

Perspectives of Foreign-Born Undergraduates on Campus Community Life

Bethany Willis Hepp, Ph.D.
Towson University

Neda Moinolmolki, Ph.D.
College of Coastal Georgia

ABSTRACT. The numbers of foreign-born undergraduates in the United States have increased in the 21st century, yet literature exploring their perceptions of and experiences with campus communities and sense of school belonging is limited. This cross-sectional study includes self-report data from 153 foreign-born undergraduates. Data were collected during the first year of the Donald J. Trump Presidential administration, a sensitive socio-historical time period for this population. Correlations between students' sense of school belonging were calculated using variables related to discrimination and rejection, concerns about deportation, access, importance of campus space, social capital, support, and civic engagement. Analysis of variance were calculated to ascertain group differences based on immigrant status. Results indicate that macro-level sociopolitical contexts impact this population negatively, but colleges and universities may support foreign-born undergraduates by creating and maintaining safe campus spaces for peer-to-peer and peer-to-faculty interactions. Civic engagement and preventive education could be critical for promoting success. Family Science and Family Life Education programming may be particularly useful; this is discussed as implications for practice.

Keywords: foreign-born, Trump administration, undergraduates

Direct correspondence to Bethany Willis Hepp at bwillishepp@towson.edu

Perspectives of Foreign-Born Undergraduates on Campus and Community Life

Migration and immigration are defining hallmarks of globalization. Access to education, particularly higher education, is a key push factor for many individuals and families. At the turn of the 21st century in the United States (US), 30% of college students were of minority status, 20% were born outside the US or had at least one foreign-born parent, and 11% spoke a language other than English during childhood (Choy, 2002). Such trends are rising, resulting in increasingly diverse contemporary college campuses.

According to the US Department of Education's National Center for Education Statistics (NCES; 2017), enrollment in degree-granting institutions for higher education has increased to approximately twenty million students. An additional 412,000 students attended non-degree-granting post-secondary institutions as of 2015 (NCES, 2017). Enrollment for individuals identifying as Caucasian and Black remained relatively stable between 2005 and 2015. Numbers increased, however, from 11.6% to 17% for Hispanic students, and from 6.5% to 7% for students identifying as Asian or Pacific Islander (NCES, 2017). Neither race nor ethnicity was reported for non-US residents or citizens (e.g. international students), who made up approximately 5% of total college enrollment in 2015 (NCES, 2017).

The foreign-born population of higher education is also increasing. Trevelyan and colleagues (2016) define foreign-born using the US Census Bureau's definition, which refers to anyone who is not a US citizen at birth. The definition includes naturalized citizens, legal permanent residents, temporary migrants (e.g. international students), humanitarian migrants (e.g. refugees and asylum-seekers), and individuals who are undocumented (Trevelyan et al., 2016). According to Arbeit, Staklis, and Horn (2016), the immigrant population of the US has more than tripled to 40 million since 1970. Presently, approximately 10% of undergraduates in the US are foreign-born, a number that has remained relatively consistent since the start of the 21st century; moreover, nearly 66% of foreign-born undergraduates arrived in the US as children (Arbeit, Staklis, & Horn, 2016). Arbeit and colleagues (2016) further explain that about one-half of Asian undergraduates are immigrants, compared with 17% of Hispanic undergraduates. The Institute of International Education (IIE, 2018) also reports international student participation in higher education in the US has increased dramatically since the turn of the century. In the 2000-2001 academic year, the total number of international students in the US was 547,955; that number increased to 1,078,822 in the 2016-2017 academic year – a nearly 97% increase over sixteen years (IIE, 2018). In short, the population of students seeking degrees in higher education in the United States is growing increasingly diverse. Variations in race, ethnicity, linguistics, and country and culture of origin are just some of the factors that intersect and contribute to the dynamism of higher education in the US.

Family scholars are well positioned to investigate perspectives of foreign-born college students in the context of individual, family, and campus community experiences. Various family theories have been used to better describe, explain, and predict outcomes for college students; however, most rely heavily on the traditional Human Ecological Theory that Uri Bronfenbrenner developed (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). This theory of human development focuses

on interactions and interdependence of individuals and the various environments they function within over time (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Bubolz & Sontag, 1993). The theory postulates five systematic contexts that influence individuals' development: microsystems, mesosystems, exosystems, macrosystems, and the chronosystems. Contexts in which individuals have direct, face-to-face interactions with others are recognized as microsystems; linkages or overlaps between two or more microsystems are referred to as mesosystems; administrative policies and institutional rules (for example, those that impact individuals indirectly and operate in environments where individuals do not have immediate access) are referred to as exosystems; society at large, including broader social conditions and political ideologies that individuals develop within, operate as macrosystems; and last, environmental events and transitions that occur throughout an individual's life (including socio-historical events) are recognized as chronosystems (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Bubolz & Sontag, 1993). Over time, this theory has begun to better incorporate individuals' roles in their own development, focusing heavily on micro- and mesosystem influences. Rosa and Tudge (2013) underscore human development as a process involving interactions between a person and those individuals with whom one has regular face-to-face interactions in immediate settings over time.

