos into military service. Furthermore, the U.S.’s large naval bases in Florida served as convenient landing points for Filipinos. By 1970, roughly 14,000 Filipinos were employed in the Navy’s ships or ports and had a chance of arriving in Florida (Mohl, 1996).

The violence of Cold War-era geopolitics with China and Southeast Asian countries transformed the flow of migration from these countries into a calculated foreign policy action by U.S. lawmakers. With China as a new communist adversary in its midst, the U.S. began accepting up to 2,000 Chinese refugees per year, or more than 32,000 in total, during the 1950s alone (Mohl, 1996). The U.S.’s

engagement in the Vietnam War ultimately led to the largest number of wartime refugees arriving in Florida for decades to come. Among them were also refugees from Cambodia, Laos, and Hmong whom the U.S. had granted special legal protections to as wartime refugees from the fallout of its wars. Ultimately, wartime refugees from Asia during and after World War II flocked to Florida in numbers proportional to how “hot” the U.S. military Cold War policy in their countries of origin became (Mohl, 1996, p. 277). Because Florida’s military bases were where refugees were processed as they arrived in the U.S., Florida was a logical place to rebuild their home life. In subsequent decades and into the twenty-first century, refugee and immigrant communities fleeing authoritarianism and military violence still recall and share their life stories, especially with younger generations (Omeye, 2015).

Cuban Immigration & Haitian Maritime Deterrence

After Cuba’s 1959 Revolution, the influx of Cuban migrants came to the U.S. and South Florida in multiple major waves beginning right after the 1959 revolution. Some major waves include President Johnson’s Freedom Flight Operation, the Mariel boatlift of 1980, and the 1994 Balsero crisis. The first wave consisted of wealthier supporters of the former U.S.-backed dictator, Fulgencio Batista, who were fleeing Castro’s newly installed socialist regime. However, many in the later waves fled economic and political uncertainty and were more ethnically diverse (Garcia, 1997). After 1966, the U.S.’s Cuban Adjustment Act offered Cuban migrants special avenues to earn U.S. residency statuses. The 1966 Act allowed Cuban refugees who entered U.S. waters a chance at residency a year after receiving legal asylum. The Clinton Administration, by 1995, revised this act to render only refugees who physically set foot on U.S. soil eligible for this special status.

In contrast, in the late Cold War, Haitian refugees also traveled to Florida by seas to flee dictatorial terror and political turmoil but faced harsher physical and legal barriers. The U.S. fortified its maritime immigration policing and deterrence in response to their migration (Loyd & Mountz, 2018). The U.S. government justified its treatment of Cuban and Haitian refugees by claiming the former were political refugees and the latter were economic migrants (Cartright, 2006). Under Reagan, by 1981, Haitians no longer legally qualified as “refugees,” as international law protected refugees from repatriation and thus qualified for deportation. Even so, by 1992, the U.S. Supreme Court reversed the former ban on repatriation of intercepted “refugees.” During the 2000s and to the present, Haitian refugees still risk indefinite detention, racial discrimination, and physical violence in South Florida’s four main immigrant prisons, including the Krome Detention Center in Miami (Agarwal et al., 2019).

During this same decade of the 1990s, Cuban refugees also began to face more risks of detention and deportation from these changing U.S. maritime policing practices. Cuban migrants in the 1990s continued flocking to Florida in small homemade rafts, with as many of 75% of the more than 35,000 them dying in the process). Although the 1994 Balsero crisis was smaller in its number of Cuban refugees, it led to a shift in U.S. policy in directing more intercepted refugees in Guantanamo naval base and camps in the now-closed Panama Canal Zone

(Ackerman, 1996). Still, the Cuban Adjustment Act of 1966 continued to protect Cuban migrants in the 1990s, despite the institution of stricter maritime migration policies between Cuba and the U.S. in 1994. Compared to other Caribbean migrants, Cubans in the late 1990s still had a higher chance of avoiding repatriation. They did this by finding more effective ways of physically landing in Floridian soil and avoiding interception in U.S. waters so that they could reap the longstanding protections of the 1966 Act (Henken, 2005).

By the 1990s and 2000s, Central American, Brazilian, and Mexican immigrants trickled into Florida after experiencing civil wars and neoliberal economic policies in their countries of origin. Latin American militaries' violent counterinsurgency campaigns coupled with policies of socioeconomic austerity and increased free trade policies left communities susceptible to pronounced danger and poverty, prompting several families to flee to survive (Alvarez, 2020). In this period, South Florida ceased to be the only option for settlement: many migrants settled in Orlando, Jupiter, Naples, and other suburban and rural areas. The first waves of Guatemalans, who fled Guatemala's civil war, filled jobs as international industrial workers in the city of Jupiter. In the more rural Immokalee, Guatemalan and Mexican migrants worked as agricultural laborers, the city increasingly serving as a significant entry point for indigenous communities from Guatemala and Southern Mexico (Williams et al., 2009). To this day, migrant farmworkers maintain community and international ties in these Floridian towns, often cooperating with labor organizing work to call for improved and more humane labor rights for themselves.

In conclusion, the centuries-long history of immigration in Florida consists of families and workers—free and unfree— searching for a haven free from violence and instability. The same state that welcomed Cuban exiles and Italian immigrants also expelled indigenous peoples and imprisoned Haitian refugees before deporting them. The violence of new and old empires, the abuses of internal military conflicts, and a globalized economy sow instability for vulnerable communities, old and new flows of migration to Florida reanimating remains a serious possibility. Bearing this history in mind, policymakers and immigrant advocates today must continue to consider what steps to take in shaping Florida's future as a site of refuge rather than displacement.

DEFINING IMMIGRANT INCLUSION

Zayda Sorrell-Medina

This section advances a conceptualization of the term immigrant inclusion. This conceptualization is applied to the empirical studies in section III and can be useful for practice.

Scholars of immigration studies have used the term immigrant inclusion in a number of ways: including minority groups in local politics (Vermeulen, 2005), legalizing immigrant groups (Nicholls et al., 2016), differentiated opportunity structures and diverse pathways of mobility in the city (Bean et al., 2012, p. 188), immigrant legal access to national social welfare benefits (Sainsbury, 2012) laws dictating immigrants' rights and access to benefits (Chauvin & Garcés-Mascareñas, 2012), and pro-immigrant activity (Okamoto & Ebert, 2016). Based on the scholarly works, immigrant inclusion can be broadly understood as the process through which an immigrant is included in a particular setting.

There is also conceptual overlap between the concept immigrant inclusion and citizenship. Therefore, it can be fruitful to draw from citizenship frameworks in conceptualizing immigrant inclusion. One aspect of citizenship is legal status (Bloemraad et al., 2008; Bosniak, 2000). Citizenship, however, extends beyond legal status. It also has a cultural dimension which refers to societal ideas on who is viewed as a valuable member of society (Bloemraad et al., 2019). It also touches upon feelings of belonging and identity in the nation state (Bosniak, 2000). Citizenship is also conceptualized as a formal and substantive status (Brubaker, 1989, p.3). Formal citizenship refers to legal membership as exemplified by the acquisition of legal status in the nation state. Substantive citizenship represents a combination of civil, political, and social rights. The civil dimension refers to rights such as freedom of speech, thought, faith and justice. The political dimension refers to freedom to organize and participate in social movements. The social dimension refers to rights related to access to education, health care, employment and housing, and other welfare.

Following from the literature, the present study identifies three areas of immigrant inclusion: cultural, legal, and rights (civil, political, social). That is not to say that there are no other types of inclusion, but rather, these are the dominate ones identified in the literature for which this study draws upon. Table 1 provides an overview of each concept, its definition, and theoretical and empirical literature that provides support for its conceptualization.

Apart from the multi-dimensional characteristic of immigrant inclusion, the concept also manifests at the micro, meso, and macro levels. At the individual level, immigrant inclusion can be operationalized as an individual's degree of citizenship or membership in a particular setting. It can be specified with individual level indicators such as legal status, rights, and feelings of perceived welcomeness. An example of how inclusion manifests at the individual level is reflected in the context of reception scale developed by Schwartz et al., (2014, p. 3). The author operationalize this concept as an immigrant's perception of welcomeness,

opportunity structure and availability of supports in the receiving community. Here, the unit of analysis is the individual's perception.

In contrast, immigrant-inclusion at the meso and macro levels occurs across meso and macro level units of analysis. Examples of meso unit analysis include organizations, cities and counties. Examples of macro level analysis include countries and regions. Given this work is focused on immigrant inclusion at the city level, the following paragraphs elaborates on how immigrant inclusion manifests at the meso level.

The work of sociologist Robert Park helps to understand how immigrant inclusion occurs at the city level. He notes that a city can be conceived as an institution that comprise machinery and instrumentalities through which human nature operates. It has a moral character and physical organization that produces a distinct expression (Park, 1915, pp. 577-578). In other words, he conceives cities as entities that comprise multiple institutions. Combined, these entities contribute to the city's overall expression. Applying this theoretical idea suggest that when it comes to measuring the degree to which a city is inclusive, it is necessary to consider the outputs of the universe of the social actors that are nested in the city. This includes, for example, the local government, the school districts, federal buildings, county jails, and companies.

Table 2 provides a visual on how immigrant inclusion manifests across multiple dimensions and units of analysis as articulated in the previous paragraphs. To illustrate, cultural inclusion at the micro level can be conceived as the degree to which an immigrant feels a sense of belonging. However, at the meso and macro levels it refers to the degree to which meso and macro level social actors (e.g. organizations, institutions, local and state governments) contribute to immigrant inclusion sense of belonging.