Extant literature related to foreign-born college students relies heavily on Bronfenbrenner's early theorizing (for examples, see Byrd & McKinney, 2012; Fish & Syed, 2018; Jones, 2018; Renn & Arnold, 2003). Data collected with adolescents and young adults born outside the US place great emphasis on various internal processes and external contexts that influence adjustment over time. Researchers have found that normative transitions from high school to college and from adolescence to emerging adulthood, which native-born students face (e.g. forming positive relationships with family and peers, exhibiting pro-social behaviors), are confounded by additional contextual factors related to immigrant status (Motti-Stefanidi & Masten, 2017). Foreign-born individuals also navigate acculturative stress associated with learning new languages and adapting to new cultural environments while maintaining their cultures of origin (Marks, Godoy, & Garcia Coll, 2013). Variations in the centrality and interdependence of family, familial obligations, and behavioral demands (Matos, 2015; Tseng, 2004); employment, socio-economic status, and financial stress (Ong, Phinney, & Dennis, 2006); and discrimination across social contexts (Bakhtiari, Benner, & Plunkett, 2018) also contribute to variations in successful transitions for this population. Federal policies at macro- and chronosystem levels, like the Immigration Act of 1990 and similar legislation passed in the last 25 years, have facilitated creation of temporary visa programs attracting international students to US colleges, especially for science, technology, engineering, and math fields (Zong & Batalova, 2018).

The current political climate complicates these challenges. Before taking office, then President-Elect Donald J. Trump described ten policy priorities related to immigration, including construction of a wall along the US border with Mexico; blocking funds for sanctuary cities; suspending visas to individuals from countries where 'adequate screening' could not occur; ending employment and benefits for individuals residing in the US without legal permission; and, cancelling executive orders he deemed unconstitutional ("Immigration," 2016). One executive order of particular importance to this study is the Deferred Action for Childhood

Arrivals (DACA) program. Initiated under the Barack H. Obama Presidential administration (2009-2017), DACA protects eligible youth and young adults who arrived in the US as children without legal documentation from being deported (Mayorkas, 2012).

The Trump administration began taking action on many of its immigration policy priorities in the early months of 2017. Executive orders were issued, limiting and/or banning refugee admission to the US and temporarily suspending immigration from six largely Muslim-majority countries (“Executive Order,” 2017). By May 2017, the White House reported immigration-related arrests had increased nearly 38% over the previous year (Duara, 2017). After many months of public discourse and political debate, the Trump administration formally announced the end of DACA on Tuesday, September 5, 2017 (Nakamura, 2017). Several court cases challenging the legality of those actions followed; presently, the US Citizenship and Immigration Services (USCIS) is processing renewal applications but is not accepting requests from those not granted coverage previously age (2018).

These recent shifts in political discourse and executive orders specifically targeting immigration have left foreign-born populations feeling more vulnerable. In this contemporary context, universities across the country are tasked with more intentionally considering foreign-born students and their unique stresses and strengths (Deruy, 2017). Many universities struggle, however, to support the social adjustment and academic success of foreign-born students, especially those with ethnic minority backgrounds and undocumented immigrant statuses (Teranishi, Suárez-Orozco, & Suárez-Orozco, 2011), which place them at additional risk above and beyond what their native-born peers face. Research indicates they tend to have lower academic success for various reasons including marginalization, discrimination, stigmatization, and social exclusion, each of which is on the rise with deleterious impacts on individual psychological well-being and academic success (Suárez-Orozco et al., 2015; Teranishi et al., 2011). Despite barriers, research also indicates that academic institutions play significant roles in promoting success and well-being for immigrant populations (Crisp, Taggart & Nora, 2015; Matos, 2015). Foreign-born college students tend to draw on institutional assets like safe spaces, peer networks, student resource centers, and student organizations to succeed in higher education (Suárez-Orozco et al., 2015).

The purpose of this project was to capture experiences of foreign-born college students during a particular socio-historical time period spanning the first year of Trump’s presidency. The extant literature and socio-historical context resulted in the following hypotheses related to foreign-born undergraduates’ sense of school belonging. First, we hypothesized that students’ sense of school belonging would be negatively associated with experiences of discrimination and rejection on campus and in their communities. We further hypothesized that sense of school belonging would be negatively associated with deportation concerns. Additionally, we hypothesized that undergraduates’ sense of school belonging would be positively associated with access to spaces specifically designed for foreign-born students on campus; perceptions of the importance of support received from those spaces; access to social capital and social support; and civic engagement. Given increased negative political discourse and political attention specific to movement across the southern border of the US, it was also hypothesized that students’

perceptions and experiences would vary by race, with Hispanic and Latinx students experiencing worse outcomes than foreign-born peers of other races and/or ethnicities. The final hypothesis was that students' perceptions and experiences would vary by immigration status, with students identifying as undocumented or having spent more time in the US undocumented experiencing worse outcomes than their peers.

Methods

Research Design and Procedures

The present study represents an observational, cross-sectional survey design. Once the project was approved by an Institutional Review Board for the protection of human subjects in research, the survey was uploaded electronically to Qualtrics for anonymous data collection online. Regional and national student organizations that support foreign-born undergraduate college students were solicited for participation, resulting in representation from thirty-seven states and the District of Columbia. The highest response rates were from students in California ($n = 29$, 19%), Texas, ($n = 14$, 9.2%), Florida ($n = 12$, 7.8%), New York ($n = 10$, 6.5%), and North Carolina ($n = 8$, 5.2%). Data were collected between May 2017 and January 2018. The sociohistorical time during which data collection took place is important. The context for data collection includes the inauguration of Donald Trump in January 2017, in the midst of public discourse on immigration and the foreign-born populations of the US, along with multiple immigration-specific executive orders, which had been issued, debated, and protested through the summer and into the winter months.

Survey responses were collected in such a way that researchers were unable to connect participant responses to personal identifying information. There were no foreseen risks or immediate benefits for participants other than the knowledge that they were helping collect information that may help scholars better understand and support students like themselves. There were also no costs or compensations associated with participation, which was voluntary. Students were able to skip questions and withdraw participation at any time. They were also given the opportunity to express any concerns that they had within the survey via an open-ended question: "Is there anything that you would like to share with the researchers about this project or the questions you just answered?" Participants were also given the researchers' contact information. No one reported unforeseen adverse experiences using either option.

Participants

Participants include 153 current undergraduate college students born in countries outside the US. The sample consists of 43.8% men ($n = 67$) and 56.2% women ($n = 86$), with ages ranging from 18-61 years ($M = 26.07$, $SD = 6.31$). The sample is culturally diverse, representing sixty-four countries of origin: 33.3% self-identified as Asian or Pacific Islander ($n = 51$); 25.5% as Caucasian, non-Hispanic ($n = 39$); 19% as Hispanic or Latinx ($n = 29$); 13.7% as African-American or Black ($n = 21$); 7.8% self-identified with two or more races ($n = 12$); and <1%

selected Other, writing in Middle Eastern ($n = 1$). The five countries of origin with the highest frequencies were Mexico ($n = 18$, 11.8%), China ($n = 16$, 10.5%), Germany ($n = 7$, 4.6%), Canada ($n = 7$, 4.6%), and the Philippines ($n = 7$, 4.6%). The sample has lived in the US an average of 12.69 years ($SD = 8.09$).

Participants were also asked to identify their immigrant status: 46.4% self-identified as permanent/conditional residents ($n = 71$), 18.3% as temporary immigrants ($n = 28$), and 5.9% as undocumented ($n = 9$). Interestingly, 29.4% selected “Other” ($n = 45$) but did not write in a category not already identified as a response option on the survey. It may be important to note that participants were asked how much time (if any) they spent as undocumented in the US. Of the 29.4% that selected “Other,” only five individuals reported having ever been undocumented during their time in the US. An additional five individuals also indicated they were international students. Those selecting “Other” as their immigration status were 64% female; having been living in the US about 16 years ($M = 16.33$, $SD = 7.02$), and are about 26 years old ($M = 26.27$, $SD = 6.65$). Their races broke down as follows: 33.3% Asian or Pacific Islander ($n = 15$), 26.7% Caucasian, non-Hispanic ($n = 12$), 20% Hispanic or Latinx ($n = 9$), 8.9% as African-American or Black ($n = 4$), 8.9% as two or more races ($n = 4$) and 2.2% wrote in Middle Eastern ($n = 1$). Finally, 35.9% of respondents ($n = 55$) reported status as a current international student.

Participants also varied in types of institution of higher education they attended: 62.1% ($n = 95$) attended a four year public university; 17.6% ($n = 27$) attended a four-year private institution; 14.4% ($n = 22$) attended a two-year community college; 3.3% ($n = 5$) indicated some other institution, indicating an online program most often; and, 1.3% attended two-year private college programs (two individuals, 1.3% of the sample, did not report). Participants took an average of 13 credits in their most recent semester ($SD = 4.43$) and had grade point averages that ranged from 1.75-5.40 ($M = 3.43$, $SD = .49$). There were no statistically significant differences in grade point averages based on sex, race, or immigration status.

Measures

The anonymous online survey included 244 individual items. Fifteen items asked demographic questions related to age, sex, college enrollment, number of credit hours taken in the most recent semester of enrollment, and grade point average. The survey included fourteen scales and indices, but not all are presented in this paper because they related to other research questions. This effort focuses on the following subset of the full survey: sense of school belonging, experiences with campus discrimination, access to immigrant spaces on campus, the importance of support received from spaces for immigrants on campus, experiences with rejection, fears of deportation, presence of social capital, social support, and civic engagement.

Sense of school belonging. Students’ sense of school belonging was measured using Goodenow’s (1993) Psychological Sense of School Membership (PSSM), originally developed to measure an adolescent’s perception of psychological belonging in a school environment. This 18-item scale includes questions like, “I feel like part of my school,” “Most faculty at my school are interested in me,” “People at my school are friendly to me,” and “It is hard for people like me

to be accepted at my school.” A Likert-style scale response ranging from 1 (not at all true) to 5 (completely true) are offered as answer options. The total score for this variable was calculated; the lowest possible score was 17 and the highest was 85. Sense of school belonging is abbreviated in the Results section as SSB.

Experiences with discrimination. Seven items adapted from the work of Suarez-Orozco and colleagues (2015) were used for measuring students’ experiences with discrimination. Students were asked, “How often in the past month were you treated unfairly based on your immigration status by,” and then were provided a list of different campus community members, including instructors, peers, administrators, and security. A Likert-type scale response ranging from 0 (never) to 4 (very often) was provided for answer options. The total score for this variable was calculated, with the lowest possible score being 0 and the highest 28. Experiences with campus discrimination is abbreviated in the Results section as CD.