In conclusion, this study defines immigrant inclusion as the degree to which an immigrant is welcomed or valued in a particular setting. Based upon the literature, the study identifies three dimensions of inclusion: cultural, rights, and legal. Additionally, inclusion also manifest at the micro (individual), meso (organizational, city, county) and macro (regional, country) levels. This research draws from this conceptualization to empirically measure the state of immigrant inclusion in Florida.

Table 1. Empirical and theoretical literature on immigrant inclusion

Type	Description	Sample Theoretical and Empirical Literature
Cultural Inclusion	Activities that aim to preserve or promote immigrant culture, create a sense of immigrant cultural belonging, or create positive social images of immigrants	Bloemraad et al., 2019; Salami et al., (2017); Ejorh, 2011; Nichols et al., 2017; Okamoto & Ebert, 2016
Legal Inclusion	Activities that contribute to immigrant legalization or deportation defense	Bloemraad et al., 2019; Bosniak, 2000; Kubal, 2013; Nicholls, 2014; Mayblin & James, 2018; Wong & Garcia, 2015; Lustig & Lacopino, 2008
Social Rights Inclusion	Activities that contribute to immigrant rights as it related to access to education, health care, employment and housing, and other welfare	Marshall, 1950; Brubaker, 1989; Strug & Mason, 2008; Abamosa, 2020
Civil Rights Inclusion	Activities that contribute to immigrant rights such as freedom of speech, thought, faith and justice	Marshall, 1950; Brubaker, 1989; Bloemraad, 2006
Political Rights Inclusion	Activities that contribute to immigrant freedom to organize and participate in social movements and political processes	Marshall, 1950; Brubaker, 1989; Bloemraad, 2006; Cordero et al., 2008; Landolt et al., 2011

Table 2. Conceptualization of immigrant inclusion

	Legal Inclusion	Rights Inclusion	Cultural Inclusion
Micro Level Inclusion	The degree to which an immigrant has been legalized in terms of legal status	The degree to which an immigrant has certain rights	The degree to which an immigrant feels a sense of belonging in society
Meso and Macro Level Inclusion	Actions by meso and macro level social actors contribute to immigrant legalization	Actions by meso and macro level social actors that contribute to immigrants rights acquisition	Actions by meso and macro level social actors that contribute to immigrant sense of belonging in society and cultural acceptance

DEFINING IMMIGRANT EXCLUSION

Zayda Sorrell-Medina

This work defines immigrant exclusion as actions or inactions that do not include, welcome or value immigrants in the community. This work conceives two ways that immigrants are excluded in society: through active and passive forms of exclusion.

Active immigrant exclusion can be understood as hostile acts. The legal violence framework advanced by Menjívar & Abrego (2012) helps to understand this type of exclusion. This framework emphasizes the role of the law in contributing to the violent or injurious effects of immigrants. Such examples include deportation, detention, family separation, verbal and physical abuse, and the perpetuation of cultural stereotypes and tropes.

Yet, acts of hostility are not the only way that immigrants experience exclusion. For example, a city can be exclusionary by doing nothing at all to promote, include, welcome or value immigrants to their community. This refers to passive immigrant exclusion and occurs when entities—such as local governments—fail to meet the needs of immigrants. This failure can be intentional or unintentional, but more the latter than the former. It can occur for many reasons, including the lack of awareness of immigrant needs and federal policies that mandate inclusion, limited financial resources, or other pressing priorities. Whatever the reason, the outcome is exclusion, wherein immigrants experience harm and marginality.

Government failure theory (Weisbrod, 1975) can help explain passive exclusion, as this theory highlights the role of the government in fulfilling the needs of some individuals in the populace while concomitantly failing to meet the needs of others. Essentially, the government cannot meet the needs of everyone in the political community. In this way, it will sometimes fail to meet the needs of certain individuals. An example of passive exclusion is when a local police department does not provide language assistance to individuals who are not proficient in English. Individuals who are not proficient in English are excluded and deprived of access, which can lead to negative consequences.

Another aspect to understanding exclusion is assessing its relationship to inclusion. Are the two concepts independent or dependent of each other? Is it possible for an entity—such as a local government—to be neither inclusive nor exclusive, thus employing neutrality? Such theoretical considerations have measurement implications. The example of a local government is provided to illustrate this point.

To assume that immigrant inclusion and exclusion are independent suggests that a local government can either be inclusive, exclusive, or neutral. In contrast, to take the position that the inclusion and exclusion are dependent upon one another suggest that a local government with low degrees of inclusion by default exhibit high degrees of inclusion. Here, a

neutral stance does not exist. The two theoretical positions have implications on how inclusion is measured. A value of zero on an inclusion scale that applies the former theoretical position can be interpreted as low degrees of inclusion. It says nothing about the degree of exclusion. In contrast, a scale that takes the latter theoretical position would suggest that low degrees of inclusion concomitantly suggest high degrees of exclusion.

This work asserts that inclusion and exclusion are dependent upon one another. Therefore, a neutral position does not exist. In this view, local governments and cities are not either inclusive or exclusive. They are simultaneously inclusive and exclusive in others. An example is when a local government launches a program that has criteria of inclusion. Such criteria would naturally include some while concomitantly excluding others. This view departs from current literature, which views the two concepts as a bifactorial construct with positive and negative dimensions that are independent of one another (see Schwartz et al., 2014).

In sum, this work conceives immigrant exclusion as acts or inactions that do not welcome, value, or include immigrants. It occurs in both passive and active ways. Further, inclusion and exclusion are dependent upon each other, which implies that low degrees of inclusion in a particular city denote high degrees of exclusion and vice versa. This advanced conceptualization of immigrant exclusion has implications for city planning. Namely, it invites city officials to rethink their approach to diversity and inclusion initiatives, as it brings to the forefront that local governments are exclusive—even if the exclusion is not intentional.

IDENTITY AND IMMIGRANT INCLUSION

Spencer Collins and Zayda Sorrell-Medina

This section explores the intersection between immigrant identity and their inclusion in American society. It reveals the role of identity in explaining immigrant inclusion and exclusion. It also underscores the need for local governments to recognize these realities in order to effectively create more inclusive cities.

To begin, the concept of identity is abstract. It can be understood as a conglomeration of both outside factors as well as internal sentiments. It can be how one sees oneself, or how the world sees them, or a combination of the two. Identity is also multifaceted.

Schwartz, Montgomery, and Briones (2006) define identity as the “synthesis of personal, social, and cultural self-conceptions,” and that personal identity differs from this slightly from this and it is defined as “the goals, values, and beliefs that an individual adopts and holds,” (Schwartz, et al., 2006). For refugees and immigrants, there tend to be more obstacles to establishing a strong sense of identity within themselves, due to the challenges of leaving one’s home country and attempting to integrate into a new society with foreign cultures and traditions (Jabouin-Monnay, 2016). Although previous research does not agree on a concise definition of identity, Resende draws a distinct line between identity and national identity (Resende, 2009). While national identity and self-identity can be merged for American born citizens, this is not the case for immigrants and refugees as many are perceived as perpetual outsiders.

Trouble often arises when one’s own sense of identity does not align with the identity that they are labeled with. Since identity can be so complex and multifaceted for refugees and immigrants, it can be difficult for native born Americans to grasp (Misiaszek, 2019). Physical characteristics may not align with outside perceptions. Someone who is from Jamaica for example, may come to the U.S. and be identified as black, when they self-identify as Jamaican, and then have to defend their own identity (Misiaszek, 2019). Even the vernacular that Haitian immigrants use in the U.S. makes it clear that they wish to be seen as separate from other black minority groups (Etienne, 2020). This sense of identity can also vary significantly within families. First, second, and third generation immigrants develop significantly different senses of identity. First generation immigrants tend to view their country of origin as home, maintaining many of the cultural norms and traditions, while their children view the place they were born as home, and adopt American culture (Dorancy, 2015).

Immigrant identity plays an important role when it comes to their inclusion and exclusion in American society. Inclusion here refers to the extent to which an immigrant is valued, welcomed or included in a particular setting, such as a city or a country. Throughout history, immigrant

inclusion has been undermined through discriminatory policies that are based upon notions of racism (Ngai, 2004) and ethnic selection (FitzGerald & Cook-Martin, 2014). This is evident with policies such as the 1790 Naturalization Act, limiting naturalization to free white persons; the 1882 Chinese Exclusion Act, barring migration from China for over fifty years; and the 1924 Immigration Act, a policy that placed strict quotas on immigrants that favored those from western European countries.

Contemporary immigration policies and practices remain racialized (Sweeny, 2014; Ngai, 2004). One example is the 1986 Immigration Reform and Control Act section 287 (g), which allows local governments to enter federal agreements to enforce immigration policy. This measure provides states and local governments “newfound powers to discriminate on the basis of alienage or noncitizenship status” (Varsanyi, 2008, p. 877). A Department of Justice report³ found that the sheriff and deputies in Alamance county in North Carolina routinely discriminate against Latinos in a number of ways, including by explicitly targeting them at traffic stops and masking their discriminatory practices.

The role of identity—and race, ethnicity, and nationality in particular—in contributing to the exclusion of immigrants in society is further highlighted in scholarship. For instance, it is well noted that Cubans have received special legal treatment under the Cuban Adjustment Act of 1966 granting automatic residency status. However, immigrants facing similar economic and political conditions such as Haitians and Central Americans do not receive such treatment (FitzGerald & Cook-Martin, 2014; Henken, 2005). The United States border patrol has been found to discriminate against unaccompanied minors who are Mexican nationals by failing to properly identify potential victims of trafficking (Aramayo, 2015). Moreover, Mexicans have experienced generations of exclusion, despite their legalization and incorporation into American society (Tellez & Ortiz, 2008). State sanctioned anti-immigrant measures reinforce divisive cultural norms that contribute to immigrant exclusion by other social actors. This is demonstrated through the exclusion that immigrants face by the police (Sweeny, 2014), the housing sector (Varsanyi, 2008), the media (Nichols et al., 2017), and nonprofit organizations (Jones-Correa, 2005).