Access and importance of spaces specifically designated for immigrant populations. Twelve items adapted from the work of Suarez-Orozco and colleagues (2015) were used for measuring students’ access to spaces specifically designated for immigrant populations, along with importance of supports received from those spaces. The first six questions, measuring access, asked if students have access to student clubs, student affairs offices, student centers, offices, other spaces, and residential dorm spaces specifically for immigrants. They offered Likert-type scale responses ranging from 0 (never) to 4 (very often). Access to spaces specifically designated for immigrant populations is abbreviated in the Results section as AIS.

Students also rated importance of supports received in those spaces using a different Likert-type scale response ranging from 0 (not at all important) to 4 (extremely important). The total score for this variable was calculated; the lowest possible score was 0 and the highest was 48. The importance of supports received in spaces specifically designated for immigrant populations is abbreviated in the Results section as IIS.

Rejection and immigration status. Three items were used for measuring experiences with rejection based on immigration status. Students were asked to rate on a Likert-type scale of 1 (not at all true) to 5 (completely true) whether they feel, “...that I am not welcomed or wanted in this country because of my immigration status,” “...that I am not welcomed or wanted in my current college or university,” and “...that I am not welcomed or wanted in my community because of my immigration status.” The total score for this variable was calculated; the lowest possible score was 3 and the highest was 15. Rejection and immigration status is abbreviated in the Results section as RIS.

Deportation concerns. Questions measuring fears and concerns about deportation were adapted from the work of Suarez-Orozco and colleagues (2015). These included ten items asking how often statements like the following have been true for respondents: “I have avoided sharing my legal status to teachers due to fear or concerns of being deported,” “My concerns and anxieties about deportation have directly impacted my school performance,” and “I am concerned with being detained due to my immigration status.” Responses were measured using a

Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (never true) to 5 (very often). Given the current socio-political climate and our hypothesis of its impact on foreign-born populations, we added “My concerns and anxieties about deportation have increased since the election of Donald Trump as president” using the same response options. A total score was calculated, with the lowest score being 11 and the highest score 55. Higher total scores indicate greater frequency of concern and anxiety about deportation. Deportation concerns is abbreviated in the Results section as DC.

Social capital. Social capital was measured using three items that asked, “How supportive are family members in helping you deal with college-related problems,” “How supportive are American peers in helping you deal with college-related problems,” and “How supportive are peers from your own background in helping you deal with college related problems.” A Likert-type scale was used for response options ranging from 1 (not at all supportive) to 5 (extremely supportive). A total score was calculated with the lowest score being 3 and the highest 15. Higher scores indicate greater support from family and peers. Social capital is reflected in the Results section as SC.

Social support. The Duke Social Support Index (Wardian, Robbins, Wolfersteig, Johnson, & Dustman, 2013) was designed as a brief measure of social support for use with diverse adult populations. This 10-item scale includes questions like, “Do you know what is going on with your family and friends,” “Does it seem that your family and friends understand you,” and “About how often did you go to meetings of clubs, religious organizations, or other groups that you belong to in the past week?” A three-option Likert-type scale response was provided ranging from 1 (hardly ever) to 3 (most of the time). The total score was calculated, with the lowest being 10 and the highest 30, with higher scores indicating greater perception of social support. It is abbreviated in the Results section as SS.

Civic engagement. The study also included an 8-item measure of civic engagement adapted from the work of Suarez-Orozco and colleagues (2015). Frequency of participation in each activity was measured on a six-point Likert-style scale ranging from 0 (never) to 5 (daily). Activities included on the scale are (a) helping people in the community with translation, (b) mentoring youth, (c) engaging in community organizing volunteering, and (d) protesting, among others. The total score was calculated with the lowest score being 0 and the highest 40. Higher scores indicate greater civic engagement. It is abbreviated in the Results section as CE.

Results

The purpose of the project was to identify associations between sense of school belonging with other individual and group experiences among foreign-born college students. A secondary goal was to assess distinctions between race and immigrant status on those perceptions and experiences. Given the negative political discourse and specific attention to movement across the US southern border during the data collection period, it was hypothesized that responses would vary by race with Hispanic and Latinx students experiencing worse outcomes than their foreign-born peers. That hypothesis was not upheld because there were no significant differences in associations among the target variables based on race. There were, however, significant differences based on immigration status of respondents for several key variables described next. This supported the final hypothesis, which was that students' perceptions and experiences would vary by immigration status. Table 1 presents descriptive statistics for target variables. Table 2 presents the correlations matrix for the target variables. While not hypothesized, we note there were no significant differences in associations among target variables based on sex of respondents.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for Target Variables

| | N | M | SD |
|------|-----|-------|------|
| SSB | 129 | 58.59 | 9.02 |
| CD | 134 | 4.16 | 5.88 |
| AIS | 132 | 11.38 | 7.83 |
| ISIS | 132 | 8.71 | 6.21 |
| RIS | 132 | 6.10 | 3.30 |
| DC | 128 | 18.41 | 9.78 |
| SC | 132 | 11.07 | 2.98 |
| SS | 130 | 22.21 | 4.11 |
| CE | 132 | 14.40 | 6.60 |

Table 2

Correlations for Target Variables

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
|---------|--------|--------|--------|--------|---------|---------|--------|--------|---|
| 1. SSB | — | | | | | | | | |
| 2. CD | -.03 | — | | | | | | | |
| 3. AIS | .29*** | .13 | — | | | | | | |
| 4. ISIS | .36*** | .20* | .70*** | — | | | | | |
| 5. RIS | -.13 | .56*** | -.07 | .06 | — | | | | |
| 6. DC | .02 | .59*** | .07 | .20* | .71*** | — | | | |
| 7. SC | .35*** | -.22** | .22* | .26** | -.29*** | -.28*** | — | | |
| 8. SS | .37*** | -.23** | .26** | .17* | -.30*** | -.15 | .52*** | — | |
| 9. CE | .37*** | .24** | .23** | .37*** | .239** | .37*** | .30*** | .32*** | — |

*** Correlation is significant at the .001 level

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level

ANOVAs for Target Variables

Multiple analysis of variances (ANOVAs) based on immigration status were conducted. One-way between subjects ANOVAs were run to ascertain group differences related to target variables. ANOVAs indicating significant differences based on immigration status of respondents are presented below, followed by significant ANOVAs results pertaining to individual items that relate to some of the targeted scales.

Importance of campus supports

A one-way between subjects ANOVA was conducted to compare effect of immigrant status on importance of campus supports. There was a significant effect of immigrant status on importance of campus supports at $p < .05$ [$F(3, 128) = 4.25, p = .01$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Hochberg test indicated the mean score for the “Other” status subset ($M = 6.13, SD = 5.14$) was significantly different from the permanent status subset ($M = 9.56, SD = 6.38$) and the undocumented subset ($M = 13.5, SD = 8.92$).

Deportation concerns

A one-way between subjects ANOVA was conducted to compare effect of immigrant status on deportation concerns. There was significant effect of immigrant status on (DV) deportation concerns at $p < .01$ [$F(3, 124) = 5.62, p = .00$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Hochberg test indicated the mean score for the undocumented status subset ($M = 31, SD = 10.94$) was significantly different from the permanent status subset ($M = 18.38, SD = 9.08$) and the “Other” status subset ($M = 15.11, SD = 8.82$).

ANOVAs for Additional Individual Items of Interest

In addition to the targeted variables, we ran ANOVAs for other individual items connected to our specific hypotheses regarding the impact of the current political climate on foreign-born students' experiences. Those results follow.

Concerns and anxieties about deportation since Donald Trump's election

A one-way between subjects ANOVA was conducted to compare effect of immigrant status on concerns and anxieties about deportation since Donald Trump's election. There was a significant effect of immigrant status on concerns and anxieties about deportation since Trump's election at $p < .01$ [$F(3, 128) = 6.31, p = .00$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Hochberg test indicated the mean score for the undocumented status subset ($M = 4.17, SD = 1.60$) was significantly different from the permanent status subset ($M = 2.11, SD = 1.26$) as well as the "Other" status subset ($M = 1.82, SD = 1.34$). There was no significant difference for students in the temporary visa status subset ($M = 2.64, SD = 1.50$).

Avoidance of sharing legal status with teachers

A one-way between subjects ANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of immigrant status on avoidance of sharing legal status with teachers. There was a significant effect of immigrant status on avoidance of sharing legal status with teachers at $p < .05$ [$F(3, 128) = 3.54, p = .02$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Hochberg test indicated the mean score for the undocumented status subset ($M = 2.67, SD = 1.37$) was significantly different from the "Other" status subset ($M = 1.31, SD = .86$).

One Way ANOVA on feeling unwelcomed in this country

A one-way between subjects ANOVA was conducted to compare the effect of immigrant status on feeling unwelcome in this country. There was a significant effect of immigrant status on feeling unwelcome in this country at $p < .01$ [$F(3, 91) = 8.44, p = .00$]. Post hoc comparisons using the Hochberg test indicated the mean score for the undocumented status subset ($M = 4.6, SD = .52$) was significantly different from the permanent status subset ($M = 2.13, SD = 1.29$), temporary visa holders ($M = 2.48, SD = 1.45$), and the "Other" status subset ($M = 2.26, SD = 1.43$).

Descriptive Statistics for Individual Items

Finally, descriptive statistics specific to individual items were calculated. Table 3 presents descriptive statistics for items related to social capital.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for Social Capital (SC) Items

| | N | M | SD |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|------|------|
| How supportive are family members in helping you deal with college-related problems? | 132 | 3.77 | 1.27 |
| How supportive are American peers in helping you deal with college-related problems? | 134 | 3.57 | 1.20 |
| How supportive are peers from your own background in helping you deal with college-related problems? | 132 | 3.73 | 1.18 |

Table 4 presents descriptive statistics for items related to access to campus space specifically for foreign-born students.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for Access to Immigrant-Specific Campus Space (AIS)

| | | | |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|------|------|
| Do you have access to student club spaces specifically designated for immigrant populations? | 132 | 2.00 | 1.44 |
| Do you have access to student affairs offices specifically designated for immigrant populations? | 132 | 1.91 | 1.49 |
| Do you have access to student centers specifically designated for immigrant populations? | 132 | 2.21 | 1.42 |
| Do you have access to any campus offices specifically designated for immigrant populations? | 132 | 1.86 | 1.49 |
| Do you have access to residential dorm spaces specifically designated for immigrant populations? | 132 | 1.64 | 1.55 |

Table 5 presents descriptive statistics related to the importance of the support received from immigrant-specific campus spaces.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics for Importance of Support Received from Immigrant-Specific Campus Spaces (ISIS)

| | N | M | SD |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|------|------|
| How important have been the supports received from student clubs specifically designated for immigrant populations? | 132 | 1.39 | 1.23 |
| How important have been the supports received from student affairs offices specifically designated for immigrant populations? | 132 | 1.53 | 1.22 |
| How important have been the supports received from student centers specifically designated for immigrant populations? | 132 | 1.64 | 1.17 |
| How important have been the supports received from any campus offices specifically designated for immigrant populations? | 132 | 1.43 | 1.20 |
| How important have been the supports received from residential dorm spaces specifically designated for immigrant populations? | 132 | 1.39 | 1.25 |

Table 6 presents descriptive statistics related to the frequency of experiences with discrimination on campus and in students' communities (CD).