In sum, historical and empirical evidence thus reveal that the exclusion that immigrants experience has long been due identity factors, including race, ethnicity, and nationality. This reality underscores the deeply rooted racism embedded within the immigration system. Hence, when it comes to establishing immigrant inclusion, it is necessary to acknowledge these historical and contemporary realities. Local governments enacting inclusionary efforts should recognize that immigrants are subject to differential treatment due to identity factors such as race, ethnicity, and nationality. This underscores the need to recognize

³ Available here: <https://www.justice.gov/opa/pr/justice-department-releases-investigative-findings-alamance-county-nc-sheriff-s-office>

the disparate treatment that immigrants experience due to identity factors, and the need for more equitable immigration policy measures.

Against this backdrop, a starting place for local governments is to recognize the common humanity and shared values among immigrants and the native born. That is, it is necessary to see the contribution to immigrants in American society. The immigration and citizenship literature refers to this as cultural inclusion, or who is viewed as a valuable member in society as indicated by societal attitudes and public representations (Bloemraad et al., 2019). There are several ways in which local actors, such as nonprofits and governments, can contribute to immigrant cultural inclusion. Such examples include cultural awareness and exchange activities and efforts that disabuse cultural stereotypes. Other examples include trainings among the general population and local governments on racism, diversity and inclusion. Of course, this is just a starting place on the spectrum of inclusion and does not necessarily guarantee other types of inclusion such as rights and legalization. Nevertheless, in order to establish more inclusive communities, it is necessary to understand and acknowledge that exclusion is maintained through racism, ethnic selection, and false hierarchies of human value.

LANGUAGE ACCESS

Laura Gonzales, Hannah Townley, and Moss Caballero

Language access in Florida

Language access barriers impact individuals who speak languages other than English across the United States. In Florida, 29.1 percent of people speak a language other than English at home (U.S. Census Bureau, 2021). Furthermore, many individuals identified as having “Limited English Proficiency” (LEP) are essential agricultural workers who live at least part of the year in rural areas of the state (Rural Women’s Health Project, 2021). On April 21, 2020, amidst the COVID-19 pandemic, 40 organizations in Florida called on Florida Governor Ron DeSantis and other state leaders to provide more resources for language access in the state, noting that the lack of information available to LEP individuals in Florida is a direct violation of Title VI of the 1964 Civil Rights Act and its implementing regulations, including Executive Order 13166 (Southern Poverty Law Center, 2020).

Providing language access to individuals who prefer to get information in languages other than English is mandatory for any institution receiving federal funding. However, in rural areas such as North Central Florida, providing adequate language access is a challenge, particularly because multilingual communities in this region are not as visible as they might be in the rest of the state. For example, Florida is one of the top ten hosts of migrant seasonal farm workers, along with Arkansas, California, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, North Carolina, Oklahoma, Texas, and Washington (Acury et al., 2010). Because a majority of migrant seasonal farm workers in Florida travel to rural parts of the state from Latin American countries (e.g., Mexico, Guatemala), many U.S. agencies in Florida assume that these individuals speak Spanish. However, it has been documented that many migrant seasonal farm workers in Florida speak Indigenous languages from their home countries, and that the lack of language services in Indigenous languages within Florida becomes a limitation for Indigenous language speakers seeking to access healthcare and other essential services (Arcury et al., 2010).

The state of Florida is also home to multiple immigrant, refugee, and migrant communities who speak a wide variety of languages, including (but not limited to) Spanish, Haitian Creole, French, Portuguese, Mandarin Chinese, Tagalog, Arabic, and Vietnamese (Statistical Atlas, 2021). While official information sources document these among the top languages spoken in Florida, it’s also important to recognize that documentation measures, such as the US Census, do not always capture the extent of the diversity present in a particular context. Thus, agencies and organizations need to establish mechanisms for engaging multilingual communities, in

order to get a better sense of the actual language needs present in any given part of the state.

It is important that members of our community have the resources that they need to navigate through day-to-day activities. Language Access services aid in things such as doctors' appointments and engagement with government agencies. Language Access is an essential part of communicating with our community members. Resources such as public health information, public safety, etc. are items that must be available to all. Language access is a right that must be protected.

Translation and Interpretation

One way in which organizations and agencies can better serve multilingual community members in Florida is by extending offerings of language assistance. Language access has many components, including but not limited to the translation of information from one language to another. When discussing translation efforts in any organization or event, it's important to note that there is a difference between *translation*, or the written transformation of information from one language to the other, and *interpretation*, which is the verbal transformation of information from one language to the other. Translation and interpretation are two different processes that require different types of expertise. Translators have different training than interpreters, and within each field, there are experts with further specializations.

The three general areas of specialization for both translators and interpreters are 1) legal translation/interpretation; 2) medical translation/interpretation; and 3) community translation/interpretation. Each area of specialty has its own certification entities. For example, the Certification Commission for Healthcare Interpreters (<https://cchicertification.org/>) provides certification programs for medical interpreters. On the other hand, the American Translators Association (<https://www.atanet.org>) provides certification programs for translators who want to specialize across areas.

Further, there are also three different kinds of interpretation services that can be used to provide language access. The first is simultaneous interpreting, where an interpreter listens to a presentation and immediately interprets the information for speakers of other languages, usually through a headset. This type of interpretation is typically used in large-scale conferences. The second type of interpretation is consecutive interpreting, in which an interpreter listens to several utterances or sentences from the speaker at a time, and then provides their interpretation in the target language. This type of interpretation protocol is typically used in smaller meetings. Finally, the third type of interpretation is called whispered interpreting, where an interpreter sits next to the person they are interpreting for in a meeting and whispers their interpretation. All three interpretation techniques have different costs, advantages, and drawbacks. The decision on which type of interpretation should be used for a particular event should

depend on the event size, the number of participants and languages represented, as well as the access needs of the individuals who need the interpretation services.

There are often questions of the extent of the need for language access. Gathering the statistics can be difficult because Florida is a vast area with individuals from many different backgrounds. The census data can be skewed and it is still possible that not everyone is filling out the census or they may not even have access to the census in their language. The U.S. does not have an official language; yes many speak English, but that does not mean that there is not a need for language access. The popularity of a language is not a precursor for whether or not it should be included in accessibility discussion- language justice is the ability to access materials in the language you are most comfortable in, no matter if that language is spoken by one or one million. Language discrimination, the denial of a provider to guarantee the accessibility of an individual's preferred language, is protected under Title VI of the Civil Rights Act. When providing language assistance, it is imperative to consult with members of the impacted communities to ensure selection of the most effective means of language assistance.

Language Access Beyond Words

While translation and interpretation services cover very important aspects of language access, there are other elements of language access that should be considered. For example, in order for language access to be successful, there needs to be trust from the community relying on these services. Often, organizations will comment that not enough people show up to events to benefit from the interpretation services, or that there aren't enough multilingual communities to justify the high cost of translation and interpretation services. However, as recently as 2016, 21% of Florida's population already consisted of foreign-born individuals, and this percentage has been steadily increasing over the past few decades (Sugarman & Geary, 2018). The low number of people taking advantage of language access services is often not due to a lack of multilingual population numbers, but rather due to the fact that many multilingual community members do not trust agencies and organizations enough to show up at events. There is a long-documented history of agencies working against multilingual communities, particularly immigrant and refugee communities specifically, as well as undocumented community members. For this reason, having translation and interpretation services available rarely motivates community members to show up to events. In addition to building trust, organizations and government entities must devote resources to outreach campaigns that enhance awareness on language assistance resources. Language access requires a consistent commitment to supporting multilingual members of the community. This takes time and investment on the part of agencies and organizations.

In “Multilingual Strategies for Community Organizing,” the group *Communities Creating Healthy Environments* (CCHE, nd) explain that there is a difference between language access, or the availability of information in languages other than English, and language justice, which refers to “individuals’ fundamental right to have their voices heard.” Language justice requires a commitment to not only accommodating multilingual speakers, but to creating intentional multilingual spaces across the community—spaces “intentionally created to incorporate two or more languages and cultures in all aspects of the group process” (CCHE, n.d, p.2) Language is tied to culture, race, ethnicity, and religion (among other factors), and as such, developing multilingual spaces requires an attunement to all parts of multilingual community members’ identities. Thus, language justice can be defined as a “process of organizing and advocating to win proactive policies that will help achieve equity and have meaningful impacts across race and language” (CCHE, n.d, p.2). Providing language justice means joining the advocacy efforts of multilingual communities beyond a single event or translation.

Health Impacts of Language Access

Agencies that receive federal funding must provide information to individuals who speak languages other than English pursuant to federal law. Limiting language access can have dire consequences for community members in many areas, but these limitations are perhaps most apparent in healthcare. If individuals are not provided medical information or care in the language in which they are proficient, they will likely experience adverse health outcomes, both physically and emotionally. Furthermore, if individuals know that healthcare services are not available in their language, they are more likely to postpone or even avoid seeking care. This is especially the case for certain health related services that communities are already hesitant to seek. For example, seeking mental healthcare has been identified as a barrier for some members of the Latinx community in Florida, particularly due to the stigma that is affiliated with mental healthcare in some Latinx cultures. As such, it already takes a lot of effort and risk for a Latinx person to make the decision to seek mental healthcare, and they will be both discouraged and defeated if they seek this care only to find out that services are not available in the language in which they are most proficient.