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics for Experiences with Discrimination (CD)

| How often in the past month were you treated unfairly based on your legal status by... | N | M | SD |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|-----|------|
| Instructors? | 134 | .57 | .95 |
| Counselors? | 134 | .54 | .95 |
| Other students? | 132 | .83 | 1.08 |
| Financial aid officials? | 132 | .67 | 1.08 |
| Campus administrators? | 132 | .54 | .93 |
| Security guards/campus police? | 132 | .52 | .90 |
| Security guards/police off campus? | 132 | .49 | .92 |

Finally, Table 7 presents descriptive statistics related to levels of civic engagement (CE).

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics for Activities Related to Civic Engagement (CE)

| Please indicate the frequency of participation in each of the following activities... | N | M | SD |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|------|------|
| Engaged in a social because you care about it. | 132 | 2.08 | 1.06 |
| Helped people in your community with translation. | 132 | 1.61 | 1.07 |
| Mentored young people. | 132 | 1.57 | 1.18 |
| Provided advice or advocacy for people in your community. | 132 | 2.22 | 1.26 |
| Engaged in community organizing. | 132 | 1.86 | 1.14 |
| Volunteered in a place of worship, school, or community center. | 132 | 1.72 | 1.07 |
| Engaged in a protest or demonstration. | 132 | 1.68 | .97 |
| Taken care of young people or elderly in your community. | 132 | 1.67 | 1.15 |

Discussion

The first hypothesis, that undergraduate students' sense of school belonging would be negatively associated with experiences of discrimination and rejection in their campus communities, as well as concerns about deportation, was rejected. However, relationships between sense of school belonging and experiences of discrimination, rejection, and deportation concerns on campus may be more complex than initially hypothesized. Campus communities are diverse and are often composed of disparate subgroups. Students may experience discrimination and rejection from certain subsections of the campus community while simultaneously finding safe spaces within their campus communities where they feel welcome. This is further supported by confirmation of our second hypothesis, which predicted that undergraduates' sense of school belonging would be positively associated with (a) access to spaces specifically designed for foreign-born students on campus, (b) perceptions of the importance of support received from those spaces, (c) access to social capital and social support, and (d) civic engagement.

We further hypothesized that students' perceptions and experiences would vary by race, with Hispanic and Latinx students experiencing worse outcomes than their foreign-born peers did. To our surprise, there were no significant group differences on our key target outcome variables based on race. The hypothesis that students' perceptions and experiences on campus related to sense of school belonging and those targeted outcome variables would vary by immigration status was upheld. One-way ANOVAs indicate that students identifying as permanent or conditional residents and those identifying as undocumented perceive importance of campus supports received in spaces specifically designed for foreign-born populations more highly than do those selecting the "Other" immigrant status category. One-way ANOVAs also indicate that students with undocumented status have significantly higher concerns about deportation than do permanent or conditional residents, and students who selected the "Other" immigrant status category.

To better understand negative experiences, one-way ANOVAs were also run to see if there were group differences about concerns and anxieties regarding deportation since the start of the Trump presidency. All participants reported some level of increase in concerns and anxieties about deportation, albeit rarely, but students holding temporary visas were likely to experience those concerns rarely-to-sometimes, and students who were undocumented experienced them often. Undocumented students were also less likely than were other students to share information about their legal statuses with teachers. Moreover, while all participants reported experience with some level of rejection due to their immigrant status, undocumented students and those with temporary visas had the highest scores.

Descriptive statistics related to social capital indicate that family and peers from one's own background are most helpful in dealing with college-related problems. Additionally, access to student centers, student clubs, and student affairs offices specifically designated for immigrant populations were highest rated. The importance of support received from immigrant-specific spaces was rated highest for student centers, student affairs offices, and student club and dorm spaces. Finally, experiences with discrimination on campus were relatively low, but those who experience discrimination on campus were most likely to perceive it from peers, followed by financial aid officials and instructors.

Finally and unexpectedly, the civic engagement variable was positively and strongly correlated with all targeted outcome variables. Descriptive statistics for this variable indicate that foreign-born students are most likely to provide advice or advocate for people in their community, engage in social causes because they care about them, and engage in community organizing. Interestingly, the greater their experiences of rejection and deportation concerns, the more students are likely to engage in civic activities. Additionally, for students with higher senses of school belonging, higher perceptions of access to immigrant spaces, higher perceptions of the importance of support received from those spaces, and social capital and social support, the higher their involvement in civic activities were.

Limitations

This study contributes to the growing body of literature related to experiences of foreign-born college students by documenting perceptions of and experiences with campus communities. Moreover, data were collected during a particularly sensitive socio-historical time, where public and political discourse and immigration reform heightened sensitivities for foreign-born students (Deruy, 2017). Despite these contributions, some limitations should be acknowledged. First, the project's cross-sectional nature does not afford the opportunity to make conclusions about the direction of influence of the target variables. Future research efforts in this area would benefit from a longitudinal design with a larger sample size that would allow for further exploration of directionality among target variables, along with potential for temporal shifts as political discourse ebbs and flows and election cycles begin anew.