In hospital settings, it’s important to provide not only interpretation services to facilitate communication between healthcare employees and patients, but also translation of important documents. This includes intake forms, where patients list their symptoms, pre-existing conditions, and family history, as well as discharge forms, where healthcare providers share critical information regarding follow-up care. Thus, while language lines and other interpretation services are becoming more widely available in healthcare contexts, it’s important to highlight the value of having written

translations that patients can take with them after they leave the healthcare facility.

Several studies have been conducted about the value of interpreters in healthcare settings. For example, Lundin et al. (2018) conducted focus groups and individual interviews with emergency healthcare professionals, finding that the presence of healthcare interpreters can have a positive impact on healthcare for multilingual patients. Furthermore, Lundin et al. (2018) emphasize that hospitals need to implement clear formal guidelines for the use of interpreters in emergency healthcare, and that there need to be streamlined processes for securing and bringing interpreters into the hospital in emergency situations. In their recent study of healthcare interpreters' role in healthcare quality, Aranda et al. (2021) explain that healthcare interpreters are perceived by patients as active participants in healthcare consultations.

As such, it's important for healthcare providers to collaborate with interpreters, in order to provide the highest quality care possible. Structures of healthcare provider and healthcare interpreter collaboration can vary, but in general, it's important for healthcare providers to speak slowly and allow the interpreter time to adequately translate information, address the patient rather than the interpreter when speaking, and be mindful of the patient's psychological and emotional reactions, when communicating highly sensitive subjects through an interpreter. Thus, trust must be present and sustained among all members of a healthcare team, which includes interpreters in multilingual contexts.

Language Access in Education

Another important area for language access efforts in Florida is in education. According to the Florida Bilingual Education Repository, "Florida's students in grades PK-12 speak more than 300 language varieties." As described through this initiative, "Bilingual programs are programs in which two (or more) languages are used as mediums of instruction to learn academic content such as science, mathematics, and social studies. The most common languages in bilingual education programs across the US are Spanish and English" (About Bilingual Education in Florida, n.d.) However, given the rich linguistic diversity present in the state, it is not only important – but required by federal law – to provide bilingual education programs in other languages.

Another important language access education service in the state of Florida is the Florida branch of the Migrant Education Program. This program is a collaboration between the Florida Migrant Education Program (<https://www.flrecruiter.org>) and the state Department of Education to provide guidance and ensure proper training of FMEP personnel.

While there are several programs and organizations aiming to serve bilingual and multilingual students in Florida, as with other language access initiatives, emphasis should consistently be placed on trust and communication—among administrators, teachers, parents, and students.

Not everyone who is bilingual learns at the same pace; and as such, there should be flexibility and an openness to listen to the different student experiences present in Florida classrooms. Families' stories and experiences with migration and immigration can widely vary, and bilingual students come from multiple different socioeconomic, racial, and cultural backgrounds. Thus, to consider what language access should look like in education settings in Florida, it's important to recognize the diversity embedded within our schools, and to establish a community of trust among everyone working to serve our bilingual and multilingual students.

EMPIRICAL STUDIES

IMMIGRANT-FRIENDLY PRACTICES IN FLORIDA AND OTHER US CITIES

Zayda Sorrell-Medina

Research Questions

The section presents the results of a study that investigates the following research questions:

1. What are practices that city officials in Florida employ to promote immigrant inclusion?
2. What are practices that city government officials employ in other US cities?

Empirical Approach

The study employed qualitative and quantitative content analysis of official city web pages in Florida and other US cities to answer the above research questions. Qualitative content analysis allowed for unearthing the spectrum of strategies employed in both groups. Quantitative content analysis allowed for estimating parameter estimates for the Florida sample. Explicitly, it allowed for estimating the proportion of cities in Florida employing specific inclusive practices.

To construct the Florida sample, a stratified random representative sample of 103 cities were identified.⁴ Random sampling approach allowed for estimating parameter estimates for the Florida sample. Additional cities were added to the sample to maximize variation when it came to unearthing the range of inclusive practices that cities employ. In total, 195 cities in Florida were investigated, representing 48% of the total population of incorporated cities in Florida. For the US sample, 12 immigrant friendly cities were identified, which included Los Angeles, Hartford, Boston, New York, San Francisco, Chicago, Baltimore, Seattle, Philadelphia, Aurora, San Antonio, and Denver. These cities were classified as immigrant friendly based on a research study that measured the degree to which US are inclusive towards immigrants.⁵

The following steps were taken for the qualitative content analysis aspect of the study. Key word searches were conducted on the city web page and their budget that indicate inclusion such as “diversity” “inclusion”

⁴ For details on this sample approach, see study titled “Measuring Immigrant Inclusion.”

⁵ See reference Sorrell-Medina (2021)

“equity” and “immigrant.” Practices deemed inclusionary were compiled for the analysis. This step was applied to both samples.

For the quantitative content analysis, the following steps were taken. Nine indicators of inclusion were identified to assess the *degree to which* cities employ inclusive practices. These indicators include: (1) The city has a policy that protects immigrants from deportation; (2) A translation option on the official city web page; (3) A written statement that formally declares that the city values diversity, equity, or inclusion as a goal, objective, value or vision of the city; (4) A board, department, commission, initiative, or program whose goal is to promote diversity, equity, inclusion, or equality; (5) A board, department, commission, initiative, or program whose goal is to promote immigrant affairs; (6) A defense fund in the budget that supports immigrant legal defense; (7) Evidence of celebrating an immigrant related holiday such as Hispanic, Immigrant, or Caribbean, Haitian American Heritage Months; (8) The city has hosted an activity that promote immigrant culture in the past 18 months; (9) The city offers a community card. The city received a value of “1” if it exhibited the presence of the aforementioned indicator, and a value of “0” if it did not exhibit the indicator in question. This assignment of numbers allowed for estimating parameter estimates associated with the ratio of cities in Florida exhibiting certain practices.

Results

- 1. Many cities in Florida are inclined to promote cultural forms of inclusion over rights and legal inclusion, as exhibited in table 1.** To illustrate, roughly 20% of incorporated cities in Florida celebrate an immigrant related holiday such as Hispanic, Caribbean, Haitian, or immigrant heritage month (margin of error $\pm 4\%$). Yet, there appears to be no indication that any incorporated city in Florida has a department, office, commission, or initiative that promotes immigrants’ rights or legalization.
- 2. In contrast, cities outside of Florida promote immigrants’ rights and legalization in many ways, as exhibited in table 2.** Examples of legal inclusion include a legal defense fund to provide immigrants resources facing deportation, a citizenship workshop, and free legal services to immigrants on an array of legal matters, including status. Examples of rights inclusion include an Immigrants’ Rights Commission, Department of Civil Rights, and Human Rights Commissions.

3. **Cities in Florida are inclusive in fewer ways compared to the group of inclusive cities outside of Florida.** Explicitly, cities in Florida exhibit fewer dimensions of inclusion compared to the group of cities outside of Florida. Five types of inclusion were identified in the Florida sample, which include cultural, educational, language, civil, and general diversity, equity and inclusion. In contrast, 10 types of inclusion were identified in the former sample, which included cultural, educational, language, civic, legal, rights, financial, workforce, general diversity, inclusion, equity, and other.
4. **Although the Civil Rights Act mandates language access, only about 42% of cities in Florida have translation option on the city's official web page⁶.** This raises questions on the degree to which cities in Florida are compliant to federal policy and whether or not other types of language access are offered.

Implications

The results from this research shed light on what cities inside of Florida are doing to promote immigrant inclusion compared to what cities outside of Florida are doing. This information can be useful for strategic planning on immigrant inclusion. For instance, the analysis suggests that one way that cities in Florida can become more inclusive is by incorporating different types on inclusion, especially immigrants' rights and legalization. Additionally, there are several inclusionary practices employed outside of Florida that cities in Florida can consider for future planning.

Limitations

One limitation to this study is that as cities are constantly employing new practices, the results may vary in the future. For instance, at the time of this research, Miami Dade County had implemented a community ID program. Hence, the results from this analysis are limited to the point in time in which the data was gathered, which was between December 2019 and May 2022. Additionally, the findings are limited to incorporated cities, as only incorporated cities were examined. Despite these limitations, the present study provides substantial evidence that shed light on new approaches that cities in Florida can take to become more inclusive towards the immigrant constituents they serve.

⁶ Margin of error \pm 5%

Table 1. Immigrant-Friendly Practices in Florida

Inclusion Practice	City
Cultural Inclusion	
Hispanic Heritage Committee	Tampa
Hispanic heritage concert	Maxima
Multi-cultural community event series	Coral Springs
Cultural art exhibit	Doral
Heritage celebration	Miami
Office of Multicultural Affairs	Orlando
Heritage month proclamation	North Lauderdale
Proclamation of immigrant heritage month	Jacksonville
Consultant for Racial & Ethnic Equality Task Force	West Palm Beach
Multi-cultural committee	North Miami Beach
Educational Inclusion	
Scholarship that promotes higher education among underrepresented populations in the community	St. Petersburg
Scholarship fund to local University to enhance diversity in a particular field	St. Petersburg
Language Inclusion	
Translation option on city's web page	Weston
Civic Inclusion	
Mexican Consulate ID Card	Doral
Community ID Card for County	Miami Dade County
General Diversity, Inclusion, & Equity	
Diversity and inclusion as a part of city's mission, value, goal or objective statement	West Palm Beach
Community fund to support nonprofit organizations that promote diversity and inclusion	Cutler Bay
City Diversity Award	Ocala
Grant to improve immigrant relations	Gainesville
Office of Equity and Inclusion	Gainesville
Diversity Advisory Board	Pembroke Pines

Table 2. Immigrant-Friendly Practices in Other US Cities

Cultural Inclusion	
Commission on African and Caribbean Immigrant Affairs	Philadelphia
Racial Equity Plan	San Francisco
Demographic advisory councils (e.g. African American, African, Filipino, Middle Eastern)	Seattle
Educational Inclusion	
DreamSF Fellow Program for Immigrant Youth	San Francisco
Scholarship for high school students to attend college	Chicago, Aurora, Philadelphia
Language Inclusion	
COVID-19 multilingual updates	Baltimore
City agency language feedback link on city web page allowing residents to make a complaint that a city agency did not provide translation or interpretation service	New York
ASL and Spanish interpreters for city council meetings	San Antonio
Civic Inclusion	
ID card program providing access to city service	Hartford, Chicago, New York, Philadelphia
Parish ID as a form of city identification	Baltimore
Office of Civic Engagement and Immigrant Affairs	San Francisco
Legal Inclusion	
Legal defense fund providing legal resources to immigrants facing deportation	Los Angeles, Seattle, San Antonio
Legal services to residents, including on immigrant related matters	New York, San Antonio
Citizenship initiative workshop to help with citizenship application	San Francisco
Resources for citizenship process on city web page	Baltimore
Rights Inclusion	
Immigrants' Rights Commission	San Francisco
Department of Civil Rights	Seattle
Human Rights Commission	Seattle
Human Rights & Community Partnership Office	San Antonio

Financial Inclusion

Emergency funds for immigrant families Baltimore

Workforce Inclusion

Latinx employee resource group supporting inclusion of Latinx population Boston

General Diversity, Inclusion, Equity

Immigrant & Refugee Commission Denver

Mayor's Diversity & Inclusion Awards Denver

Office of Diversity/Inclusion/Equity San Antonio, Boston, Aurora, San Antonio

Advisory Council on Equity Chicago

Office of Immigration / Refugee Affairs Seattle, Philadelphia, Baltimore

Other

Migrant Resource Center San Antonio

Immigration strategic plan San Antonio

Immigrant integration plan Aurora

MEASURING IMMIGRANT INCLUSION IN FLORIDA

Zayda Sorrell-Medina

Research Questions

The section presents the results of a study that investigates the following research questions:

1. To what degree are cities in Florida inclusive towards immigrants?
2. Do levels of immigrant inclusion vary based upon city population size?
3. Are local governments more inclusive in cities with higher levels of foreign born and Hispanic populations?

Empirical Approach

This study applies the conceptualization of immigrant inclusion from the previous section (pages 3-7) to measure immigrant inclusion at the city level. A multi-item scale is created. Specifically, the scale consists of three items. Each item aims to tap into a different aspect of immigrant inclusion. The first item aims to reflect the degree to which the local government is inclusive towards immigrants and their descendants (variable *government*). The second and third items reflect the degree to which the residential community is inclusive towards immigrants and their descendants (variables *foreign* and *hispanic*). This decision to account for these particular aspects of immigrant inclusion aligns with the conceptual framework presented in the previous section, which is also based upon the literature. The following paragraphs elaborates on the construction of each variable.

Local Government Inclusion (government)

Variable *government* is represented as a summative scale that measures the degree to which the local city government is inclusive towards immigrants. It consists of nine indicators: (1) A policy that protects immigrants from deportation; (2) A translation option on the official city web page; (3) A written statement that formally declares that the city values diversity, equity, or inclusion as a goal, objective, value or vision of the city; (4) A board, department, commission, initiative, or program whose goal is to promote diversity, equity, inclusion, or equality; (5) A board, department, commission, initiative, or program whose goal is to promote immigrant affairs; (6) A defense fund in the budget that supports immigrant legal defense; (7) Evidence of celebrating an immigrant related holiday such as Hispanic, Immigrant, or Caribbean, Haitian American Heritage Months; (8) City hosted an activity that celebrating immigrant culture in the past 18

months; (9) Availability of a community card. While these indicators do not account for the universe of all possible indicators reflecting immigrant inclusion, they tap into multiple aspects of inclusion, such as language access, cultural inclusion, and immigrants' rights.

To obtain this data to construct this composite variable, official city web pages are visited and inspected, including their adopted budgets. Social media pages are examined when to cross reference the lack of information on the city's web page. To determine whether the city has a policy that protects immigrants from deportation, data was obtained from the American Immigration Council⁷. The city receives a value of "1" signaling the presence of the said indicator and a value of "0" signally the absence. The resulting composite variable is between 0 to 9 with 0 representing lower levels of inclusion and 9 representing higher levels of inclusion.

Foreign-Born (Foreign)

Variable *foreign* seeks to measure the degree to which the local residents in a particular city are welcoming towards immigrants. Specifically, it measures the level of welcomeness towards immigrants relative to other cities in the state. It is based upon the assumption that a larger population of immigrants in the community is indicative of a community that is welcoming towards immigrants. The variable is represented as an ordinal scale with values ranging from 0 to 9 with 0 denoting below average level of inclusion relative to other cities in the state and 9 denoting exceptionally above average. The score is based upon the distance between the observed percent foreign-born rate in the city and the median percent foreign born for the population of cities as measured in standard deviations. The variable is constructed using census data on foreign born population estimates between 2015 to 2019 for cities in Florida.

To construct the variable, the following steps are taken. First, the mean, median, and standard deviation are calculated for the variable in the population data. The mean is 14.5, median 9.6, and standard deviation 15.5. The differences in mean and median indicate skewness and therefore the median is used as a measure of centrality. Next, the standard deviation values are grouped into 10 categories representing the total distance from the median value in .3 increments (See Appendix C, Column A). Following this step, the values for the variable are identified that are associated with the standard deviation groupings (See Appendix C, Column B). In the last step, an inclusion score is assigned to each category on a scale from 0 to 9, with zero denoting lower levels of inclusion and 9 highest levels of inclusion (See Appendix C, Column C).

Hispanic Inclusion (Hispanic)

Variable *hispanic* seeks to measure the degree to which the local residents in a particular community are welcoming towards Hispanics. It is

⁷ <https://cis.org/Map-Sanctuary-Cities-Counties-and-States>

constructed in a similar fashion as variable *foreign* and follows the same scale interpretation.

Scale Evaluation

The content validity of the scale was examined by a panel of three immigrant-serving nonprofit practitioners, who provided qualitative feedback on the scale prior to its construction. In addition, the scale was evaluated to determine whether a scale range between 1 to 5 or 0 to 9 was more suitable. Chronbach's alpha values for the two options were .64 and .69 respectively. The latter scaling option was chosen given it yielded higher internal consistency. The scale was also evaluated using confirmatory analysis. This statistical method is appropriate when the researcher specifies a reflective measurement model, wherein the latent variable causes the indicators to form (Bollen, 1989). Results reveal that the model fit the data adequately, $\chi^2(0) = 11.24, p < 0.01$; CFI = 1.0; RMSEA = 0.0. The factor loadings for item *hispanic inclusion* was $\lambda = .62$ and $\lambda = .31$ for local government inclusion.

Target Population

The target population for this study are incorporated cities in Florida. Unincorporated cities were excluded from the analysis for two main reasons. First, there is a lack of data on unincorporated cities which do not allow for measurement. Given that the study calls for an examination of official city web pages, it was necessary that the sample frame of cities have web pages. However, many unincorporated cities did not have their own official sites. Apart from this, and perhaps more importantly, unincorporated cities are different from incorporated cities as they are not governed by a municipal corporation but rather a larger administrative entity. These differences in governing set-ups could have implications on how inclusion manifests in both groups. As such, including unincorporated cities in the sample frame would potentially yield significant variation which would affect parameter estimates. Therefore, 502 ineligible elements were excluded from the analysis.

Sampling Frame

To construct the sample frame of cities, census data file identifier B01003 was used to generate a list of cities in Florida. This yielded 922 elements in the frame. Of these, 502 cities were excluded as they did not fit the criteria of being an incorporated city. The resulting sample frame consisted of 412 incorporated cities.

Sample Size

Cochran's sample size formula is used to evaluate appropriate sample size to estimate parameter estimates, yielding a required sample size of about 73. For example, to estimate the proportion of cities that are very inclusive (scores of 5 and higher on the inclusion scale), .05 is used as an estimate. This is because only 5% of cities in Florida have a population size of above 100k. Since larger cities tend to be more diverse and inclusive relative to smaller and rural communities, it is expected that levels of inclusion will be higher in these cities. Additional units were added to increase precision for other estimates, yielding a total of 103 cities in the sample frame, which represents a sampling fraction of 25%.

To further evaluate whether a sample size of 103 is sufficient to estimate parameter estimates, the observed mean values for select variables in the sample are compared against the parameter mean. Results reveal that the sample size of 103 sufficiently estimates parameter estimates. For instance, the average proportion of foreign-born individuals in incorporated cities in Florida is about 14.5%. The observed proportion for the stratified sample is 14.4%. The mean population size for the sample is 24,148. The mean population size for the population is 25,539. These results provide support that the sample size chosen does a sufficient job at estimating parameters for other variables, including the immigrant inclusion variable.