Second, while there were efforts to intentionally target students who are undocumented, who may have felt particularly vulnerable during the period where DACA was debated, ended,

and then challenged again in court, our sample yielded only nine individuals. Tangentially, the decision to ask participants about their immigrant visa status using the status options identified by the US Census Bureau (2018) was intentional; it was presumed that participants would be familiar with those categories and know which response options they fit. That forty-five participants (nearly 30% of the sample) selected the “Other” immigrant visa status option and did not write in their status, was unexpected. Recall that the “Other” group was racially diverse, 64% female, had been living in the US about 16 years, and was about 26 years old. Interestingly, these demographics align with other data reported by US Citizenship and Immigration Services. USCIS (2017) reports nearly 700,000 active DACA recipients. Moreover, those presently protected under DACA must have arrived in the US before turning sixteen and must have lived in the US continuously since June 2007 (Mayorkas, 2012; USCIS, 2018). They estimate 52% of DACA recipients are female and average about 24 years old (USCIS, 2017). While it cannot be asserted with confidence, one could question whether the level of vulnerability participants perceived during this socio-historical time period made them overly cautious, even while answering an anonymous survey. That the sub-sample of respondents who selected “Other” did not write in a different visa category that fits USCIS descriptions of DACA recipients warrants consideration.

Finally, this study did not compare foreign-born undergraduate perceptions and experiences with those of native-born peers. Future studies may benefit from comparing students who are foreign-born with native-born peers, along with second and third generation immigrants, to ascertain additional group differences related to target variables over time.

Implications for Practice

Several implications emerge from this research. First, foreign-born students on college campuses are diverse and experience campus communities differently. However, all students who participated in this research experienced some heightened anxiety about deportation in the current political climate, even students who may not be at risk for deportation – for example, those with temporary visas like those that international students hold. The macro-level political context of life in the United States is impacting foreign-born students in ways that faculty and administration may not anticipate.

This research supports existing evidence that sense of school belonging is associated with positive outcomes for college students (Mena, Padilla, & Maldonado, 1987; Garcia, 2010). Campus administrators may be able to promote sense of school belonging for this vulnerable population by ensuring access to spaces on campus specific to foreign-born populations, such as opening and/or further supporting student centers, student clubs, and student affairs offices intended for this population. It may also be important to educate financial aid office administrators and other staff, particularly student-workers, about their potential to instill perceptions of discrimination even if unintended. Promoting student-to-student contact, particularly among groups who have similar immigrant statuses, may further promote important social capital for this group. Since family is the most important source of college-related support found in this study, it may also be important for campuses to facilitate communication and

campus activities that include family-friendly experiences, strengthening mesosystem linkages between campus and family environments.

Finally, civic engagement could be a critical missing link for promoting success for foreign-born undergraduates. Many campus missions include campus-community and community civic engagement in their missions. More specifically, many family science departments already embed civic engagement in their coursework, particularly those that meet criteria for Certification in Family Life Education. Family science departments may be well-positioned to provide safe spaces for foreign-born students to engage with each other and with causes important to them personally, in instances where curriculum already includes community service and other internship and/or advocacy field experiences. By focusing on preventive education within a human service model, family science departments could also be mobilized to reduce instances of peer-to-peer discrimination, support student clubs promoting student connections to each other and to the community, and educate future practitioners, advocates, researchers, and policy-makers about campus needs of foreign-born students.

Shifting demographics in the US require renewed attention to needs of segments of the population that will quickly become the majority, particularly young people from varied racial and ethnic backgrounds, those with new immigrant experiences, and those who are foreign-born studying in US colleges and universities of all types. Needs of foreign-born undergraduates must not be overlooked, given the expanding enrollment and increasing diversity of higher education. Campus administrators are well positioned to support their foreign-born student population. Family Science departments may already have the curriculum in place to help meet individual, family, campus, and community needs of this population, particularly in the current socio-historical context.

Bethany Willis Hepp is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Family Studies and Community Development at Towson University, 8000 York Rd, Towson, MD 21252, USA

Neda Moinolmolki is an Assistant Professor of Psychology in the Department of Social Sciences at the College of Coastal Georgia, 1 College Dr, Brunswick, GA 31520, USA