Sampling Strategy

This study employs proportionate stratified random sampling strategy. Stratification is appropriate when the researcher expects variation based upon an underlying characteristic. By stratifying, the researcher is able to estimate parameters for each stratum thus yielding more precise estimates over simple random sampling. The cities are stratified based upon population size, as it is expected that levels of immigrant inclusion will vary based upon this underlying characteristic. Specifically, it is expected that smaller cities will be less inclusive than larger cities. To construct the strata, the range of population size in the data is examined. The quartile range reveals that $Q_1 = 1524$, $Q_2 = 6186$, $Q_3 = 23,342$, $Q_4 = 890,467$. In brief, most cities in Florida are small cities, with 25% having population sizes less than 1,524 and 50% ranging between 1,525 to 23,342. Only 5% of cities have a population size of 100k and above. To account for this wide variation, five strata were created based upon the following population sizes: less than 1,499; between 1,500 to 5,999; 6k to 49,999; 50k to 99,999; and above 100k. Table 1. Below illustrates the stratification of sample into five strata.

Table 1. Estimating Mean Foreign Born in the Population

Stratum	City Size	Nh Cities in Frame	Wh Proportion of Population	Nh Stratum sample size	Fh Stratum Sampling Fraction	Yh Sample stratum mean	Weighted Mean
1	Less than 1,499	102	0.25	0	0.00	10.6	2.62
2	1500 to 5999	102	0.25	0	0.00	9.0	2.22
3	6k to 49,999	149	0.36	0	0.00	17.9	6.46
4	50k to 99,999	37	0.09	0	0.00	23.8	2.14
5	Above 100k	22	0.05	0	0.00	17.9	0.96
		412	1.00	103	0.25		14.39

Results

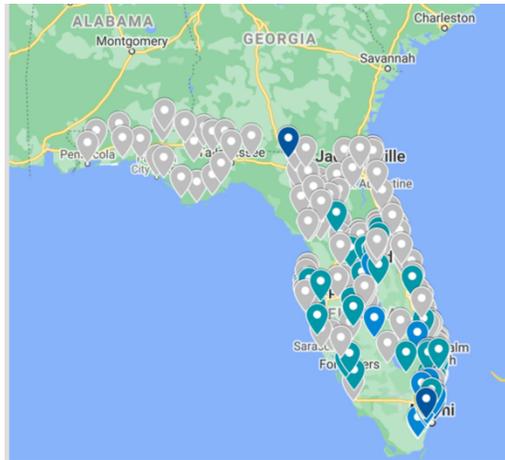
To what degree are cities in Florida inclusive towards immigrants?

Results from this study reveal that cities in Florida are, on average, exclusive towards immigrants. The estimated level of inclusion is between to .75 and 1.25 for all incorporated cities, translating to very low to low on the nine-point inclusion scale (Appendix A), or high levels of exclusion. The estimated average level of immigrant inclusion for local governments is very low, ranging between .32 to .68. The study is 95% confident that these estimates are correct. Figure 1 below provides a visualization of the degree to which cities in Florida are exclusive, based upon an evaluation of 195 cities. Gray dots represent scores between 0 to 1.9; Teal green represents scores between 2.0 to 3.9; Dark blue represents scores between 6.0 to 7.9. View map and scores [here](#)⁸.

Figure 1. A Visual Illustration of Exclusion in Florida

⁸ See visualization here:

<https://www.google.com/maps/d/viewer?mid=16sWbZh2GYPV18AIYynt90bD0Sfoodmso&ll=28.253610952401193%2C-83.6266723&z=7>

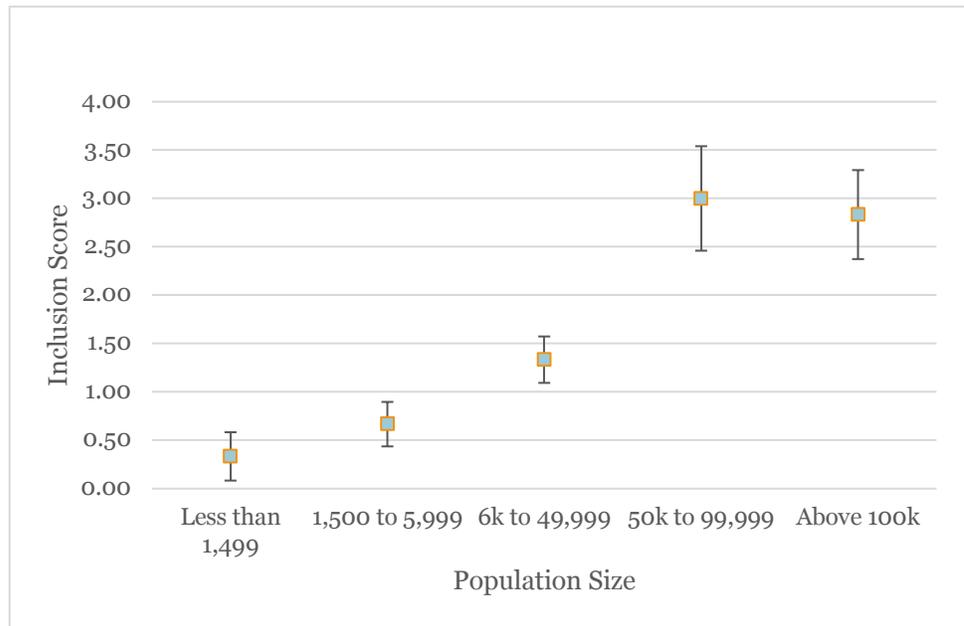


Do levels of inclusion vary based upon population size?

Yes, levels of immigrant inclusion vary based on population size whereby the higher the population size, the more inclusive the Florida city will be. The graph below provides the estimated inclusion scores along with their standard errors based on city population size.

Table 2 provides this trend. It shows that cities with a population size that is less than 1,499 have an estimated inclusion score of $.33 \pm .51$. The estimated inclusion score for cities with a population size between 1,500 to 5,999 is slightly higher scoring at $.67 \pm .48$. In contrast, the inclusion score for cities 6k and 49,999 is much higher at $1.33 \pm .47$. Cities with a population size between 50k and 99,999 have between an inclusion of about 3.0 ± 1.25 . Because there are only currently 22 incorporated cities in Florida with a population size over 100k, there was no need for estimation thus the median inclusion scores were calculated (see Appendix B). Results reveal that the median inclusion score for cities over 100k is 3.2. This score is close to the estimated score and is also within the confidence interval (2.83 ± 1.15).

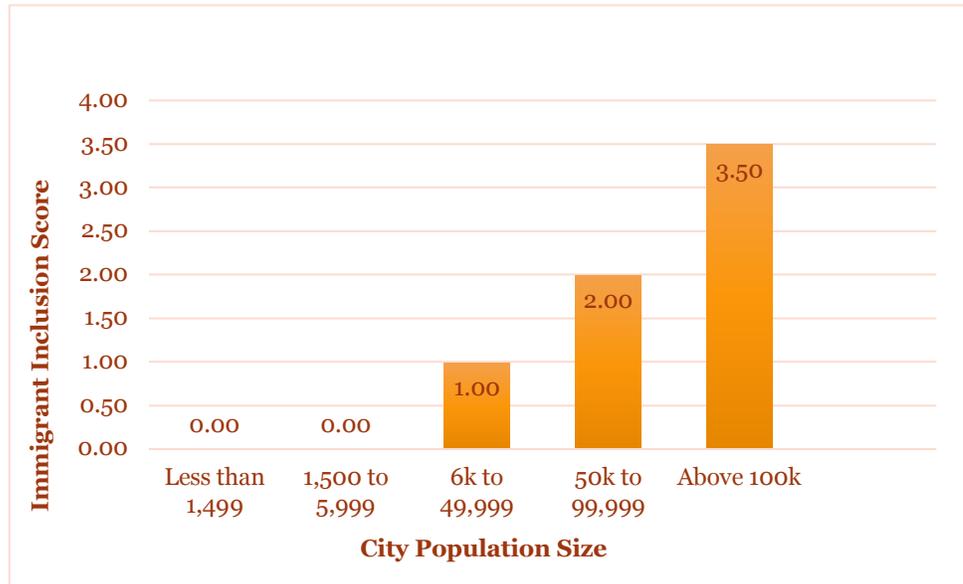
Table 2. Estimated Immigrant Inclusion Score for Incorporated Cities in Florida by Population Size



In addition, local city governments with sizable populations also tend to be more inclusive towards immigrants, as illustrated in table 3. The data suggests that the median level of local government inclusion increases with the city population size. As illustrated below, cities with a population size that is equal to or below 5,999 have an estimated median inclusion score of 0. Notably, this represents roughly half of the incorporated cities in Florida.⁹ Local governments with a population size of 100k have a median inclusion score of 3.5. This value is based upon population data.

Table 3. Median Immigrant Inclusion Score for City Governments Based on City Population Size

⁹ For the standard errors associated with these estimates, see Appendix D.



Are local governments more inclusive in cities with higher levels of foreign born and Hispanic populations?

To answer this question, first the local government inclusion scores are examined for cities with sizable Hispanic and foreign-born populations (more than .91 standard deviations above the population median) and cities with average to below average Hispanic and foreign-born populations (below .3 standard deviations of the median).

Results reveal that cities with a sizable foreign-born population relative to the foreign-born population median have an estimated inclusion score of about 1.8. In contrast, cities with a below average foreign-born population relative to the population median have an estimated inclusion score of about .08. This difference is statistically significant ($p=.02$). The interpretation is that local governments in Florida are more inclusive in cities with a higher level of foreign-born population relative to the population median. However, the local government is still overall exclusive, scoring very low on the inclusion scale.

Additionally, cities with a sizable Hispanic population relative to the population median have an estimated average inclusion score of 1.6. However, cities with a below average Hispanic population relative to the population median have an estimated inclusion score of about .93. The difference between the two groups is not statistically significant ($p=.16$). These findings demonstrate that there is no difference in the degree to which the local government is inclusive towards immigrants in jurisdictions with sizable and below average ratio of Hispanics in the population.