References

- Arbeit, C., Staklis, S., & Horn, L. (2016). *New American undergraduates: Enrollment trends and age at arrival of immigrant and second-generation students* (Report No. NCES 2017-414). Retrieved from <https://nces.ed.gov/pubs2017/2017414.pdf>
- Bakhtiari, F., Benner, A. D., & Plunkett, S. W. (2018). Life quality of university students from immigrant families in the United States. *Family and Consumer Sciences Research Journal, 46*, 331-346. doi: 10.1111/fcsr.12260
- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1979). *The ecology of human development: Experiments by nature and design*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Bubolz, M., & Sontag, M. (1993). Human ecology theory. In P. G. Boss, W. J. Doherty, R. LaRossa, W. R. Schumm, & S. K. Steinmetz (Eds.), *Sourcebook of family theories and methods: A contextual approach* (pp. 419-448). New York, NY: Plenum Press.
- Choy, S. P. (2002). *Access and persistence: Findings from 10 years of longitudinal research on students*. Washington, DC: American Council on Education Center for Policy Analysis.
- Crisp, G., Taggart, A., & Nora, A. (2015). Undergraduate Latina/o students: A systematic review of research identifying factors contributing to academic success outcomes. *Review of Educational Research, 85*(2), 249-274. doi: 40284742
- Deruy, E. (2017, January 30). How Trump's immigration order is affecting higher education. *The Atlantic*. Retrieved from <https://www.theatlantic.com/education/archive/2017/01/how-trumps-muslim-immigration-order-could-affect-higher-education/514925/>
- Duara, N. (2017, May 17). Arrests on civil immigration charges go up 38% in the first 100 days since Trump's executive order. *Los Angeles Times*. Retrieved from <https://www.latimes.com/nation/la-na-ice-deport-trump-20170517-story.html>
- Executive Order protecting the nation from foreign terrorist entry into the United States. (2017, January 27). Retrieved from <https://www.whitehouse.gov/presidential-actions/executive-order-protecting-nation-foreign-terrorist-entry-united-states/>
- Fish, J., & Syed, M. (2018). Native Americans in higher education: An ecological systems perspective. *Journal of College Student Development, 59*, 387-403. <https://doi.org/10.1353/csd.2018.0038>
- Garcia, V. (2010). First-generation college students: How co-curricular involvement can assist with success. *The Vermont Connection, 31*, 46-52. <http://www.uvm.edu/~vtconn/>

- Goodenow, C. (1993). The psychological sense of school membership among adolescents: Scale development and educational correlates. *Psychology in the Schools, 30*, 79-90. doi:10.1002/1520-6807(199301)30:13.0.CO;2-X
- Immigration. (2016, December 22). Retrieved from www.GreatAgain.gov/immigration/
- Institute of International Education (2018) <https://www.iie.org/Research-and-Insights/Open-Doors/Data/International-Students/Enrollment>
- Matos, J. M. (2015). La Familia: The important ingredient for Latina/o college student engagement and persistence. *Equity and Excellence in Education, 48*, 436-453. doi: 10.1080/10665684.2015.1056761
- Mayorkas, A. (2012). Deferred action for childhood arrivals: Who can be considered? Retrieved from <https://obamawhitehouse.archives.gov/blog/2012/08/15/deferred-action-childhood-arrivals-who-can-be-considered>
- Mena, F. J., Padilla, A. M., & Maldonado, M. (1987). Acculturative stress and specific coping strategies among immigrant and later generation college students. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 9*, 207-225. <https://journals.sagepub.com/home/hjb>
- Nakamura, D. (2017, September 5). Trump administration announces end of immigration protection program for “Dreamers.” *The Washington Post*. Retrieved from https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/post-politics/wp/2017/09/05/trump-administration-announces-end-of-immigration-protection-program-for-dreamers/?utm_term=.565645618be8
- Ong, A. D., Phinney, J. S., & Dennis, J. (2006). Competence under challenge: Exploring the protective influence of parental support and ethnic identity in Latino college students. *Journal of Adolescence, 29*, 961-979. doi: 10.1016/j.adolescence.2006.04.010
- Rosa, E., & Tudge, J. (2013). Urie Bronfenbrenner’s theory of human development: Its evolution from ecology to bioecology. *Journal of Family Theory and Review, 5*, 243-258. doi: 10.1111/jftr.12022
- Suárez-Orozco, C., Katsiaficas, D., Birchall, O., Alcantar, C. M., Hernandez, E., Garcia, Y., ... & Teranishi, R. T. (2015). Undocumented undergraduates on college campuses: Understanding their challenges and assets and what it takes to make an undocufriendly campus. *Harvard Educational Review, 85*, 427-463. doi: 10.17763/0017-8055.85.3.427
- Teranishi, R., Suárez-Orozco, C., & Suárez-Orozco, M. (2011). Immigrants in community colleges. *Future of Children, 21*, 153-169. www.futureofchildren.org

- Trevelyan, E., Gambino, C., Gryn, T., Larsen, L., Acosta, Y. Greico, E., Harris, D., and Walters, N. (2016). *Characteristics of the US population by generational status: 2013* (Report No. P23-214). Retrieved from <https://www.census.gov/content/dam/Census/library/publications/2016/demo/P23-214.pdf>
- Tseng, V. (2004). Family interdependence and academic adjustment in college: Youth from immigrant and US-born families. *Child Development*, 75, 966-983. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/3696604>
- United States Citizenship and Immigration Services (2017). *Approximate active DACA recipients*. Retrieved from https://www.uscis.gov/sites/default/files/USCIS/Resources/Reports%20and%20Studies/Immigration%20Forms%20Data/All%20Form%20Types/DACA/daca_population_data.pdf
- United States Citizenship and Immigration Services (2018). *Consideration of deferred action for childhood arrivals*. Retrieved from <https://www.uscis.gov/humanitarian/consideration-deferred-action-childhood-arrivals-daca>
- Zong J., & Batalova, J. (2016, February 3). College-educated immigrants in the United States. *Migration Policy Institute*. Retrieved from <http://www.migrationpolicy.org/article/college-educated-immigrants-united-states#11>
- Zong, J., & Batalova, J. (2018, May 9). International students in the United States. *Migration Policy Institute*. Retrieved from <https://www.migrationpolicy.org/article/international-students-united-states>