Noticeably, the degree to which the local government is inclusive remains considerably low irrespective of the size of the immigrant and Hispanic population in the city. This finding echoes current empirical works

which has found that in the aggregate, local governments in the US do not represent the needs of the minority residents (Schaffner et al., 2020).

Conclusion

This study has shown that cities in Florida are on average not that inclusive towards immigrants. However, levels of inclusion vary based on population size whereby smaller cities are less inclusive and larger cities are more inclusive. In addition, levels of inclusion are higher in jurisdictions with a sizable foreign-born population relative to the population median compared to jurisdictions with below average levels of foreign-born population. Nevertheless, local governments in Florida remain considerably exclusive irrespective of the ratio of foreign-born individuals in the community. This research considers that one possible explanation as to why the average level of inclusion remains low even when the immigrant population is sizable is because in the aggregate, local governments in the US do not adequately represent the interest of minority residents (Schaffner et al., 2020). Based on this, findings from this study calls attention to the need for local efforts that promote representation of immigrants and their descendants in local government apart from standard inclusive efforts as a means through which inclusion can optimally be achieved.

IMMIGRANT PERSPECTIVES: IS FLORIDA INCLUSIVE?

Zayda Sorrell-Medina

Research Overview

This section reports the findings of the Forward Together Survey, a survey designed and implemented by Weavetales and their partners to study the perceptions of individuals of immigrant background in Florida. The survey was analyzed by Zayda Sorrell-Medina, PhD candidate from the University of California, Irvine.

Research Questions

- (1) To what degree do Floridians from immigrant backgrounds feel included in their community?
- (2) How do Floridians from immigrant backgrounds perceive immigrant relations currently, and what do they predict for the future?
- (3) What are the most critical challenges that Florida is facing today?

Empirical Approach

The research method used to answer the above questions was survey design. The analysis draws from the Forward Together Survey developed and implemented by WeaveTales and their partners. It consisted of 86 questions and was offered in seven different languages. The question types included a combination of scale-based questions, ranking questions, and qualitative questions. The survey was implemented online via Survey Monkey between the months of June 2020 and February 2021. The target population were individuals from immigrant backgrounds residing in Florida. “Immigrant background” refers to a person who are born in a foreign country irrespective of their legal status, or alternatively a person whose parents are foreign born. To recruit participants for the survey, purposeful and convenience sampling techniques were used. Specifically, individuals were invited to complete the survey through organizational list serves, social media, and word of mouth. In total, 188 individuals completed the survey in full.

The following steps were taken to analyze the survey data. First, to identify how Floridians of immigrant background perceive immigrant relations (Research Question 1), ten scales were created from the survey data. Each scale reflected a different dimension of immigrant inclusion. Each scale was specified with three to six survey items. The question type for each survey item was a scale that spanned between 0 to 10. Scores between 0 to 4.99 indicate not that inclusive, scores between 5 and 7.99 indicate somewhat inclusive, and scores above 8 were designated as very inclusive. To calculate the score for each scale, the median was calculated for each item associated with the respective scale resulting in an item-based score. Next, the average was taken for the items resulting in a scale-based score. The outcome was a score representing the degree to which

respondents felt that they are inclusion as it relates to each respective dimension of immigrant inclusion (Table 1).

To identify how Floridians of immigrant background perceive immigrant relations currently and in the future (Research Question 2), respondents were asked to choose at least three adjectives that describe how they perceive Florida currently and for the years 2030 and 2040. To evaluate the responses, first, the words were grouped into two groups representing words that denoting inclusion and words that denote exclusion respectively. Words that denote inclusion included democratic, open, tolerant welcoming, unbiased, impartial, fair, prosperous, compassionate, and civilized. Words that denote exclusion included strict, controlled, rigid, hostile, indifferent, unfriendly, prejudiced, oppressed, ignorant, and resistant. The results yielded a percentage for each adjective representing the ratio of individuals who selected the corresponding adjective to those who did not. The adjectives were then grouped into the aforementioned categories and their corresponding percentages were summed and divided by the total percentage of the group. The resulting outcome was two scores representing the degree to which the respondents perceive Florida as inclusive or exclusive.

To identify the most critical challenges that Florida is facing today (Research Question 3), respondents were provided with a set of response options reflecting hypothesized critical challenges and invited to rank which ones were the most critical.

Demographic Background on Survey Respondents

Immigration Background

48% of respondents reported being US born citizens, 22% naturalized US citizens, 11% permanent residents, 10% DACA recipients, 4% asylum seekers, 3% international students, and 2% refugees. The principal countries of origin among the participants were the United States (46%), followed by Afghanistan (5%), Bangladesh (4%), and Barbados (4%). The median number of years that respondents had been in the US was about 20 years, while the median number of years lived in Florida was about 13 years. Participants came from over fifteen different cities in Florida. The cities with the most participants were Jacksonville (16%), Gainesville (13%), Miami (9%), Orlando (5%), and Tampa (5%).

Age and Gender

74% of participants were below the age of 34 and below. 57% were female and 42% male, and 1% gender nonconforming.

Employment and Income

16% of respondents reported being unemployed. The top industries represented among the employed included education (12%), nonprofit (11%), government (7%), and food & beverage (6%). 25% of the respondents had an income below \$34,999; 44% had an income between \$35,000 to \$74,999; 25% between \$75,000 and \$149,999; and 6% above \$150,000.

Results

To what degree do Floridians of immigrant background feel included in their community?

This study found that on average, respondents felt that immigrant inclusion relations in Florida are somewhat inclusive, scoring 5.5 on a scale of 1 to 10 with 1 denoting the lowest level of inclusion and 10 signifying the highest level of inclusion. Variation in perceptions across different dimensions of inclusion is illustrated in Table 1. For instance, respondents felt excluded in areas related to health care, higher education for undocumented persons, and political representation. They felt most excluded in regard to the protection and promotion of immigrants' rights. In contrast, respondents perceived that public safety and access to social and legal services have received considerable amount of attention concerning immigrant inclusion initiatives.

How do Floridians of immigrant background feel about immigrant inclusion relations currently and in the future?

A slight majority of respondents were optimistic about immigrant inclusion relations in Florida. This is suggested with the results of the survey questions numbers 80, 81, and 82 wherein participants were asked to identify three adjectives that best describe Florida in the years 2020, 2030, and 2040. For the year 2020, results reveal that 46% of the adjectives elected signified exclusion, such as hostile, unfriendly, controlled, strict, and prejudiced. In contrast, 54% of the adjectives elected signified inclusion, such as open, fair, and democratic. There was optimism that things will improve in the future. To illustrate, for the year 2030, 30% of the adjectives elected signify exclusion while 70% of the adjectives elected signify inclusion. In 2040, 23% of adjectives elected denoted inclusion and 77% inclusion. In sum, respondents in this sample perceived a positive trajectory over the next two decades in immigrant inclusion. It is important to point out that these results are not generalizable to the entire population of individuals of immigrant background in Florida but instead are limited to the individuals in this sample.

What are the most critical challenges that Florida is facing today?

Table 1 below presents the results to this research question, capturing the most salient responses from the survey sample.

Table 1. Critical Challenges Immigrants Face in Florida

Legal/ Rights	Financial	Housing
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Support asylum-seekers and other residents with humanitarian protection needs • Offer immigrants alternatives to detention and family separation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Secure a living wage for immigrants to support themselves and their families • Implement financial literacy opportunities • Promote immigrant entrepreneurship 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensure access to affordable and quality housing and reducing barriers to homeownership
Health	Education	Civil
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide access to affordable and quality healthcare • Access to medical care and workers compensations for low-income immigrant workers • Support immigrants living in unsafe and polluted conditions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide access to scholarships for higher education to undocumented students • Provide access to a multicultural curriculum in K-12 education • Improve access to affordable childcare for immigrant students enrolled in higher education 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improve immigrant political representation • Secure fairness in the justice system regardless of one's racial, ethnic, or religious/cultural background • Restore trust between the police and certain racial or ethnic group • Provide access to driver license irrespective of legal status
Cultural	Social	Language Access
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Address hate crimes and xenophobic movements • Ensure city services are culturally responsive • Provide platforms to celebrate and express diverse cultural traditions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enact more programs that provide mental and social services 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Secure non-English language access in public settings

Limitations

Like all studies, this study has limitations. The main limitation is that the findings are not generalizable to the population of immigrants in Florida. In addition, the sample does not have sufficient representation of individuals on temporary status such as DACA or individuals who are illegalized. This of course can have implications for understanding perceptions of inclusion as illustrated in Table 1. Additional responses from individuals with more precarious legal status' might have yielded different results. Hence, the results do not claim to represent the spectrum of immigrant experiences in Florida.

Further, the results are biased towards the perspectives of immigrants in large incorporated cities with a population size above 100,000, where it is more likely to be more inclusive.¹⁰ Hence, the sample does not adequately represent the experiences of immigrants in smaller cities. This is crucial for understanding immigrant experiences holistically in Florida as roughly 75% of all incorporated cities in the state have a population size below 23,000. As found in the previous section, levels of immigrant inclusion vary based upon city population size. Hence, future research is needed to better understand how perceptions potentially vary based upon city population size. In particular, further analysis on immigrant experiences in smaller cities (less than 23k) can help to complement the results of this report.

¹⁰ See study titled “Measuring immigrant inclusion in cities in Florida”

Table 1. Individual Perceptions of Immigrant Inclusion Relations

Type of Inclusion	Description	Score ¹¹	Interpretation
Career Mobility	Support in career advancement opportunities	5	Somewhat inclusive
Access to Service	The degree to which immigrants have access to social services and institutional support	5.5	Somewhat inclusive
Language Access	The degree to which immigrants feel that local institutions and services provide access in their language	5	Somewhat inclusive
Rights	Protection and promotion of immigrants' rights	4	Not that inclusive
Legal	Access to legal services and protection from deportation	5.5	Somewhat inclusive
Health Care	Equitable and affordable access to quality and affordable health	4.5	Not that inclusive
Cultural Inclusion	The degree to which the local community is accepting and open to your culture	5	Somewhat inclusive
Higher Education	The degree to which higher education is promoted and made available for undocumented persons in particular	4.5	Not that inclusive
Political Inclusion	Perceptions on whether or not political leaders represent the needs of the immigrant community	4.5	Not that inclusive
Public Safety	Feelings of safety in the community, including workplace and communicating with public institutions	6	Somewhat inclusive

¹¹ Scores between 0 to 4.99 indicates not that inclusive; between 5 and 7.99 indicates somewhat inclusive; and scores above 8 were designated as very inclusive.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

This report found that cities in Florida are in the aggregate exclusive towards immigrants. Larger sized cities tend to be more inclusive, however. The Forward Together Survey provides additional insights, showing that cities are more inclusive in some areas over others. Additionally, the two types of inclusion that cities in Florida are lagging behind relative to cities outside of Florida are immigrant rights and legal inclusion.

The main take away from this report is that immigrant inclusion is *a process*. In other words, there are several types of inclusion. It may be necessary to achieve one type of inclusion in order to achieve other types of inclusion. Policy makers, practitioners, and immigrant rights activists should consider this point when it comes to strategic planning and developing policy recommendations. Essentially, this report cautions against a one size fits all plan for inclusion for the state of Florida. Instead, there is a need to take into account that each city is unique. It has its own culture, ideologies, challenges, history, and political dynamics. Hence, each city is at a different phase of inclusion, with lower or higher degrees of inclusion. The degree to which the city is inclusive and the types of inclusion they exhibit, should therefore be taken into consideration for policy and practice.

The following section compiles recommendations for consideration.

RECOMMENDATIONS

This section compiles recommendations based upon this report and feedback from partners and community leaders. This list of recommendations are not exhaustive and additional ones can be found throughout this report.

Rights Inclusion

1 | Protect immigrants' rights. This research shows that cities in Florida are more inclined to celebrate immigrant culture over protecting their rights. Moreover, immigrants in the survey sample perceived that local governments performed below average when it came to protecting their rights. Policy makers. There are many ways to achieve this. One way is to establish anti-discrimination policies that prohibit federal immigration enforcement beyond what is required by law, among other policies. Another way is to establish a formal department or office of Civil or Immigrants' Rights Commission, as done in San Francisco, San Antonio and Seattle.

Legal Inclusion

2 | Protect immigrants from deportation. The results from this report reveals that no known city in Florida funds legal services for immigrant residents at risk of deportation or has a legal defense fund. Comparatively, several cities outside of Florida has such infrastructures in place, including Los Angeles, Seattle, San Antonio, New York, and Baltimore. Cities in Florida can promote this type of inclusion in several ways, such as providing resources for immigrants subject to detainers and potentially facing deportation.

Political Inclusion

3 | Promote the inclusion of first and second generation immigrants in local government. This report showed that in the aggregate, local governments inadequately represent the needs of the immigrant population. Moreover, immigrants in the survey sample perceive that local governments do not represent their interests. Including immigrants and their descendants in local government is one way to ensure inclusive representation and uphold democratic values. Political inclusion can be achieved in many ways. One way to achieve this is by establishing a mentoring program that pairs high school students to city officials in an effort to expose pupils to career fields in local government; funding a scholarship targeted towards youth of immigrant background who are interested in a degree in city planning or a related field; and intentionally targeting the immigrant community to for elected political positions.

4 | Consider immigrants' needs in city planning. The Forward Together Survey reveals several areas that first and second generation immigrants in Florida are concerned about including: equitable and affordable access to quality health care; the inclusion of individuals of immigrant background in local government; access to higher education among individuals of immigrant background, including undocumented persons; promoting immigrants' rights and legalization; and promoting immigrant entrepreneurship.

Language Access

5 | Every city in Florida should have a language access plan. This plan should outline the specific language needs of the city and provides guidelines for how agencies and organizations can provide language access services. There should be a clear and streamlined process for agencies, businesses, and organizations to use language access services, and the cost for language access should be budgeted consistently and fairly.

6 | Language Access is a Civil Right, and all members of a community receiving services from federally-funded entities are entitled to access information in their preferred language. For this reason, community events put on by federally-funded organizations should always have interpretation services available, and should advertise their events in the languages spoken by the community. Providing language access is a critical factor in establishing and maintaining trust with immigrant and refugee populations. To begin, each city in Florida should have an option to translate their web pages, as only roughly 42% offer this resource. Moreover, cities should be held accountable. One way to ensure accountability is to provide an online platform on the city's web page allowing residents to make a complaint that a city agency did not provide translation or interpretation services, as done in New York city.

Civic Inclusion

7 | Implement a community ID program. Community ID programs provide access to city services, regardless of resident legal status. Cities in Florida can consider this model as a way to promote civic inclusion, which can be broadly defined as access to local institutions and city services.

8 | Implement efforts that restore trust between the police and racial/ethnic minorities. This can be achieved in a number of ways including the implementing a diversity and sensitivity training for local law enforcement on all levels and community events, among other measures.

Social Inclusion

9 | State and federal governments should provide ongoing aid for refugees.

Immigration to cities in Florida is ongoing, and cities play an important role in responding to immigration. State and federal governments can assist local governments by providing financial assistance and nonprofits that assist in refugee resettlement.

10 | Provide resources to immigrant families that support their social

inclusion. The Forward Together Survey identified social inclusion as a salient theme for consideration in policy making. Social inclusion broadly encapsulates financial, work force, housing, health care, education, and mental health. Supporting immigrants in these areas is critical to their overall inclusion and well-being. Each city should have an Immigrant Resource Center, Office for Immigrant Affairs, or a designated task force that focus explicitly on these target areas of inclusion.

Cultural Inclusion

11 | Each city should have an office or department for diversity, inclusion, and/or equity whose primary goal is to focus on ways to enhance diversity, inclusion, and equity in the city. This is especially the case for cities with a population size less than 49,999, as these cities tend to be less inclusive. This advisory board should be made up of individuals who have a background in different aspects of inclusion, including language access.

APPENDICES

Appendix A Immigrant Inclusion Scale Interpretation

Interpretation	Range of Values
Very low	0 to 1.0
Very low to low	1.1 to 1.9
Low	2.0 to 3.0
Low to Medium	3.1 to 3.9
Medium	4.0 to 4.9
Medium to High	5.0 to 5.9
High	6.0 to 7.0
High to very High	7.1 to 7.9
Very High	8.0 to 9.0

Appendix B
Immigrant Inclusion Scores for Cities with a Population Above 100k

City	Population Size	Inclusion Score
Cape Coral	183,942	2.0
Clearwater	115,159	2.0
Coral Springs	132,568	3.3
Davie	104,399	3.7
Fort Lauderdale	180,124	3.7
Gainesville	132,127	2.3
Hialeah	234,539	7.3
Hollywood	152,511	5.0
Jacksonville	890,467	1.3
Lakeland	107,922	0.7
Miami	454,279	7.0
Miami Gardens	111,363	3.0
Miramar	139,468	3.7
Orlando	280,832	3.0
Palm Bay	111,997	2.0
Pembroke Pines	170,072	5.3
Pompano Beach	110,062	2.3
Port St Lucie	189,396	2.3
St Petersburg	261,338	1.7
Tallahassee	191,279	0.7
Tampa	387,916	3.7
West Palm Beach	109,767	3.7

Appendix C Construction of Scales

Table 1. Construction of Foreign Born Inclusion Scale

(Column A)	(Column B)		(Column C)
Total σ from the median	Value 1	Value 2	Assigned Inclusion Score
Between -3 to 0	<9.6		0
0.01 to .3	9.67	14.6	1
.31 to .60	14.7	19.6	2
.61 to .90	19.7	24.6	3
.91 to 1.2	24.7	29.6	4
1.3 to 1.5	29.7	34.6	5
1.6 to 1.8	34.7	39.6	6
1.9 to 2.1	39.7	44.6	7
2.2 to 2.4	44.7	49.6	8
Above 2.5	>49.7		9

Table 2. Construction of Hispanic Inclusion Scale

(Column A)	(Column B)		(Column C)
Total σ from the median	Value 1	Value 2	Assigned Inclusion Score
Between -3 to 0	<10%		0
0.01 to .3	10%	16.3	1
.31 to .60	16.4	22.6	2
.61 to .90	22.7	28.9	3
.91 to 1.2	29	35.2	4
1.3 to 1.5	35.3	41.5	5
1.6 to 1.8	41.6	47.8	6
1.9 to 2.1	47.9	54.1	7
2.2 to 2.4	54.2	60.4	8
Above 2.5	> 60.5		9

Appendix D
Local Government Median Inclusion Scores

Stratum	City Size	Estimated Median Inclusion Score	Standard Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	Less than 1,499	0.00	0.07	0.00	0.15
2	1,500 to 5,999	0.00	0.09	0.00	0.19
3	6k to 49,999	1.00	0.21	0.58	1.42
4	50k to 99,999	2.00	0.28	1.34	2.66
5	Above 100k	3.50 ¹²			

¹² This score is not an estimate. It is upon the population of incorporated cities and therefore confidence intervals are not indicated.

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